

Course Companion

for A Level Year 2 OCR Religious Studies
Component 1: Philosophy of Religion

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Teacher's Introduction

This course companion is written for the A Level Year 2 OCR Philosophy of Religion specification and is designed to offer students a comprehensive introduction to the material within that academic course. The sections and topics, therefore, mirror OCR's specification headings, and every care has been taken to not only help students to understand the key concepts and ideas within the course, but also sharpen their critical thinking skills.

Alongside the main bulk of the writing there are also a number of other features to help students with their learning and revision. Self-guided and group activities are included throughout the resource to better engage students with the material, and I have also provided glossaries, textual references and information on key thinkers where appropriate.

I hope that you enjoy working through this resource and that it benefits both you and your students throughout the academic year.

Note on Suggested Reading

Stretch and Challenge

Any content in these boxes is not strictly required for the specification. However, it is appropriate, creditable information students could include in an exam context.



February 2020



KEY TERMINOLOGY IN THEOLOGICAL PHILOSOPHICAL DEVELOPMENT

Omnipotence	The attribute of being all-powerful or powerful without limit.
Omniscience	The attribute of being all-knowing, or incapable of being ignorant of anything that is actually the case.
Free Will	The idea that human beings have the power and ability to make their own actions, free of excessive coercion or constraint.
Benevolence	The attribute of being all-loving and incapable of evil.
Eternal	The state of never beginning or ending.
Timeless	The attribute of being outside of or external to time.
Everlasting	The attribute of having existed throughout all time and all future time.
Just	The attribute of being completely fair and right in all or most cases.
Paradox	A statement or thing that when presented seems to contain contradictory aspects.
Immutability	The attribute of being unchanging or unable to change.
Temporality	The attribute of being within time and so viewing objects in the present or future.
Libertarianism	The view that free will cannot be reconciled with determinism; free will cannot be predetermined.
Presentism	The view that God does not experience events as occurring in a single, eternal present.
Four-dimensionalism	The view that time and space exist in four dimensions and are not separate to these four dimensions.
Predestination	The view that all events are predetermined at the beginning of time, including human actions.
Deism	The view that God is not benevolent or personally involved in human beings.
Systematic Theology	A theological discipline that focuses on developing a rational and coherent system of Christian faith, including the existence and nature of God.
Process Theology	A theological discipline that focuses on explaining God's actions in the world. For process theologians, is radically contained within the world and so God possesses limited powers to influence the course of events.

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KEY TERMINOLOGY IN RELIGIOUS NEGATIVE, ANALOGICAL OR SYMBOLIC

Religious Language	The words, phrases and vocabulary human beings use to express their thoughts and feelings about associated religious concerns.
Apophatic Way	The view that negative language or propositions provide more insight into God and other religious concepts.
Cataphatic Way	The view that positive language or propositions provide more insight into God and other religious concepts.
Symbol	A sign or representation that stands in for something with more abstract meanings.
Objective	Relates to propositions or statements that are not dependent on individual experiences or perspectives.
Subjective	Relates to propositions or statements that are dependent on individual experiences or perspectives.
Cognitive	Relates to statements that can be evaluated as true or false.
Non-cognitive	Relates to statements that cannot be evaluated as true or false.
Univocal	Language that can only be interpreted in one way.
Equivocal	Language that can be interpreted in multiple ways.
Analogical	Language that draws a comparison between two things to highlight a similarity between them.
Anthropomorphism	Where one attributes human characteristics to a non-human entity.
Existentialism	A philosophical theory that examines questions about the meaning of life and what it means to be a free human being in the world.
Transcendence	The attribute of existing above or beyond the ordinary.
Analogy of Attribution	The view that it is appropriate to draw analogies between objects due to shared potential properties.
Analogy of Proportionality	The view that it is appropriate to draw analogies between beings and greater beings who possess proportionately more of the same properties.

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KEY TERMINOLOGY IN RELIGIOUS TWENTIETH-CENTURY PERSPECTIVE

Analytic	Statements or propositions that are true by virtue of the terms involved.
Synthetic	Statements or propositions that are true by how their external world is.
A Priori	Knowledge arrived at through reason alone, independent of experience.
A Posteriori	Knowledge that depends at least partially on experience.
Tautology	A statement or proposition that is true under every possible meaning of its terms.
Logical Positivism	A philosophical movement which emphasised the primacy of science and put forward the verification principle as a test of meaningfulness.
Verification Principle	The principle that a statement is only cognitively meaningful if it can be verified through empirical evidence.
Cognitive	Statements or propositions that can be evaluated as true or false.
Non-cognitive	Statements or propositions that cannot be evaluated as true or false.
Form of Life	The context or culture in which human beings perform language.
Language Game	A specific form of language that arises out of a specific form of life with its own rules and criteria for meaningfulness.
Hypothesis	A proposed explanation for a phenomenon or event that can be tested and become a theory.
Qualification	An extra piece of information that explains or limits a claim.
Blik	A perspective, world view or lens by which each person interprets evidence for their beliefs.
Parable	A story or tale that is designed to instruct listeners on a moral or spiritual point.
Eschatology	A field of theology concerned with the afterlife and/or the end of the world.
Falsificationism	The philosophical view that the criterion for whether a statement is meaningful is whether it is possible to draw up conditions which would falsify it.

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4: THEOLOGICAL AND PHILOSOPHICAL

What you will learn in this section:

- The philosophical discussion around the nature of God and his attributes, including
- Omnipotence, the paradox of the stone and the possibility of divine self-limit
 - Omniscience and its relationship to the eternality of God and human free will
 - Benevolence and justice, including the relationship to discussions about divine human free will.
 - Eternity as timelessness with an emphasis on the work of Boethius and Anselm
 - The nature of human free will and its reconcilability with the attributes of God
 - Swinburne's views on eternity as meaning everlasting and the implications of omniscience and relationship to time.

Starter Activity:

Write down all the attributes you believe God to possess. Next, identify three which conflict with each other and, without referring to the contents of this companion, attempt to solve these conflicts.

Key Thinker	
Name	Boethius
Born	477
Died	524
Key text	<i>The Consolation of Philosophy</i> (524)
Why are they important?	Boethius was a Roman philosopher of the sixth century who wrote on a wide range of topics, from politics to religion. His best work, <i>The Consolation of Philosophy</i> , is one of the most important influences on medieval and renaissance thought. It was a way for Boethius to explore systematic thought on the nature of God's omniscience and human free will.
Did you know?	<i>The Consolation of Philosophy</i> was written while Boethius was imprisoned for an alleged crime of treason, for which he was executed only a year later.

Key Thinker	
Name	Anselm of Canterbury
Born	1033
Died	1109
Key text	<i>De Concordia</i> (1107–1108)
Why are they important?	Anselm was one of the first major scholastic figures in Christian thought with philosophy and rationalist views to develop a systematic approach to defending the Christian faith. He is best known now for his work on the relationship between God's omniscience and human free will, and his contribution greatly to ideas about God's omnipotence and omniscience and relationship to time.
Did you know?	Anselm regularly clashed with the kings of England while he was Archbishop of Canterbury. He ended up being exiled twice and having to travel to Rome to appeal his position and return.

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Key Thinker	
Name	Richard Swinburne
Born	1934
Died	–
Key text	<i>The Coherence of Theism</i> (1977)
Why are they important?	Richard Swinburne is one of the most prominent modern philosophers of religion. He is particularly well known for his Christian apologetics. These focus on the rational basis for belief in God and outline many different modern versions of arguments for the existence of God. He also detail how the God of classical theism can be conceived without contradiction.
Did you know?	Swinburne's systematic approach is deeply informed by Thomas Aquinas' philosophy. He is admitting himself that his progression from simple philosophical problems to complex Christian beliefs is strongly influenced by Aquinas' writings.

Introduction

When most people think about the various ways God has been conceived throughout history, they often focus on the different depictions presented by religions across the world. However, even in the Christian tradition, the definition of God has never been static. Especially in the early Christian Church, debates raged over how to conceive of and describe the nature of God, with numerous councils being called to adjudicate between competing views. Nowadays, such arguments might seem trivial. Throughout many denominations, doctrinal discourse has been replaced with rigorous dogma. Yet, presently, for many theologians, debates over the nature of God are not mere intellectual disputes, but importantly inform the very way the world is thought of, whether it is good, bad, just or unjust. Moreover, the coherency of God has important implications for belief in his existence. If the idea of God is fundamentally paradoxical or contradictory, then why even believe his existence?

Therefore, even for theologians who take the existence of God to be unquestionable, understanding the nature of God is vital. Many do not simply seek to identify the attributes that define God, but also to explore how these attributes relate to one another and how they interact with the world itself. The development of systematic philosophical thought is often undertaken **systematically**; beginning from basic propositions and detailing how they give rise to more complex interactions and relationships. This detailed process of philosophical inquiry encompasses philosophical ideas about God, but also religious traditions. Christian theologians aim to avoid philosophical conflicts when developing their rational theories about God, but also to reconcile these with scripture and tradition. Thus, outlining what a 'perfect' God may look like is an incredibly complex task, encompassing a wide variety of cultural influences. This means that even among religious traditions, there exists great disagreement over how to construe his primary attributes.

However, this disagreement has also led critics to argue that systematically detailing the nature of God is impossible and that there are fundamental contradictions within the idea of a perfect being. Throughout this section, there are numerous ways in which different attributes clash with one another, as well as the lives and beliefs of human beings. For many atheists, these clashes indicate that belief in God is unreasonable and illogical. Yet, for theists, the same is not always true. Some thinkers have argued that, while subject to the limits of logic and, while resolving conflicts between different attributes is an intellectual task, the greatness and transcendence of God means that his being will naturally transcend the limitations of beings who are limited in intellect and power.

This is a very controversial proposition nonetheless. The basic principles of logic are general and apply to not only what is meaningful, but what is possible or impossible. If God is exempt from them, how can we even discuss his being? While human intellect is naturally limited, this does not mean humans lack some ability to discern what God must or must not be, even if we cannot fully understand him. If God is beyond logic, one is giving up the belief that logic itself has any meaning. If God is not subject to logic, then God effectively is beyond logic. This broader debate about God's relationship to logic is particularly exemplified in the study of omnipotence. While, among classical theists, God is thought to possess limitless power, many modern thinkers have questioned whether this attribute is internally contradictory or coherent.

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The Origins of Classical Theism

Although the concept of God is generally fixed now among most Christian denominations, it has not always so. Christian monotheism evolved out of a myriad of influences, and interpreted differently depending on geography, history and religion. Judaism had the greatest influence on early Christianity, and many ideas were adopted from Greek thought, such as the idea that God is immaterial. Some theologians claim that it is acceptable to abandon the immutability of God because of his being conceived by Platonic thinkers such as Plato. Furthermore, there have been many different views throughout Christian history, and even present different ideas about God. While these views have not been sidelined by Christian thinkers, they often represent alternative philosophical positions unpalatable to Christian audiences. Therefore, the nature of God is worth thinking about the history of Christianity itself, for, as put in by C. S. Lewis, the Christian philosopher is reconciling the God of scripture with philosophy.

Omnipotence

It initially seems a simple deduction. If God is the greatest possible being, he must be able to do anything without restriction. If there is an action God cannot do, then it can be done by a being greater than God who could perform that action. Therefore, God has limitless power.

But hold up for a second. What if God could perform an action that limits his own power? If God is no longer omnipotent, since there becomes an action that God cannot do, then God is also no longer omnipotent. This puzzle has been expressed numerous times and is known as the paradox of omnipotence. Moreover, it is a puzzle that has eluded many philosophers. It is possible to simply argue God is not omnipotent, this proposition is one not popular among Christians. It is difficult to not only reconcile with scripture, but also with the idea of God's ability to grant human beings salvation. For example, Matthew 19:26 states '... with God all things are possible.' Therefore, what this problem has ramifications far beyond the initial premise.

Discussion Activity

In pairs or small groups, discuss how you think God's omnipotence should be defined. What might you foresee with your definition, and how might they be solved?

The Paradox of Omnipotence

It is possible to detail the puzzle above in a more relatable form. Simply, one cannot create a stone that he could not lift. If God cannot create the stone, he does not possess limitless power. If God can create the stone, he also no longer possesses limitless power. Now, such an example is often dismissed as one just say that God could do such an action, but chooses not to, preserving his omnipotence. However, that the notion of lifting stones is inappropriate for an immaterial, transcendent being. Is the question meaningless? Both answers are possible, but miss the more subtle difficulties of the paradox.

One key issue is that God not only created the world, but created human beings. If God has created human beings to some degree that human beings have free will (although some thinkers such as Augustine argue for predestination). If human beings are truly free, then they must possess powers to act independently of God. This means God must be limited in power to not interfere or control human beings, resulting in human beings placing limits on God's omnipotence. Similarly, could God create a square circle? Such a question is not subject to the objections of the stone example, but it is a contradiction. Considering the relationship between God and logic.

Therefore, while the paradox can be detailed in innumerable ways, not all are as simple as the stone example. Deeper questions about how a being unlimited in power relates to the objects of its power arise. If lifting is an action that is appropriate for God, the idea of limitless power altogether becomes a contradiction for the being who possesses it. This indicates that either omnipotence is more problematically, God cannot possess omnipotence.

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So how can the paradox be resolved? Well, there are a number of routes that thin common is simply to redefine or clarify the meaning of omnipotence. If it does not then the paradox may be avoided. Another common route is to reanalyse the phrase, contending that contradictions only emerge due to the way the omnipotence is perceived, however, is to simply deny there is a paradox at all. This is the argument that Descartes is the most controversial solution to the problem.

Descartes and the Limitless God

What if God simply does have limitless power? If this is the case, then God simply is not a contradiction or not. Descartes' solution to the paradox of omnipotence is simply a redefinition of omnipotence itself. It simply is not an issue that God could create a square circle or a pentagonal square. There is nothing impossible for a being possessing limitless power. God if he were absolutely omnipotent could create one and then lift that same stone. It is humanity's place to try to make God conform to the perceived laws of logic. In fact, the existence of contradictions, if human beings were truly able to understand God's nature, they would not be conflicts between his attributes.

Descartes' position here is sometimes called **voluntarism** and is pretty much endorsed as the consequences of holding that God can do literally anything are thought to be acceptable. If God can make $3 \times 4 = 11$, then it is possible altogether that $3 \times 4 = 11$ and the entire system of mathematics have to be rewritten. Similarly if God could create a square triangle, then the very definition of a triangle is no longer correct. Such examples indicate that logical contradictions aren't simply technicalities to be overcome, but constrictions upon what is possible for any being. By allowing them to be transgressed, one is also denying them any meaning or importance. There become absurdities that result in a wholly chaotic and random picture of God and the world. The laws of logic doesn't chime very well with religious tradition. If God could create free beings, then to perform good actions, for example, or free human beings, wholly directed by God's will, then freedom also becomes meaningless.

Therefore, most thinkers reject Descartes' solution. However, it does hint at a potential for a more coherent response to the paradox. What if limitless power simply meant the ability to do anything that is logically possible? This is the line of thinking endorsed by Aquinas and has been influential ever since its proposal.

Aquinas and the Logical God

So God can do anything as long as it's logically possible. What does this mean? Well, if God is all-powerful, then one, God could not create a square triangle since triangles by definition have three sides. In fact, anything that is logically necessary cannot be subverted by God's power. God, being all-good and benevolent cannot perform an evil act, nor create free beings who are controlled wholly by external forces. In fact, on the surface, Aquinas' solution seems to solve many of the key problems with Descartes' voluntarist response.

Well, 'many' is the key word here. Cast your minds back to the original formulation of the paradox of the stone. Is creating a stone too heavy for a being to lift a logically impossible action? Not at all. Humans regularly create things too heavy for them to manipulate. The paradox highlights how power is not simply a fixed quantity. There are not simply two classes of beings, those that can and those not. Instead there is a vast variety of beings with different amounts of power in different environmental contexts. This may seem an obvious point, but it also leads to a distinction between **essential** and **contingent (or accidental)** omnipotence. The former refers to power that is necessarily omnipotent, while the latter refers to omnipotence possessed by a being in a particular place, but which is not permanent.

Why is this distinction important? Well, God could be omnipotent, but only contingently. The stone too heavy to lift might be possible at one time, but result in God ceasing to be omnipotent. The creation of free beings is perfectly logically possible, so the question is not whether an omnipotent being can create free beings, but whether it is wise to do so.

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too heavy to lift, but whether an *essentially omnipotent* being could do so. Classicists are not happy with classing God as contingently omnipotent, since this would imply a necessary part of God's nature, and God ceasing to be omnipotent would contradict his nature. Although Aquinas' solution is initially appealing, it only solves some aspects of the paradox. The classes of logically possible actions which violate God's omnipotence.

George Mavrodes and Omnipotence

Mavrodes draws on Aquinas to propose his solution to the problem on omnipotence. The paradox itself is misconstrued. When restated correctly it ceases to be a philosophical paradox. The important aspect of the paradox is the notion that the inability to do the impossible is not a limitation on power. The paradox, if God is omnipotent, he can do everything that is possible, and nothing that is impossible.

