

What the Nikāyas Say and Do not Say about Nibbāna Bhikkhu Brahmāli

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The gift of the Dhamma excels all gifts; the taste of the Dhamma excels all tastes; delight in the Dhamma excels all delights. The eradication of craving overcomes all suffering.

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What the Nikāyas Say and Do not Say about Nibbāna

BHIKKHU BRAHMĀLI



ABSTRACT

The only way of moving towards consensus on the controversial subject of the nature of Nibbāna¹ is by appealing to the sole source of authority common to practically all Buddhists: the Nikāyas/Āgamas. In the present paper I will first give an overview of the usage of the term Nibbāna in the Nikāyas. I will then argue that, according to the Nikāyas, Nibbāna cannot be regarded as a self. Next, I will point out that the Nikāyas do not see Nibbāna as a form of consciousness, including such exceptional kinds of consciousness as anidassana viññāṇa and appatiṭṭḥita viññāṇa. Nor can Nibbāna be regarded as equivalent to mind, or any particular state of mind. In the final section I aim to show that the most reasonable interpretation of the Nikāyas is that final Nibbāna is no more than the cessation of the five khandhas.

I have benefited from the kindness of Ven. Bhikkhu Bodhi and Prof. Peter Harvey who both offered their careful comments and invaluable suggestions on a draft version of the present paper. Despite our disagreement on certain issues, the paper is considerably improved as a result of their generosity. My thanks are also due to a number of monks at Bodhinyana Monastery for their proofreading.

INTRODUCTION

Nibbāna is the goal of Buddhist practice. As such it is only natural that there is great interest in understanding what it might mean to achieve it. At the same time, *Nibbāna* is the most profound of Buddhist concepts. It is perhaps not surprising then that the concept of *Nibbāna* has given rise to a large number of interpretations, some based on meditative experience and others on scriptural study and 'logical' deduction, and that many of them are mutually contradictory.²

Given this confusing situation, the purpose of the present paper is to try to pin down what the Buddha himself meant by *Nibbāna*. The only satisfactory way of achieving this is to turn to the *suttas*, for it is the *suttas* that are the final arbiter in any *Dhamma* dispute:

Suppose a monk were to say: '... this is the *dhamma*, this is the discipline (*vinayo*), this is the Master's teaching', then, monks, you should neither approve nor disapprove his words. Then, without approving or disapproving, his words and expressions should be carefully noted and compared with the *suttas* and reviewed in light of the discipline. If they, on

² I will provide references for these interpretations during the course of the paper.

such comparison and review, are found not to conform to the *suttas* or the discipline, the conclusion must be: 'Assuredly this is not the word of the Buddha, it has been wrongly understood by this monk', and the matter is to be rejected. But where on such comparison and review they are found to conform to the *suttas* or the discipline, the conclusion must be: 'Assuredly this is the word of the Buddha, it has been rightly understood by this monk.'

DN 16:4.8.1-4.8.13

In the following discussion on the nature of *Nibbāna* I will therefore base my argument, as far as possible, on the complete contents of the *Nikāyas*.⁴ More specifically, I will inquire into the relationship between *attā*, *viññāṇa* and *citta* on the one hand and *Nibbāna* on the other. An understanding of this relationship, as I intend to show, is critical for a proper understanding of *Nibbāna*. In the final section of this paper, I will discuss *Nibbāna* itself in greater detail. But to prepare the ground for the ensuing discussion, it is necessary first of all to take a preliminary look at how the *suttas* employ the term *Nibbāna*.

³ Most of the quotes found in this paper are taken from existing translations (see the bibliography at the end of this paper). Occasionally, where existing translations did not seem satisfactory, I have supplied my own. I have indicated all such instances. I have sometimes supplied Pali words and phrases for clarification.

⁴ With the exception of most of the *Khuddaka-Nikāya*. I use the terms *suttas* and *Nikāyas* throughout this paper to refer to the four main *Nikāyas* of the Pali Canon, the *Vinaya-Piṭaka* and some of the works of the *Khuddaka-Nikāya*, specifically the *Udāna*, the *Itivuttaka*, the *Dhammapada* and the *Theragāthā*. I have also occasionally consulted parallel passages in the Chinese Buddhist Canon.

Chapter 1 AN INITIAL INVESTIGATION INTO THE REFERENTS OF THE TERM NIBBĀNA

There are three frequently mentioned referents of *Nibbāna*:

- 1. *Nibbāna* as the destruction of lust, hatred and delusion upon the attainment of *arahant*-ship;
- 2. *Nibbāna* as the 'state' that occurs after the death of the *arahant*; and
- 3. *Nibbāna* as the object of consciousness in a special kind of *samādhi*.

I will briefly discuss each one of these in turn.

1. Whenever *Nibbāna* is defined in the *suttas*, it is always in the same way:

The destruction of lust, the destruction of hatred, the destruction of delusion: this, friend, is called *Nibbāna*'.5

It is sometimes argued that this 'destruction' only refers to the actual event of becoming an *arahant* (Harvey 1995, pp.182–185). However, since the destruction is permanent it would seem more likely that *Nibbāna* here refers to the destruction of lust, hatred and delusion as a general and fundamental characteristic of *arahant*-ship. Moreover, the event of becoming an *arahant*, that is the final destruction of the defilements, is presumably instantaneous: either one is an *arahant* or one is not. But the narrow focus on momentary events, usually known as mind moments, is a characteristic of the *abhidhamma* and later Pali literature, not the *suttas*. The *suttas*

⁵ See in particular SN 38.1:2.3-2.4 and SN 39.1-15:2.3-2.4, but cf. also SN 43.12/SN 43.13/SN 43.14-43, SN 45.6, SN 45.36 and AN 3.53/AN 3.54.

This would thus include the actual event of becoming an arahant. As pointed out by Harvey 1995, p.183, at SN 38.1:2.3-2.4 arahant-ship is explicitly defined as the destruction of lust, hatred and delusion. This shows the close relationship between Nibbana and arahant-ship in general. Harvey tries to show at some length that Nibbāna here refers to the event of attaining arahant-ship, not an aspect of the general state of arahant-ship. His first argument is that the Pali terminology points to an event rather than an ongoing reality. Without going into detail, it seems to me that the terminology is open to either interpretation, but most likely it refers to both. His second and main argument is based on the fact that Nibbāna is the end of dukkha whereas the arahant still has some dukkha remaining and thus the general state of arahant-ship cannot be called Nibbāna. But Nibbāna at arahant-ship is called Nibbāna 'with residue remaining' Iti 44:3.1-3.5, the residue being the experience of 'what is agreeable and disagreeable ... pleasure and pain (dukkha)'. It seems clear enough, therefore, that the presence of a residue of suffering does not bar the absence of lust, hatred and delusion in an arahant from being called Nibbāna.

normally refer to realities that are extended in time. That this is the case also for the *Nibbāna* attained at *arahant*-ship is clear from the following passages:

When lust is abandoned (*rāge pahīne*) ... when hatred is abandoned ... when delusion is abandoned one does not intend for one's own affliction, for the affliction of others, or for the affliction of both and one does not experience mental pain and dejection. It is in this way, brahmin, that *Nibbāna* is visible in this very life.

AN 3.55:2.2-2.3 (transl. Brahmāli)

Not intending for one's own or others' affliction, and not experiencing mental pain and dejection, cannot be momentary. Nor can *Nibbāna* be momentary in the following description:

And what, monks, is the *Nibbāna* element with residue remaining? Here, a monk is an *arahant*, one whose taints are destroyed, who has lived the holy life, done what had to be done, laid down the burden, reached his own goal, utterly destroyed the fetters of existence, one completely liberated through final knowledge. However, his five senses remain unimpaired, by which he still experiences what is agreeable and disagreeable, still feels pleasure and pain. It is the destruction of lust, hatred, and delusion in him that is called the *Nibbāna* element with residue remaining.

Iti 44:3.1-3.5

Thus I take *Nibbāna* in the above definition to refer to that unchanging and permanent aspect of the general state of *arahant*-ship which is the destruction of lust, hatred and

delusion.7 In this sense Nibbāna is an ever-present reality for the arahant.8 Moreover, since the destruction of the three root defilements is the standard Nikāya explanation of Nibbāna, it seems reasonable to assume that whenever Nibbāna is used without further qualification it refers to this aspect of the state of arahant-ship. This will be my assumption throughout this paper.

2. Occasionally Nibbāna is used to describe the 'state' that occurs after the death of an arahant:

And what, monks, is the Nibbana element without residue remaining? Here a monk is an arahant, one whose taints are destroyed, who has lived the holy life, done what had to be done, laid down the burden, reached his own goal, utterly destroyed the fetters of existence, one completely liberated through final knowledge. For him, here in this very life, all that is felt, not being delighted in, will become cool right here [i.e. at death]. That, monks,

The literal meaning of Nibbāna is 'extinguishment'. (Alternatively, Nibbāna could perhaps be translated as 'extinction'. However, 'extinction' has such negative connotations in English — connotations that obviously do not pertain to Nibbāna — that 'extinguishment' seems more appropriate). Nibbāna as the destruction of lust, hatred and delusion is therefore simply the permanent extinguishing of these three defilements. In fact, Nibbāna is a relative term in the suttas, its precise connotation depending on what is being extinguished. At AN 9.47, AN 9.48, AN 9.49, AN 9.50 and AN 9.51 each *jhāna* and each immaterial attainment is said to be 'provisional Nibbāna (nibbānam ... pariyāyena)'. 'Non-provisional Nibbāna' is reached at arahant-ship, and 'final Nibbāna' at the death of the arahant (see below). In each case something is extinguished (either temporarily or permanently): in first jhāna the five hindrances and the five senses are temporarily extinguished, in the second jhāna vitakka-vicāra etc.. At final Nibbāna all five aggregates are permanently extinguished.

The arahant's destruction of lust, hatred and delusion is unconditioned, since it is permanent. For this reason Nibbāna is also known as asankhata, 'not conditioned'.

is called the Nibbana element without residue remaining.

Iti 44:4.1-4.4

In the following I will refer to this as 'final Nibbāna'. In the suttas, only very rarely does the word Nibbāna unambiguously refer to final Nibbāna. 10

3. In a few places the suttas mention a type of samādhi that is attainable only by ariyas:11

Just as, friend, in a burning wood-fire, one flame arises and another flame ceases, so too 'the cessation of existence is Nibbāna, the cessation of existence is Nibbāna (bhavanirodho nibbānam, bhavanirodho nibbānan ti)', one perception (saññā) arose in me, friend, and another perception ceased, 'the cessation of existence is Nibbāna'; and yet, on that occasion I was percipient (saññi).

> AN 10.7:5.3-5.5 (transl. Brahmāli)

This samādhi is sometimes said to take Nibbāna as its 'object', 12

Note that my emphasis in this paper is not on final *Nibbāna* as the event of the death of the arahant but on that which happens beyond the arahant's death.

¹⁰ In fact, it seems difficult to find any unambiguous references apart from the one quoted here.

¹¹ That it is attainable by all ariyas is the commentarial interpretation. In contrast to this, a verse at AN 3.32 seems to say that this samādhi — the perception in this samādhi is given as 'This is peaceful, this is sublime, that is ... Nibbāna', but it seems to be equivalent to the one quoted above - is attainable only by arahants, i.e. one who 'has crossed over birth and old age', atāri so jātijaran ti. Whatever the correct interpretation, the broader argument remains unaffected.

¹² For instance in the Paramatthadīpanī-tīkā: 'evam suññatādināmam nibbānam ārammaṇam katvā pavattāni maggaphalānipi ārammanavasenapi suññatādināmam labhati', 'Thus having made Nibbāna, which is called "emptiness" etc., the object, the resulting path and fruit obtain the

i.e. taking the equivalent of final Nibbana as its object. However, I cannot see how this explanation can be correct. Final *Nibbāna* by definition is other than *saṁsāra*, which means it is other than the six sense bases and their six corresponding classes of objects. In the Nikāyas, consciousness is always defined by the object it takes and consequently there are precisely six classes of consciousness. For Nibbāna to be an object of consciousness, an entirely new class of consciousness would be required, going beyond the established Nikāya taxonomy.13

name "emptiness" etc. on account of the object'. It is noteworthy that this statement is found in a modern (19th century) commentarial work. In his translation and explanation of the Abhidhammattha Sangaha, in which he refers extensively to the above mentioned tīkā, Bodhi 1993, p.363 states that: 'the attainment of fruition (phalasamāpatti) is a meditative attainment by which a noble disciple enters into supramundane absorption with Nibbana as object'.

It is difficult to ascertain with any precision when the idea of Nibbāna as an object of consciousness first appears in Pali literature. It might be claimed that it appears already in the Canonical Abhidhamma where the asankhatadhātu is included in the dhammāyatana (Vibh PTS vp 72). However, the asankhatadhātu is then defined in exactly the same way as in the suttas, namely, as the destruction of lust, hatred and delusion (Vibh PTS vp 73). There is no indication that Nibbana is an 'existing entity' which is taken as a direct object of consciousness. Exactly how the commentaries understand Nibbāna is also a moot point. I am not able to discuss this here, since it would be a major study in itself to trace the historical development of how *Nibbāna* is understood in Pali literature.

