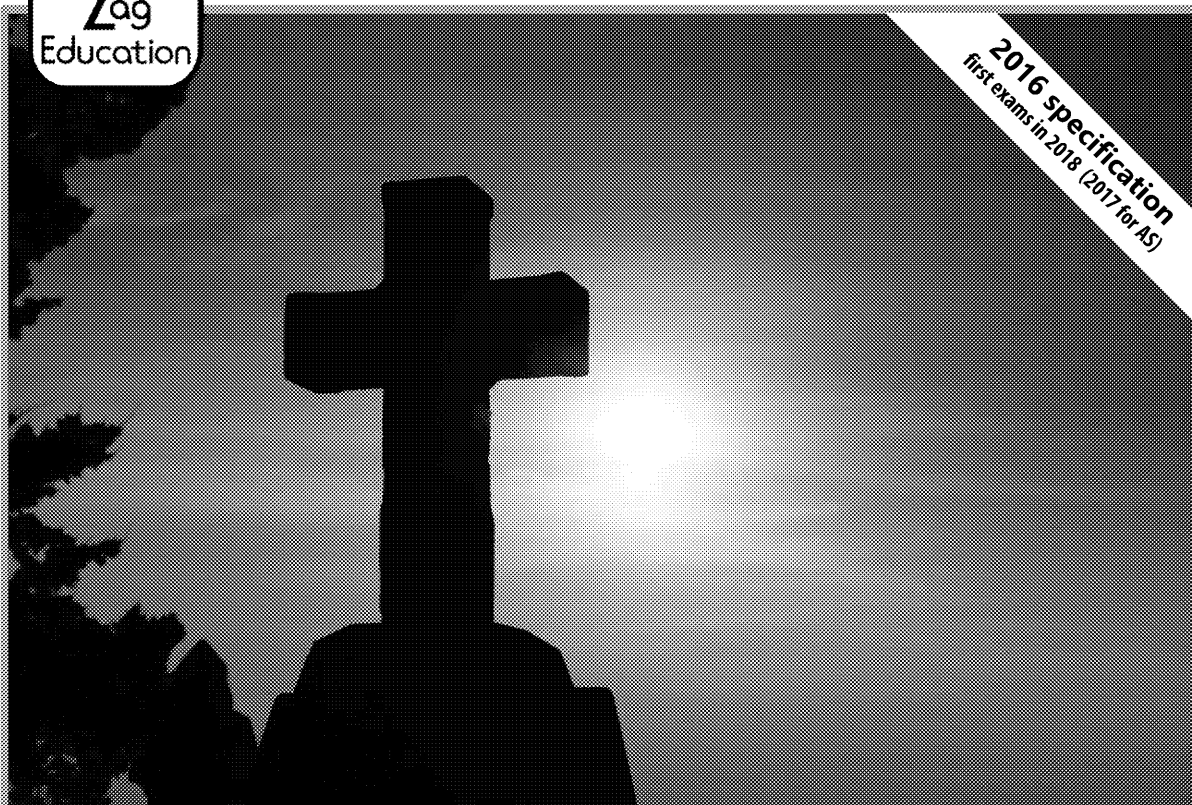


2016 specification
first exams in 2018 (2017 for AS)



Course Companion

For AS / A Level Year 1 Eduqas

Component 1: Christianity

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Teacher's Introduction

This course companion is written for the AS and A Level Year 1 Eduqas Religious Studies specification (B120/A120) for Component 1A: Christianity and is designed to offer students a comprehensive introduction to the material within that academic course. The sections and topics therefore mirror Eduqas'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 writing to better engage students with the material, and we have also provided glossaries, textual references and information on key thinkers where appropriate. The glossaries cover key terms as singled out by the Eduqas specification for each section of the guide. Other terms are highlighted in bold font throughout the text to draw attention to important aspects of the section.

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

Please note: This Year 1 Course Companion has been written to both suit students and teachers undertaking just the AS Year 1 course and those undertaking the full A Level Year 1 and 2 course. Across the two study options, some of the themes have been structured/named a little differently by the Eduqas specification. The table below demonstrates which themes are covered in this resource and how they differ across the two study options, highlighted in grey:

AS / A Level Eduqas Year 1 Component 1A: Christianity
Theme 1: Religious figures and sacred texts <i>A: Jesus – his birth</i> <i>B: Jesus – his resurrection</i> <i>C: The Bible as a source of wisdom and authority in daily life</i>
Theme 2: Religious concepts <i>A: Nature of God</i> <i>B: Trinity</i> <i>C: Atonement</i>
Theme 3* ^{*AS Level} / Theme 2* ^{*A Level}: Religious Life <i>A* ^{*AS Level} / D* ^{*A Level}: Faith and works</i> <i>B* ^{*AS Level} / E* ^{*A Level}: Community of believers</i> <i>C* ^{*AS Level} / F* ^{*A Level}: Key moral principles</i>
Theme 4: Religious practices <i>A: Baptism</i> <i>B: Eucharist</i> <i>C: Festivals</i>

To purchase the A Level Eduqas Year 2 Course Companion for Christianity, please visit [zzed.uk/10656](https://www.zzed.uk/10656).

October 2020



THEME 1: RELIGIOUS FIGURES SACRED TEXTS

Birth Narrative	The beginning chapters in Matthew and Luke that detail events surrounding Jesus' birth.
Demythologisation	A critical method employed by Rudolf Bultmann which seeks to strip the Bible from its ethical and theological elements.
Domination	A Christian concept found in Genesis which holds that in order to rule over the natural world and use it how they see fit.
Exegesis	A critical method of biblical study which looks to extract the text in focus.
Existentialism	A field of philosophy that primarily looks at issues surrounding individual existence.
General Judgement	The judgement of all humanity that will occur on the day of the resurrection to Earth.
Harmonisation	The process of combining one or more texts in a unified manner.
Historical Jesus	A term referring to the 'real' Jesus behind historical sources. An attempt to reconstruct with a variety of historical, textual and archaeological methods.
Historicity	A term referring to the historical authenticity or credibility of an event.
Incarnation	A Christian doctrine which holds that Jesus embodied God.
Infallibility	Refers to something that can never be wrong or is incapable of error.
Kenotic Model	A theological model which holds that Jesus at times 'emptied' himself of his divine nature.
Kerygma	A Greek term meaning 'proclamation', generally used to refer to the Christian Gospel.
Particular Judgement	The individual judgement by God that a person undergoes after death.
Psalms	An Old Testament book that contains a variety of hymns around the praise of God.
Redaction Criticism	A critical method of biblical study which looks to discern how authors shaped their text according to their theological aims.
Sacred Tradition	The idea that both Scripture and the Church are authorised revelation of Christ.
Sola Scriptura	Meaning 'Scripture alone' and is a Christian doctrine that holds the Bible as the sole authority in faith and ethical practice.
Virgin Birth	The religious belief that Mary, the mother of Jesus, was conceived and birth.

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THEME 2: RELIGIOUS CONCEPTS

Anathema	A formal denouncement by the Pope or a church, typically excommunicate an individual or a doctrine or idea heretic.
Anthropomorphism	The ascribing of human characteristics to a non-human, necessarily a deity.
Aporia	A Greek word used to indicate an irresolvable internal contradiction.
Christus Victor	A model of atonement that focuses on how Christ's death forces of evil in the world.
Double Procession	The view that the Holy Spirit proceeds from both the Father and the Son, not just the Father.
Egalitarian	A person or concept which supports the idea that all humans are equal.
Filioque	A controversial clause or belief in the double procession of the Holy Spirit from the Father and the Son.
Immutability	The quality of being impervious to change or impossible to change.
Impassibility	The quality of not being able to experience pain or pleasure.
Moral Exemplar	A model of atonement that focuses on how Christ's death or sacrifice that inspires human beings to reconcile with God.
Panentheism	The theological position that God pervades or is present in the universe, but is not limited by it.
Perichoresis	A Christian concept used to describe the 'mutual indwelling' of the three persons of the Trinity.
Post-Christian	A theological term used to refer to philosophers or theologians that are thought to fundamentally alter or change the Christian faith or thought.
Radical Feminist Theology	Within theology, radical feminism is a field that either rejects gender equality within Christianity or argues that egalitarian religious belief are required to dismantle patriarchal structures of faith and Church.
Reconstructionist Feminist Theology	A field of feminism that argues that granting women full rights is sufficient to erase patriarchal elements of religion or so to dismantle and reconstruct the patriarchal structures present in religion to enable permanent change and true gender equality.
Substitution	A model of atonement that focuses on how Christ's death pays the debt of honour or sin to God.
Theosis	A concept used to describe the transformative process of becoming more like God, or grow closer to union with God.

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THEME 3 (AS) / THEME 2 (A RELIGIOUS LIFE

Agape	A Greek term referring to universal, unconditional love.
Antilegomena	Things whose authenticity, value and importance are disputed.
Antinomianism	The view that morality does not require people to follow laws.
Cathartic Worship	Worship which involves dynamic activities such as singing and shouting.
Conscience	A person's inner sense of what is right and wrong.
Council of Trent	The 19 th ecumenical council of the Catholic Church brought an end to the growing Reformation.
Covenantal Nomism	E P Sanders' view that justification comes through inclusion in a covenant maintained by following the law of that covenant.
Great Commission	The instruction that Jesus gives at the end of the Gospel to go and spread the teachings of his ministry.
Indulgences	Acts and rituals performed by people which are thought to reduce punishment Christians face for their sins.
Justification	The act by which God removes sin from human beings and declares them righteous. It is typically thought of as a necessary step in the process of salvation in the Christian faith.
Liturgical	Refers to the form that worship takes in a Christian church, including the routine customs performed during this worship.
Mission	The organised efforts that Christians undertake to convert non-Christians.
Pseudepigrapha	Texts that were not written by the author to whom they are attributed. Traditionally used to refer to pseudonymous Jewish and Christian writings within 200 years of the death of Christ.
Sacrament	A ritual or ceremony which is thought to demonstrate God's grace.
Sola Fide	The view that justification comes through faith alone.
Sola Scriptura	A theological doctrine held by some Protestant denominations that Christian Scripture is the sole authority in matters of faith and morality.

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THEME 4: RELIGIOUS PRACTICES SHAPE RELIGIOUS IDENTITY

Advent	The period preceding Christmas when Western Christians celebrate the celebration of Christ's birth.
Anabaptism	A Christian movement which emphasised the importance of 'second' baptisms on those who had been baptised as infants.
Baptism	A religious rite of initiation that is performed on adults and often involves sponsorship by a group.
Christmas	A Christian festival which celebrates the birth and incarnation of Jesus.
Consecration	The act of making something sacred or holy, typically by invocation.
Consubstantiation	The belief that at the moment of consecration, the body and blood of Christ are present alongside the bread and wine in the Eucharist.
Easter	The festival period when Christians celebrate the passion, death and resurrection of Jesus.
Epiphany	The holiday succeeding Christmas when Western Christians celebrate the visit of the Three Wise Men, and Eastern Christians celebrate the baptism of Jesus.
Eucharist	The Christian service and sacrament which commemorates the death and resurrection of Jesus.
Infant Baptism	Baptism which is performed on children and often involves sponsorship by a group.
Lent	The period preceding Easter when Christians typically fast and practice abstinence in preparation for Easter celebrations.
Realism	The belief that there is no change in substance at the moment of consecration; the bread and wine used in the Eucharist only symbolise the body and blood of Christ.
Nativity Fast	The period preceding Christmas when Eastern Christians practice abstinence in preparation for Christmas.
Open Communion	The stance of some Christian denominations that the Eucharist is open to anyone who wishes to partake in it and not restricted to those who are members of the local church.
Original Sin	The Christian doctrine that all people are born with the natural tendency to sin.
Sacrament	A ritual that is thought to impart divine grace and reflect the kingdom of God in the world.
Second Coming	The belief that Christ will one day return to earth to judge the living and the dead.
The Fall	The wounding of men and women by Adam and Eve by eating the forbidden fruit.
Transfinalisation	The belief that there is no change in substance at the moment of consecration; the bread and wine used in the Eucharist only symbolise the body and blood of Christ.
Transignification	The belief that although there is no change in actual substance at the moment of consecration, Christ's body and blood are nonetheless objectively present in the underlying reality of the bread and wine.
Transubstantiation	The belief that the bread and wine used in the Eucharist are transformed into the body and blood of Christ at the moment of consecration, while the outward appearance remains the same.

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THEME 1: RELIGIOUS FIGURES AND SA

What you will learn in this section:

- A. The theology and historical study of the birth narratives in the Gospels of Matthew and Luke
 - whether the birth narratives are consistent and reliable
 - whether the birth narratives have been harmonised into a single narrative
 - how the birth narratives influence modern Christian theology
- B. The theology and historical study of the resurrection of Jesus in the Gospels, and the views of Rudolf Bultmann and N T Wright about the historicity and meaning of the resurrection
 - how beliefs about the resurrection influence theology surrounding death and the afterlife
- C. The use of the Bible as a source of wisdom and authority in every Christian life
 - how the Bible is considered to be authoritative by Christians
 - the various ways in which it can be a source of moral advice, a guide to life and purpose of life, and a source of comfort and encouragement.

Starter Activity:

Before starting this section, read through both the birth narratives in the Gospels (Matthew 1:26–2:40). What differences can you spot between the narratives, and why do they exist? Note down your thoughts and compare them to what you learn in Section 1.2.

Key Thinker

Name	Rudolf Bultmann
Born	1884
Died	1976
Key text	<i>History and Eschatology</i> (1921)
Why are they important?	Bultmann was one of the most influential biblical scholars of the 20th century, pioneering not only form criticism but an existentialist theology that sought to demythologise Scripture and draw out its meaning for modern life.
Did you know?	Bultmann was famous in arguing it was the 'thatness', not the 'whatness' that mattered when studying the Gospels. In other words, all that mattered was that Jesus existed, not what happened throughout his life!

Key Thinker

Name	N T Wright
Born	1948
Died	N/A
Key text	<i>The Resurrection of the Son of God</i> (2003)
Why are they important?	N T Wright is a deeply important contemporary theologian who has written on many key historical matters surrounding the Bible, as well as on many key theological issues.
Did you know?	Wright is quite critical of many figures in modern theology and philosophy, and theological basis, literal beliefs and ideas such as the Second Coming of Christ.

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Introduction – How Should We Analyse Religious Texts?

Whether or not you are a Christian yourself, the Bible is a daunting text to read. Should you begin right at the start at Genesis or at the beginning of the New Testament? Do you really need to read all the random and seemingly dated laws in Leviticus? Well, if you are looking for a comprehensive overview of five centuries of religious thought, then yes. But for the most part, the Bible is a compilation of disparate writings that reference each other in a myriad ways. Analysing them is not a simple task of reading the Bible from cover to cover but rather involves looking at the various influences that may have spurred its creation from the events in a certain context or manner. In fact, when looking at Christianity, the best place to start is undoubtedly the Gospels, and the first section looks at the beginning of two: at what are called the **birth narratives**.

However, before we delve into this subject, we should also consider how one can look at the Gospels. If they contain a wide array of stories, the Gospels are not exactly designed to be like a straightforward biography. Their purpose is as much to offer theological insight on the events of Jesus' life – but then they are also not just a theological discourse (or to provide moral guidance for believers in Jesus' message and help them navigate the world). The classification of the Gospels may be simply the rough English translation of 'good news', and each Gospel writer in turn wishes to impart their own perspective on the events.

So how can we look to analyse and criticise the Bible, considering the various genres? Theologians have employed various methods to draw as much history as possible out of the text. One of the most important methods in the last century has been what is often termed **historical criticism**, which interprets biblical writings in light of the historical context and setting in which they were written. This is important not only to gain a true understanding of any particular Gospel passage but also to try to work out what the author of a particular passage is historically credible! Another method is **literary criticism**, which looks at the various literary genres and styles used in the Bible with the hope of finding out more about the authors' intent. Similarly, for the purpose of this section, we will look at different classifications of the material, such as a parable, saying or law, and how they were composed.

Nevertheless, the most important method we will look at in the next section is redaction criticism, which looks at how the Gospels (or any other biblical text) were potentially assembled by the authors and the traditions they drew upon when writing. This might seem strange initially. Does the Bible is the Word of God? This is true to a certain extent, but biblical scholars disagree with the orthodox theology that is derived from the Bible. Their main aim is general meaning of the text, or what is commonly known as **exegesis**. This process of 'reading between the lines' can lead to tensions or conflicts between modern Christian teaching and the findings of biblical scholars. As their main role as historians, biblical scholars ultimately want to find out the historical truth. What did the authors intend to say? Why did they include certain passages and not others? And how did they embellish any elements of the Bible? All these questions will be addressed when we look at the birth narratives in the next section.