Turning to the paradox of the stone, the problem is typically focused on God not being able to create a stone too heavy for him to lift. But what Mavrodes argues is that a stone too heavy for God to lift is not possible in the first place, since it is an action beyond the powers of an omnipotent being! Mavrodes contends that it is the existence of God as an omnipotent being that makes such a stone possible, and, once the issue is framed in this way, the paradox dissolves.

Does Omnipotence Really Mean Unlimited Power?

Through analysing Descartes' and Aquinas' solutions and their respective issues, we can put the paradox to your mind. Why is omnipotence defined as unlimited power? Who decided that's the way to define it? Well, such thoughts, while anathema to traditional conceptions of God, are what the paradox of omnipotence is all about. For, while power is an important way of understanding God, it may simply be that positing it as an unlimited attribute is simply incoherent. If the paradox of omnipotence may simply be better construed as having a different meaning. More recently, Geisler and William Craig have argued that God with unlimited power is not central to the Christian faith. Scriptural support for this notion is not strong and there is plenty of interpretative room for an alternative conception of God's power.

For example, Geisler argues that omnipotence means God can perform any possible action. This means that God is essentially omnipotent, but cannot perform actions which would contradict his nature or omnipotence or clash with other aspects of his nature, such as benevolence or omniscience. So, that God could not create a stone too heavy for him to lift. Such an action is not coherent for an immaterial, omnipotent, transcendent being, so cannot be performed by God even if he were to will it. It can be questioned whether Craig is really answering the paradox here. On the one hand, it is an inerrant action as inconsistent with the nature of God so long as one assumes certain attributes of God. On the other hand, it fails to answer key questions about whether God could create a stone too heavy for him to lift. Such an action is hardly inconsistent with his nature (considering it is the thought) yet it would intuitively seem to result in limits upon God's omnipotence, which is what the paradox is all about. Therefore, on deeper reflection, Craig's response does not seem to offer a solution to the paradox of omnipotence. In fact, a better answer may lie in simply identifying the limits of God's power. These forms of replies will be examined in the next section.

What Limits are There upon God's Power?

While there are merits to the solutions analysed so far, it appears that there still are significant difficulties in our understanding of God's power, particularly in regards to the creation of free beings. The question of limits to God's power in light of human free will has been an important decision for philosophers.

One influential approach to this difficulty has been outlined by Richard Swinburne. The issue under question in the paradox is not God's omnipotence, but his necessary, omnipotent power. If we put, the paradox is only an issue if it is required that God not just be omnipotent, but necessarily so, and places. God can still be omnipotent if presently he is capable of performing any action that is logically possible.

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future state of affairs where he is no longer omnipotent. This definition is appealing because it is logically impossible to change the past. Otherwise a previously powerful God would have to restore their omnipotence. In the case of the paradox of the stone, it is not that God could create a stone he could not lift and cease to be omnipotent. However, God has no reason to perform such an action and so does not cease to be omnipotent. The capability to perform an action is not necessarily tied up with motivation. God has his own power, but there is little reason to believe he ever would.

Swinburne's answer provides a clear solution to both of the main aspects of the paradox. God cannot do what is logically impossible, but can perform an action such as creating a stone he cannot lift. God can create a stone he cannot lift, but simply possesses no motivation to. There are two main issues. First, Swinburne's solution can be argued to simply solve one part of the question of whether God truly can self-limit is reduced down to the limits of power. For example, if God was not bounded by time, would he self-limit? Second, and perhaps most importantly, is God still omnipotent present to beings beyond his control? One option here might be to say that human beings are not free if he wishes. Yet this seems a bit counterintuitive to the notion of real freedom. For example, for a king to make any human being his slave at a moment's notice, it would mean that the yet-to-be-called slave possesses real freedom.

Peter Vardy here enters with a potential response to this problem. He agrees with Swinburne that God cannot limit his own omnipotence and, in fact, in order to create free human beings, this is necessary. If God were able to perform any act, logically possible or not, then in the end, the principles, laws and freedoms that guide human lives would be meaningless. God, by limiting his power at the moment of creation, in order that human beings can continue to live. However, what Vardy argues is that God's omnipotence is not lessened by this restriction. It was not coerced into it. Rather it was God's own will to limit his power to what is necessary for creation. Therefore, because the restriction on omnipotence were born out of God's own will, God is still all-powerful. God cannot perform logically impossible actions not because of his lack of power, but because of his chosen self-limitation of certain powers.

Once again, this is an intuitive appeal to this solution, but if God has self-limited his power, is he still omnipotent? The paradox of the stone arguably is not intended to show how God came to be limited in power, but shows that the idea of omnipotence is incoherent. By rendering God contingently omnipotent at best, both Vardy and Swinburne solve the paradox but instead have admitted that God is not all-powerful as previously claimed. Swinburne's and Vardy's solutions both rely on the idea of ascribing reasons or motivations to God. This is a little bit contentious, for it draws in specific theological ideas into philosophy. One could be asked why God create the world without self-limitation, or why God specify human freedom. The answers Swinburne and Vardy give solve the paradox, but perhaps more speculation than we might want to admit. Unless there are reasonable and apparent reasons for his power, then it might well seem that self-limitation is just a way for God to get around the paradox.

Perhaps more importantly, however, we can ask whether a self-limited God really is omnipotent. In the definition, a self-limited God cannot perform some actions, thus losing the possibility of being all-powerful. This issue, alongside the wider problem of the paradox of omnipotence, suggests that we jettison the idea of omnipotence altogether, using on different ways to describe God's power.

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What Else, if Not Omnipotence?

Going even further back in our discussion, it was noted in the introduction that the debate around the attributes of God is focused on outlining what it means to be a 'perfect' being. But what if omnipotence is not a perfection? This proposal is put forward by Charles Hartshorne, who argues not only that limitless power is a self-contradictory concept, but that it is also not a real perfection that a divine being would possess. If God were powerful without limits, he would effectively be a despot, since not anything could ever offer meaningful resistance to such power. If anything, beings could never possess real freedom and never have a balanced relationship with God. Therefore, instead, Hartshorne argues that omnipotence should be interpreted as meaning God has unsurpassable power. No matter what context, God is always the most powerful being, even if he cannot perform any task.

This encompasses the idea of self-limitation in a potentially more balanced way. God and beings can resist God's power at times; it simply is just that no being could ever surpass God's power. This proposal is not, however, the only thinker to present this proposal. Peter Geach argues that omnipotence is the wrong term to describe God's power, instead favouring 'almighty' which has connotations of limitless power. Such ideas do have philosophical appeal; they explain why omnipotence is logically impossible, but equally do not require outlining potentially speculative aspects of God's self-limitation.

Equally, though, it is unclear whether they truly answer the stone paradox. Is God's power, or contingently unsurpassable? If the former, it could be asked whether God is omnipotent. If God cannot self-limit until surpassable in power, then God could be surpassed. Yet if God could self-limit in such a fashion then he would no longer be unsurpassable. There are deeper questions about whether, under Hartshorne's or Geach's proposals, God is omnipotent beings. If omnipotence is simply being unsurpassable in power, multiple gods could exist, and a more powerful is a possible outcome. What initially seems to be a clever way to avoid the paradox is an exercise in semantics with the original issues with omnipotence still unresolved.

Seeking Answers Where There are None

There are strengths and weaknesses to all the solutions analysed so far, but the essential problem with omnipotence itself seems to be an incredibly difficult attribute to coherently define. Once a contradiction is solved, more emerge, and the danger is that God's omnipotence cannot meaningfully describe the extent of his power. Moreover, as has been noted, while omnipotence is an attractive proposition in solving the omnipotence paradox, it also does not solve the problem of God of classical theism, who is typically taken to be essentially omnipotent.

One general response here might be to note that whatever the limits are to God's power, it is a concept that is beyond human capabilities to grasp. For example, in Wittgenstein's philosophy, questions whether in the case of transcendental subjects such as God, human language can describe the concepts or attributes ascribed to them. More simply, whatever the dimension of a scale or form far beyond that encountered in the natural world, so it may be difficult to describe them based on contingent, observable notions of power. This might seem to be a way of understanding the limits of human language and comprehension can also potentially lead to philosophical discussion about omnipotence.

This is particularly true concerning the paradox of the stone. While most modern theists argue that God cannot create a stone he cannot lift, it is not clear what exactly is logically possible for an essentially omnipotent being. If it is true that it is not logically possible for him to create a stone he cannot lift, but it is also not clear whether it is logically possible for a being to be essentially omnipotent. The laws of logic are as much based upon the nature of things as they are upon the nature of God. As such as Craig put forward arguments that logic is simply a part of God's nature, such as being some concrete and transparent definition of God's nature in the first place. There is not even agreed about what omnipotence means in the context of a perfect being.

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Altogether, it is not difficult to see that the debate around omnipotence risks becoming logically possible defines the limits of God's power, but God's power may also define what is logically possible. Whether this circularity is a shortcoming in human language and comprehension, or whether we can appreciate the deeper philosophical nuances of omnipotence, is not clear. Nonetheless, to take to omnipotence it is important to acknowledge the difficulties in not only outlining what being might look like, but also in grounding this notion in everyday ideas about logic. The principle is true when it comes to analysing the next attribute that we shall look at; omniscience.

Activity:

Throughout this section on omnipotence, numerous different definitions have been given. For each of the thinkers below, write a short paragraph detailing how you would define omnipotence. Which do you think are the strongest?

1. Thomas Aquinas
2. Peter Vardy
3. Peter Geach

Omniscience

Omniscience is typically defined as being 'all-knowing'. However, like omnipotence, this definition does justice to the myriad of ways this definition can be extrapolated. For example, does it mean the ability to know anything that it is possible to know? Or the complete knowledge of everything that exists? Or of their place in time and space? Or does it just mean the inability to be wrong about anything?

Such questions are important because knowledge itself is not a straightforward concept. In epistemological discussions generally focus on **propositional knowledge**, a type of knowledge that consists of propositions and descriptions. However, there are also thought to be other kinds of knowledge, such as **knowledge by acquaintance**; the knowledge of something through direct awareness, such as the knowledge of one's own pain. Is it in the form of specific propositions about the world, or would an omniscient being have a different, more direct and fundamental way of knowing? These questions are difficult to answer, but they are important in that way that omniscience is defined, but also its relationship to God's other attributes.

One common problem with omniscience, which will be a key focus of this section, is the problem of free will. If God is all-knowing, then it can be contended that God has knowledge of all events that will happen in the universe, whether they be past, present or future, relative to human beings. If God must know the outcome of every action or situation at any possible time. This means that the actions of human beings, and their results, are already known to God. For many, this foreknowledge is incompatible with free will. How can an action be free if its outcome is already known? To know the outcome of an action intuitively seems to require that the outcome is predetermined. If there was any possibility of a different outcome, then one could hardly be said to possess knowledge of the future.

Therefore, prima facie, if God is omniscient then human beings cannot have autonomous free will. For some religious thinkers, this conclusion is strangely attractive. Some theologians such as Augustine and Calvin have been happy to accept a doctrine of predestination, that God, upon creating the world, predetermined the outcome of all events, human actions included. Some theologians often also uphold strict doctrines of **election**, believing that some individuals are chosen for salvation while others are condemned. Yet, for most modern Christians, such a conclusion is problematic. How can God be just or benevolent if some people are condemned due to actions completely outside their control? Moreover, accepting predestination only solves the conflict between omniscience and free will by asserting the truth of **determinism**, where all events are predetermined by the laws of nature. Despite plenty of evidence from a scientific enquiry in favour of determinism, it is unclear whether this is necessarily the case for causes. If you recall your study of Hume and the causal principle itself is difficult to accept as a priori truth, and similar issues arise when we consider the relationship between determinism and free will.

Most Christian thinkers, therefore, prefer to take a **libertarian** view of free will. They believe that free will is fundamentally incompatible with determinism, and puts forward that human beings have the ability to choose between different actions.

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their actions beyond the influence of prior causes and constraints. For many this is the only meaningful view of human agency that can be reconciled with scriptural evidence. If we have genuine moral responsibility, such that they can be rewarded or punished for their actions, they need to be able to freely choose those actions. Yet a libertarian view of free will seems to require that God is not omniscient, as we have previously explored. So how can the two be reconciled?

Compatibilism

Through this section, we focus primarily on **compatibilism** as a model of free will. It is important to consider **compatibilism** or **soft determinism**. This states that free will and determinism can co-exist. If concepts are properly understood there is simply no conflict. As a result, the conflict is seen as a horn in the theologians' side. Most contend that it is an attempt to give an agent real power over their actions. However, it is important to note that the conflict between omniscience and free will is potentially dissolved. It becomes a God who knows the deterministic outcome of things alongside free human beings.

A scan throughout the history of the philosophy of religion will find no end to the question. However, solutions have usually focused on clarifying the way God 'knows' things. It is God's omniscience or the existence of human free will. This is a tricky path to take. How can we be certain of how God knows anything? Well, a clue, at least for many thinkers, lies in the nature of space itself. More precisely, if God is a transcendent and eternal being, his relationship to the world is different from that of a contingent, temporal being. What may seem to be an event in our world may very well appear differently to God. It is this difference in perspective that provides a way of understanding how God knows things, for it may be that God's knowledge of all things occurring within a particular past or future. Simply put, if God's knowledge does not interfere with human free will.

This line of thinking might seem odd at first. How can knowledge of future events happen? An answer to this question was influentially proposed by Boethius. His understanding of God's knowledge dissolves the conflict between omniscience and free will. We will return to this in the next section.

Discussion Activity:

In Alan Moore's famous graphic novel *Watchmen*, the scientist Jonathan Osterman undergoes a nuclear experiment but is somewhat miraculously reformed as Dr Manhattan, an otherwise ordinary man who develops a range of abilities, including vastly increased knowledge and the ability to manipulate matter on a molecular scale. As a result, he begins to lose his ability to relate to humanity and becomes increasingly detached. One of the implications of the character is the realisation that the universe is deterministic. One of the implications of the character is the realisation that the universe is deterministic. One of the implications of the character is the realisation that the universe is deterministic. One of the implications of the character is the realisation that the universe is deterministic.

In pairs or groups, discuss this idea and the bearing it has on conceiving God. Would you think God is more likely to be benevolent? Or could he be both all-knowing and all-good?

Boethius and Divine Benevolence

We've noted how the conflict between omniscience and free will is not just contained to those two attributes. It also encompasses a number of deeper questions about the nature of God and justice of God, especially if his omniscience is absolute. Can we then judge human beings as morally responsible for their actions. For Boethius, it is these questions about the benevolence of God that are most important to resolve. In his famous work *The Consolation of Philosophy*, Boethius outlines a series of concerns with the omniscience of God. Most importantly, he asks whether human beings could be fair if God already knew the outcomes of their actions. If there are no meaningful choices than the ones predetermined by God's knowledge, then judging them is manifestly unfair. There would also be no point in praying or communicating with God.

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good. Perhaps most problematically, if human beings' evil acts are predetermined God created the world itself, it seems that God himself is responsible for evil! Resolution will conflict for Boethius is, therefore, really resolving conflicts between the omniscience of God. If there is no solution, key Christian doctrines about salvation, judgement and heaven will be abandoned, or have to be changed to fit a **deistic** or capricious God.

For Boethius, this was an unacceptable result, so how did he propose to avoid such a conclusion? If we get into the details, it is worth outlining the different perspectives on a different interpretation of eternity. There have been numerous interpretations of this attribute throughout history, but the most common understanding how God is eternal is that he is **timeless**. In this interpretation, God exists completely independent of time. The terms past, present and future simply describe events within it. The second way conversely proposes that God exists within time, although infinitely. Therefore, in this interpretation of eternity, God exists within time, although infinitely. Therefore, God will continue to always exist in the present, with respect to the events in the past.

It is not clear scripturally which one of these interpretations is correct, and different branches of philosophy have adopted different perspectives. Boethius, nonetheless, adopts the first interpretation of eternity, arguing that his transcendence means God does perceive events as relative to his own time. Since God exists independently of time, he instead grasps all events in an atemporal manner. From God's perspective, all things occur simultaneously; there are no events that are defined as past or the future, and, most importantly, God's knowledge is never temporally bound. This position is often called **presentism** and Boethius argues it holds the key to reconciling divine foreknowledge with human free will. As Boethius himself states:

... eternity is the possession of endless life whole and perfect at a single moment... it abides for ever in an eternal present, His knowledge, also transcending all movement, dwells in the simplicity of its own changeless present, comprehending the whole in the past and of the future, contemplates all that falls within its simple cognition as taking place. (Book 5, Part VI)

How does this solve the conflict with free will? Well, in short, because God's knowledge of events, never changes. Boethius draws an analogy between God's observation of events and human observation of the present. If, for example, I watch my neighbour playing football, I might say that I know that my neighbour is playing football across the street. Yet I know that my knowledge of this event means that my neighbour was necessarily bound to play football at that time. My knowledge dictates that necessarily at this moment, my neighbour is playing football. I do not know my neighbour to have been playing football in the past, nor that he continue playing football in the future. Boethius argues that God's knowledge works in a similar manner. Since God is only ever observing the present, there is no necessity placed upon the individuals involved in those events in respect to the future. Therefore, altogether, God's knowledge does not necessitate any future events; it is simply an awareness of things at the moment they occur.