13 Nibbāna cannot simply be classified as a mind object — with the corresponding consciousness being mind-consciousness - since all mind objects and their corresponding objects are said to be impermanent and suffering; see e.g. SN 35.32. Indeed, the Salāyatana-Samyutta contains a large number of suttas that directly state that mental phenomena (dhammas) are suffering. These statements often have an almost equational quality. And there is no clear statement anywhere in the *suttas* that there are any exceptions to this. In fact the six senses together with their six objects are called 'the all' (SN 35.23), clearly indicating that there are no further senses or sense objects apart from these. These statements taken together make it impossible, to my mind, to accept the idea of Nibbāna as a mind object cognized by mind-consciousness. (The postcanonical literature, however, sometimes seems to take a different position, see e.g. the Milindapañha, Mil 6.2.5).

Indeed, the above quote contains sufficient pointers to make it unlikely that this is a direct reference to Nibbana. Firstly, perception is specifically said to be present. As in the case of consciousness, perception in the suttas is restricted to six classes, all of which are bound up with samsāra (SN 22.57:10.1–10.9). There is no room for a direct perception of Nibbāna in this system of classification. Secondly, the perceptions are said to arise and cease, one after the other. Arising and ceasing is a characteristic of samsāra, not Nibbāna: Nibbāna is specifically said to be stable (dhuva; SN 43.20). One would expect a samādhi that takes Nibbāna as its object to be stable, much like the stability of perception found in other deep states of samādhi.14

I would therefore propose an alternative interpretation of this passage. It is not Nibbāna as such, but a perception that is based on the ariya's direct knowledge of the nature of Nibbāna. That is, it is not a perception of *Nibbāna* but a perception about Nibbāna.15 For convenience I will refer to this samādhi as ariyasamādhi in the remainder of this paper.¹⁶

¹⁴ Deep states of samādhi, in particular the jhānas, consist of completely stable and uninterrupted perceptions, until one emerges.

¹⁵ This interpretation hinges on understanding bhavanirodho nibbānam to be an equational sentence: 'the cessation of existence is *Nibbāna*'. On this reading, the expression is clearly an idea about Nibbāna, not a direct reference to it. If instead one were to translate this phrase as two words in apposition, 'the cessation of existence, Nibbāna', then this would be a direct reference to Nibbana and one would have to conclude that the phrase concerns a direct perception of Nibbāna. There are other suttas (AN 3.32, AN 10.6, AN 11.7, and AN 11.8), however, that speak of the same sort of samādhi but whose interpretation is unambiguous. In these suttas the relevant perception is given as 'this is peaceful, this is sublime, that is ... Nibbāna (etam santam, etam paṇītam, yad idam ... nibbānan ti)'. Here the wording is such - i.e. the verb 'to be' is required - that there can be no doubt that we are dealing with a sentence not just words in apposition. It seems quite clear, therefore, that this concerns a perception of an idea, an idea about Nibbāna — i.e. 'this is peaceful, this is sublime' — not a direct experience of Nibbāna. From this it is necessary to conclude that the expression bhavanirodho nibbānam should also be understood as a sentence, not just two words in apposition.

Of these three referents of the term *Nibbāna*, the first one is relatively straight-forward: it refers to the *arahant's* state of having extinguished all defilements.¹⁷ In *Nikāya* usage this is the usual meaning of *Nibbāna*. The third referent, *ariyasamādhi*, does not seem to be a direct reference to *Nibbāna* at all, but a particular perception based on the full understanding of what *Nibbāna* is. It is the second referent — that which supervenes at the death of an *arahant* — which is the most profound and most often misunderstood. It is *Nibbāna* in this sense, 'final *Nibbāna*', which will be the main focus of this paper.

¹⁶ This is equivalent to what the commentaries call *phalasamāpatti/phalasamāpatti-samādhi*; see Mp V 2, 23 and Mp V 80, 14.

^{17 &#}x27;Extinguishment' being the literal meaning of *Nibbāna* (see footnote 7 above).

CHAPTER 2 IS FINAL NIBBĀNA A PERMANENT SELE?

It is not uncommon to come across attempts to justify the existence of an *attā* (in the sense of a permanent self) using the Buddha's teachings and the claim that the end of the Buddhist path is the freeing of this *attā* from suffering. But the evidence quoted to support such claims is often weak, and it frequently relies on *sutta* quotes whose interpretation is difficult.

So let us go through some of the Buddha's more straightforward statements concerning *attā*:

Whether there is an arising of *Tathāgatas* or no arising of *Tathāgatas*, that element still persists, the stableness of the *Dhamma*, the fixed course of the *Dhamma*, that all formations (*saṅkhārā*) are impermanent ... that all formations are suffering ... that all things (*dhamma*) are non-self.¹⁹

AN 3.136:1.11-1.15

¹⁸ See Harvey 1995, pp.17–19 for a short survey of such attempts, followed by a critique of them. Other than Harvey's references, there has also been the suggestion that the *anattā* doctrine is a strategy of spiritual development that is not meant as a metaphysical position on the existence of an *attā* (Thānissaro 1993a).

¹⁹ The translation is based on Ven. Bhikkhu Bodhi's translation of a similar passage at SN 12.20.

I would suggest that the Buddha uses 'dhamma' in the last phrase to counter any misunderstanding that there might be an attā outside of conditioned phenomena (saṅkhārā). In this context consider the following:

Monks, as far as there are things (*dhamma*) conditioned (*saṅkhatā*) or not conditioned (*asaṅkhatā*), dispassion (*virāgo*) is reckoned best of those things, that is to say ... *Nibbāna*.

AN 4.34:3.1-3.2 (transl. Brahmāli)

'Dhamma' is thus a wider term than 'sankhāra'. It includes anything that might fall outside of conditioned phenomena, in particular $Nibb\bar{a}na$.²⁰

Another way of making the same point is as follows:

'Bhikkhus, you may well cling to that doctrine of self (attavādupādānaṁ upādiyetha) that would not arouse sorrow, lamentation, pain, grief, and despair in one who clings to it. But do you see any such doctrine of self, bhikkhus?' — 'No, venerable sir'. — 'Good, bhikkhus. I too do not see any doctrine of self that would not arouse sorrow, lamentation, pain, grief, and despair in one who clings to it'.

MN 22:23.1-23.5

Clinging causes suffering because the object of clinging sooner or later changes. If there were such a thing as a permanent self, clinging to it would not give rise to suffering, and the Buddha would not have seen any problem with such clinging.²¹

²⁰ See also Norman 1991, p.207 (p.5 in PDF).

²¹ This does not mean that one may cling to *Nibbāna*. The *puthujjana* by definition knows nothing but the five *khandhas*. Since he does not know what *Nibbāna* is he cannot possibly cling to it. (He could perhaps cling to some idea of *Nibbāna*, but such an idea would still be included within the

But the fact is that the Buddha did not recommend any sort of clinging:

When, Nagita, one dwells contemplating the rise and fall in regard to the five aggregates affected by clinging, repulsiveness in respect of clinging (upādāne pāṭikkūlyatā) is established.

AN 5.30:4.12

(transl. Brahmāli)

In fact, the suttas do not lack clear denials of final Nibbāna being a permanent self:

Bhikkhus, since a self and what belongs to a self are not apprehended as true and established, then this standpoint for views, namely, 'This is self, this the world; after death I shall be permanent, everlasting, eternal, not subject to change; I shall endure as long as eternity' - would it not be an utterly and completely foolish teaching?

MN 22:25.5-25.6

Then the Blessed one took up a little lump of cowdung in his hand and said to that bhikkhu: 'Bhikkhu, there is not even this much individual existence (attabhāva-patilābho) that is permanent, stable, eternal, not subject to change, and that will remain the same just like eternity itself. If there was this much individual existence that was permanent, stable, eternal, not subject to change, this living of the holy life for the complete cessation of suffering could not be discerned'.22

SN 22.96:2.1-2.3

five khandhas.) Once one becomes a stream-enterer, i.e. once one understands the Dhamma, one knows that the nature of Nibbana is such that it cannot be clung to (see the last section of this paper).

22 There is no reason to see the denial here of 'individual existence' as implying the existence of a universal self or any other non-individual permanent entity.

It is, Ānanda, because it is empty (*suññam*) of self and of what belongs to self that it is said, 'Empty is the world'.

SN 35.85:1.4

There is no permanent *attā* in or outside of the five *khandhas*:

Friends, I do not speak of form as 'I am', nor do I speak of 'I am' apart from form. I do not speak of feeling as 'I am', nor do I speak of 'I am' apart from feeling. I do not speak of perception as 'I am', nor do I speak of 'I am' apart from perception. I do not speak of volitional formations as 'I am', nor do I speak of 'I am' apart from volitional formations. I do not speak of consciousness as 'I am', nor do I speak of 'I am' apart from consciousness.

SN 22.89:9.10-9.14

Bhikkhus, 'I am' is a conceiving (maññitam'); 'I am this' is a conceiving; ... conceiving is a disease, conceiving is a tumour, conceiving is a dart. Therefore, bhikkhus, you should train yourselves thus: 'We will dwell with a mind devoid of conceiving'. Bhikkhus, 'I am' is a perturbation (iñjitam') ... a palpitation (phanditam') ... a proliferation (papañcitam') ... an involvement with conceit (mānagatam') ... 'We will dwell with a mind in which conceit has been struck down'.

SN 35.248:3.1-7.3

The arahant knows of no permanent attā:

'With the fading away of ignorance and the arising of true knowledge, "I am" does not occur to him; "I am this" does not occur to him'.

SN 22.47:3.3-3.4

If *arahants* discovered their true *attā*, would it not occur to them that 'I am' and 'I am this'?

Chapter 3 IS FINAL NIBBĀNA A FORM OF CONSCIOUSNESS?

It is sometimes argued that even if there is no *attā*, the purpose of the Buddhist training is to attain a permanent form of consciousness ($vi\tilde{n}\tilde{n}ana$).²³ But if there were such a thing as a

As for Harvey's use of the phrase 'consciousness beyond time', as opposed to 'permanent consciousness', it is difficult to see that it makes any difference. As a general tool of interpretation, it seems clear that the *Nikāyas* cannot possibly refute every single formulation that constitutes a contradiction to their outlook. In many cases, such as the present one, one has to make reasonable assumptions as to the implications of the *suttas*' statements. As far as I can see, a consciousness beyond time would for all practical purposes be the same as a permanent consciousness,

²³ See in particular Harvey 1995, pp.198–214 and Johansson 1969, p.111. Harvey does not in fact use the words 'permanent consciousness' in describing final Nibbāna. Instead, he says final Nibbāna is a 'stopped discernment' (Harvey 1995, p.201; 'discernment' being Harvey's translation of viññāṇa) or 'consciousness beyond time' (208). (He also argues that this 'timeless' Nibbāna can be periodically experienced by the arahant during life, 208). But the idea that nirodha can be understood as a 'stopped state' rather than just 'cessation' is not supported by the use of nirodha in the Nikāyas. Wherever its meaning is unambiguous it means 'ending', 'cessation'; there is never any sense that it refers to a 'state'. to make his point Harvey also employs the double meaning in English of the word 'stopped'. For him a 'stopped discernment' is thus a consciousness that stands still, continuing without change, not a consciousness that has ended. In Pali, however, nirodha/niruddha has no such double meaning, it only means 'stopped' as in 'ceased' or 'ended'.

permanent consciousness devoid of suffering, that would be precisely the sort of phenomenon that the Buddha would describe as a self: it is the characteristics of impermanence and suffering that make the description of something as 'atta' impossible.24 If this argument is accepted, it follows that the idea of a permanent consciousness that is 'anatta' is inherently self-contradictory.25

It might also be noted here that the mere absence of the thought or perception 'I am' in certain states of deep samādhi does not mean that by attaining those states one has penetrated the Buddha's teaching of anattā. When one emerges from these states the notion 'I am' will reappear, often taking that very state of samādhi as its object.26 As long as the underlying

since it is change that gives rise to a perception of time. Moreover, since Nibbāna is specifically said to be dhuva, 'stable' (SN 43.20), which in the suttas is used as a synonym for nicca, 'permanent', the idea of 'consciousness beyond time' as opposed to 'permanent consciousness' seems to be a red herring.

- 24 See in particular the Pañca Sutta (which is identical to the Anattalakkhana Sutta) at SN 22.59. This does not mean that Nibbāna is a permanent self, since Nibbāna is not a 'phenomenon'. See the last section of this paper for why this is so.
- 25 Again, since Nibbāna is entirely different from consciousness (or any of the five khandhas), this does not mean that Nibbāna is not anattā.
- 26 Deep states of samādhi will be particularly attractive to grasp as a self because of their qualities of peace, stability, contentment, bliss, etc. If one has not heard or properly understood the Buddha's teachings, it seems there will be an almost irresistible pull towards seeing these states as one's true attā.

An interesting passage in this context is found at DN15:27.1-32.11. Here the Buddha asks the following semi-rhetorical question: 'Where nothing at all is felt, could there be any sense of "I am" with reference to that (tattha)?' (DN 15:30.3). From the subsequent conversation it is clear that the correct answer is 'no' and therefore that such a 'state' cannot be regarded as a self.

Harvey 1995, p.31 seems to interpret this to mean that if there is no experience of 'I am' at the time one abides in a particular state, i.e. that there is no self-awareness in that state, then that is sufficient to show that that state cannot be regarded as a permanent self. If this were correct, then any deep state of samādhi, during which there is no perception 'I

tendency to the view 'I am' has not been abandoned, the perception 'I am' will always return in spite of such periods of temporary absence.27

Let us now turn to what the Buddha said about consciousness:

'Is consciousness (viññāṇam) permanent or impermanent?' - 'Impermanent, venerable sir'. - 'Is what is impermanent suffering or happiness?' - 'suffering, venerable sir'. - 'Is what is impermanent, suffering, and subject to change fit to be regarded thus: 'this is mine, this I am, this is my self'?' - 'No, venerable sir'.