The Birth of Jesus

The birth of Jesus occupies an important place in Christian belief. Every year Christians around the world have been part of a performance of the Nativity: a retelling of the story of Jesus' birth. In this experience, it might be expected that there is a single, unified story of the birth of Jesus, but this could not be further from the truth. The Nativity is a story that has been passed down through the centuries, yet there are many differences between this narrative and the accounts in the Bible. Biblical scholars therefore have long puzzled over numerous issues of **historicity** of the birth narratives. Although many hold that it is likely there is little historical truth (if any),

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accounts, they are still important to study to find out the intentions of these authors. The way their Gospels frames the rest of the teachings within.

The Birth Narrative in Matthew

If you didn't complete the starter activity at the beginning of this course companion, the first thing to do is read Matthew 1:18–2:23, which recounts the core events of the birth narrative. Matthew recounts quite a bit of the narrative around Jesus' birth. The beginning looks at Mary's encounter with the Holy Spirit, but then moves on to the story surrounding her surprise pregnancy in the wider story about King Herod and his fears about the birth of the Messiah. His bloodthirst leads him to order the killing of all the children under two in Bethlehem, while Joseph, guided by an angel, takes Mary and the young Jesus to Egypt. There they wait until Herod dies before returning to live in Nazareth, a town in Galilee.

Matthew's narrative encompasses many of the traditional features of the birth narrative you have probably encountered before. The wise men are guided by a star to the location of Jesus' birth, where they offer gifts of gold, frankincense and myrrh. However, there are few important aspects of the underlying complexity of these passages. The first is that the number three is not the number of wise men; this is simply assumed due to the giving of three gifts. In fact, some Eastern Christian traditions suggest there were 12! Furthermore, the more accurate translation is 'Magi'. Although this can be equated with the 'wise kings' of Christian tradition this is often thought to imply 'wise kings', since passages such as Isaiah 60:6 mention 'kings' bringing 'gold and frankincense'. Finally, only the Gospel of Matthew mentions the Magi, and this causes issues with attempts to assess the historical accounts.

So just from analysing the wise men we can learn a thing or two. The first and most important insight is that Matthew is very concerned with prophecy in his narrative. This is clear even from his account, Matthew cites various parts of the Old Testament, including Hosea 11:1, an important reference comes in Matthew 2:15, where he directly alludes to the travels of the Israelites under Moses. Many scholars in fact have argued that a knowledge of traditions about Moses' life, are key to understanding the significance of the Gospel. In some sense, such allusions might be a reference to Jesus being a new Moses. Of such prophets (there is still great discussion about this theme!). What is ultimately important to note the heavily Jewish flavour of Matthew's birth narrative. He wishes to assert that Jesus is connected to, and is even the culmination of, a wide array of Jewish traditions and prophecies.

The second important insight is the weight placed upon the **virgin birth** in Matthew. Matthew pains to emphasise how Jesus was conceived from the Holy Spirit and Mary, with a view to prove vital later when we analyse how the birth narratives have informed Christian theology. Matthew lays out the idea that Jesus had divine origins; he was not simply a human being in whom the Spirit later in life, but from birth was set apart as the result of God's intention.

The final note to make is that the case of the Magi shows that Matthew may not be accounting for dramatic or theological effect. If we apply the method of redaction criticism to the account, we might come to the conclusion that Matthew included the Magi as a way of emphasising the international nature of Jesus' birth. It is not just Jewish individuals that were called to his arrival but figures from other traditions – yet how can we prove the historicity of this event when there are no indications of how such a strange, miraculous event could occur? This is a difficult question to answer. We can conclude that Matthew's birth narrative is made up altogether! But this is a difficult question to answer. We can conclude that Matthew's birth narrative is made up altogether! But this is a difficult question to answer.

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The Birth Narrative in Luke

Luke's account of Jesus' birth and infancy is considerably longer than Matthew's and contains a number of events not present in his counterpart's narrative. While both include the concept of the virgin birth, with an angel also visiting Mary in Luke's account, Luke includes details about her relative Elizabeth, who also miraculously conceives a child that turns out to be John the Baptist. Similarly, Mary herself gives birth to a child now recited

The second part of Luke's birth narrative contains no mention of Herod or the journey of Mary and Jesus travel to Bethlehem to register the child due to a census being undertaken. The nativity story of the shepherds and the shepherds who come to Jesus' manger at Bethlehem, and the journey to Jerusalem to present Jesus to the Temple, where at the age of twelve Jesus preaches that he is a 'light for revelation to the Gentiles, and the Son of David' (Luke 4:18-22). Then, after fulfilling the requirements of the (Jewish) law, Joseph and Mary return to Nazareth.

As can be easily noted, Luke attaches the same importance to Jesus as the fulfilment of prophecy does. In Zechariah's song in Luke 1:67–80, Jesus is identified as a figure continuing the line of David. However, the prophecies and revelations in Luke also at first appear less important. Jesus' future plays a much greater role in these prophecies, with plenty of artistic licence. Jesus will bring light to the world.

Furthermore, there is a direct reference to Jesus' significance being important for the Gentiles (the non-Jewish population), whereas Matthew is very much focused on Jewish tradition. Applying this is evidence for some biblical scholars that Luke was writing for a more Hellenistic audience, containing Greco-Roman elements.

However, we can go a bit further than this statement and in the next section we will explore the theological functions of the birth narrative. In the process, develop our use of

What are the Functions of the Birth Narratives?

To delve into more nuances of the birth narratives, let's take a more in-depth look at redaction criticism. At heart, we want to discover why the Gospel authors wrote the birth narratives in the way they did, but, more precisely, this involves a deeper set of questions that may be answered through employing this method. These include:

- Why are there differences in narrative, style and content between the Gospels?
- What was the purpose of the author in writing the Gospel?
- Who were the Gospels addressed to? Was there a single audience or were there multiple audiences?
- Was there a single author behind the Gospel, or does it reflect a community of authors?
- What cultural climate or context were the Gospels written in, and how did this influence the narrative?
- Was historical accuracy a concern of the Gospel authors, or were they more interested in the message?

These are all broad and difficult questions to answer. If you go on to read higher level texts, you will realise that very few biblical scholars agree even on as many answers to these questions. Conflicting views have been put forward, and it is quite easy to make logical jumps from the underlying historical evidence to one conclusion or the other. By and large, all we can say is that the intent of the Gospel authors was to present themselves and historical knowledge of the events of the early first century. So how can redaction criticism get things wrong? Well, sometimes scholars might assume from the absence of some detail that the author chose to omit it, when it might have been used as evidence for a particular argument, when the author might have had a different tail in the first place!

- Scholars might assume in the case of fantastical themes or details that the author included them for their own ends, when they might have believed them to be historically accurate.

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- Authors might have included details to simply round out a narrative, not believing their importance. Scholars might, therefore, place too much emphasis on the inclusion of such details.
- Scholars may assume the author was trying to convey a theme with an event or fact trying to convey. Since we are not privy to the ways people thought in the modern thinking in inappropriate ways to historical texts.

So it is important to be careful when using modern critical theory. Undoubtedly, it is a greater understanding in the past research, but it is always easy to misuse.

With that in mind, what is the intention of the birth narratives? Overall, through both Matthew and Luke: Jesus is a divine being sent by God to save humanity. This is supported by his conception and the various signs, prophecies and revelations that accompany his life. The idea that Jesus is someone special whose life and teaching deserve to be recorded is evident why both authors would choose to include a birth narrative, even if it tells the reader that Jesus is not just another prophet or teacher, but is set apart from history by his direct connection to God *before he was even born*. As such, Jesus' identity is established before the key events of his life.

'She will bear a son, and you are to name him Jesus, for he will save his people.'
(Matthew 1:21 NRSV)

'He will reign over the house of Jacob for ever, and of his kingdom there will be no end. He will be holy; he will be called Son of God.' (Luke 1:32, 35 NRSV)

'to you is born this day in the city of David a Saviour, who is the Messiah, the Lord.' (Isaiah 9:6 NRSV)

At the same time, it is clear that this central theme is fleshed out in different ways by the authors to address different audiences. As we have seen, Matthew can easily be interpreted as addressing a Jewish audience, with his emphasis on Jesus' importance in relation to Jewish tradition and prophecy. In particular, Matthew's reference to specific prophecies, such as Isaiah 7:14, is significant, whereas Luke does not explicitly refer to or quote any specific prophecies. In Matthew, we can see the clear parallel with Isaiah.

'...and you shall call his name Emmanuel, which means, God with us, for he shall take place to fulfil what had been spoken by the Lord through the prophet, and bear a son, and they shall name him Emmanuel'" (Matthew 1:23 NRSV)

'Therefore the Lord himself will give you a sign. Look, the young woman is with child and shall bear a son, and she shall name him Immanuel.' (Isaiah 7:14 NRSV)

We also noted in the prior section the allusions to Jesus as potentially being a new lineage of Mosaic prophets, yet there are even greater indications that Matthew was addressing a Jewish audience. A key part of his birth narrative is the birth of Jesus in Bethlehem by King Herod. This sets the stage for Jesus' exile and his eventual return. Many scholars have cast doubt on the historicity of this event. It is not mentioned in the Gospels, including that of the famous Jewish historian Josephus, which is a significant consideration of the likely impact it would have had on the Jewish population of Bethlehem.

However, it is possible that Matthew included this event in order to fulfil yet another prophecy. As suggested that this event refers to a prophecy in Jeremiah where God strikes a new covenant with the Jewish people, rescuing them. This may be seen as a way of emphasizing the importance of Jesus in saving the Jewish people from religious misdirection.

'...for the days are surely coming," says the Lord, "when I will make a new covenant with the people of Judah. It will not be like the covenant that I made with their ancestors when I brought them out of the land of Egypt—a covenant that they broke, though I was their God," says the Lord.' (Jeremiah 31:31–32 NRSV)

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Either way, there is much to suggest in Matthew's birth narrative (and in the rest of the Gospel) that he was preoccupied with demonstrating how Jesus slotted into Jewish tradition and history. The suggestion either Jesus himself was a Jew, and it is likely most of his early followers were, or after his death when Matthew was written, most of Jesus' followers are likely to have been Jewish, and so have been concerned with how he, as the Messiah, related to their tradition.

'Where is the child who has been born to you of the Jews?' (Matthew 23:9)

On the other hand, in the case of Luke, we can note more details in his infancy narrative. Luke has been writing for a wider audience. Notably, in Luke 2 it is directly referenced that Jesus is 'born to a Jew' (Luke 2:41), which has an important role to play for all religious individuals.

'For my eyes have seen your salvation, which you have prepared in the presence of all peoples: a revelation to the Gentiles and for glory to your people Israel.' (Luke 2:32)

Here, the inclusion of Gentiles is particularly telling. Many Jewish people would not have expected a Jewish Messiah would have to appeal to those outside their faith. In fact, most Jews of the first century would have been expecting a wholly political Messiah, who would liberate them from Roman occupation and governance.

Another example of this can be found in Luke's inclusion of shepherds rather than religious leaders in the story of Jesus' birth. Luke is generally viewed as a more political account of Jesus' life, so the inclusion of shepherds rather than religious leaders is potentially telling of Luke's focus. The birth of Jesus marks the culmination of an important lineage of enlightened individuals, but the birth of Jesus is typically neglected by religious tradition. The Jesus in Luke's Gospel is immediately presented as having universal importance, who will bring salvation for all people, not just those who are Jewish.

Can the Birth Narratives be Harmonised?

Whether or not combining the two birth narratives is literarily possible, it is certain that you are most likely to find it performed as a **harmonised** account of the beginnings of Jesus' life. Both the shepherds and the wise men are present, and various elements of the story are combined. However, is this really a justified move, or are there too many differences to combine them?

On the surface, it might be argued there are certain core similarities that are central to both narratives. Both Matthew and Luke describe angels visiting either Mary (Luke) or Joseph (Matthew) to announce the birth of the Messiah and the virgin birth. They also agree on the location of Jesus' birth, Bethlehem. As it goes when it comes to similarities between the two narratives. Whether it be the shepherds in Luke, the differences far outweigh any common features. In Matthew, Joseph travels due to the actions of King Herod, whereas in Luke it is due to the need for a census. In fact, Matthew implies that the family lived in Bethlehem, then Egypt, then Nazareth. In the Gospel of Luke they live in Nazareth, travel to Bethlehem, then go back to Nazareth. Further, Luke's birth narrative is dedicated to explaining the importance of Mary's cousin Elizabeth.

So, at least at first glance, there is not much consistency between the two stories. Using the criteria of **credibility** if applied in a particular way, it is clear that the author's motives might be different. The birth narratives, although centred on the birth of Jesus, are not based on a pre-existing myth or tradition. They were created to justify Jesus' later teachings as divine. This is explored further in the next part of this section, but if the birth narratives are compared, the argument that true harmonisation of Matthew and Luke is not justified is strengthened.

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Activity:

How would you harmonise the birth narratives? Write down your own synthesis of the birth narratives. What would you leave out (if anything), and why?

Are the Birth Narratives Credible?

Many Christians naturally hold that the birth narratives are credible. Even though they contain significant differences, this may just be the Gospel authors reporting different events or perspectives on the miraculous circumstances of Jesus' birth. Such an idea is often contained within a wider belief in the infallibility of the Bible. However, most biblical scholars don't wish to start with the notion that any source is completely accurate, even if the source comes from within the faith. The process of historical analysis means treating any text as either inaccurate, or, at best, reflective of one or more people's limited perspective on a set of events. In order to engage with redaction criticism effectively, it is necessary to first cast theological assumptions aside.



Scripture is inspired by God and is useful for teaching, for reproof, for correction, and for training in righteousness' (2 Timothy 3:16 NRSV)

In fact, the large number of differences between the two accounts is significant even if they are not credible as accurate, historical reports of Jesus' birth. At the very least, the structure of the family's travels to be similar, along with their reasons for travelling to each place.

Moreover, we are not just limited by mere comparisons of the texts. There is also evidence for the credibility of either Matthew's or Luke's account. In the case of the massacre by King Herod, the account does not appear in any other source, being most notable in Josephus' writings, which do cover vital details of the monarch's reign. Biographers of King Herod are disinclined to believe the account, especially to have the birth of Jesus align with Jewish prophecy. Still, it cannot necessarily be dismissed. Although the massacre seems dramatic, as Josephus reports, Bethlehem was a small town, and the number of infants under two likely to be killed during his reign, it may be that a killing of this kind was not a major event in the historians' investigation of the monarch's life.



Less credible, Luke's account also lacks historical credibility, perhaps more so than Matthew's. The basis for the family's journey to Bethlehem took place a decade after the birth of Jesus (according to Luke) was ruling at the time of John the Baptist's conception (and John was born months apart). Therefore, either Luke's understanding of the date of Jesus' birth was incorrect, or the census was a shoe-horned in as a justification for Jesus' birth in Bethlehem. While there is no evidence referring to a different census, most scholars believe that this is unlikely to be the case, given the number of records kept about these kinds of political activity.

The fact that even these core aspects of the narratives lack historicity also casts doubt on other parts. Was there actually a Star of Bethlehem which guided the wise men to the birthplace, or was it suggested it was a planetary conjunction or a supernova, but there is no concrete evidence for either of these having occurred around the time of Jesus' birth, especially when the accounts mean many biblical scholars have argued it might well be an example of religious myths around a person and justify their divine or divine status. The fact that Jesus' birth line up so well with various prophecies can be read as a sign of his divinity, but well because Matthew wished to show, knowing that Jesus was the culmination of Jewish figures. The lack of corresponding sources and the differences between the two narratives about Jesus' birth are certainly enough to seriously question their credibility.

At the same time, many Christians may also accept such an argument. The birth narratives may be historical accounts, but theological or narrative devices designed to support the Christian ministry. Through the writers employing a diverse set of artistic and literary techniques, the birth of Jesus is emphasised, along with the miraculous circumstances of his birth. In this section, we shall look at how the birth narratives inform modern Christian thought.



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Do you believe the birth narratives are credible or contain any historical facts? Do

We've explored how the birth narratives, at their core, revolve around the idea of the virgin Messiah and/or Son of God. However, throughout the history of Christian thought, the birth narratives have been viewed as important in supporting the doctrine of the **incarnation**: the belief that God and human at the same time.

Why is this the case? For both narratives claim that Jesus was the product of a special union between the Christian **Trinity**). Therefore, if Jesus had both human and divine parents, that he was both human and divine. Evidence for this can be found strewn about the Bible:

‘Mary said to the angel, “How can this be, since I am a virgin?” The angel said to her, “Do not be afraid, for you have found favor with God. For thus says the Lord: ‘Behold, I am with you and will be with you; the power of the Most High will overshadow you; therefore the child to be born in you will be called Son of God.’” (Luke 1:34–35 NRSV)

*'All this took place to fulfil what had been spoken by the Lord through the prophet
and bear a son, and they called his name Emmanuel' (Matthew 1:23)*

 will dwell over the house of Jacob for ever, and of his kingdom there will be no end.