It is worth unpacking this suggestion a little further. While Boethius' analogy is helpful, it is important to distinguish between the forms of necessity we are talking about here. For what Boethius is trying to do is distinguish between what he terms **simple** and **conditional** necessity. Simple necessity refers to states of affairs that have to be the way that they are, due to the nature of the objects involved. For example, it is a matter of simple necessity that any human being will eventually die. Human beings are mortal by nature, and so by knowing the proposition 'all humans will die in the future' it is guaranteed that all humans will die. However, conditional necessity refers to states of affairs that occur due to the actions of individuals at a particular time. For example, the necessity in the moment of their occurrence, but not because of their nature. A relevant law of nature is the law of gravity. A further example given of the neighbour playing football is an instance of conditional necessity since it is by his actions that he is playing football, not because of his nature.

This distinction between simple and conditional necessity is vital for Boethius. God's knowledge, depending on the situation, can be of either simple or conditional necessity. Yet, in the case of simple necessity, God's knowledge does not incur any past or future necessity upon the beings involved. For

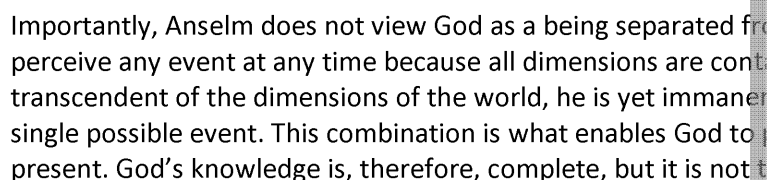
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Anselm, Eternity and the Fourth Dimension



Why Accept Anselm's View of God and Eternity?

Both Anselm and Boethius present an intuitive, if somewhat complex, solution to the conflict between omniscience and free will. The idea that God's knowledge functions differently from that of human beings is not beyond the realms of possibility and is supported by the unique characteristics God possesses. However, despite these advantages, many thinkers disagree fundamentally with the idea of a timeless God.

In one sense, this is because it is unclear whether it truly solves the original issues identified at the beginning of this section. William Tasker, for example, contends that even if God only possesses eternal knowledge of events, this does not mean genuine free will is possible. What matters is that human beings have genuine alternative possibilities when decision-making, such that they could have chosen a different course of action at a particular time or place. Yet if these genuine alternatives it would be possible to change God's beliefs. The fact that God's knowledge is atemporal would mean that unless human beings possess this power to *change* God, then God's knowledge still determines human choices, whether it be an atemporal or temporal necessity. The critics' conclusion is not the way that God knows something that matters, but his very infallibility that

Despite this argument having some force, most thinkers have focused instead on a more coherent notion. One strand of argument has been to question whether Anselm's ideas represent what omniscience entails. If God truly does know everything, shouldn't he know the outcome of past and future events? Boethius' ideas about conditional omniscience conflict between omniscience and free will by simply limiting God's knowledge to the present. Human actions are free not because God exists in the atemporal present, but because the outcome of events is dependent on human beings performing them. If God truly were omniscient, the context of an action would not matter; God would simply know the outcome.

Difficulties also emerge when thinking about the implications of a timeless God's existence. Kenny argues that numerous inconsistencies emerge if one takes God to observe events, especially when considering propositions about events. If Anselm and Boethius are correct, the birth and death of Henry VIII occur at the same time, along with every other event. While such a proposition seems initially strange, this absurdity can be taken even further. If events exist in an atemporal present, then the beginning and end of the universe also exist at the same time as the birth and death of Henry VIII. Therefore, what initially seems to be a plausible view of God's existence is much less intuitive than suspected. Even if such a form of existence is metaphysically possible (to speculate), how does this picture of God cohere with the personal, interventionist God of the Christian faith while it is possible to contend here that Kenny is simply conflating a human and divine perspective on the world, his argument does have some force when one considers how God has been portrayed in the Christian faith and its accompanying scripture.

Within almost every major narrative in the Bible, God is not portrayed as being timeless. In fact, God at every juncture appears to be temporal. He intervenes on behalf of his people, becomes incarnate in the person of Jesus. Moreover, God seems to be aware of human actions and can causally impact human beings. God in the Bible is not a mere observer, but an intervener. The question, therefore, is whether God is metaphysically possible, but whether considering God's role in the lives of his people makes it correct to view God as timeless. Presenting a timeless God may run the risk of making God a philosophical problem, removed from the events and beings in the universe itself. The question is whether it is necessary to possess knowledge of all things in order to be a loving God. Reconciling an atemporal perspective on God with the fundamental beliefs of the Christian faith is a challenge.

In many ways, the timeless picture of God naturally seems to better fit a **deistic** picture of God than the dynamic interventionist God of the Christian faith. Classical theism has often seen God as **infallible**, but also **immutable**; unable to change. Yet, for many critics, an immutable God is not a loving God. Richard Swinburne in particular questions whether immutability is a perfection. He argues that love is a voluntary act; it is dynamic and requires change.

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suffering of others. Yet the God that Anselm and Boethius portray would be incapable of suffering. Swinburne claiming conversely he would be a 'very lifeless thing'. Similar difficulties arise over how a timeless God could be just or fair, especially if not engaged with the struggle of attempting to choose the good. Perhaps more fatally, it can be asked how such a God's lives of human beings could be reconciled with key Christian teachings such as atonement. In short, the criticisms, the ramifications of God being a timeless, immutable being are greater than can be reconciled with a meaningful religious belief.

Yet, if these criticisms are right, aren't we left with a contradiction? If God is within time and yet possesses knowledge of past and future events, meaning free will is threatened once again. This problem, we can turn to Swinburne's proposals about the limitations upon an eternal God.



Kretzmann and Stump on Eternity

Norman Kretzmann and Eleonore Stump in a recent paper expand and clarify areas of Boethius' and Anselm's accounts of a timeless God. In particular they note what it means for two events to be simultaneous, especially when talking about temporal and atemporal beings. They, therefore, propose two methods for understanding simultaneity: the first is T-simultaneity (temporal simultaneity), which covers how events happen in time. The second is E-simultaneity (eternal simultaneity), which covers how events happen for an eternal being.

What Kretzmann and Stump ultimately propose is that God is ET-simultaneous with the world. This describes how God is both eternal in existence, but also present at every temporal event which the entirety of God and his existence are not simultaneous with; or, as they put it:

From the standpoint of eternity, every time is present and concurrent with the whole of time.

Let's unravel this a bit more. Say we have an event B, my 26th birthday; myself D is a temporal being. D and God cannot share T-simultaneity at B, for no eternal being is in time. Neither can D and God share E-simultaneity, for D is not eternal. If they did, they would also share this simultaneity at every other possible moment in time. However, we thought that both D and God exist ET-simultaneously. God exists eternally and is present at every time; any specific time that is picked out for a temporal being such as D is shared by God and vice versa. For Kretzmann and Stump, this form of simultaneity highlights how God's knowledge with omniscience, for, at any moment in time, all events are being experienced simultaneously by God and human beings. There is no divine foreknowledge at play that constrains the free will of human beings.

Swinburne and the Everlasting God



Earlier in this section, we noted the difference between two different interpretations of eternity. Swinburne, in contrast to Boethius and Anselm, rejects the idea of a timeless God and instead claims he should be viewed as everlasting. God's eternity, therefore, does not involve him being independent of time. Instead, God exists infinitely in time, in all contexts and human beings, although God has always existed at least in the past. This simply means that God currently exists in the present. This resolves the original conflict between omniscience and free will.

In short, Swinburne directly states it is not logically possible for God to know the future. Although God is omniscient, he self-limits his own knowledge up to the present. The existence of libertarian free will for Swinburne requires that human beings have genuine possibilities to their choices, which cannot be known by any being, regardless of time.

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Nonetheless, Swinburne also states that ultimately God is fully omniscient; this seems to suggest that God can restore his knowledge of the future at any point by taking away free will.

Swinburne's perspective also reverses a number of other aspects of the timeless and immutable God. Instead, as explored, God can freely change and limit himself to ensure the existence of free will. Being within time, he is also personally invested in the world and can intervene to help human beings where appropriate. Moreover, he can engage in loving relationships with human beings, empathising with their suffering and existing in solidarity with them. God is not a static being, removed from the world by his eternity, and there are fewer difficulties with benevolence with his eternity and omniscience.

Evaluating the Case for an Everlasting God

Swinburne argues that viewing God as everlasting has a number of advantages over the timeless interpretation. First, this interpretation is much more easily reconcilable with Christian scripture and tradition. Second, questions about how a God outside of time intervenes within the lives of temporal beings in the present and through self-limitation of his omniscience, unaware of the future, are avoided. Therefore, when God acts to influence the actions of human beings, his motivations are the ones with the power to change the future, not realise a preordained set of events. Swinburne's interpretation supports a more intuitive understanding of libertarian free will. Finally, it outlines a complex metaphysics of necessity, rather than human actions are simply free to be free.

Yet it is also possible to question whether God is truly omniscient in this picture. While the answer to the conflict, it is also maybe a tacit admission that the conflict is unsolvable. If God cannot logically know the future; rather God is just not omniscient. As such, Swinburne's view is a departure from classical theism. For if God does not know the future, then how can human beings be saved, or whether his intervention in the world would be a careful balancing act between arguing for a self-limitation on God's knowledge and the actions which contribute to perfection.

Moreover, it can be argued that Swinburne overstates the difficulties with God's timelessness. If God is not just transcendent, but also immanent. It is part of his perfection that God is wholly invested in the lives of human beings. Just because human beings require time to engage in loving relationships does not mean the same is true for a divine being. It is not an imperfection to require this capacity to change. On reflection, it is not clear whether the everlasting God, although intuitive, is truly necessary to reconcile the different conflicting attributes of God.

Discussion Activity:

In groups or pairs, discuss whether you believe a timeless or everlasting interpretation of God provides the most coherent response to the conflict between omniscience and free will. What is the strongest argument for your decision?

Justice, Benevolence and Free Will

Turning back to the beginning of this section, you might remember that one of the problems Boethius was reconciling not just omniscience, eternity and free will, but also the issue of justice. Yet, so far solutions have focused on the relationship between God's eternal knowledge and free will. If God were not benevolent, would there be an issue to solve?

Such a suggestion strays far from the fundamental beliefs of many religious people concerned with a God that is not invested in the lives of human beings, or does not care about the history of humanity? But if ideas about benevolence and justice are subtracted from the concept of omniscience, then the issue is considerably less pressing. It may be that a **deistic** interpretation is more appropriate, where God is omniscient and timeless but not benevolent. Under this view, the actions of human beings from an eternal present without philosophical difficulties.

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perspective can be reconciled with his temporal actions in scripture. Such a perspective is not the answer to the problem of evil, another issue arising out of God's benevolence. Not the most popular view of God, but many agnostic thinkers throughout history, such as David Hume, have indicated in their work that this is the most likely way that God might exist. It is not meant to outline, if only to contrast with a classical theist perspective.

Alternatively, a solution to these issues may lie in restricting God's knowledge further. A self-limited God provides the answer to reconciling conflicting attributes, why not? Some argue that God is not omnipotent or omniscient. This is the view of **process** theology. God does not possess complete power or knowledge over all things. Instead God only influences the world. All matter can resist God in a certain way and, as such, God does not have complete control. This is the way that a limited, benevolent being seeks. This is the view of most religious thinkers but it is important to note that a solution to the conflicts between God and the world lies in restricting their scope or power. Whether or not this is a feasible proposition, it is a way to wish to reconcile God with scriptural evidence. If the latter factor is not an issue, then the former can be reinterpreted radically in light of the conflicts and contradictions examined in the previous section.

Nevertheless, it also has to be considered that God's being and nature is far beyond our human understanding. It may mean that conflicts only appear due to the limitations of our imaginations. It is not that God allows him to know and do things that seem philosophically impossible from our perspective. If it seems to be an easy get out clause for the classical theist, it is at least a good call for a modernist. The philosophical picture of God has changed radically throughout the last two millennia. The renewed thought brings a conceptual breakthrough in understanding how the attributes of God can be reconciled with the world.

Quick Quiz

1. What is the paradox of omnipotence?
2. What is the difference between essential and contingent (accidental) omnipotence?
3. What is the difference between eternal necessity and an everlasting interpretation of necessity?
4. What is deism?
5. What is dimensionalism?
6. What is the difference between simple and conditioned necessity?
7. What is immutability?
8. What is self-limitation?

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5: RELIGIOUS LANGUAGE: NEGATIVE, ANALOGICAL OR SYMBOLIC?

What you will learn in this section:

- The philosophical discussion around the nature and use of religious language, including:
- The apophatic way (via negativa) and its use in theological discussion
- The cataphatic way (via positiva), with reference to Aquinas' views on analogical language
- Symbolic religious language, with reference to the philosophical thought of P. Ricoeur

Starter Activity

Read the Prologue to the Gospel of John. What kind of language do you think is used? How does it potentially impact the interpretation of its theological message?

Key Thinker

Name	Aquinas
Born	1225
Died	1274
Key text	<i>Summa Theologiae</i> (1485)
Why are they important?	There are few figures who have had more influence on the Catholic Church than the priest St Thomas Aquinas, and there are few institutions which have shaped the shape of world history than the Catholic Church. As such, for a long time, the moral and intellectual landscape for large parts of the Western world was shaped by his thought.
Did you know?	It is believed that Aquinas' relative, a nun, was so impressed by his decision to become a friar, once forcibly imprisoned in the family castle in an attempt to dissuade him, that she even resorted to hiring a prostitute to seduce him. Legend has it that his lovers even resorted to hiring a prostitute to seduce him. Thomas emerged from a life of religious chastity. Not one to be deterred, Aquinas is said to have driven her from his bedroom.

Key Thinker

Name	Paul Tillich
Born	1886
Died	1965
Key text	<i>Dynamics of Faith</i> (1957)
Why are they important?	Tillich is perhaps one of the most influential figures in twentieth-century Christian theology, not just for his intellectual output, but also for his public-facing sermons. His radical proposals about the nature of God, but also in adapting Christian theology with existential philosophy proved important in the face of the radical academic shifts of the first half of the twentieth century.
Did you know?	Tillich in the early 1930s was a supporter of the Fellowship of Reconciliation, which contended that Christian ethics was incompatible with the fundamental principles of non-violence.

Introduction – The Nature of Religious Language

In our everyday lives, we try to express the language we use to different situations. We use just describing different things or objects. The same is true for religion and its associated language. When you are religious, the language used in scripture, prayer and worship reflects the way we are talking about God, but the individual ways a particular theist may perceive their relationship with God. Since the dawn of philosophy of religion, debate has raged about how to construe the vocabulary used when talking about God and other religious ideas.

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The key issue at the centre of this debate is how ordinary language, crafted around the natural world, can possibly capture the nature and essence of a being fundamental to human comprehension. For how can any description of God be meaningful or productive if it does not reflect the actuality of his being? For example, take the phrase 'God created the universe'. It is intuitively graspable, but the very idea of creation is rooted in human ideas about the natural world and its concepts. Does the moment at which God formed the world, potentially *ex nihilo*, differ from the process by which we might create a chair or a table? If we answer 'no', then we risk reducing God to a mere assembly of material parts, **anthropomorphising** God in the process. If 'yes', then the phrase doesn't capture how God formed the world, then is it expressing anything at all? What can possibly be learnt from such a statement?

Thus, many philosophers contend that it is important to philosophically analyse how religious language is employed and understood. There are two aspects to this concern. The first is outlining how religious language accurately describes the being and nature of God. On the one hand, it intuitively seems that religious descriptions of God, for fear of trivialising philosophical analysis about his being and nature, are also arguably important to avoid wholly metaphorical descriptions of God, where words are mere placeholders for the properties or actions under question. Either result would undermine the discussion about God at all and lead to a lack of progress in capturing not only the nature of God but the relationship with human beings.

The second aspect is also important to consider. While it is vital to consider how religious language is used accurately, any analysis of it also has to encompass how religious language is used in practice. Spiritually inclined people employ religious language not only to talk about God, but to express their faith. Beyond mere descriptions of God, religious language has another purpose; it is intended to convey a sense of being and nature that can be shared and understood by those who believe in him. This is a purpose that is difficult to pin down. Sometimes religious language is used to present propositions that can be judged as true or false. The phrase 'God created the universe' might be a clear example of this. However, to want to claim that such a statement is a matter of interpretation, for a fundamentalist, is to be reckoning that God is the creator of the natural world.

However, in many cases, religious language does not express clear propositions like 'God created the universe'. Sometimes it expresses ideas that are closer to metaphor, symbol or even art. For example, the phrase 'God watches human beings from the heavens' is not one that could easily be interpreted in a literal sense. Observing human beings it probably does not involve any standard interpretation of what is being observed. It is likely to carry meaning for many religious individuals. It reflects the way God is perceived to be with human beings and looks out for them in times of need. The same might be true for 'God is always with us'. So how should these non-literal statements be interpreted? Some might argue they are essentially meaningless, but they still play an important part in religious life, so it is necessary to think about what purpose they play. This is especially important when considering different ways religious language is employed in different contexts. In the case of religious language, it is thought to hold power. The words uttered by individuals are not thought to be mere words but bring about real spiritual change among the people involved.