SN 22.59:6.12-6.18

For in many discourses I have stated consciousness to be dependently arisen (paticcasamuppannam) since without a condition there is no origination of consciousness.

MN 38:7.4

And what are the conditions for the arising of the various types of consciousness?

am', could also not be taken as a self. Yet, as I have argued above, it is perfectly possible to regard such states as an attā once one emerges from them.

But the passage at DN 15:27.1–32.11 does not have to be interpreted as Harvey does. Its interpretation hinges on the import of the word tattha, which Harvey translates as 'there'. But, as is implied in my translation above, tattha frequently has a 'locative' sense, meaning 'in this case', 'about this', 'with reference to this'. If this is the intended meaning also in the present case, then the passage means there can be no sense of 'I am' with reference to that state. In other words, one is incapable of taking that state as a permanent self even after one emerges from it, which is precisely what one would expect of a 'state' where nothing at all is felt, where nothing at all is experienced.

27 For 'the underlying tendency to the view and conceit "I am" (asmī ti ditthimānānusayam)', see MN9.

Bhikkhus, consciousness is reckoned by the particular condition dependent upon which it arises. When consciousness arises dependent on eye and forms, it is reckoned as eye-consciousness; when consciousness arises dependent on ear and sounds, it is reckoned as ear-consciousness; when consciousness arises dependent on nose and odours, it is reckoned as nose-consciousness; when consciousness arises dependent on tongue and flavours, it is reckoned as tongue-consciousness; when consciousness arises dependent on body and tangibles, it is reckoned as body-consciousness; when consciousness arises dependent on mind and mind-objects, it is reckoned as mind-consciousness.

MN 38:8.1-8.7

In fact, by definition, consciousness exists only together with its object of cognition:

'It cognises, it cognises' (*vijānāti*), friend; that is why 'consciousness' (*viññāṇan*) is said. What does it cognise? It cognises: '[this is] pleasant'; it cognises: '[this is] painful'; it cognises: '[This is] neither-painful-nor-pleasant'. 'It cognises, it cognises', friend; that is why 'consciousness' is said.²⁸

MN 43:4.3-4.6

'Objectless consciousness' does not exist:

Feeling, perception and consciousness, friend — these states are conjoined (samsaṭṭhā), not disjoined, and it is impossible to separate each of these states from the others in order to describe the

²⁸ This statement seems to be absolute. No allowance is made for a 'stopped' consciousness.

difference between them. For what one feels, that one perceives; and what one perceives, that one cognises.29

MN 43:9.4-9.9

Of the five aggregates, it is most commonly viññana that is grasped as a self because, although all the other mental factors change continuously, consciousness or awareness can appear to be an independent, unchanging, and ever-present reality. But as we have already seen, the Buddha said that consciousness is impermanent. Indeed, there is no such thing as a permanent consciousness:

Consciousness that is permanent (niccam), stable (dhuvam)30, eternal (sassatam), not subject to change: this the wise in the world agree upon as not existing, and I too say that it does not exist.

SN 22.94:2.6-2.7

There is no consciousness that is permanent, stable, eternal, not subject to change, and that will remain the same just like eternity itself.31

SN 22.96:1.8-1.12

²⁹ In other words, at the very least feeling together with some sort of perception, no matter how subtle, would be the object of consciousness. Usually the situation would be much more complex, but feeling and perception would always be present with consciousness. I will discuss passages that may seem to refer to an 'objectless consciousness' in the section below on 'unestablished consciousness' and in the last part of this paper.

³⁰ Nibbāna is specifically said to be dhuva at SN 43.20, in direct contrast to how viññāṇa is described here. this seems to rule out any link between final Nibbāna and consciousness.

³¹ It is hard to imagine a statement more explicit and clear than this one that a permanent consciousness does not exist. 'There is no consciousness that is ... stable (dhuva)' is again in direct contrast to the description of Nibbana at SN 43.20.

Indeed, the eightfold path leads to the ending of consciousness, not to a state of permanent consciousness:

With the cessation of name-and-form there is the cessation of consciousness ($vi\tilde{n}\tilde{n}a\bar{n}a$ -nirodho). This noble eightfold path is the way leading to the cessation of consciousness.³²

SN 22.57:14.6-14.8

Bhikkhus, whatever desire there is for consciousness, whatever lust, delight, craving — abandon it. Thus that consciousness will be abandoned, cut off at the root, made like a palm stump, obliterated (anabhāvaṅkataṁ) so that it is no more subject to future arising.

SN 22.111:1.4-1.8

By the utter destruction of delight in existence,
By the extinction of perception and consciousness (saññā-viññāṇa-saṅkhayā),
By the cessation and appeasement of feelings:
It is thus, friend, that I know for beings –
Emancipation,
release,
seclusion.

SN 1.2:5.1-5.5

The body disintegrated, perception ceased, All feelings were utterly consumed, Mental activities were extinguished

³² Again, pace Harvey, *nirodha* means 'ceased' in the *Nikāyas*. There is no place where it unambiguously refers to a (stopped) 'state'.

And consciousness came to an end (attham agamā). 33

Ud 8.9:5.1-5.4³⁴

It seems clear, then, that final Nibbana is not a state of consciousness. But if this is so, how is one to understand some of the 'exotic' forms of consciousness sometimes mentioned in the suttas, which some commentators take as equivalent to final Nibbana?35

³³ Johansson 1969, p.77 suggests 'gone to rest' and 'gone home' as translations of attham agamā. But the only meaning in the Nikāyas of attha-gam and its cognate forms is 'come to an end'. See in particular CPD which lists 'disappear', 'cease', 'destroyed', 'gone out of existence' and 'annihilated' and DP which adds 'end'. (Though attha-gam is also used for the setting of the sun, the sun doesn't 'go home' or 'go to rest'; but it certainly 'disappears', at least temporarily. If there were any other clear cases where such metaphors were used of the sun, then perhaps 'go home' could be accepted as a rendering.)

³⁴ This passage describes the final Nibbāna of the arahant Dabba Mallaputta.

³⁵ See references below.

Chapter 4 Anidassana Viññāṇa, Non-Manifest Consciousness

One often discussed passage – which only occurs twice in the Pali Canon – refers to a form of consciousness known as anidas-sana $vi\tilde{n}\tilde{n}ana$:

Where do earth, water, fire and air no footing find?

37 E.g. in Harvey 1995, pp.199-201; Ñanamoli 2001, p.1249; Johansson 1969,

p.76.

³⁶ Harvey's translation, 'non-manifestive', by which he means that nothing can 'appear on or in' this consciousness (1995, 206), in my opinion stretches the meaning of anidassana beyond what is reasonable. At the very least such a meaning would require a causative construction and probably something more involved (e.g. 'the consciousness with which nothing else manifests'), not just the simple adjective. The straightforward meaning of anidassana viññāna is that the consciousness itself is non-manifest. Harvey supports his understanding by referring to a passage at MN21:14.8-14.9 where anidassana, together with arūpī, is used to describe space: no picture can be drawn 'on' space (ākāsa) since it is anidassana and arūpī. But one cannot deduce the exact meaning of anidassana simply by giving it the meaning best suited to the simile. If this were possible then arūpī would also mean 'non-manifestive' (in Harvey's sense of the word), which it clearly does not. It also seems worth noting that this consciousness must be 'non-manifest' with reference to something; that is, it is a relative non-manifestation, not an absolute one. At the very least it is not non-manifest for the person who experiences it.

Where are long and short, small and great, fair and foul— Where do name-and-form wholly cease?'

And the answer is:

'Where consciousness is non-manifesting (viññāṇaṁ anidassanaṁ), boundless (anantaṁ), all-luminous (sabbato pabhaṁ³8),

That's where earth, water, fire and air find no footing,

There both long and short, small and great, fair and foul— There name-and-form wholly cease.

With the cessation of consciousness this all ceases.'39

DN 11:85.11-85.27

³⁸ Although the PTS version at DN11:85.11–85.27 has the reading *paham*, I understand the correct reading here to be *pabham*. The reading *paham* seems to be unique to the Sinhalese tradition and is explained by Norman 1992, p.189 as likely 'to be an error in the Sinhalese scribal tradition, where *ha* and *bha* are very similar and easily confused'. Moreover, the reading *pabham* also seems to be the basis for the Chinese version of this *sutta*, which has a reading meaning 'shining' (T I 102c17).

³⁹ Kattha āpo ca paṭhavī tejo vāyo na gādhati
Kattha dīghañca rassañca aṇum thūlam subhāsubham,
Kattha nāmañca rūpañca asesam uparujjhatī ti
Tatra veyyākaraṇam bhavati:
Viññāṇam anidassanam anantam sabbato pabham
Ettha āpo ca paṭhavī tejo vāyo na gādhati,
Ettha dīghañca rassañca aṇum thūlam subhāsubham
Ettha nāmañca rūpañca asesam uparujjhati,
Viññāṇassa nirodhena etthetam uparujjhatī ti.
(transl. Brahmāli, based on Walshe 1995).

Consciousness

non-manifesting (viññānam anidassanam), boundless (anantam), all-luminous (sabbato-pabham).

MN 49:25.1

It has been suggested that anidassana viññana refers to a state of consciousness that is equivalent to final Nibbāna (e.g. Harvey 1995, p.201), 40 but in light of the discussion of viññāna in the previous section, such an interpretation is untenable. However, to establish the correct interpretation of anidassana viññaṇa is far from easy. Firstly, in the whole Pali Canon the expression anidassana viññana only appears in the above two passages.41 Secondly, Pali verse is notoriously difficult to translate: the correct Pali reading is often difficult to establish and poetic licence etc. can complicate matters further. 42

⁴⁰ Again, Harvey calls it a consciousness 'beyond time'. However, as I have explained above, I cannot see how this in practice is distinguishable from a permanent consciousness. Moreover, Nibbāna is itself called dhuva, 'permanent'. Harvey also argues that this consciousness can be attained by the arahant while he is still alive.

⁴¹ Only two seemingly identical occurrences in the entire Pali Canon makes anidassana viññaṇa a marginal concept. This in itself is a sufficient argument to set this expression aside and not allow it to affect our understanding of the relationship between viññāna and final Nibbāna.

Apart from its use with viññāṇa, anidassana is also found on its own, specifically at MN 21:14.8, DN 33:1.10.76 and SN 43.22. In the last of these three, anidassana is used as a description of Nibbāna. But this does not mean that the word anidassana is equivalent to Nibbāna. Of the altogether 32 synonyms for Nibbāna found at SN 43.12, SN 43.13 & SN 43.14-43, a large number are ordinary everyday words which are much more frequently encountered in contexts other than that of Nibbāna. In other words, just because anidassana is used as a synonym for Nibbāna at SN 43.22 does not in any way mean that it is not used with very different connotations elsewhere.

⁴² See Warder 2001, p.viii and Bodhi 2000, p.13. The following passage in Norman 1996, p.157 commenting on the difficulty in translating Pali verse, is particularly instructive: 'When John Brough, one of the greatest British Sanskrit scholars of the 20th century, had just spent several years producing his study of the Gandhari Dharmapada, and had the whole of

Moreover, as in poetry in general, the exact meaning of Pali verse is often vague as its emphasis is on appealing to emotion and intuition rather than on making precise doctrinal statements.⁴³ Finally, Pali verse often contains rare words and phrases that sometimes occur nowhere else in the *tipiṭaka*.⁴⁴

Nevertheless, for the sake of completeness, and to show that there are other interpretations of *anidassana viññāṇa* that are just as good as or even better than that of a permanent consciousness, I shall put forward an alternative interpretation. To this end, it is necessary to analyse the above quotes in more detail.

The first thing to note is that, due to the qualifiers ananta and pabhā, anidassana viññāṇa is described in a way that resembles the description of certain states of samādhi. Ananta is closely connected to samādhi, and it is specifically used in the standard description of the first two immaterial attainments.⁴⁵

the *Dhammapada*-related literature at his fingertips, he was asked if he would produce a translation of the *Dhammapada* for the Pali text society. He replied: "I cannot. It is too difficult".

It is not immediately clear whether the second passage quoted above, MN 49:25.1, is verse or prose: Ñāṇamoli 2001 treats it as verse but most Pali versions of the same passage seem to treat it as part of the prose. However, Ven. Bhikkhu Bodhi informs me (private communication) that the passage at MN 49:25.1 is in meter and therefore clearly verse.

- 43 Moreover, both of the above passages are spoken to non-monastics (the householder Kevaddha and Baka the Brahmā), neither of whom seems particularly well-versed in the Buddha's teachings. Generally, at the time of the Buddha it was the monks and nuns who were the experts on the Buddhist doctrine. Most *suttas* spoken to lay Buddhists are simple and straightforward practical instructions. It seems quite possible, therefore, that the usage here of *anidassana* is simply evocative, not a precise reference to a specific state.
- 44 i.e. 'viññāṇam anidassanam' in the present case.
- 45 The first two immaterial attainments are known respectively as ākāsānañcāyatana, 'the base of unlimited (ananta) space', and viññāṇañcāyatana, 'the base of unlimited (ananta) consciousness' (e.g. at MN 64:13.1, 14.1, 15.1).