For we observed his star at its rising, and have come to pay him homage.

One key detail here to note is that Matthew and Luke are generally not thought to be written first. Although no scholar is certain about the order, many scholars believe that Mark was written first, or at least written before the Gospels of Matthew and Luke (these two Gospels are called the **Synoptic Gospels** because there are many similarities between them). So, an idea is supported that Mark was written first and Luke and Matthew both appear to use Mark as a source. This is also supported by the fact that there appear to be references to the destruction of the Temple in Mark, an event that did not occur until 70 AD, while there is no such event in Mark however, suggesting it may have been written prior to this extremely important event in Jewish history.

So seemingly written prior to Matthew and Luke. This potentially indicates that the information took hold only later in the development of early Christian communities. Matthew and Luke began to believe it was important to assert how Jesus was con-

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not simply during his ministry. In fact, there are a few other reasons why we might find a full-blooded concept of the incarnation to any Gospel author:

- The Latin term 'incarnation' is not used in the Gospel, so the doctrine is not explicit.
- If Jesus was half human and half God, this does not map neatly onto the idea of being fully human and fully divine. This is the accepted Christian understanding of the incarnation.
- The baby Jesus himself is not described as possessing any divine attributes.
- Jesus is not referred to as God in the birth narratives. The title 'Son of God' did not come into use until after his death at the time – indeed, the Jewish people were referred to as the 'children of God'.

'...and he will be called Son of God' (Luke 1:35 NRSV)

'You are children of the Lord your God.' (Deuteronomy 14:1 NRSV)

pick up on a number of key considerations here. Among the points listed are that the Christian doctrine of the incarnation involves Jesus being both fully human and fully divine. This is a difficult idea initially to wrap one's head around, but Christians generally support the idea of **substantial presence**: that since Jesus was fathered by the Holy Spirit, God himself. As you will learn later in your studies, such an idea is also integral to Orthodox Christian thought. For the moment, though, it is simply important to appreciate the discussion around Jesus' nature – for early Christian history involved a series of debates around unpacking what the birth narratives (and the rest of the Gospel accounts) say.

For example, one belief that later became **heretical** (rejected by the orthodox Church) was that Jesus was not at all human and simply appeared to be in light of his physical being. This was unattractive in part because it downplays the role of Mary, but also because it denies important human attributes to him that are importantly expressed throughout the Gospels. Another view that also became heretical was **Docetism**, the belief that Jesus was not fully human at some time during his life (or during his entire life). This equally was viewed as unattractive because the birth narratives clearly indicate a miraculous, God-willed nature of Jesus' birth, which is divine.

From such considerations, the now orthodox position on the incarnation developed: that Jesus possessed both a fully human and fully divine nature brought together in one person. This simply means that through divine action (beyond human comprehension) the person of God and human. However, how can such an idea be reconciled with the very human aspects of Jesus' life? Would a divine being feel emotion or be truly experiencing life in the same way as a human? In any sense actually feel pain and die? Although the incarnation may be plausible in terms of Jesus' birth, there is the rest of his life to consider.

One common response to such questions has been to suggest what is commonly known as the **kenosis** theory. This suggests that Jesus, at various times throughout his life, committed to a **self-emptying** of his divine nature. In the birth narratives, this explains why Jesus is born through normal means, why he has special capabilities and why many did not recognise him to be the Messiah until many years later. This self-emptying is viewed as necessary for Jesus to live as a human, but a suggestion is that Jesus chose a particular time to reveal himself as divine in order to show that he was not just a human being but also divine. In order to live as a human being, he too had to live life as a human being with all its human attributes. His life would not be the same without this human aspect and so self-emptying was necessary for him to live as a human being and fulfil the purpose of his birth and ministry.

'Let the same mind be in you that was in Christ Jesus, who, though he was in the form of God, did not regard equality with God as something to be exploited, but emptied himself, taking the form of a slave, being born in human likeness. And being found in human form, he humbled himself and became obedient to the point of death—even death on a cross.' (Philippians 2:5–8 NRSV) [Our]

In the next section, we will cover another key event to which this model also points: the **resurrection**.

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B: The Resurrection of Jesus

In the last section, we explored not only the content of the birth narratives in Matthew and Luke but also methods of biblical criticism which you can apply to any particular event in the Gospels for while the circumstances of Jesus' birth are important, they arguably are superseded by the circumstances of his death and **resurrection**: his rebirth and appearances before his disciples.

It is likely you know the basic details of the resurrection. Jesus was sentenced to death by Pontius Pilate (according to some of the Gospel accounts) and was crucified. After he hung on the cross, he was moved to a tomb, where three days later his body was discovered missing. After this mysterious occurrence, Jesus' disciples and followers began seeing Jesus who approached them, proclaiming his resurrection and calling upon them for the **Great Commission**: their responsibility to spread his teachings around the world. After these appearances, which vary in length, duration and significance according to different biblical accounts, Jesus **ascends** into heaven (the **ascension**) and the Gospels end.

In comparison to the birth narratives, there is significantly more agreement among potential historicity of the events surrounding Jesus' death and resurrection. Even disciples were mistaken about the resurrection appearances, all four of the Gospels in the same manner, and this lends credibility to the notion that, at minimum, there is something around the death of Jesus that warrant historical investigation. Nevertheless, scholars present strongly different interpretations of the Gospel accounts.

How Should the Resurrection be Interpreted?

This question has been pondered by nearly every Christian scholar throughout history. In part, religious thinkers have tended to take the resurrection accounts at face value and it is now the responsibility of Christians to understand what that means for humanity. This is often done by comparing the different narratives describing the appearances.

In modern times, this assumption has been questioned. Do the Gospels, by the standards of modern scientific knowledge is fundamentally impossible? Is it possible that the disciples were mistaken or lying about their witnessing Jesus after he had died? Do the appearances signify his resurrection or perhaps the simpler explanation that his body was taken away? When you pondered all these questions yourself as you read through the Gospels' accounts of the resurrection, for modern audiences, it probably seems fairer and more impartial to treat the Gospel sources and approach them in a more impartial manner, seeing where they diverge from and against what we know today.

To start, we can look at some of the differences between the resurrection narratives. The first important things to note is that it is not strictly true that all the Gospels agree on the order of appearances once certain historical details are taken into account. The Gospel of Mark, the Gospel which is widely recognised to have originally had a shorter ending, 16:1-7, and 16:9-20 being added later. Most scholars believe the second to fourth Gospels were written after Mark and that they borrowed from Mark's longer ending and that they added their own and stylistic flourishes not present in the rest of the Gospel.

As they entered the tomb, they saw a young man, dressed in a white robe, sitting on the right side. But they were afraid. He said to them, "Do not be alarmed; you are looking for Jesus of Nazareth, who has been raised; he is not here. Look, there is the place they laid him. But go, tell his brothers to go to Galilee; there you will see him, just as he told you." So they went out of the tomb, for terror and amazement had seized them; and they said nothing to anyone for they were afraid.
(Mark 16: 5-8)

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There are many explanations for this shorter ending. Some scholars focus on how the pattern of behaviour the disciples exhibit throughout the Gospels when presented with the risen Jesus. Others focus on the possibility that audiences already knew to some degree about the resurrection, or hearing Mark, while some even claim that Mark was left unfinished. This also raises the possibility that later authors expanded on a much shorter version of the resurrection account, using new historical sources or elaborating on Mark's original intention. Perhaps the shorter account does not actually feature the resurrected Jesus talking to the disciples about his appearances in Galilee. Rather, Mark's shorter ending is a way of saying that the other women see a young man. By itself, there is nothing miraculous about this description and so it has fuelled some possible reasons for the shorter ending.



One of the most interesting aspects of the resurrection accounts are the differences in the appearances of Jesus after his death. In Matthew, for example, there are two main appearances: to the women and 'the other Mary' at the tomb, while the second is to the disciples. In contrast, Luke does not list any of the appearances given by Matthew. Two angels had come with him from Galilee, with Jesus only appearing later to two followers. In John, Jesus informs the other apostles that Jesus has already appeared to Peter. Jesus then appears to them during this conversation, where he proves his resurrected appearance by showing them his wounds and eating their food. Finally, in John, Jesus appears to Mary Magdalene at the tomb (and later to Thomas) and finally to Peter and six of the disciples in Galilee.

So, altogether, there is no deep agreement between the Gospels about who Jesus appeared to after he was added on to the truncated ending of Mark, one might start to become a bit sceptical about the historical accuracy of the resurrection accounts. Without strict confirmation about the tomb's capacity, all that remains to be certain about is that there was an empty tomb and that this tomb was attributed to Jesus' rebirth rather than any other explanation. A **naturalistic explanation** for the resurrection accounts, such as delusion or hysteria, accommodates the different details in the Gospels? Could it even be that the resurrection simply aren't true? A naturalistic understanding of the importance of Jesus was one important element of the early figure who certainly believed in exploring the resurrection.

Rudolf Bultmann



Rudolf Bultmann and Demythologisation

Rudolf Bultmann (1884–1976) was a German Lutheran theologian and perhaps one of the most important figures in biblical studies in the twentieth century. He was a very radical and controversial figure to begin with, but many of his texts are now recognised as foundational when analysing the Bible. However, his writings can be difficult to understand at the beginning. On the one hand, Bultmann was very suspicious of **liberal theology**, which often sought to reinterpret the Bible in accordance with modern scientific knowledge. This often resulted in a search for the **historical Jesus**: the human figure behind the various miraculous events and naturalistic explanations posited for the more fantastical parts of the Gospels. Yet at the same time, his work on form criticism – breaking down the Bible into its various original narrative pieces – is one of the most important parts of the historical analysis of the Bible. So how are these two parts of his work meant to be reconciled?

Well, Bultmann did ultimately believe in historical analysis of the Bible and to a degree, the historical Jesus. It's just that he also believed that it would never be possible to arrive at a definitive account of what happened during Jesus' life. The Gospels, by and large, do not list specific locations, dates, or reports and are not supported by other historical sources. In an important sense, this is futile. However, Bultmann also thought it was generally unnecessary. He believed that the Gospels were essentially, looking at the totality of Jesus' life – as a man who lived, died, and rose again – as a means to discover the essential message of the Gospels behind its historical details. **Existentialism** suggests, Bultmann wanted Christianity as a whole to reorient itself around the questions of human existence, and these are not rooted in discovering who Jesus was or his risen Jesus' place in the proclamation of the Church.

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This all might be a bit overwhelming at first, but the central point to understand is that Bultmann wished to 'ground' study of the Bible. He held that it should not be overwhelming to study the historical Jesus but it should seek to shed the fantastical elements which overtake the essential message. The average person in the first century, Bultmann would argue, would have a mythological view of the world which stands in stark contrast to the scientific view of the world. They would naturally accept the possibility of supernatural events. It is of what we would call the supernatural and so any author of texts such as the Gospels would be writing from this fundamental perspective.

Thus, Bultmann sought to bring down the Gospels using a process he called **demythologisation**. Note here that this does not mean Bultmann endorses a 'scientific' analysis of the Gospels. Stripping the Gospels of their mythological parts based not on the application of a scientific method but on the evidence as generally told us about the nature of the world itself: the Gospels are not just another thing which acts in the world as they see fit. When we look at the Gospels accounts, a very different picture of Jesus emerges from the one propagated by the Church.

Most importantly, key beliefs about Jesus as a miracle worker are jettisoned, including that he physically rose from the dead. Bultmann argues that the most we can really say about Jesus is that he was a historical figure who taught for a few years and was crucified on the cross, yet even this depiction he held at times was a step too far, for it takes the central object of Christian faith. For Bultmann, there is a very distinct separation between the **pre-Easter** Jesus and the **post-Easter** Jesus. Whatever historical reality Jesus occupied before his 'resurrection' was put into place by the early Christian community. Jesus was no longer a historical figure who could be impartially recorded but became a myth himself, and thus a discontinuity between the historical Jesus and the post-Easter Jesus was established. As such, whoever the historical Jesus was, he was never the same as the Jesus of mythological transformation took place.

At the same time, though, the process of demythologisation informs us that a supernatural resurrection could not have occurred. This initially leaves the Christian with a bit of a problem: the historical Jesus, yet at the same time, they cannot subscribe to the myth he became. Bultmann argues that, ultimately, neither picture is necessary to understand the Christian faith. The resurrection of what happened after Jesus' death, it is the transformation of the Church and the effect it has on human lives that is important. Bultmann's central message is **kerygma** (proclamation). Through the message passed around after Jesus' death, the Church is transformed. They can study their lives anew and begin a relationship with God.

Bultmann's ideas were very controversial throughout his life. Many ordinary Christians felt that his ideas treated the Gospels unfairly. If Jesus did not die, why did the disciples believe it was a true event despite the mythological world view of first-century audiences? The importance Bultmann attached to kerygma was a bit meaningless. What is the point of an event which has the possibility of saving people?

There are numerous ways of addressing such questions. As Bultmann's process suggests, there may have been a mythological way for the disciples to express their belief in Jesus. It may have been born out of delusion. These questions, however, can't be reliably answered; all we can do is look at the circumstances of his life, the Church that grew out of his death and the physical resurrection. We can understand it today – but, Bultmann argues, that is all that is needed to make exist the Christian faith.

However, what if we could mount a defence of the Gospel accounts – one that supports the resurrection? It should be noted that the historical analysis and evidence have grown since Bultmann's writing. Taking all the background information into account, could it be more likely that the resurrection did occur? Such a defence was mounted by the scholar we turn to next.

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N T Wright and the Physical Resurrection

N T Wright is a biblical scholar and Anglican bishop who has written extensively on the resurrection, and a significant portion of his work is dedicated to the resurrection, and he develops a number of arguments for the resurrection being a supernatural event that involved the physical. Wright wishes to show that Bultmann's ambivalence towards the resurrection is not justified. Using textual evidence and historical knowledge, it is possible to argue for an orthodox resurrection.

Going back a bit, however, we can exclude Bultmann's interpretation of the resurrection and remain:

- Resurrection is spiritual; the disciples experienced Jesus' presence in spirit.
- Resurrection was physical; the disciples experienced a risen Jesus, with a body.

Normally, there are various permutations of these ideas, but it is key to note that the physical resurrection is more plausible if a spiritual dimension is accepted, yet at the same time a spiritual resurrection is not necessarily the supernatural, saving event described in the Gospel. The physical resurrection necessarily cohere with traditional Christian thought. For the resurrection to have any meaning for many Christians, it may be necessary for it to be physical. Such an event would be the divine aspect of Jesus' identity.

There are various points in the Gospel accounts which seem to affirm a physical resurrection. The disciples were able to touch Jesus' body and feel his wounds:

'Then [Jesus] said to Thomas, "Put your finger here and see my wounds." Reach out your hand and put it here. Do not doubt but believe.' (John 20:27 NRSV)

Jesus also appeared to act as a physical being would, eating with the disciples:

'They gave him a piece of broiled fish, and he took it and ate in their presence.'

There are also parts of the accounts which suggest that Jesus possessed the characteristics of a physically alive human being, such as the ability to disappear, and appear:

'...he vanished from their sight.' (Luke 24:31 NRSV)

'When it was evening on that day, the first day of the week, and the doors of the house were locked for fear of the Jews, Jesus came and stood among them and said to them, "Peace be with you."' (John 20:19 NRSV)

Furthermore, there are parts of the resurrection narratives which describe how the disciples recognized Jesus when he first appeared to them. This is certainly strange considering their fear of Jesus during his ministry.

'While they were talking and discussing, Jesus himself came and stood among them and said to them, "Peace be with you." They were startled and frightened, thinking they saw a ghost. He said to them, "Do not be amazed, for this is what was said through the prophets: 'I will send my messenger ahead of you, who will prepare your way.'" (Luke 24:35-36 NRSV)

So if N T Wright wishes to defend the physical resurrection, there are a number of arguments he can use. The first is whether a physical resurrection, being a miraculous event, can be considered credible. The second is whether a physical resurrection can be supported by the Gospel narratives, which appear to first offer conflicting interpretations of Jesus' post-mortem existence.

When considering the question of historicity first, N T Wright offers quite a simple but powerful argument. Claiming as Bultmann does that the first-century perspective is mythologically unapproachable by modern standards, Wright argues that there is significant historical evidence that allows us to understand the words and ideas put forward by the Gospel authors in the first century.