Therefore, unpacking the intricacies of use and purpose of religious language is a complex task. Atheists are rarely agreed on the best way that religious language should be interpreted. It might well be that capturing the variety of uses requires a multifaceted approach, employing methods and processes commonly found in religious education. However, before we delve into this, it is worth outlining an important philosophical distinction that illuminates the concern. The distinction is between what are termed **cognitive** and **non-cognitive statements**.

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Cognitive and Non-cognitive Propositions

The last subsection detailed two different ways in which religious statements can be made (ways weren't made explicitly known!). On the one hand, they can be viewed as cognitive statements which are **truth-evaluable**; they can be effectively evaluated as true or false. Cognitive statements are often referred to as **realist** language. They seek to declare facts about the world, even if facts later turn out to be wrong! An example of a cognitive statement might be 'all zebras have black and white stripes'. Even if one later finds a blue or yellow zebra, the statement has a definite truth value.

On the other hand, religious statements can be viewed as non-cognitive propositions which cannot be evaluated as true or false, i.e. they are not truth-evaluable, and they are often referred to as **non-realist** language. Non-cognitive propositions do not seek to describe reality, but instead they are viewed as subjective expressions of a person's viewpoint. As such, they have many different meanings depending on the context and situation in which they are uttered, as well as the assumptions or ideas of the individual uttering them. There are many different examples of non-cognitive statements, including myths, symbols and metaphors. Many disciplines, such as art and literature, are often perceived to employ non-cognitive statements.

So, is religious language cognitive or non-cognitive? This is a difficult question to answer, and it will be explored throughout this section. Many religious thinkers have naturally preferred to view religious language as cognitive. Throughout scripture, specific propositions are made not just about the world, but about the world within creation, and most theists believe these propositions are true and objective from a realist perspective. However, it can't be denied that many religious statements are closer to non-cognitive language. For example, while the utterance 'the bread and wine in communion is the body and blood of Christ' can be interpreted literally (such as in the Catholic faith), many Christians would view such statements as symbolic. This is not to argue that this utterance has no connection to reality, but rather that it lies in the perspectives of those speaking and hearing it.

However, before we delve deeper into the cognitive and non-cognitive dimensions of religious language, we will explore two key routes used when developing cognitive propositions about God. The **apophatic way** and the **cataphatic way** are used within modern theological discourse and have distinct advantages and disadvantages, depending both on how they are employed and what they are used to describe.

Activity:

It is important to know the difference between cognitive and non-cognitive statements. However, as philosophers, it is not always clear what kind of propositions fall into each camp. In the activity below, write down whether you think it is cognitive or non-cognitive.

1. Every dog has floppy ears.
2. Rainbows are full of beautiful colours.
3. Atoms are formed of protons, neutrons and electrons.
4. It is always wrong to commit murder.
5. God can never be wrong.

The Apophatic Way and The Via Negativa

The apophatic way is a form of language used to talk about God which focuses on what God is not, rather than what God is. It is also known as the **via negativa**. The underlying hypothesis behind the apophatic way is that by developing statements that describe what God is not, we can better understand his nature and being. For example, if I were to state 'God is not like a human', I might convey the shape of God's benevolence without resorting to inappropriate comparisons to human ideas about what is good.

From this example, it is, therefore, possible to sport an initial advantage of the apophatic way. By using negative language, it potentially avoids the pitfalls of using literal propositions which are often too restrictive. It is not on how the terms employed relate to God, but how God himself differs from them.

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As such, using negative language may remove many of the constraints and restrictions about God, allowing thinkers to build up an idea of God not limited by the boundaries of human understanding.

Another initial advantage is that it prevents the confusion often encountered when making comparisons to describe God. For example, if 'God is the Father' were uttered, it is often interpreted. Is God the Father of humankind, or each individual person? Yet if one were to say 'God is the Father of all human beings' the meaning might be more clear (even if this statement is disagreed with). For example, explored in the previous section, would the statement 'the power of God is limitless' better express the limitless nature of omnipotence than simply stating 'God is all-powerful'. At least in some contexts, the apophatic way might help prevent conceptual confusion.

The apophatic way is often employed in numerous ways throughout religious history. One of the most famous early advocates was Pseudo-Dionysius the Areopagite (so named because his real name is unknown!). He was a Christian thinker from the fifth/sixth century CE who argued that since God was beyond the realms of human reason, intellect and even imagination, it was absurd to think the categories human beings used to describe the natural world could describe his nature or being. Instead, he argued it was necessary for human beings to move beyond the world of sensory experience and its corresponding language in order to fully comprehend God. By using negative language in theological discussion, Pseudo-Dionysius proposed that human beings could free their minds and move to a higher understanding about God's transcendence and eternity, eventually even becoming unified with God himself.

This idea is less radical than it sounds. Within Christian tradition, prayer and meditation often involve attempting to move beyond the conceptual boundaries of the natural, and the apophatic way can be a key part of such rituals. Other religions have also adopted similar approaches. Buddhism regularly recommends using negative language when describing key concepts, such as enlightenment, so fundamentally removed from ordinary human attachment that it can only ever be outlined or sketched using negative statements. A more detailed discussion of the usefulness of the apophatic way is given in the next subsection we shall explore.

Maimonides and the Apophatic Way

We've explored so far some of the potential initial advantages of the apophatic way. But what are the disadvantages? Is there consistently when describing a complex concept such as God? It can be questioned whether the apophatic way has specific limits, or whether there is a coherent process for employing it when discussing complex concepts. These issues are addressed by Maimonides, who argued that consistent use of the apophatic way, despite these concerns, can develop well-rounded and detailed discussion about God.

He draws the example of a ship to demonstrate this belief, contending that so long as one has a significant degree that a ship exists, then one can continually ask negation-led questions to gain knowledge of its properties. For instance, one might ask 'does a ship have wheels?' or 'is a ship made of stone?'. By noting that a ship does not possess these aspects, one eventually draws a clearer picture of what a ship is. Now, Maimonides notes that such a process is naturally very long and complex. One might simply use positive language, and this is likely to be appropriate considering the vast dimensions and properties of a ship. But the same is not true for God and so the process of using the apophatic way is that so long as the apophatic way can detail a concept like a ship with enough time, it can detail the true of God.

However, we can probe this idea further. Is discussion of God really comparable to discussing a ship? Could we even truly grasp the right concept of a ship just through negative language? This is the question probed in the next subsection.

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These criticisms are harsh but potentially fair. At the heart of them is the content that our understanding of beings and their attributes is based upon observation and comparison. So if one is trying to describe an object while continuously negating its connection to other characteristics, it is difficult to determine whether the end concept is meaningful. The apophatic way does produce meaningful ideas is potentially due to underlying concepts acting as reference points.

This is not to suggest the apophatic way is not altogether useful. It simply may be without considering its relationships to the other form of cognitive religious language, the **cataphatic way**. If this is the case, the appropriateness of negative language might be questioned. In cases where positive language fails to do justice to a particular idea, the apophatic route to openness and discourse and enabling participants to grasp a difficult abstract concept. However, it is clear that if the criticisms studied are correct, then positive assertion has a limited role in theological discourse. It is these assertions we will study in the next section.

Discussion Activity:

In pairs or groups, discuss the concept of nirvana in Buddhist thought. Is this and only be described using the apophatic way? Or is there the possibility of using positive language to describe such a concept?

The Cataphatic Way (The Via Positiva)

In contrast to the apophatic way, the cataphatic way (or via positiva) employs positive language when describing God, detailing what he is rather than what he is not. On the surface, this is a more straightforward approach to religious language. However, in comparison to negative propositions, positive language has a much wider variety of forms. Moreover, there is much greater flexibility when it comes to the use of language and the dynamic nature of language itself means that the cataphatic way is faced with challenges from the start. All languages are rich in connotative meaning and can have a variety of different uses. Their use and terms can often be used in a variety of ways, adding layers of meaning that are not always apparent at first glance. Thus, the first roadblock the cataphatic way faces is how to avoid ambiguity in statements about God. If the same terms are used appropriately and justifiably the same as in the apophatic way, it is more difficult, especially if those terms possess connotative meaning.

It is, therefore, necessary to draw a few preliminary distinctions. The first is between univocal and equivocal language. The former refers to statements that possess only one unambiguous meaning. A statement might be 'all swans are white'. There is simply no way of construing this statement as anything other than declaring the entirety of a specific species of bird to be a certain colour. Equivocal language, on the other hand, which do have more than one interpretation. An example of an equivocal statement is 'God is in the air' whether one literally takes this to mean love is in the air or as a metaphorical statement, the place is not clear.

Why is this distinction important? Well, using univocal and equivocal statements in religious language is a set of difficult issues. If univocal language is used, then there is a risk of anthropomorphism, inevitably drawing a direct comparison between human attributes and divine attributes. Saying 'God loves humanity' is very different from saying 'Anna loves Sally'. While both are using univocal language here equates God's love with human love, even though the latter is clearly different. If using equivocal language, however, then statements about God may become vague and open to interpretation. Saying 'God is in the air' might mean something entirely different to two different people. It is a truth-evaluable claim about the nature or being of God. There is, therefore, an inherent tension in using univocal or equivocal language to describe God; both seem to be inadequate.

So what is the solution here? Well, one possibility is using **analogical language**. Thomas Aquinas as a mediating form of language between univocal and equivocal statements. It allows for a description of God and acknowledging the limitations of this description at the same time. It is this concept that we will analyse in the next subsection.

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Aquinas and the Nature of Analogical Language

An analogy is a comparison between two things that aims to explain the properties or behaviour of one (or both) of the things. Typically we draw analogies as a form of inductive argument, but analogical language can serve a wider purpose when attempting to describe objects. For example, in the case of describing God, using analogical language would involve drawing comparisons between aspects of God's nature and behaviour to similar aspects in human beings. By developing these comparisons, one can potentially not only provide a positive reference for understanding God but also acknowledge the differences between God and human beings at the same time. For this reason, analogical language is thought to strike a balance between univocal and equivocal language. It is like univocal language in that it allows for a positive reference, but it also does not have the same interpretative problems as equivocal language.

For example, in the last subsection, we took the univocal statement of 'God loves humanity' as an instance of how direct comparisons might fail. However, if analysed analogically we might be able to reformulate it to be more appropriate and accurate. We could say 'God's love for humanity is similar to a mother's love for her child'; this statement not only draws a comparison between two different contexts of love, but aims to capture the way that God's love is unconditional. Equally, the analogy here acknowledges that God's love is not exactly the same as other forms of love, only similar. Such examples are also not far-fetched. Throughout the Bible, parental relationships are drawn on to describe the relationship between God and Jesus, but between God and humanity as a whole. Therefore, analogical language is a way forward for the cataphatic way; it allows human beings to develop meaningful concepts of God by calling upon misleading comparisons with human ideas and concepts.

One important proponent of analogical language was Thomas Aquinas. He argued that univocal language fails to do justice to the greatness and nature of God while equivocal language provides no substantial ideas about his being. However, analogical language allows for reference to God while providing a route to acknowledge the limitations of these ideas in light of God's perfection. Aquinas argued that the 'analogies found in things' justify this positive view of analogical language. The way concepts and ideas scale upwards and downwards depending on the object of reference, although he possesses attributes such as omnipotence or benevolence to incomprehensible degrees, lesser versions of these attributes are to some degree found on Earth, such as human

We can delve into this idea a bit further and analyse two key forms of analogy that involve such a gradation in things, then analogies can be applied in two separate ways. One is **attribution**. This simply notes that for any object created by a being, it is possible to infer certain qualities from the qualities of the created object. For example, a skilled baker might be inferred from the bread they make or, to take an example from Year 1, a watchmaker might be inferred from the principles or qualities they hold to be important. Therefore, in a similar fashion, it is possible to attribute certain qualities or characteristics to God based on the qualities found in the natural world.

The second way one can apply analogy is through **analogical proportionality**. Aquinas argued that when analysing the qualities of lesser beings to extrapolate conclusions about higher beings, one should be proportionately more of those same qualities. For example, we might note that the speed of a mouse allows for inferences about the speed and dexterity of a larger rat. It is possible to draw analogical proportionality, especially when the qualities of two things are related. Aquinas argues that it is justifiable to develop scalable inferences about God based on the characteristics of human beings. For example, God's goodness can be inferred from thinking about human goodness on a universal scale.

Perhaps most importantly, paying attention to attribution and proportionality when using analogies helps ensure the complexity and difficulty of understanding God are not overlooked. It recognises that the relationship between God and human beings is adequately spelt out and analogies adjusted depending on the context.

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attribute in question and the way it might scale between higher and lesser beings. The importance of proportionality, notably gives the example of a faithful dog. He points out that faithful does not just require identifying a connection between the faithfulness of a dog and recognising that the nature of each kind of faithfulness is proportionate to the being. The requirements for being faithful are simply much less considering its more limited mental capacity. A dog as faithful requires being aware of these limitations and adjusting one's judgement accordingly.

A more formal presentation of proportionality is given by John Ramsey. He does not reject positive language but instead holds that positive language is appropriate so long as one views the being being described in terms of models. Models for Ramsey are the concepts that human beings use as reference points. Examples might be 'just', 'omnipotent' or 'almighty', and Ramsey argues such terms can describe or at least approximate characteristics of God, but provide a basic grounding for discussion that all can agree upon. Importantly, on top of these models, Ramsey outlines what he calls 'qualifiers' to allow human beings to describe proportionally, and place limitations on, the model being used for the religious proposition. Qualifiers can be anything from basic terms such as 'quite' or 'very' that acknowledge differences between the way models are discussed. For Ramsey, the use of models and qualifiers together provides a structure for accurate and meaningful communication, having to provide statements that strictly cohere to an analogical form. Aquinas' approach was similar but made more palatable for everyday philosophical discourse.

Thus, through developing analogical forms of religious language, it can be seen that the pitfalls of the cataphatic way can be avoided. However, just because analogical language is used does not necessarily mean the analogies drawn between God and human beings are appropriate. It is possible to question whether the cataphatic way is able to meaningfully determine the truth or non-accurate without some prior assumptions about the relationship between the two in the first place. It is these limitations we shall explore in the next subsection.

Discussion Activity:

In groups or pairs, discuss Hick's comparison of the faithful dog. Is this an appropriate analogy about God, or is it a mistake to think that proportionality can help develop meaningful statements about God's nature and being?

The Limits of Analogy

Positive language is used more than readily around the world when describing God. It is easy to find many thinkers who do not believe its use is justified, especially when its limitations are considered. However, this does not mean that the cataphatic way does not possess its own significance. The ubiquity of positive language may obscure deeper problems with its use in everyday religious discourse.

One primary issue is to do with the actual terms regularly used to describe God. While it is possible to make analogical statements about God that convey the limitations of positive language, the same is not always true of the terms themselves. For example, in the case of the statement 'God's love for humanity is similar to a mother's love for her child', it is still necessary to explain to any receiver what 'love' or 'humanity' mean in the context of the statement. Yet explaining these terms requires literal univocal language that may skew the perception of the analogy. This point is made by William Alston that analogical language is much less meaningful and useful than ordinarily thought. The terms used in analogical statements still have to be defined or outlined using univocal statements.

If we imagine Hick's example of the faithful dog once more, it is possible to note that the comparison between human beings and dogs to explain the analogy. Inevitably, to make the analogy work, we would also have to make univocal statements about the dog's specific mental capacities. This is less precise and accordingly more equivocal, since a huge number of varying interpretations of the similarities between human beings and dogs. Thus, while analogies are useful, their usefulness stems from the form of the analogies themselves, or a pre-existing understanding of the terms used.

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just a simplified representation of something else, a symbol is a more complex, rich something that highlights a deeper meaning when used.

Symbols are everywhere. A common example might be flags; while at heart they stand for a particular country, for many individuals they point to deeper meanings and ideas. They have emotional significance. Many people are attached to flags and take offence when they are changed. They can stand for the values, achievements and merits of a country. Some might be attached to objects, but symbols are developed over time through participation, not by design. In the case of Christianity, important symbols, such as the cross, can be seen as a representation of the crucifixion, but for most Christians they highlight the sacrifice of Jesus, the importance of his death and the hope for the future.

The fact that the meaning of symbols is so subjective means that symbolic language is not purely cognitive, rather it is more emotional than cognitive. It does not aim to convey factual information about the world, but to convey the beliefs and ideas of individuals who participate in it. That means that the meaning of symbols changes through their use and those who are new to the symbols may bring a new meaning to them. However, we can discuss symbols in greater depth. How are they used in religious ideas? For answers to these questions we can turn to Paul Tillich, who played a central role in the heart of religious discourse.