Moreover, it seems that *ananta* is never used with mind or consciousness apart from describing states of *samādhi*. It never seems to be used to

Equally important is that appamāṇa, 'immeasurable', which is semantically very close to ananta,46 is very frequently connected with samādhi. In particular, it is used in the standard passage on the divine abidings (brahma-vihāras; e.g. at MN 7:13.1, 16.1), but it is also employed as a general qualifier of samādhi.47 As for the second qualifier, pabhā, it does not seem to be used elsewhere to directly qualify samādhi. However, the closely related term pabhassara, 'shining', is often used to describe the mind without hindrances (nīvaraṇa), the most obvious example of which is the mind in samādhi. 48 Thus, given the usage of ananta and pabhā in the above quotes, it seems plausible, perhaps even likely, that anidassana viññāṇa refers to a state of samādhi.

Next, it is necessary to look more carefully at the structure of the above verses. For the present purposes, an important fact which is rarely pointed out is that the first verse (the 'question verse') in the above DN11:85.11-85.27 passage seems to contain two questions rather than one.⁴⁹ When we turn to the

describe the 'normal' consciousness of the arahant, for example.

- 46 This semantic closeness becomes particularly important with verse. Due to metrical constraints, words which may have slightly different import in prose often become interchangeable in verse.
- 47 E.g. with kasiņa meditation at MN 77:23.5, 23.11, 24.2, 24.11, and with samādhi more generally at AN 5.45:2.2-4.1.
- 48 Of course, the mind without hindrances could also be a reference to the mind of the arahant, but pabhassara does not seem to be used in this sense. See for example SN 46.33 and AN 5.23.
- Of the three lines of the first verse, the first and the third line end with present tense indicative verbs. Thus we seem to have two separate sentences, each being a question. Moreover, while the Pali is ambiguous as to whether the response gives one or two answers, the parallel passage in the Chinese Canon (see below) seems to give two.

It might be objected that the lead-up to the verses at DN11:85.11-85.27 only contains one question. Why would the Buddha reformulate a single question into two? According to AN 4.42:1.1-1.7 there are four ways of answering a question, one of which is using analysis. In the present case, the original question clearly has more than one answer (as will become clear below), and thus the Buddha's reformulation may simply be a response to this fact.

second verse (the 'answer verse'), it seems that we are again dealing with two separate answers: otherwise there would be a contradiction between the <code>viññāṇa</code> with various attributes described in the first line and the cessation of <code>viññāṇa</code> described in the last line – consciousness cannot be described as <code>anantaṁ sabbato pabhaṁ</code> and at the same time be said to have ceased. It seems reasonable, therefore, to assume that the first line of the question verse is answered by the first two lines of the answer verse, and the last two lines of the question verse are answered by the last three lines of the answer verse. ⁵⁰ If this structural analysis is accepted, then it becomes clear that <code>anidassana viññāṇa</code> is simply a form of consciousness where 'earth, water, fire and air find no footing'; ⁵¹ it is not related to the cessation of name-and-form. ⁵²

⁵⁰ Note the 'this', *etain*, in the last line of the answer verse. This would seem to refer back to *nāmañca rūpañca* of the previous line; that is, these lines are connected. Thus the last line cannot simply be regarded as an 'addon' which does not refer to any of the questions in the question verse.

⁵¹ Taking this verse in isolation, the most obvious candidate for this would be the immaterial attainments. But the use elsewhere of the phrase 'where earth, water, fire and air find no footing' (see in particular Ud 1.10:14.1–15.4 and SN 1.27) indicates that it refers to something more profound than the immaterial attainments. It is perhaps a poetic way of expressing a full escape from *samsāra*. See also the discussion below.

⁵² I take 'long and short, small and great, fair and foul' to be poetic examples of 'name-and-form' and thus to be included within name-and-form. In the *suttas* name-and-form is usually understood to encompass all phenomena apart from consciousness.

It is significant that the Chinese version of these verses (at T I 102c, 14–19) supports the above analysis. The question verse of the Chinese is virtually identical with the question verse of the Pali. (In both versions, this verse is the Buddha's reformulation of the original single question into two questions.) The answer verse is as follows: 'one should answer (應答): "Consciousness without form (識無形); infinite, self-illuminating (無量自有光); when this ceases then the four great [elements] cease (此滅四大滅); gross, subtle, beautiful, ugly cease (麤細好醜滅滅); therefore name-and-form cease (於此名色滅); consciousness ceases, remainder also ceases (識滅餘亦滅)". Here it is quite clear that we have two answers. The first one is 'consciousness without form, infinite, self-illuminating'. This would then be the answer to the first question about where the four

At this point we must consider the second passage quoted above (MN 49:25.1). The wider context of this verse makes it clear that anidassana viññāṇa is 'not commensurate with the allness of all' (sabbassa sabbattena ananubhūtam), that is, not the same nature as 'all'. If 'all' here is to be understood as 'all of samsāra', then anidassana viññāna must be based on an awareness or knowledge of 'what' lies beyond samsāra.53 In other words, anidassana viññāṇa must refer to a state of consciousness, perhaps a form of samādhi, possessed by a person who has an 'outsider's' perspective on samsāra, one who has seen the potential for samsāra to cease.⁵⁴ This potential is only known to the arivas.55

elements cease or find no footing. Since the second line begins 'when this ceases ..., 'this' presumably referring back to the consciousness without form of the previous line (it is difficult to see what else it might refer to), this must be a second answer. This answer would correspond to the second question, concerning where name and form wholly cease. (Admittedly, the Chinese is a bit confusing here, since it starts the second answer with 'then the four great elements cease'. I take this mention of the four great elements as simply an elaboration on some of the aspects of name-and-form.) Moreover, it is clear in the Chinese that the 'consciousness without form' cannot be a reference to Nibbana since it ceases together with all other phenomena.

- 53 If, on the other hand, 'all' is not to be regarded as equivalent to samsāra in its entirety, then anidassana viññana potentially becomes correspondingly broader. For example, if 'all' here instead only refers to everything within Baka the Brahma's knowledge (Baka the Brahma being the Buddha's interlocutor in the passage at MN49:25.1), then anidassana viññana could be a reference to the immaterial attainments.
- This does not require this consciousness to exist 'outside' of samsāra. rather, it is a type of consciousness which is based on the full understanding of the Dhamma.
- There are, in fact, good reasons for questioning whether this passage should be included in our analysis at all, since the reading in the above MN 49:25.1 quote is very uncertain. According to the Burmese version of this verse, it is the Buddha who speaks it, referring to his own special understanding. However, according to the Sri Lankan, the Thai, and the PTS versions of this verse, it is spoken by Baka the Brahmā, referring to his special understanding (see Analayo 2011, footnote 162 to MN 49). This is obviously highly significant, because if this refers to Baka the Brahma's knowledge, then anidassana viññana must refer to a state of conscious-

Given the above analysis, we are now in a position to be quite specific in our understanding of *anidassana viññāṇa*. We have seen that *anidassana viññāna* is:

- 1. a form of samādhi; and
- 2. that it is a type of consciousness accessible only to the *ariyas*. ⁵⁶

This description fits well with the type of *samādhi* I have called *ariya-samādhi* in the introduction to this paper.⁵⁷ This then becomes our interpretation of *anidassana viññāṇa*.

In sum, it may never be possible to pin down the exact meaning of anidassana $vi\tilde{n}\tilde{n}ana$ with perfect certainty. However, given the broader message of the suttas concerning $vi\tilde{n}\tilde{n}ana$, and given that there is at least one solid explanation of anidassana $vi\tilde{n}\tilde{n}ana$ which does not contradict this broader message, one is forced to reject the idea that anidassana $vi\tilde{n}\tilde{n}ana$ is equivalent to the state of final $Nibb\bar{n}ana$ in the form of a permanent (or 'timeless') consciousness. ⁵⁸

ness that he can access, i.e. most likely a *jhāna* state. This interpretation is further reinforced by the Chinese version of this *sutta*, also according to which it was Brahmā who spoke, see T I 548b, 11. (It is also significant that in the Chinese there is no equivalent of *anidassana*.) Given this uncertainty in the reading, it would be quite reasonable, maybe even preferable, to leave the passage at MN 49:25.1 out of the present discussion. In spite of this, I have decided to incorporate the passage in my argument.

- 56 This may also explain the usage of the term *anidassana*. According to our analysis, being accessible only to *ariyas*, *anidassana viññāṇa* is 'nonmanifest' (i.e. inaccessible) to all *puthujjanas*, including the *devas* of the very highest realms.
- 57 This is the *samādhi* referred to at AN 3.32, AN 10.6, AN 11.7, and AN 11.8. As mentioned in the introduction, and contrary to the view of some, I do not regard this consciousness as taking *Nibbāna* as its object. Rather, I see this as a *samādhi* gained through a particular perception that is based on the knowledge of what *Nibbāna* is.
- 58 Nor would it refer to an *ariya's* direct experience of *Nibbāna* during life: see my discussion of *ariya-samādhi* in the introduction.

Chapter 5 Appatițțhita Viññāṇa, Unestablished Consciousness

The *sutta* phrase *appatiṭṭhita viññāṇa*, 'unestablished consciousness', is sometimes taken as referring to final *Nibbāna*. In this way final *Nibbāna* is again seen as a 'state' of consciousness (see in particular Harvey 1995, pp.201–203).⁵⁹ The following three *sutta* passages are sometimes used to support this assertion:

'If, bhikkhus, there is no lust for the nutriment edible food, or for the nutriment contact, or for the nutriment mental volition, or for the nutriment consciousness, if there is no delight, if there is no craving, consciousness (viññāṇaṁ) does not become established (appatiṭṭḥitaṁ) there and come to growth ... Suppose, bhikkhus, there was a house or hall with a peaked roof, with windows on the northern, southern, and eastern sides. When the sun rises and a beam of light enters through a window, where would it become established

⁵⁹ Harvey also sees this state of consciousness as experienceable by *arahants* during life, but different from their ordinary consciousness (1995, 201–203). Here, however, I will focus on the aspect of final *Nibbāna*.

(patitthitā)?' — 'on the western wall, venerable sir'. - 'If there were no western wall, where would it become established?' - 'on the earth, venerable sir?' - 'If there were no earth, where would it become established?' - 'on the water, venerable sir'. - 'If there were no water, where would it become established?' - 'It would not become established anywhere (appatitthitā), venerable sir'. (cf. Harvey 1995, p.202)

SN 12.64:6.1-8.8

But, bhikkhus, when one does not intend, and one does not plan, and one does not have a tendency towards anything, no basis exists for the maintenance of consciousness. When there is no basis, there is no support for the establishing of consciousness. When consciousness is unestablished (appatitthitam) and does not come to growth, there is no descent of name-and-form. With the cessation of name-and-form ... ageing-and-death, sorrow, lamentation, pain, displeasure, and despair cease. Such is the cessation of this whole mass of suffering. (cf. Harvey 1995, p.202)

SN 12.38:3.1-3.5

Monks, with consciousness unestablished (appatitthitena), the clansman Godhika has attained final Nibbāna. (cf. Harvey 1995, pp.209-210)

SN 4.23:10.6

In the first quote above (SN 12.64:6.1-8.8), there is no good reason why appatitthita viññāṇa should be understood as referring to final Nibbāna. Consciousness is said to be unestablished 'if there is no delight, if there is no craving'. The reference to absence of craving seems to make it fairly straight-

forward that this concerns the ordinary consciousness of the living arahant.60

The second passage (SN 12.38:3.1-3.5) concerns a person who 'does not intend', 'does not plan', and 'does not have a tendency towards anything'. His consciousness is then unestablished and 'there is no descent of name-and-form'. If, as seems likely, descent of name-and-form refers to future rebirth, then the unestablished consciousness must refer to the living arahant. Indeed, the suttas immediately preceding and following this one, which are direct parallels to it, explicitly mention 'future rebirth' (āyatim punabbhavābhinibbatti and āyatim jāti respectively) where the present sutta mentions descent of name-and-form. This leaves little doubt that appatitthita viññāna also in the present sutta refers to the consciousness of the living arahant. Moreover, the expression 'when consciousness is unestablished ... there is no descent of nameand-form' seems to indicate that this concerns consciousness in general, not a specific state. thus, again, this seems to be a reference to an arahant's general state of consciousness.

The third passage (SN 4.23:10.6) is more ambiguous, but it can easily be understood to mean that Godhika's consciousness was unestablished at the time of death. In other words, there is no need to bring in any theory of final Nibbāna consciousness that, in my opinion, clearly contradicts the suttas' general message on the subject.61

⁶⁰ I understand this passage to be another way of saying that consciousness is not attached to anything; it does not grasp at anything or take anything up. Because of being unestablished in this way, it does not get established in, i.e. commence, a new existence. That is, the passage concerns the cessation of the source of consciousness. Upon the attainment of arahantship, consciousness becomes devoid of the kind of desire that would otherwise have caused the future establishment of consciousness in a new rebirth. for the arahant, the source of consciousness has ceased, but consciousness itself only ceases when he dies.

⁶¹ See the general discussion on consciousness above.

Finally, there are still other passages in the suttas where appatitthita viññāna clearly refers to the general consciousness of the living arahant:

When that consciousness is unestablished (apatitthitam)62 not coming to growth, nongenerative, it is liberated.

By being liberated, it is steady: by being steady, it is content; by being content, he is not agitated.

Being unagitated, he personally attains Nibbāna.63

> SN 22.53:3.8-3.9 & SN 22.54:4.8-4.9

In sum, all the available evidence suggests that appatithita viññaṇa is a reference to the ordinary consciousness of the living arahant. Although the suttas do not seem to contain an outright denial that this consciousness applies to final Nibbāna,

⁶² The spelling *apatitthitam* seems to be an error for *appatitthitam*.