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Well, in short, Jewish audiences in the first century did have a firm understanding of resurrection. It was a physical raising of the body. This idea wasn't new and already had parallels in tradition. So, if a set of Jewish writers used the term 'resurrection' to describe Jesus' physical raising of the body, Wright points to a number of elements in the narratives v

ables were originally reluctant to embrace the idea of a physical resurrection, recognising that such an event was impossible, believing Jesus instead to be a spirit who at times acknowledge this and reaffirm the miraculous nature of Jesus' p

*'After the priests had assembled with the elders, they devised a plan to give a large telling them, "You must say, 'His disciples came by night and stole him away while
28:12-13 NRSV)*

- Other messianic movements: If there are cut after the supposed Messiah, it is doubted the physical resurrection of Jesus, it is more likely that Christianity was rather than g.

people, according to Wright, had distinct beliefs about the appearance of the resurrected in the end times, such as a shining body. The Gospel accounts do not mention this, so Wright argues that the unusual nature of the resurrection potentially reflected a new creation (like the birth narratives) to fulfil Jewish expectations but to recount a new beginning.

‘While they were talking and discussing, Jesus himself came near and went with them from the signifying them.’ (Luke 24:15–16 NRSV)

Note here, though, that this is a different approach also from that of Bultmann, who modern scientific outlook rejects the idea of the resurrection in the first place. While physical resurrection is possible, but whether historically it is said to have occurred

impossible, it is unlikely that any historical evidence could convince them, yet Wright's use of historical evidence about the perspectives of first-century Jewish audiences means that the notion that it was believed the historical Jesus did undergo a physical resurrection is not a given. Christians to place their faith in such an event. Wright's arguments encompass a view that goes beyond that of Bultmann, who, from the start, is not concerned about historical facts but the relevance of the event for the lives of Christians today. This difference is particularly exposed when comparing the two figures' views about the **afterlife**, the focus of the next part of this section.

Discussion Activity:

Do you agree with Wright that there is a historical case to be made for the resurrection? Discuss in pairs or small groups.



Resurrection and the Afterlife

In traditional Christian thought, Jesus' resurrection signifies what every human being will undergo after death. However, the interpretation of the resurrection has varied throughout Christian history. There are two important concepts to consider here. The first is the **resurrection of the body**; this has typically referred to the physical rebirth of a person in the afterlife. Often this concept has been used in the context of **general judgement**, where all of humanity is raised at the end times for God to judge. However, the second important concept is the **immortality of the soul**, which refers to the everlasting spiritual aspect of each person. This is more commonly invoked in the context of **particular judgement**: the idea that each human being is judged individually after death.

These ideas have been traditionally difficult to reconcile. Different biblical figures, contrasting visions of the afterlife and the meaning of what human beings will undergo after death. Some are talking about the spiritual dimensions of such a resurrection, while others are talking about the physical rebirth of the body. This also reflects the contrasting views already explored in the resurrection narratives, where some focus on the physical body and others on the spiritual or transformed qualities not present in ordinary life. The concept of the immortality of the soul has traditionally led Christians to suppose there is a general judgement of humankind.



'[Jesus] replied, "Truly I tell you, today you will be with me in Paradise."

'For to me, living is Christ and dying is gain. If I am to live in the flesh, that means I do not know which I prefer. I am hard pressed between the two: my desire is to depart and be with Christ, for that is far better; but to remain in the flesh is more necessary for you.' (Philippians 1:21–24)

This view has proliferated in modern times. The Catholic Church, for example, teaches of heaven, hell or purgatory (a realm where people work to atone for their sins before being reunited with their bodies at the end of time, when spiritual bodies with souls are reunited with physical bodies). Such a view often draws upon the thoughts of St Paul, who makes a distinction between the physical body and the spiritual body in resurrection.

'There are both heavenly bodies and earthly bodies, but the glory of the heavenly is different from the glory of the earthly is another... So it is with the resurrection of the dead. What is sown is perishable; what is raised is imperishable. It is sown in weakness; it is raised in glory. It is sown in a physical body; it is raised in a spiritual body. If there is a physical body, there is also a spiritual body.' (1 Corinthians 15:40, 42–44 NRSV)



It must be noted that this division of resurrection was not necessarily present in the early Christian communities. Many scholars have reckoned that resurrection would have been understood in physical terms and that belief in a general judgement, where all of humankind would be judged, was a later development.

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would have been adopted by believers. In this view, the soul would have remained woken at the end times when the general judgement approached.

*'... most of whom are still alive, though some have died' (here the Greek for 'dead' is 'asleep')
Corinthians 15:6*

'But in fact Christ has been raised from the dead, the first fruits of those who have died. Christ the first fruits, then, those who belong to Christ will also be raised' (1 Cor 15:20)

This is the view put forward by Wright. He argues that modern Christians misunderstand afterlife. It is not an immediate effect but comes at a future time when the physical body is raised, just as Jesus was transformed in the Gospels. The soul awaits resurrection. Although joined with Jesus, it awaits the end times and the establishment of the new heaven and earth. Heaven is not a place but a state of being, and heaven is the final destination of resurrected bodies.

'But, in accordance with his promise, we wait for new heavens and a new earth, with righteousness' (2 Peter 3:13 NRSV)

Wright's view potentially reflects the views of earlier Christians and of many biblical writers. In many respects from traditional Christian views, which typically paint heaven as a place of transformed souls. Naturally, it is impossible to know exactly the nature of the resurrection. Wright's view is based much more on both the writings of biblical authors and the circumstances of the resurrection.

But what about Bultmann? For an existentialist, committed to a non-mythological Christianity, the idea of heaven would be hard to stomach. In fact, through the process of demythologisation, Bultmann argued that Christian ideas, especially those which talk of heaven, are the spiritual dimensions of the world and do not reflect what is known about the world today and were based on faith in a God who cannot be shown to have or have not appeared.

In fact, Bultmann's view is firmly focused on questions about the meaning of life and death. He is not concerned with the afterlife. For Bultmann, what is important is the meaning of human lives today. Just as the historical event of the resurrection is understood as a faith event, so are the actual circumstances of life after death. It is not known and so its only importance is in how it affects the present. Faith is a present reality, not a future one. This idea is summed up in his famous proclamation in *and Mythology* that 'there is no longer any heaven in the traditional sense of the word'. The word about concerning the afterlife, whether it be resurrection or the soul, has no relevance. Faith possesses meaning in expressing humankind's understanding of itself in the present.

However, these issues also highlight a broader issue that we shall look at in the next section. Both Bultmann's and Wright's views are coloured not just by their various religious perspectives but also by the way they approach the Bible in light of these perspectives. Therefore, it is worth noting that the Bible plays for ordinary Christians, not just in informing their beliefs but also as a source of comfort and encouragement.

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C: The Bible as a Source of Authority and Wisdom

It is well known that different Christian denominations and groups disagree on the role of the Bible. On the one hand, Protestantism was significantly influenced by the idea of **sola scriptura**, the idea that the Bible is the central authority in all matters of Christian doctrine and practice. Those who endorse sola scriptura accordingly usually maintain that the Bible is **infallible** (or **inerrant**), meaning it possesses no errors, with a smaller subset of Christians put forward a stronger belief that the Bible is **self-authenticating**. This means that not only does the Bible contain no errors but it is wholly clear in meaning to the ordinary reader and does not require any debate over correct interpretation.

Protestants don't hold such strong beliefs any more. For example, the Anglicans put forward the idea of **prima scriptura**, which holds that the Bible simply comes first in authority. This still sets out a different approach from that of the Catholic Church, regarding both the Church and **sacred tradition** as sources of authority that are as valid as the Bible. In the Catholic Church, although the Bible is deeply important to study for Christians, teaching is also given by the Pope and high-ranking members of the Church who form the **Magisterium**: the body that defines the laws and truths for those of the Catholic faith.

Why are these differences important? Well, the degree to which the Bible is held as the ultimate authority is one of the greatest differences between conservative and liberal Christians. In the case of the former, the Bible is seen as the source of all knowledge! The label often given to those who believe the Bible is literally (and exclusively) true is **fundamentalism**, and often they draw on the idea that the Bible is the 'literal Word of God'.

'All scripture is inspired by God and is useful for teaching, for reproof, for correction, for training in righteousness' (2 Timothy 3:16 NRSV)

Most Christians will accept that, at least in part, the Bible is the work of God, but they will also accept that it is a human presentation of God's will. In this case, significant interpretation is needed by trained, educated members of the clergy. For such Christians, the Bible is not followed to the letter but a text to be analysed and dissected to draw out and resolve its meaning.

At the same time, though, it is important to be clear about what is meant by a doctrine. If it is recognised that the Bible is not perfect in representing God's will, then why should we follow it? N T Wright sets out this problem clearly in a 1991 lecture 'The Bible: Authoritative?' He notes that, typically, we view authority in a controlling manner, replicated unconsciously in the Christian Church. Followers are instinctively led to follow, derived from the Bible, yet even a cursory study of the Bible shows that it is not a set of rules and regulations, nor is it easily digestible as a set of timeless truths. It is a complex, often contradictory, and many scholars disagree, arguing the Bible gives us a glimpse into the mind of God, but it presents at least an important window into the human condition.

Wright ultimately argues that the authority of the Bible is simply God's authority. It is a reflection of the belief in God and his impact in the world. Studying the Bible is not about simply following rules but trying to understand this authority in our lives. This is a wide-ranging view, and many scholars disagree, arguing the Bible gives us a glimpse into the mind of God, but it presents at least an important window into the human condition. We might use the Bible as a source of guidance in their lives. So, when examining the Bible, keep in mind this discussion around authority and think about how it relates to your own life.

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The Bible as a Source of Moral Advice

At heart, the most common belief about the Bible is that it is a good source of moral advice. Christians may well agree with this belief, considering that many of the moral laws have their origins in biblical teaching. However, beneath this admission is a more difficult question: What is the Bible as a source of moral advice?

As we noted in the introduction, the Bible is not composed of laws and regulations. It contains narratives, parables and psalms, which are often designed to convey religious or moral teachings in dynamic ways. This is not to suggest that Christians don't find value in law; Ecclesiastes presents two reasons why Christians should value and follow the rules contained in the Bible. First, humans are created to follow God's laws and do as he commands (thus being made in God's image). Second, God will judge humans according to their actions – which implies that they should follow his commandments, and to gain reward.

'The end of the matter; all has been heard. Fear God, and keep his commandments, for this is the duty of everyone. For God will bring every deed into judgement, including every secret.'
(Ecclesiastes 12:13–14 NRSV)

For many conservative Christians, this is the central idea behind the use of the Bible. The moral advice for what it sets out as right or wrong is simply a reflection of what God deems to be the best for human beings' responsibility to submit to God's authority on all things. Taking a look at the Bible today, it is easy to see how such lines of thinking can lead to opposition to procedures and phenomena such as homosexuality. With hundreds of laws, rules and duties outlining a comprehensive yet also stringent on the requirements of a 'good' life.

However, many more liberal Christians recognise that the moral approach is also a reflection of the cultural context in which the Bible was written. Many, most conservative Christians do not keep every law listed in the Bible. This includes Jewish traditions included in the Torah, such as not eating pork, but a vast number of laws appear absurd to modern Christians, such as not wearing clothes that are made of mixed materials or sowing a field with different kinds of seed (Leviticus 19:19). These rules probably made sense at the time, but do not appear to be relevant for modern Christians.

In the New Testament, it has been widely observed that there are differences in the moral guidance between the Old Testament and the New Testament. Jesus, throughout his life, sought to overturn the legalistic approach that dominated Jewish traditions in the first century and put forward a new vision, where the lives of human beings first. If this truth is accepted, then the Bible cannot simply be a source of moral advice for Christians to follow blindly throughout their lives. Nor should Christians resort to a legalistic approach to laws that make sense to them in their lives. Rather, the Bible should be analysed as a source of moral principles that Jesus sets out during his ministry.

'Be merciful, just as your Father is merciful. Do not judge, and you will not be judged. Forgive, and you will be forgiven.' (Luke 6:36)

These include ideas about forgiveness, non-judgement, and acceptance and rejection. If we accept that the Bible is likely to be a source of moral advice in a dynamic way, then various stories and narratives might be used as a template for the importance of certain moral principles. For example, the parable of the Good Samaritan (Luke 10) teaches Christians to help others even if they are of a culture or people typical of the Samaritans. The story of Esther in the Bible also teaches Christians to help others – even if it means risking their own lives.

It might well be accepted by these more liberal Christians that the Bible is a source of moral advice. There might be remnants of views that reflect the cultural assumptions of the time rather than the Word of God, especially around social matters. This includes ideas about women in society and euthanasia.

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'You shall not lie with a male as with a woman; it is an abomination.' (1

'... women should be silent in the churches. For they are not permitted to speak, but as the law also says.' (1 Corinthians 14:24-25)

In these cases, Christians may recognise that Jesus' commandment to love with compassion and before the rules laid down by other biblical writers. While the Bible may contain wisdom, it must be balanced against other sources of wisdom. There might be knowledge and reassurance from the cultural context under which different books of the Bible were written, and people often point towards certain aspects of the Bible not cohering with Jesus' wider moral teaching.

One of the main issues that emerges out of such approaches is to what degree the Bible is regarded as infallible and other sources of wisdom are extracted out of its pages, and its rules or laws abandoned on a whim. This is criticised **liberal theology** or **liberal Christianity** on these grounds for making the Bible whatever ethical ideas are in fashion rather than studying its teachings on their own terms. If the Bible truly is not inerrant, Christians may have a difficult path in determining what to take from its pages and whether this simply reflects their own natural beliefs rather than

The Bible as a Guide to Living

It is easy to view the Bible as a set of moral rules or stories, but this perspective does not potentially leave out other important roles it plays in the everyday lives of Christians. One of its key contributions is often thought to make is as a guide to living. Whether or not, Christian life is much more than simply following moral guidelines. In that case, then it could be argued there is little that is distinctive about Christianity at all. An analysis of the Bible shows that it provides key advice on how to celebrate God in life and the changes this should invoke in one's attitudes and decision-making.

First, an obvious element of guidance is the call to specific forms of worship. This involves prayer. Christians believe that prayer is an act not only designed to demonstrate devotion to God, but also to communicate with him and build a lasting relationship. However, the Bible also contains narratives which celebrate the importance of communal worship. This includes rituals such as baptism and the Eucharist (which you will study later) but festive occasions like the Passover. In these cases, there is no specific moral call that requires Christians to engage in these practices. Rather, Christian worship is largely framed as a blessing for Christians: a way to bring joy into their lives.

The importance and joy of prayer are regularly expressed in **Psalms**, a book in the Bible containing a wide variety of hymns and laments that are concerned with praising God, and expressing gratitude and beneficence. Alongside expressing the significance of prayer, they also detail the kinds of attitudes Christians should express in their daily lives. This is the second element of the Bible as a guide to living. The right kind of motives and intentions in their lives towards God and the material world. In many circumstances, many passages in the Bible develop teachings about the right attitudes to inculcate in themselves and how mastering these attitudes can help them to overcome temptation. Key examples of these teachings are found in Psalms 119.

'How can young people keep their way? By guarding it according to your word, O Lord. Do not let me stray from your commandments. I treasure your word in my heart, O Lord. Do not let me forget your law. Blessed are you, O Lord, whose statutes are perfect. With my lips I declare all that you have commanded. My heart delights in your word, O Lord. I will not forget your word.' (Psalm 119:1-10)

These verses reaffirm how internalising Christian teaching helps guide one's life towards a deeper relationship with God. A similar instance is found later in Psalm 119, which reaffirms the importance of being steadfast against temptation or persecution.

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'Your word is a lamp to my feet and a light to my path. I have sworn an oath and righteous ordinances. I am severely afflicted; give me life, O LORD, according to your praise, O LORD, and teach me your ordinances. I hold my life in my hand continually, the wicked have laid a snare for me, but I do not stray from your precepts. Your decrees are the joy of my heart. I incline my heart to perform your statutes, O LORD, to the end

In either case, the Bible regularly steps beyond simply outlining laws or rules and of how to cultivate good moral dispositions in one's life. These encourage Christians to only as an end goal of the religious life but as a way of living more meaningfully in nicely into the next in the world for biblical teaching.



on a daily.

believe the Psalms provide helpful advice on the correct attitudes and pe if not, why not? Discuss in pairs or small groups.

The Bible as Teaching on the Meaning and Purpose of Life

It has to be noted that the Bible, as a guide to living, is not simply aimed at present teaches about key elements of religious history: how the world was created, why human beings in this created world. In this way, the Bible does not simply dictate moral laws exist as they do and how these generate purpose in a Christian's life.

The best-known example of such meaning and purpose comes from the first book. In the first few chapters it is set out how God created the world and everything within it, the foundation of the meaningful religious life: God created humankind in his image, in his purpose. This automatically lends a **pastoral** element to biblical teaching. God is so that human beings can grow closer to him and fulfil their purpose as set out at the in particular gives several important teaching that each human being should strive towards:

'Then God said, "Let us make man in our image, according to our likeness; and let them have dominion over the fish of the sea, over the birds of the air, and over the cattle, and over all the creeping things that creep upon the earth." So God created humankind in his image, according to his likeness; male and female he created them. God blessed them, and God said to them, "Be fruitful and multiply, and fill the earth and subdue it; and have dominion over the fish of the sea and over every living thing that moves upon the earth.'" (Genesis 1:26-28)

The first important aspect of this passage is the mention of **dominion**. God sets humankind in charge and responsibility over the natural world. They are allowed to use it as they wish to flourish, but they are equally required to be **stewards**, taking care of the world and ensuring it is not destroyed. In Genesis, the importance of **procreation** is also asserted. As part of their flourishing, humankind is to fill and populate the world, creating new individuals capable of forming their own families.