Tillich and the Role of Symbols

Before we delve into Tillich's interpretation of religious language, it is first necessary to outline his overall philosophical approach to religion itself. Tillich throughout his life looked to synthesise Christian theology with an existentialist perspective. **Existentialism** is a hard tradition to pin down; its scope and ideas are very wide, but as a form of philosophical enquiry it generally seeks to investigate the fundamental questions that define human existence. These include asking the questions of who we are as a person, their experiences and the ways they interact with the world. Often existentialism is more systematic or analytical than traditional philosophy; in seeking to answer questions about the nature of human existence, existentialists have typically sought to outline the fundamental questions of human beings and how these often elude straightforward description.

Tillich takes a similar approach when investigating aspects of Christian thought. One of the central issues of his work is understanding the meaning of human life among what appears to be a vast and indifferent universe. Such an issue is typical among existential philosophers. Albert Camus, for example, explored the purpose of human life in the face of what he called the **absurd**; the confrontation between the search for meaning in the world and the ultimate indifference of the world itself. Tillich, however, believes that these issues are not restricted to this philosophical tradition. He contends that from art to science, human beings grapple with understanding the meaning of human existence. This is inescapable as soon as people begin investigating the world around them.

However, where Tillich differs from most existentialist philosophers is his embrace of religion as a way to answer to these questions. In fact, he contends that theology is one discipline capable of addressing existentialist issues. He develops what he calls **methods of correlation**; ways of relating human problems to Christian revelation, whether it be from scripture, religious experience or tradition. The aim of his philosophy is not to grant some novelty to religion, but to show that its key issues are not resolvable. Through theological reflection, he meets existentialist dilemmas head on and aims to give solace to those individuals struggling with these questions.

Tillich argues that the fundamental insight is best expressed through **symbolic language**. Symbols are the way beings to draw together different insights into the world, opening up different levels of reality. They are a way of reaching towards deeper meanings within concepts, ideas and phenomena. Symbols naturally address the existential questions we have explored so far, which resist a straightforward answer. They can reach out to the fundamental elements of human experience and address the deepest concerns. This is important for Tillich as human experience is deep and to a certain extent, a person's view of life is their own and their perspective on meaning and life is bound up in their own experience. Tillich also contends that symbols are not simply randomly matched or developed.

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beliefs. Beneath the variety of individual experience there is a **collective unconscious** awareness that binds human experience of the world. It is from here that Tillich believes that religious symbols are only adopted by human beings when they match or reflect some aspect of this collective unconscious.

Symbolism all the Way Through

But why eschew straightforward cognitive statements altogether? Don't they help to identify and outline important aspects of religious thought? These are the obvious questions that come to mind when first addressing Tillich's thought. How can a statement such as 'God created the world' be viewed as anything other than a basic theological fact? Well, Tillich argues that positing such questions soon runs into the point. As we have noted throughout this section, plenty of issues arise when it comes to making literal statements about God. Tillich argues that viewing religious language as a series of cognitive facts about the world leads to the grander philosophical confusion about God and his being. Tillich contends that, inevitably, literal statements about God lead to anthropomorphic and contradictory interpretations and fail to answer the key existential questions about religion that Tillich intends to address.

Take the problem of evil, for instance. Through Year 1 we explored numerous theories that address the logical and existential problems of evil and noting their relative philosophical weaknesses. However, at the end, it can be argued that the question of why evil exists is answered less than at the start. In fact, the discussion became a whole lot more complex. In the face of the complexity of the problem itself, Tillich would argue that the confusion arises because there is no straightforward literal answer. What the problem of evil reflects is human beings in a world that seems to have no care for their livelihood or well-being. Similarly, we can see the nature of God in the first section of this paper for another example. The debates about God's omniscience are tied up with difficult and intractable problems about what is logically possible and discerning the nature of God's power or knowledge. It is a thankless task.

Tillich, however, goes further than simply questioning the efficacy of traditional religious language. He argues that the portrayal of God in classical theism is the root of all the conceptual and logical problems of religion. In attempting to literally describe God as if he were just another object, classical theism fails to see that God is not an object at the top of a hierarchy of other beings. This inevitably ontological confusion leads to the logical problems and contradictions analysed throughout the history of philosophy. Instead that a more fruitful approach to God is to view him as the source or **ground** of all being himself. Yet if this is true, then literal or analogical language is unsuitable for describing God beyond the categories and concepts we employ in everyday life. Instead, symbolic language allows human beings to point to deeper meanings present behind these categories and provides a better appreciation of how God grounds all things, and enables individuals to understand and ease their existential worries.

Tillich and the Subject–Object Dichotomy

There is an important epistemological element to Tillich's criticisms of traditional religious language. One way the idea of describing God as just another being is a natural element of our everyday thinking. In contending that traditional theism falls into talking about God using the typical subject–object distinction that pervades most languages throughout the world, Tillich argues that God is made into an object from the perspective of human beings, but it is not readily questioned whether the subject–object distinction really applies to God in the first place.

This idea has important ramifications for religious language also. If the subject–object distinction misrepresents God, then it becomes hard to see how cognitive forms of religious language can be meaningful. These generally rely on such a dichotomy to describe God. Tillich's arguments here are a strong case for symbolic language.

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The Symbolism throughout Christianity

Tillich's ideas might initially seem quite radical, but they are supported by the symbolism throughout Christianity. A survey over Christianity's history reveals not only the routine creation of symbols, but the participation within them by Christians around the world. Furthermore, the active involvement of people and their cultures has shaped these symbols and their meaning in theology. This involvement might not just reflect theological ideas, but also the external issues that a particular group of people has faced. For example, the Chi Rho symbol was used by Christians under Constantine, but as history unfolded and Christianity was adopted by more people, the symbol no longer reflected its previous connotations and became a more basic symbol of Christianity.

The same is true of the cross, a symbol of the cross. Many Christians would hold different meanings for the cross, but it is an idea that cannot be captured by ordinary language. It can represent sacrifice, but also a notion that God is on the side of human beings and ready to help them. In countries where Christianity has been persecuted, it has often taken on political dimensions. For individuals in times of social struggle.

But what of more basic statements, such as 'God created the world'? How are they to be understood? To apply Tillich's thought to these examples if one approaches these statements with a symbolic understanding, Christians will readily acknowledge creation was not a single act, but a deeper truth beyond human comprehension. This is especially true if we accept Tillich's proposal for God as the ground of being. Even what the 'world' is can be symbolically interpreted. While it could refer to science, for others it might mean their own unique perspective on the world, or their religious beliefs. The meanings of even basic statements are fixed and their utterance can be deeply symbolic. When religious language is used in a participatory manner this is even more apparent. Most theists use religious language to describe the world, but use it in dynamic contexts such as worship and prayer. Religious language is, therefore, continuously transformed; it is perhaps not a description of the world, but the symbols and ideas that guide faith.

Discussion Activity:

In pairs or small groups, discuss the extent to which Christian scripture is symbolic. Detailing a specific claim about the nature of God and the world, or its interpretation, is it subjective or objective?

The Limits of Symbols

While symbols are undoubtedly prevalent and play a vital role in religious discourse, religious language provides a comprehensive account of how religious statements are developed. One might question whether symbolic language gives such statements their whole meaning. Are religious statements meaningful not because of the way they communicate ideas but in how they communicate them?

This perhaps is the easiest issue to raise. Critics have noted that, for many theists, religious statements take a cognitive form. They make direct claims about the world, even if their meaning is not literal. If we take our previous example of 'God created the world', while a symbolic interpretation might be possible, an understanding of this statement is it holding that God is the cause and creator of all things. This process for sure requires more discussion, but the statement itself is potentially meaningful. Moreover, in theological discussion, individuals are not simply trading symbolic gestures. They are making particular arguments with the aim of identifying what is true and what is false. The development of religious dogma has evolved throughout history cannot just be traced to the development of language, but to the progression of philosophical reasoning about the nature of God and his being. Such changes are not due to a change in the amounts of participation but instead because of the changing nature of the world and their meaning. Facts about the world or God may simply make old interpretations obsolete.

Symbolic approaches, therefore, face a deeper problem in accounting not only for the development of religious language but also in how new ideas and concepts drive changes in symbolic language. As Tillich notes an important problem at this juncture. He contends that symbolic language proponents such as Tillich shy away from asserting any specific factual content because they are aware of the limitations of symbols.

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of symbols is simply generated by their participation, they can radically change or of individuals and so fail to represent meaningful, fixed theological claims and pro that if the only meaning symbols possess is subjective, this results in it being impo individual is receiving the deeper meaning a symbol is supposed to represent. A p participating in a deeper understanding of the world through symbols but instead emotional response to their use.

This seems like a relatively easy issue to solve, however. Can't we just point to som represent? If this is the case, however, the symbols cease to function as symbols they simply stand in for more concrete theological statements. Furthermore, it ca content should be outlined. Through symbolic language then the process risks b content risk being lost or becoming more subjective once more. Yet if the factual content is o statements (are generally positive language), then there is the tacit admission can be symbolic. Either way, there is a tension at the heart of Tillich's proposals. If religious language are needed to **ground** symbols in factual content. Yet, if this is language itself ceases to be comprehensive in capturing the meaning of religious

A further problem emerges out of this lack of symbol grounding in Tillich's thought underlying factual content then it can be questioned whether symbols are stable religious truths, which for many are thought to be universal. Symbols can easily be their meaning lost or transformed due to lack of use or misuse. A famous example swastika. While it is a symbol of spirituality in many religions, it was also adopted representation of 'Aryan' pride or identity. Although the swastika is still used in its individuals in the Western world its meaning is now inseparable from that imbued

A similar problem is determining how the meaning of symbols can be conveyed to community or culture. If symbols are the only vehicle for conveying spiritual ideas only be understood through participation, then it seems to make meaningful relig could the theist debate and seek common ground with the atheist unless there w claims they could mutually disagree upon? The danger is that a reliance o religious discussion and participation wholly insular and unable to accommodate example, Greek myths can be viewed as highly symbolic but this symbolism doesn't myths are highly unlikely to represent real truths. In fact, many would argue that viewed as myths now because religious discourse has been able to accommodate the world. Therefore, attention needs to be paid as to how symbolic language can irrelevant. For critics, such a process would be inevitable were there not cognitive religious discussion, but for proponents of symbolic language, the very history of symbols may prove otherwise.

How Should We Describe God?

Throughout this section we have looked at a myriad of ways religious language ha hand, there are cognitive approaches from theologians such as Aquinas, whereas more modern, non-cognitive, symbolic approach from Tillich. In the case of cognit on how statements can be constructed which don't mischaracterise or mislead pe relationship to the world. This difficulty will be particularly exposed in the next sec secular approaches to religious language. If meaningful, verifiable statements can subjects, then why attempt to describe them at all?

Similarly, although religious cognitivism embraces a certain degree of subjectivity, it fa religious language comes down to competing interpretations, what grounds it in language altogether to a certain degree is non-cognitive – as we shall see when di next section – but many religious people genuinely believe that they are making fa discussing God. Ultimately, while we are looking for the right way to describe God A lot of theological debate isn't always rigorous, and the presence of artistic and s religious thought makes it difficult to judge the 'right way' to craft statements abo

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This isn't necessarily a crossroads. It simply highlights how complex language is. There are both cognitive and non-cognitive statements, contending that religious language is either one or the other, but to a mixture of the two. Some aspects of God might be able to be outlined in cognitive statements, while other aspects might require symbolic interpretations. If we take the latter for example, there may be no controversy in simply stating 'God is all-loving'. But attempting to outline the ramifications and implications of this nature may require non-cognitive statements. It may require the use of metaphor and symbols to highlight meanings.

There are also reasons to doubt whether this information is possible. We shall analyse this when we look at the thorny issue of verification and falsification, and whether there is any opportunity for the theist.

Quick Quiz



1. What is anthropomorphism?
2. What is an analogy?
3. What is the apophatic way?
4. What is the cataphatic way?
5. What is a symbol?
6. What is the difference between analogy of attribution and analogy of proportionality?
7. What are models and qualifiers?
8. Who was a key proponent of symbolic language?



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6: RELIGIOUS LANGUAGE TWENTIETH-CENTURY PERSPECTIVES

What you will learn in this section:

- The secular philosophical discussion around the nature and use of religious language
- Logical positivism, the verification principle and the criticisms of religious language
- Language games, forms of life and the meaningfulness of non-cognitive religious statements to the work of Ludwig Wittgenstein.
- The importance of verification for religious language, with reference to the work of A J Ayer in the verification symposium.

Starter Activity:

Take a look at the statement below; how would you go about verifying that this is true? Write out a list of criteria ahead of studying this section and compare as you go.

All things are made up of atoms.

Key Thinker

Name	A J Ayer
Born	1910
Died	1989
Key text	'God Talk is Evidently Nonsense' (from <i>Language, Truth and Meaning</i>)
Why are they important?	A J Ayer was a British analytic philosopher and perhaps one of the most influential of logical positivists. His work on the verification principle not only clarified the nature and meaning of religious language but also enabled Ayer to develop his arguments about ethical and religious claims, contending the former could be reduced to empirical statements and the latter could be thought of as alternative forms of life.
Did you know?	Although Ayer was an ardent critic of religion, in the year before his death he had an unusual and strong near-death experience, which he described as a denial to any form of an afterlife.

Key Thinker

Name	Ludwig Wittgenstein
Born	1889
Died	1951
Key text	<i>Philosophical Investigations</i> (1953)
Why are they important?	Wittgenstein is one of the most important philosophers of the twentieth century. His thought helped guide logical positivist philosophers and looked at the relationship between language and the world. However, in his earlier work and instead started to analyse how language is used in everyday life, an approach now often called 'ordinary language philosophy'. His <i>Investigations</i> in particular have influenced a wide range of disciplines including the philosophy of science and mind.
Did you know?	Wittgenstein is known for not always being easy to deal with. In 1946, he got into a now famous argument with the philosopher John Rawls, where Wittgenstein is rumoured to have threatened to engage in discussion.

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Introduction – Secular Approaches to Religious Language

Throughout the last section, the nature and form of religious language was discussed from a religious perspective. But how is such language viewed from a secular, perhaps more critical perspective? One way of looking at how statements get their meaning is not one that has been limited to religious discourse. There have been lengthy debates throughout the history of philosophy within disciplines such as epistemology, metaphysics and aesthetics. However, at the beginning of the twentieth century, a subtle shift in the way of thinking in the academics began to become more pronounced. The rise of science and industry during the nineteenth century had led many to question whether religious language could possess the same legitimacy as scientific language. Moreover, as an ever deeper picture of the cosmos began to unravel through advances in astronomy, it became less clear that human beings enjoyed a special place in the universe.

Auguste Comte, the founder of **positivism**, claimed that religion would eventually be replaced by science, which offered more concrete and verifiable answers to unexplained phenomena. Simply put, Comte argued that for religion to explain aspects of human lives when ever more complex scientific theories were being developed, the reasons behind the existence of human life. Therefore, Comte proposed a positivist approach to social phenomena and any offshoots should be studied using scientific methodology. In his view, religious statements simply didn't fit this bill. The language and terms involved were often vague, ambiguous and downright mysterious, and so verifiability was simply impossible compared to scientific language, which was to be denotative and to present literal, unambiguous statements.

Now, we might easily provide some initial criticisms of this idea based upon our study of religious language. We might argue that religious language does provide straightforward cognitive statements that can be verified. However, many contend that religious language is fundamentally non-cognitive. If the latter, it makes no sense to demand verifiability in order to be meaningful; it simply answers existential questions scientifically. However, Comte's work led to later philosophers questioning whether it was possible to distinguish between statements that were cognitively meaningful and those that weren't. In the end, it seemed to matter greatly when it came to distinguishing meaningful knowledge of the world from mere opinion. It seemed to matter greatly when it came to distinguishing meaningful knowledge of the world from mere opinion. For if a statement can be true or false, how could it develop a picture of the world that corresponds to reality? In the end, it seemed to matter greatly when it came to distinguishing meaningful knowledge of the world from mere opinion. For if a statement can be true or false, how could it develop a picture of the world that corresponds to reality? In the end, it seemed to matter greatly when it came to distinguishing meaningful knowledge of the world from mere opinion. For if a statement can be true or false, how could it develop a picture of the world that corresponds to reality?

Considering questions of meaning, therefore, is not just for the philosopher of religion. It is a question that is influential, if much criticised, tradition in the next section that builds on Comte's ideas.

Logical Positivism

It was noted in the last section that scientific enterprise naturally values cognitive statements that can be verified. If the world, it is not generally acceptable for there to be difference of opinion about a phenomenon; rather the aim is to reach mutual agreement through study of the phenomenon. A key element of scientific theories is that they are truth-evaluable. This does not mean that a statement has to be true or false, just that specific statements arising out of it can be potentially verified.

As explored previously, however, there is a deeper question about whether the secular approach to religious language. For Aquinas' analogical approach, religious statements hold a deep importance. It is taken to ensure that propositions about God are accurate and not misleading. For Aquinas, when a statement such as 'God created the world' is made, it should be taken as a statement about the world, not a statement about God. Aquinas views faith and reason as complementary. A great degree of faith is required to accept methods and ways of showing such a statement to be true. It is not possible, for example, to now observe the resurrection, but this event plays a central role in the theological debate. While religious language can be cognitive, it does not seem to have the same rigour as scientific enquiry.