⁶³ The expression 'being unagitated, he personally attains Nibbāna', is a common way in the suttas to describe Nibbana in this life, i.e. the attainment of arahant-ship as opposed to final Nibbāna. See for instance MN 140:22.12, where Nibbāna is described in similar terms, but final *Nibbāna* clearly happens later. Also note that in this case consciousness in fact becomes unestablished immediately prior to the attainment of arahant-ship. This strengthens the argument further.

Appatitthita also recurs at Ud8.1:3.1-3.4 where it seems to qualify a particular 'state' (of samādhi, perhaps) of the living arahant. Since it concerns an arahant, his consciousness is by definition appatithita, 'unestablished', as discussed above. For further discussion of Ud 8.1:3.1-3.4 see Chapter 10 on Final Nibbāna.

there is no passage that unambiguously states that it does. In these circumstances, it seems to me little more than speculation to suggest that unestablished consciousness refers to a 'state' of final Nibbana. And given that the existence of a permanent consciousness is explicitly denied elsewhere (see above), it becomes untenable.

Chapter 6 COULD CITTA (MIND) BE A REFERENT OF FINAL NIBBĀNA?

Is it reasonable, as is sometimes done, to use the term *citta* (mind), or a particular state of *citta*, as a synonym for $Nibb\bar{a}$ -na? ⁶⁴ There is no clear evidence in the *suttas* of *citta* ever being

A similar position seems to be taken in Mahā Boowa 1980, p.23: 'the citta by its very nature is amatam - Undying ...; 'Once paññā has totally shattered and cleared the kilesas away, the citta will be transformed into the state of purity ... How can it vanish? ... this one is the genuine amatam (the Undying). Immortal by way of purity ... This is the real and true substance or essence which is in the midst of our khandha' (45); 'The kilesas can't destroy the citta ... This nature is unassailable, absolute and permanent. It cannot be annihilated' (76). It must be kept in mind, however, that the teachings given by Thai meditation teachers are often difficult to interpret. There are several reasons for this. Firstly, the idiom of Thai meditation teachers, particularly those associated with the Thai forest tradition, is notoriously idiosyncratic. They rarely use the expressions and words found in the *Nikāyas*, and if they do, they sometimes give these expressions new meanings. Secondly, the language they use is often not very precise, at least compared with that of the suttas, and thus there are significant problems of interpretation. Thus it is possible that Ven. Ajahn Mahā Boowa may be referring to something other than the English translation appears to show. Still, the translation as it stands is

⁶⁴ Johansson 1969, p.131 states that 'The new, transformed state of *citta* is *Nibbāna* ...' He then claims that this *citta* continues after the death of the *arahant*: 'But when an *Arahant* dies ... the "stillness" and "emptiness" of the *citta* makes it survive, free and anonymous ...' (p.133). Johansson evidently takes a particular state of *citta* as equivalent to final *Nibbāna*.

used in this way and, as I shall now try to show, the evidence to the contrary is compelling.

Citta refers to what in English one would understand by 'mind'. In the Nikāyas, citta often has a broader scope than viññāṇa, sometimes referring to intention for example and at other times to thought.⁶⁵ Despite this distinction between the two terms,⁶⁶ they are nevertheless closely related. In fact, they are often used synonymously. For example, there are several instances in the *suttas* where one term appears where one would normally expect to find the other:

'When that consciousness (viññāṇaṁ) is unestablished, not coming to growth, nongenerative, it is liberated (vimuttaṁ)'.

SN 22.53:3.8 & SN 22.54:4.8

Usually it is the *citta* which is said to be liberated. Another example of this is as follows:

'With the origination of name-and-form ($n\bar{a}ma$ - $r\bar{u}pa$ - $samuday\bar{a}$) there is the origination of mind ($cittassa\ samudayo$). With the cessation of name-and-form there is the passing away of mind'.

SN 47.42:1.8-1.9

It is usually *viññāṇa* which is said to be thus conditioned by name-and-form. But as the context here is the four *satipaṭ-thānas*, the third of which is mind contemplation (*cittānupas-sana*), *citta* is used instead.

hard to square with the descriptions of *Nibbāna* and *citta* in the *suttas*.

⁶⁵ In the *Vinaya-Piṭaka* the Buddha typically asks a monk who thinks he may have committed an offence, *kimcitto*, 'what (was your) intention?', e.g. at Bu Pj 2:7.6.8. *Citta* seems to mean 'thought' in the standard description of thought-reading, e.g. at DN 11:6.0–7.8. For a further sense of the wide use of the term *citta* see PED.)

⁶⁶ cf. Bodhi 2000, p.769, n.154.

Where the suttas analyse the mind into mental factors, viññāna usually forms part of the list. In the following passage, however, *citta* is used in place of *viññāṇa*:

And the states in the first jhāna - the applied thought, the sustained thought, the rapture, the pleasure, and the unification of mind; the contact, feeling, perception, volition, and mind (cittam); the zeal, decision, energy, mindfulness, equanimity, and attention ...67

MN 111:4.1

Elsewhere, citta and viññāṇa are used together to refer to the same thing: 'When in his mother's womb the first thought (cittam) has arisen, the first consciousness (viññānam) appeared, his birth is (to be reckoned) from that time' (Kd 1:75.1.8).68

This interchangeability of citta and viññaṇa is not surprising when one considers the matter carefully. From the suttas it can be seen that, although *viññāṇa* as a 'technical' term only refers to consciousness or awareness, viññana devoid of other mental factors is merely a theoretical construct which in actual experience does not occur. Thus citta, even in its broadest sense, is implied by viññāṇa:

Feeling, perception and consciousness, friend these states are conjoined (samsattha), not disjoined, and it is impossible to separate each of these states from the others in order to describe the difference between them. For what one feels, that

⁶⁷ The use of citta here, in place of viññāṇa, could perhaps be under the influence of the abhidhamma. See Ven. Anālayo's study of the Anupada Sutta, MN 111, in Analayo 2011.

^{68 &#}x27;Citta' which is usually translated as 'mind' is here translated as 'thought' because 'mind' does not really fit the context. Perhaps 'mental state' would be a better translation.

one perceives; and what one perceives, that one cognises.

MN 43:9.4-9.7

So whenever there is consciousness, the other mental factors will also be present (cf. MN 111), and thus $vi\tilde{n}\tilde{n}a\bar{n}a$ is in effect no different from citta. 69 Citta in turn cannot exist without $vi\tilde{n}\tilde{n}a\bar{n}a$: mind without consciousness is surely an unintelligible concept. Thus, where there is citta, there is also $vi\tilde{n}\tilde{n}a\bar{n}a$; and where there is $vi\tilde{n}\tilde{n}a\bar{n}a$, there is also citta. In practice they are inseparable and very closely related:

'But, bhikkhus, as to that which is called "mind" (*cittaṁ*) and "mentality" (*mano*) and consciousness" (*viññānaṁ*)';⁷⁰

SN 12.61:2.1

But what is called thought (*cittaṁ*), or mind (*mano*), or consciousness (*viññānaṁ*)'.⁷¹

DN 1:2.13.4

MN 138 provides another striking example of $vi\tilde{n}\tilde{n}\bar{a}na$ and citta being used interchangeably. In the summary at the beginning of the sutta, at MN 138:3.1, $vi\tilde{n}\tilde{n}\bar{a}na$ is used. Later on in the same sutta, in the section explaining this $vi\tilde{n}\tilde{n}\bar{a}na$, citta is used in its place; see MN 138:12.3, 13.2, 14.2, 15.2, 16.3, 17.2, 18.2, 19.2. Further, in the explanation itself, $vi\tilde{n}\tilde{n}\bar{a}na$ and citta are used together.

For further references to the interchangeability of $vi\tilde{n}\tilde{a}na$ and citta in non-Pali Buddhist texts (i.e. primarily Chinese and Sanskrit sources), see Anālayo 2011, footnote 168 to MN 138.

⁶⁹ It seems clear that *citta* is often regarded as including other mental factors apart from *viññāṇa*. See discussion above.

⁷⁰ In both this quote and the one below the singular 'yam ca kho etam/idam', 'and that/this which', is used. Thus 'citta', 'mano', and 'viññāṇa' refer to the same entity. Also note that Ven. Bhikkhu Bodhi here has translated 'itipi' with 'and', a translation normally used for 'ca'. A more literal translation of 'itipi' might be 'also' or 'too': 'But, bhikkhus, as to that which is called mind, also mentality, also consciousness'. It is significant that this phrase is also found in the Chinese and the Buddhist Hybrid Sanskrit versions of this sutta, cf. respectively T II 81c, 7 and Tripāṭhī 1962, folio 5 V3.

⁷¹ Apparently the Tibetan counterpart to this *sutta* has the equivalent phrase; cf. Weller 1934 p.26.

Therefore, if viññāṇa is not permanent and eternal, the same must be true for citta:

Here, a certain ascetic or Brahmin is a logician, a reasoner. Hammering it out by reason, following his own line of thought, he argues: 'Whatever is called eye or ear or nose or tongue or body, that self is impermanent, unstable, non-eternal, liable to change. But what is called thought (cittam), or mind (mano) or consciousness (viññānam), that self is permanent, stable, eternal, not subject to change, the same for ever and ever!'72

DN 1:2.13.2-2.13.4

But, bhikkhus, as to that which is called 'mind' (cittam) and 'mentality' (mano) and 'consciousness' (viññānam) — the uninstructed worldling is unable to experience revulsion towards it, unable to become dispassionate towards it and be liberated from it. For what reason? Because for a long time this has been held to by him, appropriated, and grasped thus: 'This is mine, this I am, this is my self'. Therefore the uninstructed worldling is unable to experience revulsion towards it, unable to become dispassionate towards it and be liberated from it.

It would be better, bhikkhus, for the uninstructed worldling to take as self this body composed of the four great elements rather than the mind (cittam). For what reason? Because this body composed of the four great elements is seen standing for one year, for two years, for three, four, five, or ten years, for twenty, thirty, forty, or fifty years, for a hundred years, or even longer. But that

⁷² This passage refers to a wrong view.

which is called 'mind' (cittam) and 'mentality' (mano) and 'consciousness' (viññāṇam) arises as one thing and ceases as another by day and by night. Just as a monkey roaming through a forest grabs hold of one branch, lets go and grabs another, then lets that go and grabs still another, so too that which is called 'mind' and 'mentality' and 'consciousness' arises as one thing and ceases as another by day and by night.

SN 12.61:2.1-4.3

Thus, according to the *suttas*, holding the view that *citta* in some way can be regarded as permanent, is a mistake. Moreover, when one gains the full *ariyan* insight into the impermanent and suffering nature of the mind, one feels revulsion (*nibbidā*) and dispassion (*virāga*) towards it. And when the *arahant* attains final *Nibbāna*, the *citta* comes to an end:

Like the deer roaming at will in the variegated grove, having entered the delightful mountain, wreathed in clouds,

I shall rejoice there
on the uncrowded mountain;
you, mind (citta),
will certainly perish (parābhavissasi).⁷³

Thag 19.1:54.1-54.4

⁷³ Although I have argued in the above section concerning anidassana viññaṇa that the interpretation of verse is often difficult, this becomes particularly relevant if a verse is interpreted in a way that is contrary to what can be established from canonical prose passages alone. In the present case, the verses merely reinforce what can be established elsewhere.

You are seen, housebuilder, you will not build a house again. All your rafters are broken, your gables are torn asunder.

The mind (cittam), made free of boundaries. will blow away (vidhamissati) in this very existence.74

Thag 2.32:2.1-2.6

It [citta] remains steady, attained to imperturbability, and he observes its vanishing (vayañcassānupassati).

AN 6.55:17.2, 17.8, 17.20

With the cessation of name-and-form there is the cessation of mind (cittassa).

SN 47.42:1.9

⁷⁴ The translation is based on the alternative reading 'vimariyādikatam' in the last line.

Norman's translation of 'vidhamissati', 'will blow away', can probably be improved upon. other possible translations include: 'will be demolished' (cf. Bodhi 2000, p.985), 'will be ruined', 'will fall away', and 'will be destroyed'.

CHAPTER 7 PABHASSARA CITTA, THE RADIANT MIND

At AN 1.49 we find the following oft-quoted passage: 'this mind (cittaṁ), bhikkhus, is radiant (pabhassaraṁ), but is defiled by defilements which arrive'. Might this pabhassara citta be an eternal, radiant, and pure mind? It seems clear from the following that this cannot be the case:

So too, bhikkhus, there are these five corruptions of the mind (*cittassa*), corrupted by which the mind is neither malleable nor wieldy nor radiant (*pabhassaraṁ*) but brittle and not rightly concentrated for the destruction of the taints. What five? Sensual desire ... ill will ... sloth and torpor ... restlessness and remorse ... doubt is a corruption of the mind, corrupted by which the mind is neither malleable nor wieldy nor radiant but brittle and not rightly concentrated for the destruction of the taints.

SN 46.33:2.1-2.4 & AN 5.23:2.1-2.4 (cf. AN 3.102:1.6, 2.5, 3.6 & MN 140:20.1-20.3)

This appears to be the only unambiguous usage of pabhassara in the suttas. It follows that the only reasonable interpretation of pabhassara citta is that it is the mind freed from the five hindrances, the most obvious example of which is the mind in ihāna.75

⁷⁵ See also Anālayo 2003, p.191, n.39.