However, the Bible does not wholly equate the purpose of life with such God-given tasks. For example, we can look to Ecclesiastes 9:5–9, which suggests that, in part, the meaning of life is found in the good things it brings. God, therefore, gives human beings life not just to serve but to enjoy the good pleasures it can bring.

'The living know that they will die, but the dead know nothing; they have no more reward, for their love, their hate, and their envy have already perished; they do not share in all that happens under the sun. Go, eat your bread with enjoyment, and drink your wine with gladness, for God has approved what you do. Let your garments always be white. Live joyfully with the wife whom you love, all the days of your vain life that are passed under the sun; that is your portion in life and in your toil at which you toil under the sun.'

Here, the emphasis is not on human beings becoming wholly **hedonistic** (pleasure-seeking) but finding value in material pleasures which can be enjoyed under God's approval.

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and spending time with loved ones. Equally, the importance of remaining good is a talk of white garments and anointing of oil: symbols of holiness and religious purity.

Finally, it is important to note New Testament teaching when considering the meaning of life. Christians recognise that Jesus' death on the cross was an act of redemption and of salvation for human beings.

'... so Christ, having been offered once for the sins of many, will appear a second time to those who are eagerly waiting for him.' (Hebrew 9:26)

'For God so loved the world that he gave his only Son, so that everyone who believes in him may have eternal life.' (John 3:16 NRSV)

The meaning of life, therefore, has to be understood in the context of the saving work of Jesus. Whether or not life brings one fortune, it is essential to lead a moral life so that one can enter the afterlife. All good moral acts are directed towards this future for Christians, and are the primary purpose of biblical teaching in the New Testament.

At the same time, it is important to consider how all these different purposes give meaning to life. The meaning one ascribes to life is an incredibly personal process, and not a different teachings given in the Bible about such themes. For example, although the Bible places importance on procreation, this may well not be an intuitively appealing idea for someone who places living a good life above worship of God and believe one's path to salvation is through good works. Others be free of pain and suffering. Some might even ignore Old Testament teachings that teach that according to Jesus' example can help form a meaningful life. In any case, it is not necessarily one fixed purpose given by the Bible; its meaning is a personal degree, relative to the individual.

The Bible as a Source of Comfort and Encouragement

The final role of the Bible is to act as a source of comfort and encouragement. There are many narratives focusing on the struggles or suffering of various characters in the Bible. John 11:1-44 is a narrative in the Gospels. Such narratives, while often designed to teach a lesson, can also be of personal comfort to the reader, for at heart they depict God's love for individuals on Earth. Reading through them, Christians may find they can relate to the characters and may be encouraged by the thought that God is on their side.

These themes are also found directly in Psalms. For example, Psalm 46 relates how God helps believers and help them through the challenges they face in their lives.

'God is our refuge and strength, a very present help in trouble. Therefore we will not be afraid, though the mountains shake in the heart of the sea; though its waters roar and its mountains tremble with its tumult.' (Psalm 46:1-3 NRSV)

Similar sentiments are also found in the New Testament. Matthew 6:25-34, for example, teaches the comfort the spiritual life can bring, even in times of hardship. It is a message that the material world is ultimately transitory. Those who are faithful to God and his kingdom will have faith in God and perform good actions, which will be rewarded by God after death.

'Therefore I tell you, do not worry about your life, what you will eat or what you will drink, or about your body, what you will wear. Is not life more than food, and the body more than clothing?'

'... the God and Father of our Lord Jesus Christ! By his great mercy he has given us an inheritance through the resurrection of Jesus Christ from the dead, and into an inheritance that is undefiled, and unfading, kept in heaven for you' (1 Peter 1:3-4)

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Finally, the Bible also encourages Christians as a community. When the New Testament was written, the early Church was a small enterprise, sometimes persecuted and often isolated. The Bible encourages Christians by reminding them that they are not alone in their struggles and that God will not let them be tested beyond their limits.

'No testing has overtaken you that is not common to everyone. God is faithful, and he will not let you be tested beyond your strength, but with the testing he will also provide the way out so that you will not be tempted. 1 Corinthians 10:13 NRSV)

Understanding the Role of the Psalms in their Role in Christian Life

In this section, we've looked at how various biblical passages highlight the role of the Psalms in a Christian's life. However, you may have noticed that books such as Psalms and Proverbs are often used in a similar way. While they emphasise important attitudes and express encouragement, it can be argued that such messages are already part of Jesus' ministry. Moreover, the guidance they present, it can also be questioned whether the New Testament turns these statements so commonplace or clichéd as to be uninteresting or meaningless. So, there are several reasons why Christians may or may not draw on Psalms in their spiritual lives.

Why the Psalms (studied) <i>may</i> offer a guide for Christian living	Why the Psalms (studied) <i>may</i> not offer a guide for Christian living
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Many Psalms are focused on praise. They therefore offer a model for worship (praise, thanksgiving and confession), which is an important part of Christian living (e.g. 119:12). Furthermore, if Christians live their lives in a mindset of worship, this should help them to live joyful lives and treat others well (e.g. 105). The Psalms emphasise the importance of following God's will (e.g. 119:15–16). Many Psalms also deal with desperation and despair; they remind Christians to look to God in times of despair, and not to abandon faith when they feel hopeless (e.g. 119:107). They also remind Christians not to be swayed in their faith – if they are tempted to act against God's will, or doubt his love and power for any reason (e.g. 119:110). They teach Christians to rely on God to preserve them and give them strength (e.g. 46:1). Some Psalms deal with important qualities such as mercy and forgiveness. When they express how God shows these to humans, they remind humans to treat others in a similar way, which can be applied in everyday living. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Many Psalms are focused on the greatness of God, rather than on human beings. They do not offer practical guidance. Many Psalms express a sense of awe and wonder at God's power. They are human expressions of God instructing humans. The Psalms may provide a model for worship, but they give little practical guidance for aspects of living and modern issues, e.g. e.g. 119:110. The Psalms were written long ago and so may not be relevant to Christians, as they were written in a different understanding of the world. They knew nothing about the resurrection – and this may be, therefore, the New Testament surprise.

Quick Quiz

1. What is redaction criticism?
2. What is hermeneutics?
3. Which Old Testament books contain birth narratives?
4. What is the difference between mythologisation and the kenotic model?
5. What is the difference between general judgement and particular judgement?
6. What is the main purpose of the Book of Psalms?
7. What is the main purpose of the Book of Psalms?
8. What is dominion?

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THEME 2: RELIGIOUS CONCEPTS

What you will learn in this section:

- The theological debate around the nature of God and the terminology used to describe him, including:
 - whether it is accurate or appropriate to use masculine language to describe God
 - the issues with identifying God as Father and the feminist theology of Sallie McFague
 - the question about whether God can suffer, with reference to the theology of Jürgen Moltmann
- The theology and historical study of the Trinity, including:
 - the relationship between the Father, the Son and the issues of his pre-existence and divinity
 - the nature of the Father's relationship with the Son and the issues with the Filioque controversy and the debate around its importance in modern Christianity
- Theology and historical study of the atonement, including:
 - analysis of the three major models of the atonement: Christus Victor, satisfaction and penal substitution
 - the theological issues with these models and the debate around the need for atonement in modern Christian thought

Starter Activity:

What do you believe are the primary attributes God possesses? Make a list and discuss it throughout this theme. Has your concept of God changed in any way?

Key Thinker

Name	Sallie McFague
Born	1933
Died	2019
Key text	<i>Metaphorical Theology: Models of God in Religious Language</i> (1992)
Why are they important?	Sallie McFague is a very influential and polarising figure in feminist theology. She argued that the metaphors and models of God that have been described as post-Christian were tainted by patriarchal influence and should be complemented by newer, more egalitarian and female-focused models.
Did you know?	McFague was also well known for developing an ecological approach to theology which emphasised care for the natural world as care for God's creation.

Key Thinker

Name	Jürgen Moltmann
Born	1926
Died	n/a
Key text	<i>The Crucified God</i> (1972)
Why are they important?	Moltmann is one of the most influential Reformed theologians. He was developing a unique form of liberation theology which focused on God's solidarity alongside humanity, rather than being a distant, unapproachable figure.
Did you know?	Moltmann was drafted into military service as a teenager in 1945 and was one of the first British soldiers to be encountered by the German forces.

Introduction – Analysing Religious Concepts

In Theme 1 we explored the various parts of the Bible and how Christian approaches to different issues. The discussion often encompasses broader ideas and methods. In fact, much of what goes on in academic circles can be described as **philosophical**: thinkers use their knowledge to shape their idea of God as much as their interpretation of the Bible.

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This opens up a much wider theoretical framework for understanding Christian thought in the twentieth century, many theologians have drawn not only on new philosophical ideas but also a vast array of secular pursuits. For example, the last 50 years in particular have seen growth in feminist theology, which, as we will see, challenges many of the assumptions used to describe God and the role of women in Christian life. Similarly, we shall also see how ideas of Jürgen Moltmann, who questions whether the immutability (unchangeability) and impassibility (to feel emotion) are genuinely attributes of God, have led to a radical re-evaluation of God. In both cases, a number of philosophical and historical methods are employed to probe religious concepts and present arguments against orthodox Christian thought.

Part of the reason why these challenges or questioning have emerged is due to the increasing secularisation of society and the growth of secularisation. Since the start of the **Enlightenment**, Christianity has lost much of a hold on academic imagination, and the rise of secular thought has provided opportunities for Christian thinkers to question the received thought of the Church. There are also conservative Christians who push back against such thinking and seek to defend traditional thought, and this push-and-pull has arguably produced some of the most fertile debates in modern theology.

As we go through the key topics of this section, there are a few important questions to ask. The first is to ask what methods a particular thinker is employing when analysing religion: is it based on historical knowledge? Philosophical theory? Whatever the case, identifying the methods a thinker arrives at their conclusions can often be as revealing as the arguments themselves. Similarly, and this is often their form of analysis which aren't fully appreciated or documented. Similarly, and this is often the case, consider is: what are the consequences of a thinker's line of argument? The underlying concept can have ramifications far beyond what is expected. Exploring the internal logic of the heart of Christian thought is often the task of atheist critics, and the theoretical challenges to various aspects of Christian thought might just be evidence of its internal incoherency. These issues will emerge once we study the doctrine of atonement in this section.

Lastly, and most importantly, it is vital to question your own assumptions as you progress. What is the nature of God? What attributes does God possess? How do these attributes define God? These questions will help you question others, drawing out where their assumptions lie. From this, you can more accurately assess the current theological landscape. If you yourself, or don't believe you hold a stake in a particular theological discussion, sharpen your own critical skills and apply them to new debates.

A: The Nature of God

Before we take a look at some critical analyses of the concept of God, it is worth noting the traditional Christian view of his being has typically entailed. For a start, God is traditionally considered to be **powerful**, **omniscient (all-knowing)** and **benevolent (all-loving)** being. These are commonly cited when describing God and are often the focus of worship. Omnipotence is essential for God's role as creator, while his benevolence ensures God is present to all of humankind and invested in the everyday lives of people around the world. However, there are many other important attributes that it is worth covering.

For one, God is typically held to be **immaterial**, and not a physical being such as that of a human. In this sense, God is contained in another world, and immateriality enables other attributes to be paradoxical. For example, God is considered to be both **transcendent** (beyond the world) and **immanent** (contained within the world and able to be experienced). Theological debates about how this paradox is possible, but in Christian thought this issue is resolved by the Trinity. The Trinity describes the roles played by each person in the triune God. Similarly, God is considered to be **eternal**: he does not have a beginning or an end and has always existed.

God is naturally thought to be genderless, for how can a material thing possibly have a gender? However, a controversial suggestion, feminist theologians, as we shall see, have noted that, in the Bible, God has been exclusively described through male terms. In the Trinity, God is thought to be a community of three persons, and this has led to debates about the nature of God.

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as the Son, but why is this the case if such terms are inappropriate when talking about God? Likewise, God's immateriality and eternality have often led to the view that it is impossible for God to feel emotion/pain (**impassibility**), but is this necessarily the case? The eternal being to change or feel emotion in accordance with change in the material world that we shall begin to explore when we begin taking a look at the Resurrection.

Why is God Viewed as Male?

We noted in the introduction that God is generally viewed as genderless. However, we can go a step further and state that God, being immaterial and transcendent, is wholly outside the concept of gender. Gender is a human category represented through physical and social attributes, and to even begin to argue that God represents a gender may be a gross case of **anthropomorphism** – applying human categories to something that does not possess them. However, at the same time there is a lot of exclusively male terms used when talking about him, whether it be the title of 'Father' or other titles such as 'Lord' or 'King'. So, considering God's being is beyond description, should these terms be dropped?

This is a difficult question and one which feminist theologians have grappled with extensively. It appears that such male-oriented terms are unsuitable. However, we might also note that terms to describe God are unsuitable considering his immateriality and transcendence. Despite this, it is typically thought that various forms of positive language serve as important representations of God in some way they capture part of his essence, if not all of it. If we follow the criticism of this, a logical conclusion, we might arrive at the idea that there is no point talking about God at all. To be productive, a middle ground may need to be established where positive language is used to describe God but principles are set out to ensure that such language does not develop a distorted view of God.

The trouble with male terms, therefore, is not just their unsuitability but also in the way they reflect back to Theme 1, where we studied the Bible. If you go back to the Bible, you might remember that the elements of Scripture are often written from the cultural context of the biblical authors rather than from the perspective of the Word of God. If we think about male terminology from this perspective, it is clear that the early Christian communities existed in a strongly **patriarchal** environment where ideas and thought were directed towards establishing or preserving male dominance. In the case of Christian thought, regardless of what **egalitarian** (equalitarian) principles are presented, it is likely to be the case that these were filtered through male writers within a framework which prioritised a male-focused perspective. For many feminist theologians, as intellectual and physical heads of society and relegated women to the roles of wife and mother.

However, even if such a viewpoint was held by many theologians throughout Christianity, it is not that such a divide in gender equality would be the work of a fundamentally gendered patriarchy. The patriarchal attitudes of Christian cultures have also been responsible for a significant oppression of women, both inside the Church and out. Overall, the patriarchal, misogynistic or sexist attitudes seem out of step with the teachings of its saviour, who, for the most part, promoted equality and non-judgement. Whether it be Jesus' treatment of Mary and Martha or his prominent female followers such as Mary Magdalene, there is a lot of positive teaching compared to other parts of the Bible. This suggests that at heart, Christian theology is not about men's experiences as it is of men's, especially when men's experiences as a whole are considered.

However, at this juncture, there is also a divide in feminist thought. On the one hand, there are **feminist theologians** who, despite the shaky history of Christianity around gender equality, try to bring the message in the Bible that can be brought to the fore by critical thinking. On the other hand, there are more **radical feminist thinkers** who are more critical of Christianity beyond saving, and that the only way women can be liberated is by eradicating Christianity. Many of these radical thinkers are also what are termed **postmodern** due to the fact that their views often undermine the key foundations of orthodox Christianity. They offer new, challenging ways to think about God.

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We will study this debate in more detail later. The key thing to take away is that for do male terms present a limited, misleading depiction of God, but they are also the patriarchal attitudes rather than the will of God. The task of reconstructing God is to challenge the historical sources of these attitudes and present more ways of cohere with female experiences of the world. Only then can a multi-faceted idea of Christian theology become more accurate in its depiction of his being. In the next at a number of important figures and how they challenge male-dominated discussion.

Activity:

How would you describe God if you had the choice? Write down five different un- would help describe him, and list your reasons why.

Challenging God as Father

Before we look at the challenges to male terminology around God, it is worth considering importance this terminology may hold. Simply put, if, for all of history, such terms have they proliferated? Well, in one sense, the use of terms such as 'Father' may not God. The Father-Son relationship between Jesus and God invokes the personal relationship and establishes the idea of a pastoral God – a being who is looking out for humanity. Even if terms such as 'Father' are biased towards male perspectives, they do potentially truths about the nature of God beyond gendered ideals. The same may be true of. Even though these are male-focused, they can be thought to convey ideas about God world as well as his omnipotence or omniscience.

At the same time, we can easily note the shortfalls of these terms. Thinking about might be unsettling to some, considering the it res a despotic imagery or of servants to God. Similarly, it can be argued that if God is Father, there is a lack of in God's being and how women might connect to God as either mothers or daughters.