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However, we've also seen how religious language can be symbolic and non-cognitive; there are no specific grounds for evaluating whether symbolic propositions are true or false, but rather to deeper meanings generated by the participation of people within a particular religious community. There are no independent grounds for evaluating the truth or relevance of a symbol; symbols are meaningful in relation to their use and interpretation. Yet, if religious language is non-cognitive, what values strict verifiability? Are symbols at all meaningful if they don't point towards something about the world itself? In order to answer such questions, logical positivists potentially need to turn to the work of **positivists**, a group of philosophers who were concerned with these questions of truth and meaning.

The Verification Principle

What might you consider to be a basic test of truth? For most people it's whether a statement corresponds to the state of affairs in the world itself. Yet how do we determine this? Well, we develop tests and procedures for **verifying** that statement; to see whether it can be backed up with its claims.

This is the fundamental basis of logical positivism. Philosophers in this tradition took Hume's fork which divided up statements into two forms. There were 'matters of fact', which were verifiable a posteriori and 'relations of ideas', which were necessary and knowable a priori. Any statement that was neither true or false Hume argued could be placed in one of these two camps, and for any statement that was neither, it could be sidelined as 'sophistry and illusion'. In short, if the proposition did not make sense according to either of the two methods dictated by Hume's fork, it could not be trusted to represent reality.

The logical positivists at the beginning of the twentieth century looked to Hume's fork and developed into what is often called the **verification principle**. This was envisioned as a test for the truth of a statement; if a particular proposition failed the requirements of the principle, it was considered to be meaningless. While there were numerous variations of this principle put forward (see, for example, discussing Ayer), most upheld the same proposition: in order for any statement to be meaningful, it must be either verifiable through empirical evidence (a posteriori) or established as an **analytic** statement (a priori).

Synthetic statements are those which can be confirmed or verified through some empirical evidence (a posteriori). The logical positivists typically viewed most scientific claims, including this umbrella term for synthetic statements, however, are those which can be confirmed through logical analysis. For the logical positivists, analytic statements weren't particularly substantial. Since they didn't refer to the world they were **tautologies** and so often trivial. Yet they do play a role in clarifying concepts and developing precise ideas about the relations between objects.

Initially, you might think the verification principle is very restrictive, and you would be right. Many disciplines and statements failed the principle's tests, including metaphysics, ethics, and religion. They make propositions about objects that lie beyond sense experience. Perhaps more surprisingly, many religious propositions were generally thought to fail the verification principle, as they were not confirmed simply through use of the senses. As such, it calls into question both cognitive and non-cognitive theories of religious language. For the former, the verification principle seems to demand that religious statements are framed cognitively, they still do not pass the criteria needed to be meaningful. It also suggests that non-cognitive interpretations of religious language are also problematic. If religious statements are simply subjective matters of opinion, they fail to state meaningful claims about the world itself compared to scientific theories and laws.

The highly restrictive nature of the verification principle was controversial among philosophers at the time it was developed. It came out of a very strong empiricist streak from its proponents, who took a sceptical view of metaphysics. For metaphysical propositions play an important part in many philosophical and scientific enquiries. As we shall observe later, a number of unintuitive consequences followed from the verification principle, and various forms of language are denied as being meaningful. However, it is also too easy to deny the foundations of the verification principle. It took cues from Ludwig Wittgenstein's early work, which attempted to define the limits of language and reality. Particularly important was his 1922 work *Tractatus-Logico-Philosophicus*.

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claimed 'Whereof one cannot speak, thereof one must be silent'. What the principle dismisses is all human endeavours as pointless but simply outline effective discussion to a certain extent, religious language may simply obscure rather than enlighten such discussion.

Discussion Activity:

In pairs or small groups, discuss whether you think the verification principle is appropriate. Does it leave anything important out? Or, conversely, is it too restrictive?

A J Ayer and Religious Language

For the most part, many of the logical positivists were concerned with religion. The goal was to introduce a rational approach to questions of language and meaning, even if such an approach seemed to outlaw a significant number of disciplines in the process. However, one philosopher was more invested in using the verification principle to mount implicit criticisms of a wide variety of philosophical fields.

A J Ayer, in his influential work *Language, Truth and Logic* (and subsequent works), was a logical positivist and set out how discussion of metaphysical ideas should be viewed as meaningless.

Before we delve into this, it is worth talking about how Ayer deviated from the original proposals of logical positivism. Most notably, he argued that the original form of the principle which he dubbed the **strong** version – was too strict. It claimed that all meaningful statements had to be verifiable by sense experience, but this ended up excluding a large number of statements that, although intuitively meaningful, were not able in practice to be verified in theory. For example, historical statements such as 'the Battle of Hastings took place in 1066' cannot be verified by sense experience now, but few would contend that such a statement could not meaningfully document an actual event that took place. Similar issues occurred with the theory of evolution. One cannot verify that certain creatures have evolved through time, though there is overwhelming evidence for the general theory itself. Even propositions about the future face difficulties, since it would not be possible to realistically observe events in the future.

Therefore, Ayer wished to set a lower bar for verifiability and develop what he termed the **weak verification principle**. This stated that in order to be meaningful, statements only had to be verifiable in theory through sense experience. Therefore, any theory for which it is possible to gather empirical evidence in support passes the test. Under the weak verification principle, the issues in the previous paragraph can be solved. While one could not realistically observe the future, the process is possible in theory. Similarly, with historical statements, one could potentially gather empirical data on the Battle of Hastings, even if such a process could not be performed in practice.

However, for Ayer, this weak verification principle still outlawed metaphysical propositions. These could never possibly be verified in theory since they referred to entities or states of affairs beyond sense experience. The same is true for fields such as ethics or aesthetics, and Ayer became known for the theory that all moral statements are simply expressions of emotional approval or disapproval. Religious language, since it is fundamentally concerned with describing God and his actions, also does not pass Ayer's weak verification principle. God is simply a metaphysical entity that cannot be verified to be true or false. For Ayer this makes most religious claims nonsensical. The statement 'God exists' is one that could never be cognitively meaningful and should be viewed as simply an expression of personal feelings.

It is also important to note, however, that Ayer holds the same to be true for statements such as 'God does not exist'. This is also unverifiable, for it too is talking about metaphysical entities beyond empirical verification. Therefore, Ayer is not presenting an argument against God, but rather is discussing ideas about God. If empirical evidence is the only criterion by which we judge the meaningfulness of a statement, it simply makes no sense to talk about things outside of those criteria!

Nevertheless, although this thought holds an intuitive appeal, it doesn't necessarily hold up under scrutiny. In the next section we shall detail some issues with both the strong and weak versions of the verification principle and judge whether or not the logical positivist programme is appropriate.

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Verification and Empiricism

Although logical positivism is less popular now than in the first half of the twentieth century, it has not been lost entirely. There is still much debate about the nature of truth and meaning from an empiricist perspective that often lends a sceptical eye to many of the metaphysical claims of religion and philosophy themselves. One particularly wide debate has been about whether **scientific realism** is justified. This view holds that the unobservable entities postulated by scientific enquiry should be regarded as having ontological existence. The alternative view, **scientific anti-realism**, holds the opposite: that unobservables should be viewed as mere patterns in instrumental data. This debate has drawn a lot on the discussion of verificationism that empiricists were having 75 years ago.

Do Religious Statements Need Verifying?



We've already noted some of the key issues with the strong version of the verification principle, particularly when it comes to excluding statements we might consider to be meaningful. However, its problems don't stop there. Many philosophers have questioned whether verification is an appropriate test of meaning in the first place. The verification principle fails to appreciate the wider ways that language has been developed across different disciplines.

One basic criticism, often put forward, is that the verification principle is unverifiable. It simply does not pass its own criteria for what counts as meaningful. This criticism is somewhat misplaced. The verification principle is not intended as a standard for truth, but a way of demarcating what are and are not cognitively meaningful statements. Its grounds would be to falsely apply the verification principle to an area where it is not applicable.

A more forceful criticism, therefore, is simply to challenge whether or not the verification principle is a test of meaning. If there are various statements that we would consider to be meaningful, there are grounds to suspect that it might be wrong or misleading. For example, if the verification principle interprets religious statements as being scientific fact proclamations of faith, therefore, he contends religious statements were never verified, so applying the principle of verification to them is nonsensical. This is a key criticism. A key aspect to his criticism is that behind the verification principle's claim that only cognitively meaningful statements are meaningful are cognitive statements. Yet the logical positivists don't give reasonable grounds for this assumption. While Hume's fork can be viewed as useful for analysing how truths can be known, it deeply question the philosophical basis for relying on it as a test of meaning altogether. The verification principle simply reflects the logical positivists' own subjective ideals, not a general principle for judging the relationship between language and the world.

Brümmer's criticism gives rise to the possibility that verifiability is not equivalent to truth. Statements may possess meaning even if they aren't directly truth-evaluable. One example is given by Swinburne, who asks the reader to imagine a situation where the toys come alive at night when they are sleeping. Even though it would never be possible to observe or verify this scenario, such a scenario is not meaningless. The well-known *Toy Story* films are based on this idea. It might be strange to question whether these films state anything meaningful about the world, but it ultimately suggests is that the meaning of a proposition is not embedded in certain facts, but instead how such a proposition is understood in the context of both the utterer's and the hearer's. Someone who doesn't know what a toy is, Swinburne's example might mean nothing to them. To understand what toys are and their place within human life, it might be rich in meaning. Logical positivists are clearly wrong in stating that the verification principle is important for all truths, but it is not applicable to all areas of life as a general principle of meaning.

This issue is also apparent when it comes to assessing the scope and applicability of the verification principle. We already looked at how the strong version had issues with statements such as historical claims. It is further whether any version of the verification principle can accommodate statements that are not directly meaningful. A key difficulty for the principle is encompassing scientific theories which are not directly meaningful.

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criteria of sense experience or observation. For example, modern scientific practice involves many different kinds of unobservable entities, from subatomic particles to black holes. None of these has sense experience in the typical sense; theories about their existence emerge from theoretical patterns from experimental data and often aren't observable in any meaningful sense. The existence of things such as subatomic particles is fraught with difficulties and potential problems.

To some degree these issues were accommodated by the logical positivists, who in the twentieth century were well aware of the nature of unobservables in science. However, they treated unobservables as a form of metaphorical language. Their position about the patterns in observation was that they were still against granting them any real existence beyond what was supported by sense experience. Yet although this may be a defensible strategy to talking about unobservables, it is not one that scientists themselves would interpret the existence and nature of unobservables. Many scientists make statements about the existence of things such as atoms and electrons and don't regard them as metaphorical. Moreover, it would be strange to regard such metaphysical statements as false if there is a wealth of data to potentially support such assertions.

A similar problem emerges with the verification principle when talking about laws of nature. Both rely on a philosophical move from large generalisations to a specific, inviolable instance. Such a move is impossible; it would rely on measuring or testing every single possible instance of the phenomena in order to show they are true or false. As such, there are practically infinite situations under which they could be tested and so fail conventional principles of verification. Logical positivists would argue that talk of laws is metaphorical; in reality they are just well-supported generalisations. Many scientists would say this misconstrues the meaning of a law of nature; the verification principle falsely excludes them. What this suggests is that even in the scientific domain, the verification principle is not a reliable test of meaning.

All these concerns are most pressing with the strong verification principle. However, what about the weak version Ayer puts forward? In contrast to the strong version, the weak version permits many of the excluded statements discussed above without sacrificing the core essence of the principle. Yet what if, conversely, the weak principle was too permissive for Ayer's liking? This prospect is raised by John Hick, who proposes that religious claims can pass Ayer's weak principle due to **eschatological verification**. Simply put, it is theoretically possible that religious claims could be empirically confirmed in the afterlife, and since all Ayer's principle requires is that statements are theoretically verifiable, religious claims do not fail to pass its criteria. Hick expresses this idea in an allegory of a theist and atheist on a quest to a hypothesis 'Celestial City'. Both are walking down the same road, with the theist believing in God and the atheist not. In this case, each of their claims can only be verified by either reaching the city or not reaching it. If they reach the city, their claims are verified as being true, and if they do not the atheists are instead. In the end, only the theist's claims can only be verified by the experiences of an afterlife, but this does not mean they are false.

While Ayer might contend in this situation that eschatological verification is misleading, it highlights an important ambiguity in his weak principle. Is it *theoretical* or *in principle* verification? Any number of statements could be constructed that are true with the right perspective or instruments, and it is unclear as to whether Ayer's principle is too permissive or religious claims simply pass the test and are meaningful. Dorothy E. Roberts argues that religious claims are potentially verifiable in this sense, although not strictly scientific. She argues that religious language, which is rooted in faith but in specific sense observations, is not about God, therefore, is not about God, but in specific sense observations. God, therefore, is not about God, but in specific sense observations. God, therefore, is not about God, but in specific sense observations. It may be that if human beings had greater power of observation, they could verify God's existence. It may be that if human beings had greater power of observation, they could verify God's existence. It may be that if human beings had greater power of observation, they could verify God's existence.

What Emmet's point highlights is that what counts as empirical evidence for the verification principle is not specified. Religious propositions might accommodate a wide variety of different forms of evidence in sense experience, some not. For many believers, the existence of God may be verifiable in principle, even if for agnostics such as Ayer, he is not. This raises the question of whether the verification principle is a reliable test of meaning.

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verificationism, especially in its weak form, is a direct challenge to religious language. For other reasons to suspect that the verification principle might not be a good test of religious statements, a subtle criticism is put forward by Wittgenstein. Although he was a champion of positivism in his early years, his later work came to present a view antithetical to that of the logical positivist. He became a champion of a thoroughly non-cognitive view of religious language.

Wittgenstein and Language Games

Ludwig Wittgenstein is one of the most influential philosophers of the twentieth century yet, unlike many of his contemporaries, he did not present a singular or unified position on the nature of language throughout his life. His early work, especially *Tractatus*, was deeply influential among the logical positivists and was regularly discussed during debates about the viability of the verification principle. However, in his later life, Wittgenstein appeared to radically revise his position. *Tractatus* set clear boundaries on the limits and use of language, his posthumously published *Investigations* presents a much more complex set of ideas about how language gets its meaning.

Perhaps most importantly, Wittgenstein came to believe that the meaningfulness of statements could be assessed by how they conform to specific criteria of truth or falsity. What matters is not what corresponded to states of affairs in the world was how they were uttered and spoken. However, considering the natural complexities and intricacies of language, this means that the boundaries governing the meaning of propositions were bound to be fuzzier. More importantly, these intricacies would not be immediately visible to any impartial observer. Instead, understanding statements would require paying attention to the context of their use and how they are used.

Wittgenstein's approach here implies a deeper problem for groups such as the logical positivists. It potentially means that there are no objective standards or criteria from which to judge statements. Instead, hard and fast rules would have to be abandoned in favour of subjective environments from which statements and propositions arose. In fact, this is what he proposed. He held that assessing the meaning of a statement requires paying attention to the context of its use (Lebensform) from which it arises.

Now the definition of a form of life is difficult to pin down, for its application can vary. In the case of religious statements, this might refer to larger groups, such as a denomination or a single parish or Bible study group. There are no straightforward rules for identifying a form of life; it might well emerge from multiple overlapping forms of life and might not be reducible to a single one. For example, a religious person might draw on both their experiences as a Catholic, their experiences as a member of a local church, and even their individual worship patterns to develop statements about God, and these statements encapsulate a form of life that gives meaning to these statements.

Now by themselves forms of life don't explain very much. Sure, every person's use of language is shaped by their lives and activities, but what bearing does this have on assessing the meaning of statements? What forms of life emerge what can be considered to be primitive languages, or what are the rules of language games, which have their own rules, principles and ideas behind them. This is a tricky question, but it is easier to understand when one considers various concrete examples. Wittgenstein gives the example of 'Water!'; this statement could be understood in numerous ways, from an exclamation of surprise to a response to a question. How its meaning is understood is not by any external criteria but by the specific language game in which it is used. If in a restaurant, it might be readily understood as a request for a waiter, but the possibilities are endless. It could even be a code word used by spies.

We can extend this example a bit further, however, and look at how small language games work with terms and sentences. Wittgenstein himself asks the reader to imagine builders on a building site who employ numerous terms or statements such as 'slab', 'pillar' or 'beam', each of which has a specific meaning and function in the context of their work. In fact, although each of these words is like a word in an individual's vocabulary, within the context of the builders' worksite they can be considered as part of a language game.

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form of language only meaningfully understood by those builders themselves. More limited to work environments. Imagine any hobby, task or job and you can probably find statements which gain their meaning from their context of use within that pursuit. It is this that these language games are what give statements their meaning altogether, not

The Religious Language Game

We can delve deeper yet into Wittgenstein's thought. One important ramification of his thought is that an observer outside of them would not be able to fully understand the statements of the game. This is because they would not have knowledge of the rules and principles of the relevant language game. This isn't a call to scepticism. After all, there are a vast number of different language games. Moreover, Wittgenstein argues there aren't sharp boundaries separating language games into others in numerous points of overlap and similarity. This is why we can understand a family resemblance and refers to the way things aren't always connected by essential features. They might have numerous points of connection when no one feature is present in all the language games, it may be that a person partially understands the meaning of a statement in a language game, but fails to understand the full extent when not present in all the relevant games.