My understanding is that the radiance is always available, it is only matter of overcoming the hindrances. But when the defilements are present the mind is not radiant: otherwise we would be able to observe that radiance, since the mind can only be known through direct experience.

Chapter 8 Does the Term Citta Have Two Fundamentally Distinct Referents?

If, as suggested by Harvey 1995, one sees the *Nikāyas* as including a doctrine of two fundamentally different types of consciousness, i.e. a *samsāric* consciousness and a timeless *Nibbānic* consciousness, then, in view of the close relationship between *viññāṇa* and *citta*, one would expect the *Nikāyas* to make a similar distinction between two fundamentally different types of *citta*. Thus the term *citta* would sometimes refer to the ordinary *citta* of the *puthujjana* and at other times refer to a permanent *citta* known to the *arahant*.⁷⁶ A phrase such as *'cittaṁ vimuccati'* (e.g. at MN 51:27.2), 'the mind is liberated', would then refer to the liberated 'eternal mind', or 'original pure mind', known to the *arahant*.⁷⁷

But there is no evidence to support making this distinction. Nowhere in the *suttas* do we find that two such different

⁷⁶ Whether the other *ariyas* would know of such a *citta* seems unclear. See my discussion of *ariya-samādhi* in the introduction.

⁷⁷ Following Harvey's approach, one might alternatively call this a 'timeless (mode of) mind'. I have already discussed why the idea of 'timelessness', in my opinion, does not add anything new. See discussion of *viññāṇa* above.

realities could both be referred to as 'citta'. Considering the centrality of this issue for the proper understanding of the *Dhamma*, it seems highly unlikely that the Buddha should have used the term *citta* in such distinct ways without clearly commenting upon it.⁷⁸

In my opinion, the only possible meaning of such phrases as 'cittam vimuccati' is that the 'ordinary' mind is liberated from the defilements ($\bar{a}sav\bar{a}$). There is no indication that this mind is somehow permanent. Indeed, one would have expected citta to be used synonymously with Nibbāna if this thesis were correct. But citta is never used in this way in the suttas.⁷⁹

⁷⁸ Moreover, consciousness (viññāṇa) is also occasionally said to be 'freed'; see in particular SN 22.53:3.8-3.9 & SN 22.54:4.8-4.9, above. If 'mind' has a distinct meaning in the phrase 'the mind is liberated', then the same would have to be true for viññāṇa in this parallel construction. But we have already seen that the Buddha rejects the idea of viññāṇa as a permanent entity.

⁷⁹ See for example the *asaṅkhata-saṁyutta* (SN 43.12/SN 43.13/SN 43.14-43) where there are 32 synonyms for *Nibbāna*, none of which is *citta* or any particular state of *citta*.

Chapter 9 CITTA AND MANO (MIND)

Citta and mano are even more closely related than citta and $vi\tilde{n}\tilde{n}ana$:80

What is mind (*cittam*), that is mentality (*mano*); what is mentality (*mano*), that is mind (*cittam*).⁸¹

Bu Pj 3:3.28 (transl. Brahmāli)

Thus is your mind (*mano*), and in this way is your mind (*mano*), and thus is your mind (*cittaṁ*).

DN 11:6.3, 6.5, 6.9, 7.4 & DN 28:6.4, 6.8, 6.12 & AN 3.60:9.3, 10.2, 11.2, 15.2 (transl. Brahmāli)

⁸⁰ As with <code>viññaṇa</code> and <code>citta</code>, <code>mano</code> and <code>citta</code> have their own more or less distinct spheres of usage in the <code>suttas</code>. Sometimes in the analysis of mental processes the Buddha uses <code>mano</code> to describe the mind in relation to mind-consciousness but not in relation to the other five types of consciousness. In this analysis, <code>mano</code> is the sense through which mind-consciousness arises. <code>Citta</code>, on the other hand, apparently encompasses all six types of consciousness. outside such technical usage, however, <code>mano</code> and <code>citta</code> seem to be used synonymously.

⁸¹ This passage concerns mind reading.

Always frightened is this mind (*cittam*), the mind (*mano*) is always agitated.⁸²

SN 2.17:2.1-2.2

Given this close relationship, even identity, between *citta* and *mano*, a whole new line of argument against the idea of a permanent *citta* could be developed by showing the impermanent, non-self nature of *mano*. However, as I feel the above arguments are already sufficient, I will just quote a few passages from the *suttas* to illustrate:

The mind (mano) is subject to disintegration (palokadhammo).

SN 35.84:2.7

The mind (*mano*) is non-self. The cause and condition for the arising of the mind is also non-self. As

The following two examples are also instructive of the close relationship between *citta* and *mano*:

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'A mind of ill-will (byāpannacitto), mental intention of hate (paduṭṭhamanasaṅkappo)'.
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SN 22.80:7.2 (transl. Brahmāli)

'An undaunted mind (appatiṭṭhitacitto), a non-dejected mind (adīnamānaso), a mind without ill-will (abyāpannacetaso)'.

SN 46.6:3.4, 4.7 (transl. Brahmāli) (cf. Bodhi 2000, 1904, n.69)

In the above *mano* and *citta*, as well as *ceto*, seem to be used as synonyms.

Yet another example of this close relationship is the use of $k\bar{a}ya$ (body), $v\bar{a}c\bar{a}$ (speech), and mano (mind) to denote the three doors of wholesome and unwholesome actions; occasionally the three doors are denoted as $k\bar{a}ya$, $v\bar{a}c\bar{a}$, and citta; cf. SN 17.9:1.6, SN 20.10:3.1, 3.9 and SN 35.127:5.4, 5.5. See also Dhp 348 where one finds $vimuttam\bar{a}naso$ in place of the standard cetovimutti.

⁸² Both *mano* and *citta* are usually translated as 'mind'. When the words are used together in the *suttas*, translators often seem to struggle to find a second English word that also means 'mind' (cf. Bodhi 2000, p.769, n.154).

the mind has originated from what is non-self, how could it be self?

SN 35.142:1.7-1.9

If anyone says, 'the mind (mano) is self', that is not tenable. The rise and fall of mind are discerned. and since the rise and fall of mind are discerned it. would follow: 'my self rises and falls'. That is why it is not tenable for anyone to say: 'the mind is self'. Thus the mind is not self

MN 148:11.5-11.10

The arahants maintain that when the mind exists (manasmim sati) there is pleasure and pain, and when the mind does not exist (mana-smim asati) there is no pleasure and pain.

SN 35.133:6.1-6.3

The mind (mano) is yours, Evil one, mental phenomena are yours, mind-contact and its base of consciousness is yours; but, Evil one, where there is no mind, no mental phenomena, no mind-contact and its base of consciousness (viññāṇāyatanaṁ) there is no place for you there, evil one.

SN 4.19:3.1-3.10

Again, bhikkhus, a bhikkhu who is beyond training (an arahant) understands the six faculties – the eye faculty, the ear faculty, the nose faculty, the tongue faculty, the body faculty, the mind (mano) faculty. He understands: 'these six faculties will cease completely and totally without remainder, and no other six faculties will arise anywhere in any way.

SN 48.53:7.1-7.3

As with consciousness, one has to conclude that final Nibbāna has nothing to do with mind.

Chapter 10 Final Nibbāna

The discussion so far has emphasized that, according to the *Nikāyas*, final *Nibbāna* cannot be regarded as some sort of permanent or timeless consciousness or mind and that it cannot be regarded as a self (*attā*). But highlighting what final *Nibbāna* is not obviously begs the question: What then is final *Nibbāna*? Indeed, it might be asked, is it anything at all apart from the cessation of existence?⁸³

Before I attempt to answer this question, it is necessary to investigate a number of *sutta* passages that concern *Nibbāna* more directly. These passages are often referred to as evidence that final *Nibbāna* is some sort of 'state' ⁸⁴ (see for instance Bodhi 2005, p.318). ⁸⁵ But I would contend that they do not need to be interpreted in this way.

- 83 That is, the cessation of the five aggregates. This does not imply anything except the cessation of an entirely impersonal process. This is very different from the annihilation of a permanent entity. See discussion below.
- 84 I use quotes here and below to emphasise that such a 'state', or 'existing entity', would be completely different from anything that can normally be experienced by human beings. Thus the word 'state' is only used for lack of suitable terminology.
- 85 Ṭhānissaro Bhikkhu 1993b, Abstract) also seems to support the idea that final *Nibbāna* is more than mere cessation: 'As for the question of how *nibbana* is experienced after death, the Buddha says that there is no limit in that experience by which it could be described'. Note in particular the words 'that experience', referring to *Nibbāna* after the death of the *arahant*.

Sometimes Nibbāna is called Nibbānadhātu, e.g. at SN 45.7:2.4.86 The word dhātu is often translated as 'element'. Basing one's understanding on this translation it is natural to conclude that Nibbāna must be 'something'. However, this would be to ignore the range of meanings of the word dhātu.87 In addition to meaning 'element', it also has the sense of 'property' (see PED).88 This meaning is prominent in such compounds as nirodha-dhātu (Iti 51:2.3), 'the property of cessation', and nekkhamma-dhātu (SN 14.12:7.2), 'the property of renunciation'.89 Indeed, Nibbānadhātu itself is explained at SN 45.7:2.1-2.6, as nothing other than 'the removal (vinayo) of lust, the removal of hatred and the removal of delusion'. Here, again, it is the property aspect which is to the fore, and the best translation would perhaps be 'the property of extinguishment'.90

Another set of suttas, at SN 43.12/SN 43.13/SN 43.14-43, present 32 synonyms for Nibbāna. This could easily be regarded as evidence of final Nibbāna as an existing 'state'. However, in this case we need to be careful to distinguish between Nibbāna

Moreover, dhātu is used for saññāvedayitanirodha, the cessation of perception and feeling (SN 14.11:1.4). In this case it can clearly not refer to an element as something existing. Rather, it seems to refer to the existence of the possibility of the cessation of the mental *khandhas*.

The word pada, lit. 'foot', has a similarly broad application. For example, the expression amatam padam (e.g. at AN 4.48:4.4), which is used as a synonym for Nibbāna, might perhaps be rendered 'the characteristic of freedom from death'; see PED. (See discussion of Ud 8.3 below for why amatam is better rendered as 'freedom from death' than 'the deathless'. See also CPD.)

⁸⁶ Or it may be called asankhatadhātu, MN 115:9.4, or amatadhātu, see AN 6.46:6.5.

⁸⁷ It also ignores the distinction between Nibbāna and final Nibbāna. From the definition of Nibbāna-dhātu at SN 45.7:2.1-2.6, see below, it seems clear that it refers to the state of arahant-ship, not final Nibbāna.

⁸⁸ That is, property in the sense of quality.

⁸⁹ The point of these expressions is presumably simply to point out that there are such things as cessation and renunciation.

⁹⁰ That is, the extinguishment of the defilements of lust, hatred and delusion.

as an aspect of arahant-ship (i.e. the destruction of lust, hatred and delusion) and final Nibbāna. Because all these suttas are about the destruction of the defilements they would seem to concern arahant-ship.

Two suttas relevant to the present discussion are found at Ud 8. The first of these reads as follows:

Monks, there is that base (āyatana) where there is no earth, no water, no fire, no air; no base consisting of the infinity of space, no base consisting of the infinity of consciousness, no base consisting of nothingness, no base consisting of neither-perception-nor-non-perception; neither this world nor another world; neither sun nor moon. I say, bhikkhus, it is not coming, going or remaining, not passing away or reappearing. It is unestablished, not moving, without basis. Just this is the end of suffering.91

Ud 8.1:3.1-3.4

The first part of this quote, 'where there is no earth ... neither moon nor sun', is identical to the standard description of what I call 'ariya-samādhi'.92 That we are here dealing with a state of samādhi would fit well with the use of the word 'base', āyatana, which is often used of samādhi attainments.93

The second part of the quote, 'it is not coming, going or remaining, not passing away or reappearing; it is unestab-

⁹¹ My translation, based on Bodhi 2005.

⁹² See introduction. This samādhi is described at AN 10.6, AN 10.7 and AN 11.7, AN 11.8. (AN 3.32 is also closely related.) The only difference is the absence of 'neither sun nor moon' in the AN passages. The sun and moon seem to have been regarded as belonging to 'another world' in ancient India (see DN 23:5.10-5.11), and thus the inclusion of this expression does not seem to add anything new. I would regard its addition to Ud 8.1 simply as poetic flourish.

⁹³ E.g. the immaterial attainments are all called *āyatana*.

lished, not moving, without basis (neva āgatim ... na gatim na țhitim na cutim na upapattim, appatițțhitam appavattam anārammaṇamevetam)', seems to be nothing other than a description of arahant-ship. The initial phrase, 'no coming ... or reappearing', elsewhere refers to arahant-ship (see Ud 8.4:3.5, MN 144:11.6-11.7 and cf. SN 12.40:1.5-1.6, 2.4-2.5, 3.4-3.5): there is no future coming, going, passing away, or reappearing for the arahant as he has cut these things off. They cease here and now because their cause has been removed.94 That 'unestablished', appatitthita, also refers to arahant-ship, I have already shown in the above section on 'unestablished consciousness'. 'Without basis', anārammana, 95 is often found together with 'unestablished' (SN12.38, SN12.39 & SN12.40) and would therefore also seem to refer to arahant-ship. 'Not moving', appavatta, does not seem to be encountered elsewhere in the Nikāyas, but it appears to be a simple reference to 'not moving in samsāra', being the opposite of pavatta, 'moving on'/going on'. Again, it seems natural to identify this with arahant-ship.