Here we can turn to feminist theology of Sallie McFague for guidance. McFague describes how to be God is a **construction**: it is a tool or method we employ to try to understand human comprehension. Theology as such, although important, is a kind of of **metaphors** and **models** that seek to enrich human understanding of God substance, even if language is ill-equipped to describe God accurately. Through the metaphors, it is possible to avoid simplistic, absolutist conceptions of God which are human roles and ideas, and, therefore, to enable the development of a deeper, more his relationship to the world around us.

Already, you might be able to see where this argument is leading. McFague contends ideas to describe God is ultimately misleading. Not only do they generally paint a view of God but they devalue the importance of present human experience in thinking. She argues that although Scripture and tradition are important as building blocks when analysis, they should not be given a position of utmost privilege. The language we evolve according to the Christian community's own ideas and experiences of God in contexts of the modern world. Through comparison of new and old concepts, a rich accommodates a greater range of human experiences that ultimately be developed.

So how does this challenge the idea of Father? Well, under McFague's thought, the biblical are largely reflecting the socio-cultural and political system of the biblical authors, not neutral, just as the new images that modern cultures and communities develop. At the same time, the non-neutral terminology employed by the biblical authors has been thought to provide a coherent explanation of all things. In this way, although generally, terms such as 'Father' or 'King' are now regarded as 'true' reflections of that is not allowed to be challenged for fear of destabilising the coherency of Christ.

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This might seem complex, but McFague breaks it down simply, remarking in her 1992 book *Theology for an Ecological, Nuclear Age* that 'we construct the worlds we inhabit, and have done so'. The male biases that infiltrated the Bible's imagery and terminology were to a significant degree, but subsequent male-dominated theology has also failed to correct ideas considered to be heretical and generating a theological world view which favours men. Terms such as 'Father', 'Lord' or 'King' have thus naturally made sense to theologians that are contained within this world view and do not bear witness to the shortcomings of patriarchal political systems remain male-dominated.

But why do we need to re-imagine these terms now? Well, McFague notes that ideas are unavoidably shaped by the ideas about ownership, servitude and dependency, and the world view of Christians today. However, the changing environments of modern Christianity are antiquated and unsuitable. The original world view which sustained the old metaphors has been determined and shown to be misleading or flawed. Society as a whole has begun recognising that women can fulfil a much wider set of roles than traditionally put forward and that intellectual pursuits are not the sole domain of men. It is, therefore, necessary to begin developing new imagery, models and terms to describe God which accommodate present experience and the world views of Christians today.

Such ideas place McFague in the reconstructionist camp of feminist theological thought. They do not abandon sources such as the Bible, but they also need to be deconstructed in order for a more rounded concept of God can be rebuilt. However, McFague also suggests new models to enable this reconstruction. Moreover, her emphasis on present experience over tradition is what are often called **post-Christian** movements, which generally, at least in part, reject traditional Christian thought entirely. For instance, one key idea present in McFague's theology is that of God as **Mother**. Through emphasising this role for God, one also elevates the role of women and creates new connotations that may exist between God and the world. Furthermore, the development of this idea complements the idea of God as Father, creating God as a being open to both male and female.

Conversely, it is interesting to note that McFague is aware of the shortcomings of the world view which places God as Father when talking about God. Throughout her work, McFague is aware of the dangers of this name of God and points out that even labelling God as Mother is dangerous as it places ideas about the feminine onto God and unhelpfully essentialising what is often seen as female. Nevertheless, the **reimagining**, in McFague's terms, still plays a highly significant role in her theology. From identifying God as Mother comes McFague's view of the created world as the manifestation of God's self-expression and, as such, Christians should not attempt to separate being from the world but one who is unavoidably involved in its every work. This view of theology as a result of her commitment to alternative metaphors and images for God leads to her concept of **panentheistic**: the view that God or the divine pervades every single part of the world. In this view, God is not distinct from the world, but by comprehending the world one is essentially comprehending God.

This latter aspect of McFague's theology is perhaps the most radical and also the most controversial as a necessary way to ground the ideas, images and metaphors that human beings use to understand God. For it means that human experiences of God are akin to experiences of the world and that in this approach was important in encouraging a 'turn of the eye of theologians away from heaven to earth'. However, it also means that, for critics, her theology does not encapsulate God's transcendence. As such, it may be that creating new terms for God such as 'anthropologising' God: taking concepts, traditions and wishes about human culture and applying them to a divine being. This does not mean that terms such as 'Father' are suitable, but it does mean that these terms have been given, granted them important transcendent connotations that are not inherent in the words themselves.

However, we might question the extent to which descriptions of God are constructed by culture. A critical reading of the Bible and Church tradition that many conservative Christians would argue that the term 'Father' may be one that is God-given and not a reflection of cultural bias. For many modern audiences, this argument is less convincing.

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can analyse the authorial context and influences on theology as a whole, why should we be critical? This question certainly comes to the fore in the next issue we will study: the use of male terms, it may be that this divine attribute is rooted not in scripture but in philosophical assumptions made by early Church Fathers.

Discussion Activity:

Do you believe that it is necessary to develop a non-masculine metaphors, to discuss in small groups or pairs

The Impossibility of God

As we noted that traditionally God is thought to be impassible, or unable to feel. An idea was often presented as the notion that God could not possibly suffer. When we consider how Jesus supposedly suffered on the cross. In the case of his suffering only as a human. Such a solution is thought to have the advantages of not contradicting the descriptions given in the Gospels but also solving the quandary over explaining how Jesus could have faked his emotions on the cross.

In fact, throughout most of Christian history, the idea of God being able to feel was considered implausible by many scholars, it was believed to be logically impossible. This belief was solidified at the Council of Nicaea in 325 CE, where a number of attributes were asserted to belong to God in order to combat the perceived heresies of Arian theology, which held that God was not supreme, but that the Son as Jesus was the first act of creation by God. This meant that everything came through the Son. This means that the Son was not coeternal with the Father, he had a beginning, and his divinity was less than that of the Father.

However, this idea about God being impassible is not strictly found in the Bible itself. It is the thought of Philo, a Jewish theologian who brought together many different ideas that many scholars believe influenced early Christianity. In Greek thought divine beings were not supposed to have a body, this characteristic, being transcendent, unchanging and eternal. For the Greeks, for a body to have these characteristics was an indication of weakness, and those people who aspired to be like the gods, they would be completely actualised as a constantly perfect and unified being. In fact, many Greek philosophical schools, such as the Stoics, thought human beings should embody apatheia in their lives, not letting passions rule what should be rational.

Nevertheless, when we look at the crucifixion with this ideal in mind, a wide number of questions emerge in explaining why Jesus appeared to suffer despite being fully God himself. Can we draw the conclusion that God is in fact able to suffer and feel emotion? Moreover, what is the detrimental impact on Christian theology, or could it even help explain other aspects where Jesus displayed human emotions, thoughts and feelings? We can begin our exploration with the thought of an incredibly influential twentieth-century theologian; Jürgen Moltmann.

Does God Suffer?

Moltmann begins his discussion of impassibility with an analysis of apatheia, the Greek concept we identified as the historical foundation for the orthodox view of an impassible God. He argues that although many councils such as that of Nicaea put forward that the Son is unchangeable and co-equal with the Father, this does not render the concept of God as *absolutely unchangeable*.

What Moltmann mean by this? Well, he argues that the statement at the Council of Nicaea in 325 isn't wholly clear on the nature of God's immutability and impassibility. It affirms that it is **anathema** to state that the Son of God can be subject to change. However, this is not the same as arguing that God could not change himself if he willed it. It is likely to have been introduced to excommunicate Arius and declare his thought heretical.

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broader theological discussion around a changing or unchanging God was perhaps implicitly concerned with establishing the Son and the Father as coeternal.

Therefore, through this distinction Moltmann affirms that it is possible for God to suffer. Such an idea isn't necessarily contradictory. If God does possess the power to create, why not the power to change aspects of his own being? At this point, however, we can pause for a moment in thought. Even if God could possess the power to change himself, why would God do so? If God is a benevolent, wise God supported by rational evidence, why would he? This is a more difficult question that Moltmann addresses in a very different way from many other theologians. In particular, he makes a key point in his analysis of the cross. An interesting move considering that, due to theological impassibility, the cross is typically taken to inform beliefs about the human, not divine Jesus. As we have already noted, for Moltmann divine impassibility is not absolute. So what is the point of God's identity and not simply a discourse on the human Jesus?

Before we get into a more philosophical discussion about this possibility, it is important to look at the details about the **passion** (trial, crucifixion and death) narratives in the Gospels, for Moltmann approaches the cross in a different way and Moltmann is keen to ground his ideas in biblical analysis. In the Gospels, Jesus is completely steadfast in the suffering of the crucifixion and on death cries out that he is God. For some New Testament scholars even, the crucifixion in Luke is an almost pure martyrdom, a matter of material necessity in order to reach the wider divine act of redemption.

However, one Gospel particularly stands out for Moltmann: Mark. The crucifixion in Mark is more difficult to comprehend, and it is Mark's passion narrative that Moltmann focuses on. It is here where Jesus cries out, 'My God, my God, why have you forsaken me?' (Mark 15:34). This is a phrase that theologians analysing the meaning of the crucifixion, particularly in relation to the Son of God, find troubling. If Jesus is fully human and fully God, for in this passage Jesus seems to be directly talking to God, how can he have abandoned him on the cross. If Jesus was fully aware of God's plan for him, why would he utter such a phrase? In his analysis, Moltmann identifies a *profound aporia*, a point of contradiction. If the divine Jesus would declare that God has forsaken him and emphasise his suffering, then the Father must have forsaken the Son.

Importantly, Moltmann argues that this puzzle is not adequately resolved by affirming the doctrine of the Trinity. If the Father and the Son are both coeternal and coequal, it makes no sense to arbitrarily separate them at the cross for the sake of mere human suffering. Moltmann argues that Jesus' cry here reveals the mutual suffering of both the Son and the Father. It is a difficult idea to wrap your head around initially, but the simplest way to understand Moltmann there are two different but intertwined forms of suffering happening on the cross: there is the suffering of the Father giving up his only Son, and on the other hand the suffering of the Son giving himself up for humanity. Therefore, for Moltmann, there is a difference between the suffering of Jesus at his death on the cross, and the suffering of God in his giving up of the Son.

But how can these two different kinds of suffering be connected if Jesus is both fully human and fully God? There is still the issue that the human and divine Jesus can't be reconciled in such a way. Moltmann argues that a trinitarian interpretation of the cross is essential to understanding the cross. If God is suffering at the crucifixion, then God is suffering alongside the Son. Even though their acts of 'giving up' are separate, they are connected by the love of God, which prevents a separation between the Father and Son through their suffering. It is the precedent of God suffering alongside human beings in their hardships. God for Moltmann is not distant and aloof, but is intimately connected to human beings. God is not only with us in our suffering but is intimately connected to our everyday lives.

However, the most important aspect of Moltmann's theology here is understanding the cross as a suffering of God. If we can ask: could the Father not have simply given up the Son without suffering? Moltmann's line of argument, so long as God is benevolent and looks to intervene in the world, should it matter whether he is capable of suffering in a similar way to human beings? If the answer to this question is yes, then the possibility of reconciliation with the divine God is possible, it can appear that the answer to this question is yes. From another perspective, the question of whether God suffers unveils a grander debate about the nature of God that Christians are choosing to place their faith in. Is it an overarching, transcendent being?

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with humanity miraculously in spite of the differences in ontology, or is it a God who is within creation, and expresses a direct solidarity with the lives and ordinary suffering context, the question of whether God suffers arguably retains a much greater importance in systematic theology, and influences the way Christians have faith in God. It is not one who voluntarily chooses to understand and undergo suffering, but one who loves for

For Moltmann, it is the radically personal God that is exemplified on the cross. The Father sends his Son and suffers as a result, but this is not a love that is voluntary and undertaken by God. The suffering that God undergoes is not brought about by human action but by God's own nature. The Creed is, therefore, not flawed when it states that nothing can bring about a change in God. Moltmann acknowledges that it is wholly wrong to characterise the giving up just in terms of suffering on the cross, by his own nature God is always able to overcome suffering with love and love.

This is undeniably quite a departure from traditional Christian thought, but, as we have seen, it is a great pains to ensure that his view is consistent not only with orthodox statements of the faith, but also with trinitarian theology as a whole. The biggest shift that Moltmann argues for is not evidence for God's nature rather than an abandonment of the divine at one of the key moments of the Gospel narratives. The death of Jesus therefore reveals the actions of the Father and lets us understand how God suffers from his love for the Son and his 'giving up' of the Son. God has both given up, and previously been given up by, God. It is an act of love that effects reconciliation between human beings and God for the rest of time, and lets us understand that we are connected to the world, beyond simply being a transcendent, impassible being.

Naturally, Moltmann's position sounds quite appealing. Wouldn't it be better to have a God who is willing to suffer alongside us? However, despite the inclination of some theologians to see this possibly as a comfort to one's own suffering, it is not one that should be embraced. Those who argue that the **pathos (invoking of sadness)**, in the Bible, should be resisted. Thomas Weinandy's book *Does God Suffer?*, argues that, despite the idea of God as suffering being appealing, it is theologically and philosophically problematic. He also points out the important public task of proclaiming and defending the faith. He dubs the idea of the suffering God to be a 'new orthodox' that is a departure from the compassion that should be seen as his primary way of showing solidarity with us. Rather than being consoled by the idea of a God simply experiencing grief, we are consoled by the idea of a transcendent, benevolent being intervening in the world and offering the promise of salvation to all who respond to his Son. In this sense, Moltmann's view is much more traditional concept of God, but also reiterates why this shouldn't stand in the way of having faith in such a God.

The main thrust of Weinandy's argument is twofold. The first is that the idea of divine suffering would prevent God from loving human beings, and he criticises Moltmann for writing that if God were suffering, he would be incapable of love. The second is that, despite the narrative being emotionally powerful, it is unreasonable and not backed up when one considers the God presented in the Bible that set him apart from the world. When one extrapolates from the Bible, God cannot be subject to from these biblical characteristics, one arrives at the same conclusion as the Fathers: God is immutable and impassible.

Weinandy's criticisms do make a good point. Should we be judging the character of God about what we wish from human relationships? Why should God, an omnipotent, omniscient, and benevolent being be constrained by human inability to love freely without suffering? While it may paint an emotionally appealing view of a suffering God, it also paints a false picture of God. If God is separated from the world, it does not mean that God is not personally involved in it. That Moltmann ultimately has to mischaracterise the orthodox view of God to make his argument a logical appeal than they might naturally possess. Such problems particularly when they consider bigger questions about the nature of the Trinity, the subject of the next section. The discussion around a suffering God is the relationship between the Father and the Son, and the relationship has perhaps seen far more controversy than any other throughout Christian history.

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B: The Trinity

Although Christianity is a monotheistic religion, believers hold God to be a Trinity. This is one being or substance, he is formed of three different persons: the Father, the Son, and the Holy Spirit. Each person differs only in his relationship to the others and the world. Each is still who God is, with all his divine nature and the powers that accompany it. So while many Christians might experience the Trinity in a different manner, they are still experiencing God as one. Similarly, while the Trinity remain distinct in theological study, they are all ultimately held to be different expressions of one God. Christians simply come to know God in different dimensions in different fashions: God the Father through his incarnation as Jesus, and the Holy Spirit as the continued presence of God in the world.

For many Christians, this is often a strange notion. In fact, many early critics of Christianity found a trinitarian yet monotheistic religion was contradictory. For them, if God was three distinct beings. However, a significant section of Christian theology has been devoted to the nature of the Trinity, from both biblical evidence and philosophical rumination on the relationship to the others. One important term to initially note is **perichoresis**; this is the way that each of the persons of the Trinity is related to the others and is one word accordingly translated as 'mutual indwelling', for while Christians regard the persons as distinct, they are also thought to be present in one another at all times.

As we shall see in this section, nonetheless, Christian theologians throughout history have faced challenges explaining how the Trinity should be both theoretically and practically. At the time of the death of Jesus, there were innumerable different ideas about who Jesus was and what his relationship to God was. The beginnings of orthodox Christian thought largely coming together at the first Council of Nicea in 325 CE and significantly progressing at the Council of Chalcedon in 451 CE. The Trinity posed a large number of theoretical difficulties for early Christians, it also brought up puzzling issues about the nature of God. For example, the relationships between the Father, Son, and Holy Spirit helped explain how God could be both transcendent and immanent, or unknowable and knowable.

How Did the Doctrine of the Trinity Form?

The doctrine of the Trinity did not emerge out of nowhere. There is strong biblical evidence for the Trinity, which was formulated by early Christians who were attempting to make sense of the New Testament. The New Testament contains many references to a triadic interpretation of God. The doctrine of the Trinity was codified into an official Christian doctrine as beliefs matured and developed.