For example, imagine a tennis player starting to play badminton. They might watch a few games, learn the rules of the game, but still be unsure as to the intricacies or tactics of the game. After a few days at the clubhouse afterwards, they might chat to a few regular badminton players who begin to explain the game to them. From the tennis player's knowledge of racket sports and their observations that some of the meaning of the badminton players' statements, but it is unlikely they will fully understand the meaning. If the tennis player started playing badminton regularly, however, they would eventually gain a full understanding of the game, the tactics and their associated language. Eventually they could talk to the badminton players and gain a full appreciation and understanding of their language, having become part of the 'badminton club'.

The exact same process could apply to religious statements. Most regular churchgoers would not be able to understand a wider range of theological terms and would not be able to use them in discussion with an atheist visiting church or a Bible student. The first time they would probably find the meaning of religious statements to be dependent on the language game in which they are used. A statement such as 'God created the world' might, therefore, have layers of meaning that are not fully understood by those within the relevant religious language game. However, this does not mean that they are automatically lost when hearing a religious discussion. They might have a partial understanding that would allow for a partial grasping of the subject matter. It does mean, nonetheless, that those who are not part of the language games may not perceive the deeper meanings of a religious discussion.

There is another important point to note about Wittgenstein's thought. He claimed that religious statements are groundless. This means there are no independent criteria that can be used to justify statements beyond the conventions of the language game they are contained in. If you say 'this is a stapler' while holding out a stapler, you might well agree with me. However, this is not because there are some independent standards that can be used to justify the statement. My statement would only be considered to be true because our particular community has determined some things to be staplers and others not. Other languages might have different conventions; they might even call a stapler and a hole punch the same thing! There are no definitive standards for the language we use, and much of it is simply convention.

Why is this important? Well, the same logic can be extended to religious language. Religious statements are simply statements which are groundless and cannot be externally justified. They are true or false only in relation to the religious perspective within the game. Yet such statements aren't necessarily true or false in relation to the world. Wittgenstein's ideas here ultimately contend that much of our language is not meant to be evaluated as true or false, nor are there meant to be specific criteria to determine the truth of a statement in a language itself. Language as a whole is meant to communicate beliefs, thoughts and feelings, and is invested in the relevant game.

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While this might make the meaning of language ultimately arbitrary, such a conclusion is not necessarily a problem. Whether statements are meaningful or not can be assessed by their adherence to the rules of the language game they are contained in. Furthermore, since many statements are contained within language games, there can be a myriad of perspectives on the meaningfulness of statements. The fact that there are no universal conditions for meaning does not make statements meaningless, just that the rules which govern meaning aren't independent or objective. Developing the verification principle, therefore, may simply be trying to impose the rules of one language game onto other language games. This might develop a particular insight into the nature of language, but it does not render their claims meaningless or the meanings of their statements meaningless. The rules and principles.

We looked at the section on logical positivism with Brümmer's criticism of Wittgenstein's analysis of language it is much easier to see the force his objection. Religious statements were potentially constructed to be meaningful within a religious language game, not an empiricist one. This means that imposing the rules and principles of a scientific language game on religious statements is bound to produce incoherent results. Therefore, while religious statements might not pass the verification principle, they simply were never constructed in order to pass it. Their meaning is derived from the religious language games in which they are used, as Wittgenstein can only be fully understood from the religious language games in which he was operating.

Discussion Activity:

In pairs or small groups, discuss the different activities you are each involved in and how they relate to a unique language game. These activities can include anything appropriate, including hobbies, work, school, and various aspects of pop culture!

A Non-cognitive View of Religious Language

Wittgenstein's ideas have resulted in great debate among philosophers of religion. One of the main problems is an intuitive explanation for not only why religious statements don't cohere with the scientific method, but why religious statements possess so many different characteristics. Under Wittgenstein's view, it becomes possible to understand why sometimes religious language can be positive, and sometimes it can be negative. These aspects might be the result of overlapping of various religious language games.

However, many interpretations of Wittgenstein have taken him to support a non-cognitive view of religious language. This is understandable, to say the least. If all statements or propositions are only meaningful within the rules and principles of their respective language game and these games are rooted in the culture, life and their conventions, then there are no independent criteria from which to judge them. Instead, they only get meaning from the subjective perspectives of those interpreting them. This is a non-cognitive and potentially conflicting language games.

This is certainly the view of Don Cupitt. He contends that all statements about the divine are viewed as non-cognitive declarations. They hold meaning for those invested in a particular religious tradition, but cannot be meant to be impartially assessed in any meaningful manner. Cupitt's view is often referred to as **non-realism**. Under this interpretation of religious enterprise, theists are not attempting to describe an objectively existing being, but instead are expressing their faith in a higher power. Theists as such are well aware that there are no objective grounds to prove or disprove their claims. There is no good reason to interpret religious talk as making evidential claims. To do so is to misunderstand the nature of the statements theists make. But how does this help us understand religious statements from a philosophical perspective? We saw in the section on logical positivism that religious statements are criticised precisely because they make such claims. We can turn to the thoughts of D.Z Phillips here.

Phillips agrees with Cupitt that a non-cognitive interpretation of religious language is the most accurate. He argues that religious language has no need to answer the criticisms given by the logical positivists. By attempting to respond to such criticisms, theists have falsely adopted a language game that is more like science than religion. Religious statements should not have to answer to such secular criticisms. The importance of the statements arises from their respective religious language game and not from any external rules and principles. Phillips, therefore, argues that religious language ultimately has no need for justification for it to be meaningful, so long as it is accordingly judged by the criteria of the religious language game in which it is used.

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own game. To try to apply the rules and principles of another language game is to make statements incoherent or meaningless, because the forms of life which generated

Therefore, we can see that a non-cognitive interpretation of religious language can stand up to Wittgenstein's claims at face value. However, before we look at the issues with language games, let's compare Wittgenstein to a figure we analysed earlier in this companion; Thomas Aquinas. We will look at the differences in approach between the two figures and the cognitive/non-cognitive

Wittgenstein vs Aquinas

A clear distinction can be drawn between Wittgenstein and Aquinas when it comes to language. Nevertheless, it is worth exploring their similarities. Both appreciate that it comes to a limit in what can be said and both understand God to be fundamentally unknowable. For both, religious language to be meaningful in a multifaceted way that depends on context and thought. Within Wittgenstein's thought there is also a place for analogical language. If the validity of religious language is determined by its respective language game, this game will be set forward by individuals such as Aquinas, so his rules and principles regarding the use of language will not be invalidated.

Where there are differences is how this analogical language itself should be constructed. For Aquinas, there is a connection between God the creator and the created world, which means that there are appropriate means of talking about religious subjects due to both analogies of attribution and analogy of proportionality. However, Wittgenstein would stop short of talking about such a connection. While Aquinas' religious form of life, analogical language itself would have little bearing beyond the context contained in. For the atheist critic, no such connection between God and the world can be assumed. An objective basis for analogical language cannot be assumed either. Rather, analogical language is valid within a specific religious language game which emphasises the validity of natural language. Not all theologians have supported a natural theological perspective. Karl Barth, for example, held that natural theology held any significance whatsoever and the use of analogical language came second to the revelatory language of the Bible. This highlights how, for Wittgenstein, language games are present in religious thought; the rules and principles governing them may well differ even among different religious traditions.

Therefore, while Aquinas acknowledges the limitations of religious language, he does not examine it in the context of its inability to fully capture a transcendent, perfect being from a non-cognitive perspective of religious statements. Whether or not a religious statement accurately describes the nature and being of God. For Wittgenstein, religious language arises due to its relationship to specific language games, which have their own rules and principles. This makes sense from a non-cognitive perspective, for the meaningfulness of religious language is not measured by the extent to which it accurately describes God, but by whether it follows the principles of its relevant language games.

Wittgenstein and Non-cognitive Interpretations

There is a lot of debate about whether Wittgenstein himself viewed language games from a non-cognitive view of religious language. Although there are some potentially grounds for such a view, there is also evidence to suggest that Wittgenstein did not favour such a view. He did not see his philosophy as invalidating anything in any particular field. He was concerned with the meaning of statements across all fields. Whether certain disciplines were justified or not, the wide variety of overlapping language games may justify criticism of religious language. Religious traditions govern the rules and principles of the relevant language games. Therefore, it is important not to attribute non-cognitive ideas to Wittgenstein, but to have interpreted his works in that manner.

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Issues with Language Games

While Wittgenstein's ideas potentially offer a way for theists to avoid the criticism of logical positivists and others, there are a number of issues facing the adoption of language games from a religious perspective, some more pressing than others.

One obvious issue is that it is uncertain altogether whether a non-cognitive position rescues philosophical language from the criticisms of Wittgenstein. Logical positivists argue that even if statements get their meaning from language games, it is simply that the scientific language game is preferable to the religious one. At the minimum, it helps human beings describe and predict the world better, suggesting the rules and criteria that it employs to regulate the use of language inside are more fitting or useful than the ones employed by the religious language game. While, of course, in practice, it is difficult to see people's use of language, since it is rooted in various forms of life, being part of another language game may not exempt the religious individual from criticism since criticism can be made of the overall language game itself, not just the statement.

This issue is particularly pressing also when one considers the ramifications of adopting language games. Essentially, a strong version of this view endorses the idea that no justification is needed for religious statements; they are justifiable entirely by the rules of the religious language game. However, this risks collapsing into **fideism**, where the only justification for religious claims is faith. Many theists are opposed to such a collapse, as on the whole they contend that faith is reconcilable and can coexist with reason. However, if there is no reason for religious claims, then it is difficult to see how reason plays a part in theological enquiry. If the religious language game adopts an overly insular perspective, it may be detrimental to interpretations of religious texts.

One other problem that is often identified is the possibility of language games being too narrow. If meaning for propositions is the game they are too tightly defined, but language games are too broad, then it is difficult to avoid a circularity of description. If language games are meaningful, then it is difficult to avoid a circularity of description. This is too pressing, so long as one can identify how meaning arises and is transferred between language games, but it does suggest that the idea of a 'religious language game' is problematic. It is difficult to understand how religious statements are constructed, more precisely, the intricacies of the language. However, these analyses may reveal that non-cognitive justification of religious statements is slimmer than wished for by proponents, especially if religious language is seen in relation with other critical language games.

A final issue concerns whether it is possible to reconcile a non-cognitive view of religious claims with scriptural evidence. Throughout the Bible, many individuals, including Jesus himself, seem to make claims about God and the world. Moreover, Jesus' ministry is full of miracles and events that are seen as incontrovertible proof of God's presence. Yet, if proponents of a non-cognitive view of religious claims can only be assessed by the rules and criteria of religious games. Then it is difficult to do a critical analysis of scripture and its claims. However, many theologians do regularly examine scriptural evidence and change their beliefs about God based on what they regard as potentially mythic.

This is not necessarily a true problem for non-cognitive interpretations. Religious claims are often made in various forms, and it may be that the Bible is best understood as an overall invitation to a process of reflection. It does indicate that at the minimum, many religious thinkers do respond to criticism by using other criteria and more than just the religious language game as an invitation to properly reflect. For example, a programme of demythologisation when examining the Bible as symbolic and non-literal. While this might initially seem like support for a non-cognitive approach, a programme is also driven by the need to develop Christian proposals that cohere with modern science. Simply put, there is a tension between a non-cognitive justification of religious claims and the use of modern science and philosophy to evaluate religious claims. If religious claims are endorsed, there may not be a wealth of difference between the two approaches to examining scripture, and there might still be room for cognitive criticism of religious claims.

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Throughout this section, we've looked at how a non-cognitive view of religious language is a philosophical criticism. Religious individuals can, therefore, make claims without being true or false according to some independent set of criteria. Yet, what if the very ability to make a statement meaningful in the first place? This is the idea we will examine in the next section: the falsification symposium.

What is the Meaning of Falsification?

So far, the main issues presented against theism have focused on the potential truth of religious statements. But what if verification is not the primary way scientific statements are tested? This is not a new question, but an important one to consider. Throughout the section, we noted the various problems which it failed to accommodate meaningful scientific statements. Much respect was given for its decline in popularity as the various religious criticisms were presented. Verification, however, is the real test for scientific meaningfulness? One influential philosopher, Karl Popper, He contended that the right to demarcate between scientific and pseudoscientific statements was whether or not they presented criteria for falsification. Simply put, if a particular statement is shown to be false, then it was scientific. If, however, there was no straightforward way to falsify it, then it should be viewed as pseudoscientific.

Why did Popper propose this idea? Well, he took inspiration from a variety of sources. One of the theories he presented was Einstein's general theory of relativity. This took his previous theory of special relativity and incorporated further ideas about the nature of gravitation. Yet, while it is well accepted today, when he published his theory in 1916, it was received with more confusion than acceptance. It was difficult to test. However, one of the theory's main predictions was that light would be deflected by a significantly strong gravitational field, such as the ones belonging to massive solar bodies. It was not until 1919, when Arthur Eddington mounted an expedition to the island of Principe, that the theory was first tested. Through photographing and analysing an eclipse there, Eddington managed to confirm that light was being deflected by the gravity of the Sun and thus confirmed Einstein's theory three years before it was widely accepted. Since then, there have been many more confirmations of the predictions of general relativity, perhaps one of the most significant scientific experiments ever performed.

Needless to say, this success process impressed Popper. Even though Einstein's theory was not initially accepted, its empirical evidence, it still made important novel predictions that most importantly, it could be falsified. Although Eddington's expedition turned out to confirm Einstein's theory, it was not wrong. For Popper, this showed that it doesn't really matter where theories come from, as long as they propose clear criteria that show how they can be falsified. He argued that this theory was the core empirical sciences, from physics to chemistry and biology. However, many theories were considered pseudoscientific in his eyes. For example, Popper thought psychoanalysis, as exemplified by Sigmund Freud, failed to propose any meaningful ways to falsify its claims and so failed to be scientific.

The keen-eyed among you might have noticed that so far this debate is wholly about science and pseudoscientific. Where does religion come into it? Well, it's true that Popper was not a religious philosopher. However, there is a philosopher who took the core features of Popper's theory and applied it to religious discussion. It is they who we will analyse in the next part.

Antony Flew and Falsification

What if falsification wasn't just a test of claims, but a test of meaning altogether? Antony Flew, who took Popper's ideas and used them to criticise religious claims, argued that religious statements provide falsifying criteria, not just a sign of pseudoscience, but a sign also that they have some meaningful value. However, Flew also had a very significant target in mind: the God of classical theism. He argues that despite religious statements appearing to be falsifiable, any time evidence is presented that contradicts these claims, religious individuals or reconsider their beliefs. Instead they merely offer 'qualifications' to their original statements to maintain them from the contradictory evidence. Such qualifications inevitably become ad hoc, meaning they are made up to maintain the truth of the original statement. Rather they just refashion it to fit the new evidence presented. This shows, Flew argues, that religious claims aren't truly falsifiable and therefore are not scientific.

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Flew, however, doesn't present his argument in a conventional philosophical form often known as the 'parable of the invisible gardener', a story designed to concretise what appeared in a 1950 article in the following form:

*Once upon a time two explorers came upon a clearing in the jungle. In the clearing were growing many flowers and many weeds. One explorer says, 'Some gardener must tend this plot.' The other disagrees. 'There is no gardener.' So they pitch their tents and set a watch. No gardener is ever seen. 'But perhaps he is an invisible gardener.' So they set up a barbed-wire fence. They electrify it. They patrol and beat the bounds. (For they remember how H. G. Wells's *The Invisible Man* was both smelt and touched though he could not be seen.) But the Skeptics ever suggest that some intruder has received a shock. The Believers' movements of the wire ever betray an invisible climber. The bloodhounds never give cry. Yet still the Believer is not convinced. 'But there is a gardener, invisible, intangible, insensible, to electric shocks, a gardener who has no scent and makes no sound, a gardener who comes secretly to look after the gardeners. At last the Skeptic despairs, 'But what remains of your original assertion if an invisible, intangible, eternally elusive gardener differ from an imaginary gardener at all?*

What Flew contends is that religious claims inevitably die 'the death of a thousand qualifications'. As they alter their original beliefs, they cease to meaningfully correspond to states of affairs in the world. A potential example of this, which you studied in Year 1, is the problem of evil. Despite the fact that evil not only exists, but is widespread and gratuitous, theists hold on to the belief in an omnipotent. As such they offer various theodicies that, in Flew's eyes, would probably never be accepted. These include the possibility of fallen angels causing evil, human free will being a necessary condition for being necessary for moral growth. Yet each of these explanations only further complicates the problem. The simplest and best explanation is potentially that a non-existent and benevolent God exists. The fact that theists won't abandon belief in an omnipotent and benevolent God, even in the face of glaring, is testament to religion's claim to themselves being unfalsifiable.