The final line of the verse, 'just this is the end of suffering', would normally refer to the living *arahant*. 'Just this is the end of suffering', or more commonly 'the end of suffering', is a standard way of describing the attainment of *arahant*-ship, e.g. at MN 144:11.3–11.9. In sum, the above passage at Ud 8.1:3.1–3.4 seems to describe something related to both *ariya-samādhi* and *arahant*-ship. It seems clear therefore that it must relate to

⁹⁴ But note that the Ud 8.1:3.2 verse includes the word *thitim* which is not found in the parallel passages. It seems likely that this refers to the 'remaining' in a particular existence, between one's arising there and one's subsequent passing away.

⁹⁵ Or an equivalent formulation such as ārammaṇe asati, e.g. at SN12.38:3.2. Harvey 1995, p.203 translates anārammaṇa as 'without object'. However, in relation to SN12.38, SN12.39 & SN12.40 the commentary glosses the term with paccaya, 'condition' or 'basis'. I cannot see any reason why the commentarial explanation should be rejected. (In the Abhidhamma, however, ārammaṇa-paccaya, seems to have the sense of object-condition.)

Nibbāna, with final Nibbāna perhaps being the most likely candidate. 96 But even if this is the case, the word ayatana, like the word dhātu, is used so broadly in the Nikāyas that this would still not be decisive in showing that final Nibbana is a 'state'. At AN 9.36, AN 9.43 and AN 9.44, for example, avatana is used to describe saññavedayitanirodha, an attainment where the mental aggregates temporarily cease. Clearly ayatana cannot refer to an 'existing entity' in such a context.

The other *sutta* of interest from the *Udāna* reads as follows:

'Monks, there is a freedom from what is born, a freedom from what has become, a freedom from what is made, a freedom from what is produced (atthi bhikkhave ajātam abhūtam akatam asamkhatam)'.

> Ud 8.3:3.1-3.4 (transl. Brahmāli)

What is here rendered as 'freedom from what is born', ajātam, is often translated as 'the unborn', giving a definite sense that this *sutta* describes something positively existing.⁹⁷ However, as Johansson 1969, p.39, p.54) points out, ajātam recurs at MN26:18.1 where the context requires it to mean 'freedom from birth'. Having understood that he is subject to birth, the Buddha-to-be seeks the ajātam. If birth is a problem, then surely the natural thing to do is to seek a freedom from birth. not a 'state' that is unborn. 98 The most reasonable translation of ajātam, therefore, would seem to be 'freedom from what is

⁹⁶ Alternatively, or additionally, it might refer to saññavedayitanirodha or perhaps even ariya-samādhi itself. This being verse, the ambiguity could be deliberate.

⁹⁷ It is usually further assumed that this positively existing something is final Nibbāna.

⁹⁸ Moreover, by interpreting the Buddha's reflection to refer to an 'unborn state' one is adding a precondition to the Buddha's search that reduces the sphere of potential solutions. It seems unlikely that the Buddha-to-be would add a stipulation which might stop him from reaching his goal.

born' or 'freedom from birth'.⁹⁹ If this is accepted, it is natural to translate all the initial a's at Ud 8.3:3.1–3.4 as privatives, that is, as 'freedom from'. According to this interpretation (see my translation above), what is being described here is not necessarily a 'state' at all. In my opinion, all this passage does is to affirm the possibility of ending *samsāra*.¹⁰⁰ Indeed, this is precisely the broader context of this extract.¹⁰¹

None of the passages discussed in this section need be read as descriptions of final *Nibbāna*, let alone as final *Nibbāna* being 'something' in a positive sense. Indeed, it may be that the standard practice of leaving *Nibbāna* untranslated prejudices our perception of this concept, giving it a sense of a real existing entity when in fact this may not be warranted. If instead we were to translate *Nibbāna* in accordance with its meaning, perhaps with 'extinguishment', ¹⁰² then our perception of *Nibbāna* would probably alter accordingly. ¹⁰³

In the end, the passages discussed in this section are not decisive in regard to the ontological status of final *Nibbāna*.¹⁰⁴

⁹⁹ The same argument would hold true of amatam, which occurs in the same context at MN 26:18.1, and which therefore should be translated as 'freedom from death'.

¹⁰⁰ Either in the sense of attaining arahant-ship or in the sense of final Nibbāna.

¹⁰¹ The broader passage reads as follows: 'If, monks, there were no freedom from what is born ... no freedom from what is produced, no escape would be discerned from what is born ... from what is produced'. In other words, if there were no such thing as the cessation of the *khandhas*, then no escape from suffering would be possible. See discussion below.

¹⁰² See discussion in footnote 7 above.

¹⁰³ In this context it is significant that in the *suttas* one of the most common synonyms for *Nibbāna* is *nirodha*, 'cessation'.

¹⁰⁴ Harvey 1995, pp.201–203 also discusses a number of passages in the *Saṃyutta Nikāya* in support of his interpretation of final *Nibbāna* (as well as *Nibbāna* in life, but here the discussion concerns final *Nibbāna*). All of these *suttas* revolve around the idea of unestablished consciousness, *appatiṭṭhita viññāṇa*, which I have already discussed above. Again, the idea of unestablished consciousness quite clearly refers to the living

This brings us back to the question with which we started the present section: Is final Nibbāna anything at all apart from the cessation of existence?

arahant and there seems to be no reason to take it as referring to final Nibbāna.

CHAPTER 11 MIGHT FINAL NIBBĀNA BE AN 'EXISTING ENTITY' ENTIRELY DIFFERENT FROM THE FIVE KHANDHAS?

The reason why the above analysis has not produced any decisive result regarding the nature of final *Nibbāna* is simply that the *suttas* very rarely seem to speak of final *Nibbāna*; their emphasis is on *Nibbāna* during life, the experience of *arahant*-ship. Nevertheless, we have seen that final *Nibbāna* cannot be equated with a form of consciousness or mind. Indeed, it is clear that it must be other than the five *khandhas*. This being the case, could final *Nibbāna* be a 'state', some sort of 'existing entity', quite separate from the five *khandhas*?

The idea that final *Nibbāna* is an 'existing entity' is usually matched with the idea that this 'state' can be experienced while the *arahant* is still alive. ¹⁰⁵ In fact, these two ideas of necessity go together: if the final *Nibbāna* 'state' was not experienceable by living *arahants*, they would not know of its existence and consequently there could be no record of it for posterity. But the idea that final *Nibbāna* can be experienced by the living

¹⁰⁵ Or that it can be experienced by any *ariyan*. See for instance Bodhi 2005, p.318 and Harvey 1995, p.210.

arahant is doctrinally problematic. An experience of something — without which one cannot know that it exists — by definition includes consciousness. Thus, an experience of the equivalent of final Nibbana while alive must involve consciousness. Indeed, this is also the standard explanation for how Nibbāna is said to be experienced: the mind or consciousness takes it as its object. 106

The problem with this idea is that it does not fit the Nikāyas' explanation of consciousness. As I have already pointed out in the introduction to this paper, consciousness is always defined by the object it takes and thus there are precisely six classes of consciousness, one for each of the five senses and one for the mind (e.g. at SN22.57:14.1-14.4). There is no indication anywhere of any further classes of consciousness. Yet the idea of final Nibbāna as an object of consciousness would require a seventh class of consciousness: it does not fit into any of the six classes mentioned in the suttas. 107 Thus, to see consciousness as taking final Nibbāna as its object is to go beyond fixed sutta categories and therefore a baseless extension of what appears to be a full description of reality in the Nikāyas.

More generally, is it sensible to speak of a final Nibbāna 'state' that is entirely other than the five khandhas? If consciousness ceases once and for all, what could final Nibbāna possibly be? It makes no sense to speak of a 'state' which by definition cannot be known. Such a state becomes a mere cipher, something completely devoid of meaning. It is tantamount to not existing at all.

That the idea of final *Nibbāna* being a 'state' is a weak one, is also clear from the principle of Occam's razor. This philosoph-

¹⁰⁶ See for instance Bodhi 2005, p.379: '... his mind ... focuses upon the deathless element, Nibbāna'. See also footnote 12 above.

¹⁰⁷ In the Nikāyas, on a large number of occasions, the six senses, their objects, and the six corresponding classes of consciousness are all said to be impermanent and suffering (e.g. at SN 35.32). No exception is ever explicitly mentioned. clearly Nibbana cannot be part of this scheme.

ical principle states that 'the fewest possible assumptions are to be made in explaining things'. 108 In the present case, all ideas of final Nibbāna being an 'existing reality' produce complications — and therefore a need for further assumptions¹⁰⁹ — that make these ideas less compelling according to Occam's razor. The simplest explanation of what happens at final Nibbāna is simply that the five khandhas cease. The simplicity and directness of this idea and its fit, as I have tried to show, with all aspects of the teachings found in the Nikāyas, makes it by far the strongest candidate for explaining final Nibbāna. 110

Finally, I wish to point out one remaining danger with insisting that final Nibbana is a 'state' of 'something'. For a puthujiana such a 'state' would be quite literally unimaginable.111 In trying to understand it, he would quite naturally employ some version of the five khandhas. Anyone who accepts the Buddha's teaching that final Nibbana is the highest happiness would therefore almost unavoidably grasp at or attach to that version of the five khandhas. Because the khandhas can manifest in extremely subtle ways — for instance, for anyone who has not experienced it, it would be virtually impossible to imagine what the experience of the base of nothingness is like — one would quite likely not even be aware of one's attachment. In this way one ends up grasping the khandhas - that is, grasping what is in reality suffering thinking it to be final Nibbāna. And instead of reaching final Nibbāna one ends up perpetuating samsāra. The view that final Nibbāna is just cessation is thus not only the one that seems

¹⁰⁸ The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English, 1995, ninth edition.

¹⁰⁹ Such as a 'timeless' consciousness or a seventh class of consciousness.

¹¹⁰ It might be objected that Occam's razor is primarily applicable to scientific explanations. But scientific explanations are explanations of real and observable phenomena, and from a Buddhist point of view the extinguishment that happens at final Nibbāna is also a real and (in some ways) observable phenomenon.

¹¹¹ And if, as suggested above, such a 'state' of final Nibbāna cannot be experienced even by arahants, the same would be true of all ariyas.

most in tune with the *Nikāyas* but also the one that quite pragmatically is most likely to lead to an exit from *saṁsāra*.¹¹²

¹¹² Could such a view of final *Nibbāna* lead to *vibhavataṇhā*, a craving for annihilation? Possibly it could. But it seems to me that it is far more common for people to hold an eternalist view than an annihilationist view. Moreover, the Buddha himself considered the annihilationist view superior; see my discussion immediately below. In other words, although ideally one should realize that the Buddha taught neither eternalism nor annihilationism (see next section), it is preferable to err on the side of annihilationism.

CHAPTER 12 IF FINAL NIBBĀNA IS MERE CESSATION, HOW IS THIS DIFFERENT FROM ANNIHILATION?

At AN 10.29, we find the following revealing passage:

Monk, among the views of outsiders, this is the highest: 'I might not be and it might not be mine; I shall not be and it will not be mine (no cassam, no ca me siyā, na bhavissāmi, na me bhavissatī ti)'. For one, monks, who has such a view, it can be expected that he will not feel attracted to existence and will have no aversion to the cessation of existence.

AN 10.29:19.1–19.4 (Adapted from Ñāṇaponika 1999 p.246)

The view mentioned here is identified as annihilationism at SN 22.81:11.1–11.15. Since annihilationism is always contrasted with eternalism in the *Nikāyas*, this *sutta* in effect states that the annihilationist view is superior to the view of eternalism. Again, this undermines any claim that final *Nibbāna* exists in some sense or other.¹¹³

¹¹³ Since the idea that final *Nibbāna* is an 'existing entity' would seem to be closer to eternalism than annihilationism.

The above quote also makes it clear that the Buddha's teaching is not annihilationism.¹¹⁴ What then is the distinction between cessation and annihilation? SN 22.85 deals precisely with this question:

[Ven. Sāriputta:] 'Is it true, friend Yamaka, that such a pernicious view as this has arisen in you: "As I understand the *dhamma* taught by the Blessed one, a bhikkhu whose taints are destroyed is annihilated (*ucchijjati*) and perishes (*vinassati*) with the breakup of the body and does not exist after death (*na hoti param maraṇā*)"?'

[Ven. Yamaka:] 'Exactly so, friend'.

SN 22.85:3.1-3.3

Here Yamaka specifically holds the view that an *arahant* is annihilated at death and it is clear from the narrative and Sāriputta's subsequent questioning of Yamaka that this is contrary to the *Dhamma*. Sāriputta's questioning of Yamaka establishes that anything one might take a *Tathāgata/arahant* to be¹¹⁵ — that is, anything among the five *khandhas* — is all impermanent and suffering. Thus there is no permanent self and therefore no real person/*arahant/Tathāgata* to be annihilated in the first place:

'What do think, friend Yamaka, do you regard form ... feeling ... perception ... volitional formations ... consciousness as the *Tathāgata*?' — 'No, friend'. — 'What do think, friend Yamaka, do you regard the *Tathāgata* as in form ... feeling ... perception ... volitional formations ... consciousness' — 'No, friend'. — 'Do you regard the *Tathāgata* as apart from form ... feeling ... perception ... volitional

¹¹⁴ Because annihilationism is 'the view of outsiders'.