'Go therefore and make disciples of all nations, baptizing them in the name of the Father and of the Son and of the Holy Spirit' (Matthew 28:19 NRSV)

'And when Jesus had been baptized, just as he came up from the water, suddenly the heavens were opened and he saw the Spirit of God descending like a dove and alighting on him. And a voice from heaven said, "You are my Son, the Beloved, with whom I am well pleased."' (Matthew 3:16-17 NRSV)

'And the Word became flesh and lived among us, and we have seen his glory, the full of grace and truth' (John 1:14 NRSV)

At the same time, it must be recognised that such language may have been intended metaphorically. Although the New Testament lays the groundwork for a trinitarian understanding of God, there were many variations of Christian beliefs in the first few centuries of its existence. The orthodox doctrines that we have today. In fact, one of the first major defenses of the Trinity and the Son and Holy Spirit did not occur until the beginning of the third century through the work of Tertullian. He was in considerable disagreement with his presentation of the doctrine of the Trinity and the nature of Jesus and his relationship with God that explicitly defined the Trinity.

For example, **adoptionism** taught that, just as the name suggests, Jesus was 'adopted' by God. Jesus as the Son is, therefore, not co-substantial or co-existent with God before creation.

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appointed as God's messenger later in his human life. Similarly, **Arianism**, named after Arius, suggested that although Jesus is the divine Son of God, he was begotten at a point in time after God. This suggested there was effectively a point in time where Jesus did not exist and God was not fully God or consubstantial with the Father, an effective denial of the Trinity. Finally, there was **Sabellianism**, which put forward that each part of the Trinity was simply a mode of expression of a single distinct person who was fully God in his own right.

In all these cases, fierce debate raged between theologians in the third and fourth centuries over the best way to understand God, and in the next section we shall take a deeper look at the issues mentioned – Arianism and Sabellianism. What may seem a trivial issue for non-Christians, the debate around the personhood of the Son took a rather tempestuous turn, with Arius and his bishop Arius being excommunicated from the Christian Church.

1. The Nature of Christ's Pre-Existence

The nature of Christ's existence, as you may well have noted already, took on a much more doctrinal disputes than perhaps any other theological issue. In fact, it can be argued that the debate over what it meant to be God's Son led to the beginnings of orthodox Christianity. As the church increasingly began to demand consensus and clarity about the beliefs of their peers, the issues that have become known, began when the presbyter Arius began to clash with the bishop Alexander of Alexandria over questions about whether the Son had a beginning. On the one hand, Arius insisted that the Son was **(brought into existence)** the Son, this moment necessitated a time when the Son did not exist. On the other hand, Alexander argued that this interpretation was heretical: it denied the doctrine of trinitarianism, where each person was regarded as of one coeternal divine essence.

So why did this issue flare up to begin with? Well, on the one hand, as you have noted, the scriptural evidence isn't entirely clear when it comes to the Trinity. Looking at the Bible, there are plenty of biblical references to a tri-unity interpretation of God, it is less clear whether they confirm or disconfirm identifying the persons of the Trinity as coeternal. The relationship between the Father and the Son implied that the Son was created in some way, and this is ultimately problematic for the view that the Son was created through the Son, there must have been a time, before the Son, when the Son did not exist. Another important point to understand is the important debate over the Greek words **homoiousios** (of similar substance) and **homoousios** (of one substance). Many in Arius' camp, including the emperor, argued that the Son were of one substance. Instead, if the Father begot or created the Son, the Son was of similar substance.

However, there are certain parts of the New Testament which do seem to suggest that Jesus should be thought of as coeternal and consubstantial. For example, John 10:30 states, 'I and the Father are one'. Jesus' statement here can be interpreted, depending on one's translation of the Greek, as Jesus literally identifying himself with God. This might especially be the case since he is responding to requests for clarification about his identity, and whether he is the Messiah. Similarly, in 1 Corinthians 8:6, Paul proclaims that there is one God, the Father, and one Lord, Jesus Christ. This could be interpreted as Jesus and God are the same, particularly if Paul is referencing the language of the Shema prayer from Deuteronomy. However, others might argue the use of the term 'kyrios' here. The Greek term 'kyrios' has many different meanings and could just refer to Jesus as being Lord, rather than God himself.

Other parts of the New Testament are equally ambiguous. For instance, Colossians 1:15 describes Jesus as the 'image of the invisible God, the firstborn of all creation'. The term 'firstborn' here suggests that Jesus himself was the first to be created, and this passage has been cited as key evidence for the view that Jesus was created. However, its supporters also cite 1 John 1:1-3. John sees Jesus stating, 'Very truly, I tell you, before Abraham was, I already existed either at a moment of creation before Abraham or coeternally with him'. This passage does seem to suggest the former at first glance.

Either way, it is easy to see how the debate became so divisive. On the one hand, there is the clear teaching of Scripture, while on the other hand there are the ambiguities over terms such as 'kyrios'.

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'essence'. For historians, although there is a fairly clear picture of the theoretical difficulties, it is difficult to trace exactly what Arius' views were, especially when most of what is known comes from the writings of his opponents. However, despite the nature of the conflict being difficult to trace, the First Council of Nicaea in 325 CE declared an abrupt end to the debate, declaring Arius' views as heretical. In particular, John 10:30 played a pivotal role in establishing the orthodox nature of the trinitarian persons.

The Relationship between Christ and God

So why did the Council affirm a non-Arian orthodox view of the Trinity against the controversy? Why was Arius so determined to state the case for a created or begotten Son? This historical question has a few basic theological reasons in light of other issues to consider. One of the most important of these concerns the relationship between the divine and human persons of the Trinity: are the persons of the Trinity coessential, consubstantial and coeternal? If the divinity of Jesus emerges, for how can a being that is infinite in every aspect become meaningfully with the human world? The creation of the Son for many early theologians was a way to effectively differentiate the earthly Son from the eternal, transcendent Father.

In many ways, the debate around pre-existence that came to dominate the Council of Nicaea later Council of Chalcedon in 451 CE, where participants grappled with how the human Christ interacted. In the end, the Chalcedonian definition was agreed, which declared two natures in one person, without ever quite explaining how these could be applied to what we saw in the birth narratives and resurrection, other ideas such as the kenotic movement emerged in order to account for this definition and these have been questioned by theologians. Altogether, even though one perspective emerged as orthodox, how the council defined the divinity and humanity of Christ remained that many four-century theological questions were left open.

Another important difficulty emerges when we consider not just the nature of the persons but their functions. If all the persons are coessential and coeternal, then how is it theologically possible to have various dimensions of creation which they interact with the world? In many ways, the debate about the Trinity becomes 'battered' or rendered meaningless by all the persons becoming involved in the same way. Theology now which attempts to work out how the dynamic of the Trinity fits in with the world in light of the declarations made at the Council of Nicaea, one of which was the **filioque controversy**.

The Filioque Controversy

To be accurate, the filioque controversy does not cover one theological issue but a range of controversies in the Christian Church centred around the **doctrine of procession**. The Holy Spirit 'proceeds' within the Trinity and the relationship between the three persons. This problem would take vastly more writing than is possible within this course, so we will look at how the controversy arose and the implications that its various solutions have.

So how did the controversy arise? Well, if you cast your mind back once again to the Council of Nicaea, you will probably be aware that one of the results of this council was the **Nicene Creed**, which presented the Church's orthodox beliefs for all clergy to follow. The council went on to declare 'the Holy Spirit proceeds from the Father', a belief that was not exactly controversial at the time. However, at the Council of Constantinople in 381 CE, attendees discussed a whole set of issues and, at the end of the council, the text of the Nicene Creed, omitting some old ones and including new ones. Most importantly, it added to the section about the Holy Spirit, adding:

...and the Holy Spirit, Lord and Giver of life, who proceedeth from the Father, who with the Father together is worshiped and glorified, who spake by the prophets.

Here, you will notice that the Holy Spirit is identified as proceeding from the Father, which is a necessary but not necessarily difficult to uphold. It may be that the Holy Spirit does work primarily through creation. However, a conflict began to emerge in the latter half of the sixth century.

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began to add 'and from the Son' to descriptions about the procession of the Holy Spirit. This led to the **filioque clause** and set the stage for a long-lasting conflict between what even today is the Catholic Church and the Eastern Orthodox Church.

Let's take a step back for a moment, though. Why did the clause become such a sore point? The Church is greatly divided on this question even today. On the one hand, it is clear that various circumstances between 550 and 1054 CE definitely contributed to what is now known as the separation of the Eastern and Western churches. The filioque clause played a large role in this, with Western churches arguing for its inclusion in Christian doctrine and the Eastern churches arguing that it was heretical, yet, by itself, it is difficult to envision why it caused such a split.

The procession of the Holy Spirit through both the Father and the Son was a topic debated by many early Church Fathers such as Cyril of Alexandria and Augustine of Hippo. Moreover, depending on one's perspective, much of the issue was the result of confusion when describing God. Some modern theologians have even suggested the filioque clause was a linguistic issue aggravated by historical conflicts between various religious figures and the death of Jesus. Moreover, the history of the early Church was marred by more internal hostilities and secular conspiring than can be listed here.

For example, in 1995 the Pontifical Council for Promoting Christian Unity pointed out that the Greek word 'ἐκπορεύεσθαι' and the Latin word 'procedere', although both commonly translated as 'proceed', have different meanings. The Latin term typically means 'to come through a mediate cause' rather than 'to come from'. When one considers that among many early Church Fathers, the statements 'the Holy Spirit proceeds from the Father and the Son' and 'proceeds from the Father and the Son' were used interchangeably, it is easy to see how confusion could have arisen. In fact, many Orthodox Christians are happy to accept the statement that the Holy Spirit 'proceeds from the Father through the Son' as a different formulation. As such, there are many modern Christian theologians who recognise the historical circumstances that led to the filioque controversy, there is still no reconciliation of the Eastern and Western churches on this doctrinal issue.

However, it is also important to consider the other side. There are still many theologians who argue that the filioque clause is a broader theological problem that cannot easily be reconciled. It is important to note that the primary reason conflicts emerged was because of a misunderstanding of the statement issued by the First Council of Nicaea or that issued by the Council of Constantinople. For clergy at the time, the introduction of the filioque clause represented a departure from the principles set out in the First Council of Ephesus in 431, where Clause VII decreed it was unlawful to add to the Nicene Creed. When Latin churches began to use the filioque clause, they were in effect setting out a different faith and denying the foundations of the Nicene Creed.

So there are clear reasons why the controversy emerged besides other historical factors. Furthermore, many thinkers have pointed out there are also equally important theological issues at stake: the doctrine of procession. For Latin churches, the filioque clause was seen as essential to the equality of the trinitarian persons. If the Holy Spirit proceeded from the Father and the Son, then the equality of the Son is undermined as it implies that the Son is not fully divine. If the Holy Spirit proceeds from the Father alone, again, it is possible to see how the filioque clause arises as a broader theological issue. If one argues that Christ is not begotten, then it is the same to argue that the Holy Spirit proceeds from the Father alone? It can well be argued that any sort of hierarchy in relation to the Trinity undermines the unity or equality between the persons.

At the same time, many Eastern theologians pointed out that claiming the Holy Spirit proceeds from the Father and the Son undermines the importance of the Father. Although all the persons of the Trinity are co-equal, it does not necessitate that there aren't certain hierarchical relationships between them in the natural and divine order. In fact, it may be that such hierarchy is necessary for preserving not only the absolute power of the Father but the identity of the Trinity. If the Trinity is understood as requiring complete equality in all the things, it can be argued that the filioque clause means nothing altogether except as a semantic distinction.

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A final important point to note is the disagreements over scriptural evidence. Those controversy have often pointed to John 15:26 as substantive confirmation that the Father alone. It states:

'When the Advocate comes, whom I will send to you from the Father, the Spirit of truth, who will testify on my behalf.' (NRSV)

On the surface, this does support the Father's claim in his position. However, this is not conclusive. Rather, it just makes an assumption of the idea of **double procession** in the Orthodox Christians. While there is no clear indication that the filioque clause is heretical, it is not clear that the filioque clause should be inferred from other parts of Scripture. John 15:26, where it is implied the Holy Spirit can come from the Son, and 1 Corinthians 12:13 and Philippians 1:19, which refer to the Holy Spirit using phrases such as 'the Spirit of the Lord'.

Overall, it is clear to see how the filioque controversy manifested itself from numerous causes. On the one hand, there is the lack of underlying scriptural evidence, difficult trinitarian unity and unresolved questions about the nature of the Son which aggravate the theological problem. On the other hand, there are linguistic difficulties, historical problems which have also drawn a schism between those favouring the filioque cause and those who oppose it. While there have been taken to reconcile the two sides, with most churches no longer claiming the filioque controversy is still as active as ever and looks set to remain that way in the future.

Discussion Activity:

Is the filioque controversy simply a linguistic/historical problem or does it reflect a deeper theological problem? Discuss in small groups or pairs.

6: The Atonement

The word 'atone' in a literal sense means to be at one or in harmony with something. In a religious context, it refers to someone who has undertaken to make amends for a wrongdoing. While the exact meaning in Christian theology, it is also not too far from it. For Jesus' death on the cross absolved human beings of their prior sins and enabled reconciliation with God. Without this singular, unique event, human beings would have remained separated from God and salvation.

On the surface, it is a very attractive idea, and, as you will have likely noted in the previous section, it is one of the most pivotal moments in the ministry of Jesus. However, while most agree on the importance of Jesus' atoning sacrifice, the actual theological details on what this event accomplished are not clear. What did Jesus exactly absolve human beings of, and why did this absolution occur? As we see, once we analyse the structure and form of the atonement, a whole host of questions are raised, and some scholars recently have questioned whether a doctrine of atonement is necessary or warranted at all. It may be that the concept is rooted in a historical context that is profoundly at odds with our moral and spiritual sensibilities today.

Breaking down the concept a little, however, it is possible to observe two components of the atonement. Religion John Hick in particular holds that there is a broad meaning and a narrower meaning.

1. **The Broad Meaning:** 'the process of entering into a right relationship with God... entering into a right relationship with God... the process of entering into a right relationship with God...'
2. **The Narrow Meaning:** 'a specific method of receiving salvation, one presupposes a particular context that we find the ideas of penalty, redemption, sacrifice, satisfaction, substitution, forgiveness, acquittal, ransom, justification...'

Why should we need to distinguish between these two aspects? Well, as Hick notes, the concept of atonement is important in Christian thought because it plays a pivotal role in what we can call the atoning moment at which human beings truly become open to entering a meaningful relationship with God.

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beyond this more general sense of the atonement, there is the actual method by which it is achieved and this method has been construed in a number of ways by theologians.

These were laid out in an influential 1931 analysis of atonement by the English theologian Karl Barth in his book *Christus Victor: An Historical Study of the Three Main Types of Theology of Atonement*. Barth identified three major interpretations of the concept throughout Christian history: the **Christus Victor** model, the **substitution** or **satisfaction** model and finally the **moral influence** model. Important to each of these ideas is fundamentally how they all possess shortcomings that make them unsuitable to adopt as official doctrine.

But why is there a theological vacuum in the study of atonement? Well, the issue is that there is no clear, within Scripture itself, for while there are plenty of passages which suggest that Jesus's death was an atoning event and brought reconciliation between God and humanity, the exact way in which the sacrifice functioned; for example, take a look at the passages below.

'and through him God was pleased to reconcile to himself all things, whether on earth or in heaven, by the blood of his cross.' (Colossians 1:20 NRSV)

'and he is the atoning sacrifice for our sins, and not for ours only but also for the sins of the whole world' (1 John 2:2 NRSV)

In both these passages, the relationship between atonement and the cleansing of sin is developed, but the nature of this pre-existent sin is not identified and nor is the nature of its cleansing identified. Such issues might initially seem trivial for ordinary Christians, but the matter whether we know how the atonement has occurred? If it is not enough to know that reconciliation with God is now possible?

To a certain extent, this perspective might be understandable. However, there are a number of issues that arise from this. The first is that sin is not simply some bad actions that Christians do but denotes a state of being where one is separated from God. Such a state is not just a bad action but a moving away from God through a transgression. When one delves into questions about the atonement, a number of other puzzling and difficult questions arise. Why would a loving God demand the sacrifice of his only son? Why would he demand the sacrifice of humanity as a whole? We can begin to probe this problem by turning to the Christus Victor interpretation of the atonement.

The Christus Victor Model

The Christus Victor model is the oldest and simplest model for the atonement. It is a substitution model, which we will study next, and is also sometimes known as the Christus Victor (as its name suggests) holds that the death and resurrection of Christ defeated the forces of evil, which were let into the world when Adam and Eve disobeyed God. This view was held by practically all of the early Church Fathers until Anselm put forward his satisfaction model in the eleventh century. So why was it so popular for so long?