This presents a classic dilemma for the theist. Should they hold that religious claims are unfalsifiable and thus their ideas are unfalsified? Or should they admit religious claims are unfalsifiable and thus their ideas are falsified? This is the challenge that Flew presents at the end of his 1971 paper that begins with 'Falsification Symposium'. Within this set of papers, Flew expands upon his original 'Falsification' and invites other philosophers to comment on and critique his ideas. Basil Mitchell, attempt to meet this challenge and present parables of their own.

Activity:

Read through Hare and Mitchell's parables ahead of this next section. Then think about how you might construct your own parable in response to Flew. What ideas would you be trying to convey? How would you outline this in a narrative? Write down your parable in one or two paragraphs and share it with your classmates or peers!

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R M Hare and Bliks

Interestingly, Hare does not accept Flew's challenge. Instead, he offers a counterparable with the aim of showing that Flew mischaracterises the nature of belief. This might be construed as a bold move, but it is important to note that Flew's parable itself be misleading. Do theists really still believe in God in the absence of evidence? It is this last question in particular that Hare focuses on, with his parable of the student and the dons.

As its name suggests, this parable gives us the example of a student who is convinced all university dons are out to harm him. He is utterly steadfast in this belief, even if his friends and family continually show him evidence to the contrary. Even though he might observe the dons' good behaviour and deeds, he conversely interprets such behaviour as underhanded attempts to gain his trust to harm them later. The question Hare poses is, how should we interpret this student's perspective? Is he like the theist in Flew's issue at play?

Hare's parable might seem odd at first, but Hare later presents his point more clearly. It is not a direct correspondence between a person's beliefs and the evidence in the world. Beliefs are filtered through a person's world view, which Hare terms a 'blik'. Hare argues that a blik, and it functions as a kind of lens through which we perceive the world. Furthermore, each person's blik also determines what counts as evidence for and against a belief. Of the student, he holds a blik which interprets every don's behaviour to be malicious. His friends and family, which view the dons as friendly. Since the student's blik stands firm, no amount of contradicting evidence can get him to change his mind. All the evidence he sees is ironically is evidence in favour of his views.

Why is this an effective response to Flew? Well, Hare argues that because each person has their own blik, there is no objective way to discern what is and what is not evidence for a particular belief. For the sceptic, their perceptions of the world are not equal. The believer may view certain evidence as confirmatory evidence for God, while the latter might view it as disconfirmatory. As Hare says, 'different world views provide the conditions for their statements to be true or meaningful'. It is simply different bliks.

Getting to Grips with Bliks

Hare's response appears simple but intuitive. Religious statements and arguments are viewed through a religious blik. For the theist, such statements might be confirmed by evidence that the atheist would not see. This presents a difficult situation, for how can it be possible at all to discern between reasonable and non-reasonable ones? Well, Hare doesn't completely argue that everything is subjective. It is possible to discern 'sane' from 'insane' bliks, depending on the kinds of claim people make and how they fit in with wider beliefs. However, the key aspect of his proposal is that, ultimately, about the world and the explanations that fit them can only be judged by reference to the world. Always be evaluated by a person viewing the world from an entirely different blik.

Therefore, Hare offers a broadly non-cognitive approach to answering Flew, drawing on the meaning of religious statements and their corresponding evidence is at least partially determined by the elements of a person's perspective. We can take our example of the parable again. Although an atheist might look at the world and perceive gratuitous evil and suffering, a benevolent and omniscient God, the theist might view the world entirely differently. They might be reacting here to the world differently in the face of adversity, people choosing good actions and committing to God in the most testing moments of human beings' lives. The question is, how do we decide which of these perceptions is right, yet these perceptions also discern what is and what is not evidence for a particular belief. Thus it may be wrong to claim that falsification is necessary. It is not clear what evidence disconfirms the theist's proposals in the first place! The theist and the atheist may differ wildly.

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Discussion Activity:

What is your blik? In pairs or small groups, discuss how you think your perspective interpret evidence. Are there many differences and, if so, do these differences in

Nevertheless, Hare's arguments also have their shortcomings. For one, Hare's approach to the way many theists view their religious claims. Flew notes that religious individuals view their beliefs as the result of a religious blik. In fact, Hare seems to subtly suggest that the theist is equivalent of the insane student, a proposition most theists would be unhappy with. It is controversial to suggest that classical theists as a whole would disagree with Hare's view of religious belief and would not view religious claims as genuine assertions, with Flew's original intention. This problem is also magnified by Hare's lack of detail to distinguish between sane and insane bliks. Couldn't Flew simply charge the theist with having no meaning criteria for the interpretation of evidence?

There is the acute danger here that Hare's position simply collapses into **fideism**. Fideism need no justification apart from faith, and, while it is undoubtable that faith plays a role in religious beliefs, many theists also believe that it is reconcilable with reason. The issue is Hare's attempt to suggest that religious claims are justifiable regardless of the possibly reasonable grounds for them. If this is the case, then it seems difficult to rescue Hare from this charge of fideism. Religious belief potentially becomes irrevocably subjective.

There is, therefore, potentially space for an alternative cognitive response to Flew's argument and details how religious belief is both falsifiable and reasonable. This is provided in the symposium; Basil Mitchell.

Wittgenstein and Falsification

Throughout this companion, we have primarily studied Wittgenstein's thought in relation to the debate around logical positivism and the verification principle. However, it can also be argued that if Wittgenstein is right, falsifiability may be an important rule or principle within a language game, but not within a religious one. This means that attempting to criticise religious claims strictly using logical positivism may be attempting to erroneously apply one game to another. This is highlighted also by Popper's original proposals, which restricted ideas about falsification to the philosophy of science only. Flew, by contrast, is extending Popper's thought to religion, which may be unwarranted. Therefore, it is important to note that your studies of Wittgenstein's philosophy questions about falsification and may provide an alternative non-cognitive response to Flew's argument.

A Reasonable Form of Faith? Mitchell and the Stranger

Mitchell offers an argument against Flew much different from that of Hare's. Rather than making falsifiable assertions, he proposes that they do, and that, in religious discussions, theists are making assertions against religious assertions. However, Mitchell also retorts that, for the theist, the religious assertions is not overwhelming enough for theists to reject their original grounds for religious belief and the role of faith in maintaining the religious belief.

Like Hare, Mitchell proposes a counter-argument against Flew. He details a story concerning a fighter who one day encounters a stranger in the midst of war. In the meeting, the stranger convinces them in a highly convincing manner that they are on the fighter's side, such that the fighter has a deep trust in the integrity and words of the stranger. This means that even if the fighter's friends and allies present evidence that the stranger is colluding with the enemy, the fighter continues to maintain trust in the stranger.

Mitchell argues that the fighter here represents the theist, and the stranger, God. The theist has a set of initial strong reasons to believe in God, whether it be religious experience or tradition. This can't be discounted when discussing the falsifiability of religious assertions. However, if the theist's reasons for believing in God are not strong enough to maintain their faith, then the theist's faith is not reasonable.

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having a certain degree of faith in not only the existence of God, but also his benevolent investment in the lives of human beings. An important aspect of this faith is that it is based on evidence. This does not mean that conflicting evidence does not sway the opinion of the believer, but that faith itself overcomes the tolls of such evidence. Moreover, this kind of faith is not just in religious belief. It is required to make sense of the world, to trust others, to have faith in science, to have faith in the future, to have faith in life, not just in religious belief. It is required to make sense of the world, to trust others, to have faith in science, to have faith in the future, to have faith in life, not just in religious belief.

Therefore, when a theist makes religious assertions, they must identify criteria for the evidence presented against God is simply not enough to sway their faith. The key here is the idea of **reasonable faith**. He claims that if one holds a truly absurd belief, then this belief should be rejected as false. However, if one holds a belief with the slightest bit of evidence, one cannot say one ever really had faith in that belief. This is the idea of **reasonable faith**, which religious believers often emphasises both rationality and faith. Flew, as a theist, since he assumes that the believer ignores the evidence. On the contrary, the believer holds their faith regardless.

Evaluating Mitchell's Thought

Overall, Mitchell's ideas have merit and offer a convincing rebuttal to Flew. It certainly paints a misleading picture in his parable; his characterisation of the believer is as if there is no evidence for God, in comparison to the ordinary claims of many theists. Individuals, on the contrary, would say they have strong evidence for their belief in God, of evidence accepted by Flew. Furthermore, Mitchell's characterisation of reasonable faith is in a number of ways. Human beings don't just drop their beliefs in the face of any evidence, usually require sustained interrogation of these beliefs with multiple sources of evidence, essential, since evidence is not impartial and requires weighing up, especially in philosophy. Maintaining of one's beliefs despite conflicting evidence may well be reasonable in the long run. This is true even in scientific enquiry, as we will explore later.

Furthermore, Mitchell presents a cognitive interpretation of the falsification problem to ordinary theists. Many believers might argue that they are making factual claims, not just faith claims. Contradictory evidence for their claims. If we take the problem of evil, for example, despite evil it is not evidence against God, there is equally evidence that our world is sometimes good. What might seem bad at first can turn out to be good. A headache, a toothache. Although the pain of a cavity might seem like a natural evil, it leads on to a tooth fixed to prevent further health problems in the future. Therefore, the assessment may be more complicated than Flew hints at in this parable.

However, there are still issues with Mitchell's proposals. Flew himself notes that it is not possible to have faith in a stranger, and so Mitchell's analogy might not hold up altogether. But the omnipotent and omniscient creator of all things. As such it is not possible to have faith in a stranger, then God is present in all parts of creation and so is directly responsible for all events. At a minimum makes defending God a much more taxing and difficult proposal than deism, and it is unclear whether faith in a being could be reasonable in a similar manner.

Another issue is that one can directly observe the behaviour of the stranger, whereas the behaviour of God is unknowable and unobservable. This aspect of the parable was overlooked by Mitchell. The role in evaluating falsifiable evidence is that a particular kind of evidence for God is not falsifiable, then it hardly plays a rational role in evaluating religious assertions. If the evidence is falsifiable, then it is not just hypothetical observable evidence. If the evidence is not falsifiable, then the claims of religious assertions, then they might still fail Flew's test.

A final problem is linked to this difficulty. Although Mitchell spells out the nature of reasonable faith, he does not draw any distinct lines between what is reasonable and what is not. These limits are very pertinent when discussing the nature of and criteria for faith. It is simply argue in response to Mitchell that believers are guilty of irrational faith, not reasonable faith.

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forward by Mitchell. Considering the unobservable or partial nature of the evidence, the issue becomes much more pressing. Unless there is impartial evidence for God's existence, it is easier to characterise the believer's position as irrational rather than reasonable. Without the conditions for reasonable faith, then it may be that Mitchell's response is yet another set of assertions rather than a true explanation or defence.

Yet, despite these issues, there is another glaring problem that emerges here. Ironically, the most damning for Flew rather than Mitchell. For throughout history, many individuals have held irrational faith only to be later verified as true. This raises the notion that falsifiability is not a true test of whether an assertion is meaningful. In this problem we turn to in the next part of the course.

Why Falsification?

A more fundamental issue with Flew's portrayal may not come from competing paradigms of falsification altogether. At the beginning of this section, a brief history of the impact of Popper was outlined, and it was noted that it seemed to be a potential way to defend science. Yet, for Flew, the issue of falsification becomes one of meaning, not just of truth. Were assertions were not always opened up for falsification? Such a problem would heighten the argument against religious belief and perhaps demonstrate, in a similar way to the problem of falsification, that falsification cannot be accepted as a true test for the meaning of a particular statement.

There are concrete reasons to accept that this is a problem for Flew. Although Einstein's theory of general relativity was a landmark case study for Popper, there are many successful scientific theories which do not and did not follow the same formula. The theory of evolution, for example. What are the conditions that would falsify this widely accepted theory? If we found conflicting fossil records then what would occur is a changing of the path of evolutionary history, not the abandonment of the theory of evolution itself. In fact, the unfalsifiability of the theory of evolution was taken as a point for Popper, and as such is also an issue for Flew. For the adjusting of evolutionary theory to match the theory can be taken as a 'qualification' rather than a real falsification. Similar examples to this, even in modern cosmology and physics. For example, the theories about black holes, which break down, whether it is at the centre of black holes or in quantum mechanics. Yet, most physicists do not abandon Einstein's theories but empirically support them in other cases.

What this indicates is that the lines between scientific and religious assertions are blurry. The parable lets on. Most theories are rarely instantly dismissed in the face of falsification, even present concrete criteria for their falsifiability! There are just many more factors to consider the meaning and significance of a particular statement, especially when it comes to entities such as God. This does not mean that falsification is not valuable. The ability to test a statement is rendered false is naturally very useful for assessing how one should interpret other knowledge. However, it may be the case that falsification by itself is simply not a test of meaning or scientific value.

Should We Still Speak in Parables?

One final issue we can note is a more general criticism of the falsification symposium. It presents a parable designed to outline the issues. Although these parables do make cases for the participants' views, they also leave their issues and all inevitably to some extent the nature of religious belief. It is possible to question each participant's view on the question raised. Whether it is possible to capture all the dimensions of religious narratives. While it is true that each author raises important aspects and issues with religion, in their narrow portrayal of these aspects through parables, they lose sight of other factors. In our companion we have explored the intricacies and complexities of assessing religious claims. In the case of falsifiability an equally intricate and complex approach is needed to address the dimensions of religious discussion.

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Quick Quiz

1. What is falsificationism?
2. What is a parable?
3. What is a blik?
4. What is fideism?
5. What are the differences between Hare's and Mitchell's responses to Flew?
6. What is the verification principle?
7. What is a language game?
8. What is methodological verification?

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ANSWERS

Activities

4 Activity:

Student should focus on clearly defining these philosophers' thoughts and defending them. Aquinas, students might look to Mavrodes, as featured in the stretch and challenge box. What Aquinas can't do can be construed as the logically impossible. For example, they might focus on the ideas concerning self-limitation. Lastly, for Genesis they might focus on the necessity of omnipotence and the coherency of a concept of God as almightiness.

5 Activity:

1. Every floppy disk is blue. (cognitive)
2. Rainbows are full of beautiful colours. (non-cognitive)
3. Atoms are formed of protons, neutrons and electrons. (cognitive)
4. It is always wrong to commit murder. (cognitive or non-cognitive – there is a separation between moral claims and factual claims which students will explore in ethics. This statement is designed to encourage questioning and thinking about what are cognitive/non-cognitive claims.)
5. God can never be wrong. (cognitive or non-cognitive – students will learn about the use of religious language throughout the rest of the companion; this statement is designed to encourage thinking about what are cognitive/non-cognitive statements.)

6 Activity:

Students might offer a variety of responses here, but the aim is to get them thinking about the parables in a more unusual form. There is certainly room to adapt one of the parables in the fallacy box. New parables should clearly outline who represents the believer and who represents the unbeliever (and the distinctions in a meaningful manner!). Students should also hopefully begin to appreciate the issue looked at in the very last paragraph of this companion.

Quizzes

Theological and Philosophical Developments

1. The self-limitation paradox that emerges through the concept of a being unlimited in power. God cannot limit his own omnipotence.
2. Essential omnipotence means that omnipotence is part of God's nature; God cannot lose his omnipotence. Contingent omnipotence means that omnipotence is not an essential part of God's nature; God can lose his omnipotence.
3. A timeless interpretation views an eternal being as independent or outside of time. A time-bound interpretation views an eternal being as contained within time but existing infinitely.
4. Deism is the view that God is not benevolent and/or personally invested in the life of his creation.
5. The view that there are four dimensions constraining human activity, the three dimensions of space and a fourth dimension of time.
6. Simple necessity is that caused by the nature of beings, conditional necessity is that caused by the powers of agents.
7. The idea that God is unchanging.
8. The belief that God can inhibit the expression of his own powers or knowledge.

Religious Language: Negative, Analogical or Symbolic

1. The (often false) attribution of human characteristics to a non-human object.
2. A comparison between two or more things with the aim of explaining one or more of their characteristics.
3. The use of negative language to describe God.
4. The use of positive language to describe God.
5. A representation or image that stands in for something and points towards something else.
6. Analogical attribution is where analogical language can be used to describe the qualities of a being based on their lesser forms found in other beings. Analogy of proportionality is where analogical language can be used to describe the qualities of a being based on their lesser forms found in other beings.
7. Models are the concepts and ideas used as references when describing God. Qualifications are statements used to show the limitations of models.
8. Paul Tillich

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Religious Language: Twentieth-century Perspectives

1. The view that in order for a statement to be meaningful, it must present criteria for its truth.
2. A story designed to impart a religious or philosophical message.
3. An unverifiable and unfalsifiable world view that governs what counts as evidence.
4. The view that religious claims can be justified through faith alone.
5. Hare presents a non-cognitive rebuttal to Flew, Mitchell a cognitive one.
6. A test of meaning proposed by the logical positivists that holds that a statement is meaningful only if it is either analytic or verifiable through sense experience (synthetic).
7. A primitive form of language, complete with its own basic rules and principles that govern the use of the particular statement.
8. Hick's idea that religious statements could be verified in the afterlife under Ayer's condition.



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