¹¹⁵ The words arahant and $Tath\bar{a}gata$ appear to be used synonymously in this sutta.

formations ... consciousness?' - 'No, friend'. -'What do you think, friend Yamaka, do you regard form, feeling, perception, volitional formations, and consciousness [taken together] as the Tathāgata?' - 'No, friend'. - 'What do you think, friend Yamaka, do you regard the *Tathāgata* as one who is without form, without feeling, without perception, without volitional formations, without consciousness?' - 'No, friend'. - 'But, friend, when the Tathāgata is not apprehended by you as real and actual in this very life (dittheva dhamme saccato thetato anupalabbhiyamāno), is it fitting for you to declare: "As I understand the dhamma taught by the Blessed one, a bhikkhu whose taints are destroyed is annihilated and perishes with the breakup of the body and does not exist after death"?'

SN 22.85:7.1-11.5

After Yamaka has understood Sāriputta's teaching, 116 we find the following exchange between them:

'If, friend Yamaka, they were to ask you: "friend Yamaka, when a bhikkhu is an arahant, one whose taints are destroyed, what happens to him with the breakup of the body, after death"? - being asked thus, what would you answer?'

'If they were to ask me this, friend, I would answer thus: "friend, form is impermanent; what is impermanent is suffering; what is suffering has ceased (niruddham) and passed away (atthangatam). Feeling is impermanent; what is impermanent is suffering; what is suffering has ceased and passed away. Perception is impermanent; what is

¹¹⁶ That is, after he has fully penetrated it with insight. He seems to have attained stream-entry while Sāriputta was teaching him.

impermanent is suffering; what is suffering has ceased and passed away. Volitional formations are impermanent; what is impermanent is suffering; what is suffering has ceased and passed away. Consciousness is impermanent; what is impermanent is suffering; what is suffering has ceased and passed away." Being asked thus, friend, I would answer in such a wav'.

SN 22.85:13.1-13.16

This, then, is what really happens at the death of an arahant. Because human beings, including arahants, are nothing more than an impersonal process (i.e. devoid of a stable self) which is impermanent and suffering, all that happens when an arahant dies is that this process comes to an end. From the arahants' point of view the khandhas have nothing to do with them;117 nor are they anything apart from the khandhas, as we have seen in the Yamaka Sutta. Moreover, because the khandhas are suffering, their cessation can only be a good thing. The death of an arahant is just the end, the cessation, of an unwanted process. Nothing of value is being lost; nothing is being annihilated. 118 This is why the death of an arahant does not count as annihilation. The reason an arahant is not annihilated at death has nothing to do with the nature of final Nibbā $na.^{119}$

¹¹⁷ See for instance SN 22.33, 'form ... feeling ... perception ... volitional formations ... consciousness is not yours: abandon it. When you have abandoned it that will lead to your welfare and happiness'. The sutta then gives the well-known simile of the grass, sticks and leaves in the Jetavana: just as the monks do not identify with those things, so too they should not identify with the five khandhas.

¹¹⁸ That is, nothing is annihilated from the arahant's point of view. once sakkāya-diţţhi (seeing a permanent self in the khandhas) is abandoned, the perception that an arahant can be annihilated is also abandoned. The death of an arahant is just the end of suffering. This is the point of the Yamaka Sutta, see above.

¹¹⁹ Harvey 1995, p.240 states that 'as ... only dukkha ends at the death of an

If the cessation of the *khandhas* is the full end of suffering and thus the highest possible happiness, then one would expect the attainment of the 'cessation of perception and feeling', saññāvedayitanirodha, to be the same. Indeed, this is exactly what one finds:

Should anyone say: 'that [i.e. the base of neitherperception-nor-non-perception] is the utmost pleasure (sukham) and joy (somanassam) that beings experience', I would not concede that to him. Why is that? Because there is another kind of pleasure loftier and more sublime than that pleasure. And what is that other kind of pleasure? Here, Ānanda, by completely surmounting the base neither-perception-nor-non-perception, bhikkhu enters upon and abides in the cessation of perception and feeling. This is that other kind of pleasure loftier and more sublime than the previous pleasure. 120

> MN 59:15.1-15.6 & SN 36.19:15.1-15.3

Arahat, the total non-existence of a Tathāgata beyond death seems to be ruled out'. But the point of the Yamaka Sutta, and indeed the suttas taken more broadly, is that there is nothing but *dukkha* even prior to the death of the arahant. This is how the bhikkhunī Vajirā expresses this:

This is a heap of sheer formations: Here no being is found. ... It's only suffering that comes to be, Suffering that stands and falls away. Nothing but suffering comes to be, Nothing but suffering ceases.

> SN 5.10:4.3-4.4, 6.1-6.4 (see also: SN 12.15:2.6)

If everything experienced by an arahant, and indeed all beings, is ultimately dukkha, and all dukkha ceases when an arahant dies, theneven without any further sutta evidence- any view of final Nibbāna existing in some sense is at the very least superfluous, but more likely misleading.

120 Since this is the culmination of a long list of pleasures, each in turn superior to the preceding one, the implication is that this is the highest.

This means that the full ending of everything is more 'pleasurable' and desirable than the blisses of even the most profound states of *samādhi*.¹²¹ In other words, complete cessation is superior and preferable to the highest bliss experienceable by human beings.

¹²¹ How the cessation of all feelings can be considered the highest 'pleasure' is explained at AN 9.34 and elsewhere.

CONCLUSION

The idea that final *Nibbāna* is nothing apart from the cessation of the *khandhas* might seem bleak. If it seems bleak, it is only due to the false sense of having a permanent self, or more precisely, because of the view of personal identity, *sakkāya-diṭ-thi*. ¹²² The sense that one has a permanent core — a distortion of perception that is unavoidable for all *puthujjanas* — makes cessation appear like annihilation and the successful practice of the path like a form of suicide. If cessation seems undesirable, it is only due to this distorted outlook.

Consider the following discussion between Ven. Sāriputta and Ven. Mahā-Koṭṭhita:

[Mahā-Koṭṭhita:] 'Friend, with the remainderless fading away and cessation of the six spheres of sense contact (i.e. final *Nibbāna*), is there anything else? ... is there not anything else?' ...

[Sāriputta:] 'Speaking thus: "Friend, with the remainderless fading away and cessation of the six spheres of sense contact, is there anything else? ... is there not anything else?", one proliferates

¹²² This is implied by the *suttas*, since it is *sakkāya-diṭṭhi* that is responsible for the sense of permanence.

(papañceti) about that which is without proliferation (appapañcaṁ)'.

AN 4.173 (transl. Brahmāli)

By asking 'is there anything else?' and 'is there not anything else?' the questioner reveals his distorted outlook, his preoccupation and concern about the fate of his non-existing self.¹²³ This is why Sāriputta calls the questions *papañca*, 'proliferation', *papañca* being the distorted thinking process that arises from a distorted perception of reality.¹²⁴ The *puthujjana* is trapped by

Concern about the nature of final *Nibbāna* is essentially the same as speculation about the nature of the *Tathāgata* after death. In the following quote it is said that such speculation is a result of *sakkāya-diṭṭḥi*, the view of personal identity, and that with the abandonment of *sakkāya-diṭṭhi* such speculation is also abandoned:

'What, Master Gotama, is the cause and reason why, when wanderers of other sects are asked such questions, they give such answers as: ... "the *Tathāgata* exists after death" or "the *Tathāgata* does not exists after death" ... And what is the cause and reason why, when Master Gotama is asked such questions, he does not give such answers?'

'Vaccha, wanderers of other sects regard form as self, or self as possessing form, or form as in self, or self as in form. They regard feeling as self ... perception as self ... volitional formations as self ... consciousness as self, or self as possessing consciousness, or consciousness as in self, or self as in consciousness. Therefore, when the wanderers of other sects are asked such questions, they give such answers as: the *Tathāgata* exists after death" or "the *Tathāgata* does not exists after death" ... But, Vaccha, the *Tathāgata*, the *arahant*, the Perfectly enlightened one, does not regard form as self ... self as in consciousness. therefore, when the *Tathāgata* is asked such questions, he does not give such answers.'.

SN 44.8:2.1-3.16

The above taking of a self in relation to the five aggregates is the definition of *sakkāya-diṭṭhi*; see MN 44:7.1–7.8.

¹²³ It is not clear whether Mahā-Koṭṭhita himself is caught up in *sakkāya-diṭṭhi*, whether he is testing Sāriputta or whether he is asking the questions for the benefit of others who are present. (According to the commentary the last of these is the correct explanation).

sakkāya-diṭṭhi, by the perception of a permanent core in himself. But from his own point of view, whether he is aware of it or not, he is simply concerned with the destiny of what he sees as his own true essence.¹²⁵

But if the illusion of personal identity is seen through, if the perceived solid core is seen not to exist, there is nothing to be concerned about anymore. When it is seen that all a being is made up of are the ever-impermanent *khandhas*, utterly tied up with suffering, then cessation becomes the most desirable thing possible. Questions such as 'is there anything else?' and 'is there not anything else?' are quite simply beside the point. In the final analysis, the Buddha's teachings concern only the ending of suffering. Although it seems clear that 'mere' cessation is the correct interpretation of final *Nibbāna* and although there are obvious dangers in regarding final *Nibbāna* as 'something', ultimately it is irrelevant whether the state that supervenes when the *arahant* dies is 'something' or 'nothing'.

¹²⁴ This does not mean that one may not have a legitimate discussion on the nature of final *Nibbāna*, only that one has to be very careful not to be 'taken in' by *sakkāya-diṭṭhi*. Indeed, one should keep in mind that no matter how hard one tries, there will always be a minimum degree of distortion of reality until *sakkāya-diṭṭhi* is abandoned.

¹²⁵ The view of personal identity will tend to give rise either to an eternalist outlook or to an annihilationist one, since these are the two most obvious destinies of a permanent self. In fact, the commentary relates the above questions to eternalism and annihilationism (Mp III 150, 15).

¹²⁶ When the illusion is seen for what it is, not only does one abandon the idea of a solid core, one also sees that the idea of ownership is an illusion. In this way the entire *saṃsāra* has lost whatever value it may previously have had.

¹²⁷ They are beside the point only in so far as it is cessation that is the true goal. A debate about final *Nibbāna* is still useful to the extent that it makes this clear. And, given the discussion so far, it is useful for pointing out that postulating anything additional to mere cessation does not make good sense and for showing that seeing final *Nibbāna* as a 'state' may prove obstructive to achieving one's goal. The concern over 'is there not anything else?' relates to annihilationism (again, see Mp III 150, 15), and I have argued that cessation is different from the annihilation of a permanent self.

All that matters is that the five *khandhas* — that is, suffering — cease without remainder. Consider how the Buddha sometimes would summarise his teachings: 'Good, good, Anurādha. Formerly, Anurādha, and also now, I make known just suffering and the cessation of suffering' (SN 22.86:13.1–13.2).¹²⁸ And since suffering is coterminous with *saṃsāra*, it follows that '*Nibbāna* is the greatest bliss' (MN 75:21.5 and Dhp 204). What more can you ask for?

¹²⁸ This passage is almost as explicit as can be that there is nothing apart from *dukkha* and its cessation.

It is sometimes argued that the Buddha never speaks of final *Nibbāna* as just cessation Bodhi 2005, p.319. (Ven. Bodhi in fact uses the word 'nonexistence' rather than cessation. Although the term nonexistence is unfortunate since it implies something as existing prior to final *Nibbāna* - see SN12.15:2.1-2.3 where the ideas of existence and nonexistence, atthitañ and natthitañ, are presented as false — it seems to me that Ven. Bodhi actually means nonexistence in the sense of (mere) cessation.) But on a number of occasions the Buddha uses terminology that it seems should be understood in just this way, for instance at MN 140:24.5: 'on the dissolution of the body, with the ending of life, all that is felt, not being delighted in, will become cool right here'. At the same time it is hardly surprising that the Buddha should not spend too much time proclaiming that the nature of final Nibbāna is just cessation. Such statements are bound to be misunderstood by the vast majority of people because of their sense of a permanent self (the Buddha is in fact disparaged as an annihilationist in the suttas on a number of occasions, for instance at AN 8.11:6.1 and MN 22:37.2), and thus it would be counterproductive to teach the Dhamma in this way. It seems that the relative paucity of statements on the nature of final Nibbāna is simply a result of the Buddha being pragmatic as to what teachings would inspire the majority of people who are not ariyas, whether monastic or lay.

ABBREVIATIONS

AN Aṅguttara Nikāya (translation: Ñāṇaponika 1999)

SN Samyutta Nikāya (translation: Bodhi 2000)

CPD A Critical Pali Dictionary

Dhp Dhammapada

DN Dīgha Nikāya (translation: Walshe 1995)

DP Dictionary of Pali

Iti Itivuttaka (translation: Bodhi 2005)

MN Majjhima Nikāya (translation: Ñāṇamoli 2001)

Mp Manorathapūranī, the commentary on AN

PED Pali English Dictionary

SN Samyutta Nikāya (Bodhi 2000)

T Taishō (edition of the Chinese Buddhist Canon)

Thag Theragatha (Norman 1995)

Ud Udāna (Ireland 1997)

Vibh Vibhanga

Vin Vinaya Piṭaka (Horner)

In the main text and notes I have generally used the translations mentioned above in brackets though in some instances no satisfactory translation was available, in particular for the Aṅguttara Nikāya and Vinaya Piṭaka. In these cases I have translated the passages myself, as indicated in the main text.

References use the SuttaCentral numbering system. The links for sutta citations open the SuttaPlex card at SuttaCentral where you may view other translations and root texts.

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