Well, we have to consider the much more mythological view of the ancient world. In the Bible is often regarded as a symbol of evil, for much of Christian mythology the forces of evil were seen as acting in the world and that the world of God and the world of the devil were seen as separate. The atonement, therefore, wasn't simply a symbolic act but one which had real-world implications. The Devil himself were literally overcome through the death and resurrection of Jesus.

It is difficult to discern the views of early Christian thinkers how this actually worked. One influential position was a 'ransom' model that Christ was given as a 'ransom' to the Devil. The Devil, however, the Devil here was tricked, for he did not know Christ. The death of Christ's resurrection effectively lost the rights to human lives while the Devil was absent, this view is present in the writings of Origen and Gregory of Nyssa. However, this ransom wasn't really perceived as a transaction by early Christian thinkers and instead as a 'rescue'. For example, Irenaeus called the victory or ransom of Jesus's death 'Recapitulation'.

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in creation at the moment of Jesus' death. This means that Jesus' voluntary action is emphasised in early atonement theories. His death and resurrection were not trick sacrificial victory over evil.

At this point you might be wondering: well, what actually is exchange? Why is this theory it makes little sense for modern audiences to adopt this and other views. We do as ever being just round the corner and ready to turn our backs for his own. Similar to Jesus' death? How exactly did it work? What did it need to be overcome? There is a Victor model that aren't exactly explained by its proponents. This is not to say that trick. Many of their proponents. Some atonement feature elements of the substitution model, we might say, and Jesus' death was perceived to have important symbolic value. It was a story wrapped up in a lot of mystical thinking that we might be

As suggested that Christus Victor views of atonement are less about rationality, death of Jesus and more a passion or drama about the power of God, channelled through and liberating humankind accordingly. To a degree, this makes sense when we think of early Christians. For them, Christian dogma had not yet set in; discussing the nature of the atonement was less important than simply celebrating the victory itself. However, by the end of the 4th century, questions about the atonement took on greater significance. Christian thinkers began to ask not just *that* the atonement was but *how* it worked. Thus, we turn to the next model we shall study.

The Substitution Model

The substitution model is a wide set of theories of the atonement which are based on the idea of substitution for the punishment due to humanity for their wilful disobedience of God. There are many ways of explicating this idea. Substitution models came into vogue in the 11th century with Anselm's **satisfaction theory** of atonement, detailed in his famous work *Cur Deus Homo*. It was based on the idea of 'beings' disobedience in the Garden of Eden meant that God had been fundamentally dishonoured as a whole. This meant that there was a debt of honour to be paid to God, and if this debt was not paid, 'honour taken away must be made good by punishment must follow' (Book 1, Chapter 1).

What honour here means for Anselm. It is not simply some debt of honour that we typically imagine it, for God is no simple king or lord. Rather, honour for God is the relationship that the created world owes to its creator God. Simply put, we would not have our worldly benefits if not for God, and the fact that we disobeyed him constitutes a dishonour to God. At the same time, God is benevolent and ultimately would not seek to punish humanity for the dishonour they have done. But because the beings do not possess the means to satisfy such a grave debt through their own means, God requires us to pay back the honour God is due as a divine being. Therefore, God instead offered a way to satisfy this debt, in order to avoid the punishment humanity is due. Jesus, as both fully divine and fully human, was the one who paid the debt of honour to God, thus restoring the honour that God is due and reconciling humanity with him.

Anselm's theory is often compared with the similar **penal-substitutionary** model of atonement, which is popular in **Reformed theologians** such as Luther and Calvin. The structure of this model is similar to Anselm's, but the focus is very different. Rather than the satisfaction of God's honour, the penal-substitutionary model, as its name suggests, concerned with the **punishment** humanity is due to God for their disobedience. The comeuppance for human sin is. Calvin, for example, argued that the sin incurred by humanity towards a fundamentally righteous and just God requires eternal punishment. It is not that God punishes humanity forever, but, instead, God requires that sinners bear his condemnation, and that the punishment of human beings, such that the debt can be paid and humanity reconciled with God.

This might all seem a bit grim stuff, and you'd certainly be right in thinking that way. But it's important to remember that these beliefs about authority, honour and the way reparations are made are rooted in a particular worldview. Similarly, the Reformed theologians often had quite a pessimistic view of human nature. They held, for example, that human beings, they held, could not lift themselves out of their own damnation, and that they could be saved. Yet is this the kind of view that meshes with a supposed God who demands the blood of an innocent to save those who are guilty?

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We can pick out a few more issues from these questions. The first we can note is that forgiving, why does he demand satisfaction or punishment for human sin? Furthermore, if God satisfies all past transgressions, is there even any room or opportunity for divine forgiveness? If God demands the blood of an innocent human being rather than finding a way to reconcile misdeeds. Overall, the picture painted by substitution theories of atonement is not at all that of a stern judge who demands complete repayment or satisfaction for any infraction, but rather a whole for the disobedience of two, and refusing to forgive them. This idea of God is in direct contradiction with the loving Father portrayed in the Gospels, and it is easy to accuse theologians of their own misguided ideas about God being placed onto the atonement. Aulén's substitutionary model, which focuses on satisfaction and penal-substitutionary models of atonement, presupposes a view of divine justice that does not align with the modern Christian understanding of God. We can turn to a much more liberal model of the atonement, often referred to as the moral example model.



Discussion Activity:

Is there any satisfactory version of the substitution model of atonement, or does it represent a judgemental or even morally repugnant idea of God? Discuss in pairs or small groups.

The Moral Example Model

The moral example model is the theory about Jesus' death on the cross that is the least substantial. It is the third and last view of atonement presented. It presents Jesus' death as necessary in order to improve the moral sensibilities and grant them an insight into God's love for humanity and leading them to better relationships with others. The moral example model does not have as rich a history as other models. To an extent, its sentiments are present in all the other models we have studied. Many theories have not just focused on the way Christ's death fulfilled some sort of transaction, but also on the moral perfection Jesus exhibited throughout his life. Accordingly, for some theologians, the moral example model is separate it as a substantially divergent set of theories from more traditional views.

At the same time, the moral example model was originally presented by twelfth-century theologian Peter Abelard as an alternative to Anselm's satisfaction model. Abelard was quite liberal for his time, but more recently progressive theologians such as John Hick have developed it as a solution to the various issues we have identified with transactional models. In the substitutionary model, for example, it is easy to see the appeal of the moral example model, inspiring regardless of one's religious persuasion, especially in light of the persecution of Christians from religious and political authorities alike. His example of sacrifice is one that can inspire people to new ways of thinking and being, just like any other important event in history.

We noted at the beginning the difference between narrow and broad theories of atonement. The moral example model is certainly in the latter camp. As such, it may be unappealing for some to identify the exact reasons why the atonement reconciled humanity to God, yet it offers a broad, non-transactional meaning of atonement that can be accepted within human understanding of the world and their modern sensibilities. In his view, there is not a single doctrine of atonement in Christian theology, and unless there is a compelling reason to consider it important, then it is unnecessary to cling to a doctrine that focuses on the teachings of Jesus himself.

Hick draws attention in particular to how the atonement has been developed in the West, as opposed to Catholic or Protestant traditions. He argues that in the former there has been a death of Jesus as a source of spiritual life, whereas in the Western world views the atonement as a transactional model that satisfies all of human sin for God. In particular, he notes the importance of **theosis** in light of the atonement – the gradual spiritual growth that humans achieve as they achieve oneness and union with God. The atonement thus has an experiential component that is ignored by transactional theories. What matters is not how divine death but how it influences human beings to perform good deeds and grow spiritually.



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However, you might well have noticed that this shift in emphasis represents a much substitution model and the moral example model. The former was wholly concerned with what occurred at the atonement event. Whatever model was adopted, it detailed a series of events that actually occurred at Jesus' death on the cross, regardless of whether one subscribed to the substitution model. Conversely, the moral example model is focused only on the **symbolic** changes that occurred at the event. Jesus' death does not really bring about any real change in the world, only in the hearts of those who witness it. Why is this difference important to note? Well, not all Christians, whether they be liberal or conservative, are exactly happy with such a subjective explanation of the atonement. It can be argued that the substitution model, or moral example model fail to justify the necessity of Jesus' death but it also does not deny that Christians should even live a good life in the first place. There are plenty of examples of individuals living their lives for others; why should Jesus' sacrifice be special? If the atonement is simply a turning of the heart towards God and not simply towards living a better moral life, then to deny that Christianity alone has the keys to salvation, these questions are not special and was one of many important moral and spiritual events that occurred in the world. If this undermines the foundations of their faith and ultimately fails to give any sense of importance at all. We can thus ask at this juncture: do we even need a doctrine of the atonement?

Is There a Need for a Doctrine of Atonement?

The atonement is still studied greatly today, yet it is not always clear why. Does Jesus' death bring about a shift in human beings' state of sin? This very change is predicated in the first place by the fact that human beings are already being separated from God due to the actions of Adam and Eve in the Garden of Eden. A mythological explanation seems very at odds with our modern scientific world view. It seems to say that human beings don't possess original sin and Jesus' ministry as a whole is predicated on the relationship with human beings and God, not just his death on the cross?

This is not a far-fetched view. Biblical scholars have increasingly in recent years begun to question support theories of atonement at all. Many of these scholars look for the **historical** Jesus rather than the Christ. They do not necessarily see his death as being particularly important. For example, E P Sanders, who is a leading scholar of first-century Jewish tradition, argues that Jesus saw himself as the founder of a Jewish sect. He holds it is only in the context of how the death of a major religious figure can change the world, that we can understand the context of how the death of a major religious figure can change the world, the context of how the death of a major religious figure can change the world, the context of how the death of a major religious figure can change the world. However, he notes it is equally not necessary to believe that Jesus' death was a sacrifice, and it may well be the case that his disciples and followers attributed his death as their own form of vindication of his person.

Sanders' views are not universally agreed with, but they do provide a foundation for a new understanding of atonement. Moreover, it can be noted that even modern transactional models of atonement have escaped the trappings of their historical counterparts. For instance, we can briefly summarise a contemporary theory of the atonement in his work *Responsibility and Atonement*:

1. Human guilt/sin is the primary obstruction to redemption and salvation in God.
 2. Reconciliation with God requires repentance, apologising, reparation and penance, and a heartfelt regret.
 3. The way human beings morally engage with each other is the same as the way they engage with God.
 4. Sinning against human beings is also sinning against God, for individuals are duty towards him to live a good life.
 5. While human beings can repent and apologise towards God, they cannot give penance, for the only thing that can atone for a sinful human life is a perfect human life.
 6. Jesus Christ is the only person who could provide the perfect human life as atonement for human sin. He is the only one who can bring of reparation and penance for human sin.
- According to this theory, atonement can only come to those who worship Jesus Christ and recognise his sacrifice. Salvation therefore comes through participating in the Christian Church, the Bible, and the sacraments.

At first this might appear quite agreeable. Swinburne simply takes how we view atonement and maps it onto the relationship human beings have with God. So long as we accept that Jesus' death was a sacrifice, and that we need to atone for our sins, then this theory seems to work. However, it is worth noting that this theory is not universally accepted, and it is worth noting that this theory is not universally accepted, and it is worth noting that this theory is not universally accepted.

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cause some degree of separation between God and human beings, then it is possible that God is required to atone for their actions.

However, at the same time, we arrive at similar issues to those with other theories of atonement. Simply put, why does an omnipotent, omniscient, benevolent God require atoning reparations or penance? In fact, as Hick notes in his criticisms of Swinburne, subjecting requirements as humans is 'anthropomorphic and idealistic... unimaginative to a degree that is implausible'. In the same way as Anselm's satisfaction theory of atonement by appealing to honour, Swinburne does the same by appealing to his everyday ideas about atonement. He arguably still assumes that human beings are in objective need of atonement and that God's wrath or righteousness requires atonement in the first place. Regardless of which theory of atonement we choose, the need for the atonement can't necessarily be assumed. We need to spell out the reasons why atonement is required for human beings as a consequence of the nature of God.

Quick Quiz

1. What is immutability, and how does it differ from impassibility?
2. What does McFague mean when she talks of 'reimagining' God?
3. What does Moltmann mean when he talks of a 'suffering God'?
4. What is the issue of Christ's 'pre-existence' in Christian thought?
5. What is the filioque clause?
6. What is the Christus Victor model of atonement?
7. What is Anselm's satisfaction theory of atonement?
8. What is the moral example model of atonement?

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THEME 3 (AS) / THEME 2 (A LEVEL):

What you will learn in this section:

A (AS Level) or D (A Level)

The theological and historical debate around the nature of justification, including:

- Luther's arguments for justification by faith alone and his views on Scripture
- the issues the Council of Trent presented against the Reformed views on justification
- E P Sanders' 'covenantal' approach to justification involving both faith and works

B (AS Level) or E (A Level)

Theology surrounding the Church as a community of believers, including:

- the way the early New Testament community is a model for the Church today
- the different roles of the Christian Church, including provision of worship and pastoral care
- the theological debate around the main roles of the Christian Church today

C (AS Level) or F (A Level)

The various moral principles that form Christian ethics, including:

- the role of key moral principles such as love thy neighbour, forgiveness and the Golden Rule
- the theological debate around what is the most important moral principle
- the way God's behaviour towards humanity can be a model for Christian ethics

Starter Activity:

What do you believe are the key ethical principles that define Christianity today? How do these compare to your studies as you work through sections E and F?

Key Thinker

Name	Martin Luther
Born	1483
Died	1546
Why is he important?	Luther was one of the most important figures in the Reformation, questioning many traditional Catholic doctrines but also translating the Bible into German, which made it accessible for many more people throughout Germany.
Did you know?	Luther's translation of the Bible had a vast impact beyond scripture, as it had a strong influence on the first mass-produced English translation, the King James Bible, and helped standardise the German language in the sixteenth century.

Introduction – What is the Religious Life?

It might seem strange to question what the religious life means for Christians, but throughout the Church there has long been a debate about what should be the primary focus of those who follow Christ. Should it be a life led in worship of God, or should charity towards one's fellow humans be the primary focus? Should a decline in religious observation be a cause for concern, or is it simply a natural part of life? Moreover, this issue concerns not just individuals but the Church as a whole. The religious life is typically a communal one. People congregate to worship together, to support one another, and to live out their faith in the world. Does this mean one has extra duties to those of the secular world? Should all individuals follow the same path?

These questions have no easy answers. In the early days, schisms have emerged over what the primary focus of the religious life should be. For some, worship of God may be essential for a practising Christian, but is it sufficient in order to achieve the purpose of the Christian life? This theme will cover this question, looking at whether justification can be achieved through faith alone, or whether works are also necessary. The second section will look at the role of the Church, questioning whether it is a model for the right Christian life. The third section will look at the role of the individual Christian, questioning what its primary roles are in the modern world. The fourth section will look at Christian moral principles, evaluating which are most important and how they should be lived out in everyday life. Throughout, you should hopefully gain a well-rounded understanding of what the religious life means for Christians today, and what theoretical and practical issues are tested against both historical and present theological conflicts. To start, though, we will look at the relationship between faith and works in the Christian faith.

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Faith and Works

The best way to introduce this section is by asking this simple question: do you need to achieve salvation? On the one hand, if the answer is 'yes', then we're left with the question of how virtuous or morally good atheists could effectively be condemned for their lack of belief in the existence of a benevolent God. On the other hand, if the answer is 'no', then we're left with the question of what is important or distinctive about Christian moral teaching, and hence why the Christian faith is so important. What this question addresses is the dilemma that has long been a central part of the Christian faith. Should the Christian life be dependent on performing right actions or developing a relationship with God that leads to saving grace?

The first concept is commonly called **justification by faith**, and it refers to the idea that a person can be saved by having a committed faith in God's power to save humanity. Unless a person has faith in God, it can be argued that they simply do not deserve the right to be with God in the afterlife. Only those who are unreserved in their belief in God's grace can justifiably call themselves Christians and be rewarded for this belief. The latter response is commonly called **justification by works**. The thought behind this concept is that salvation is dependent on a person being good and righteous throughout their life. Those who are wicked, conversely, are those who do not deserve salvation or the chance to be unified with God in the afterlife.

There is a deeper tension between these concepts when one looks at the various biblical passages that support them. One of the most difficult aspects of justification by works for Christians is that it implies that human beings possess the means to achieve salvation of their own power. While this might seem like a good thing, it takes away the need for God's grace and raises questions about the role of the Church. It forms an important part of the Gospel narrative, as it implies that human beings can save themselves. At the other end of the spectrum, justification by faith implies that human beings are so corrupted and do not have significant power. Moreover, it stands in contrast to Jesus' call to goodness and righteousness in the Gospels. If human beings are so corrupted, then why are they needed to achieve salvation?

As if there is a simple answer: both justification by works and by faith. However, as we already noted in the first question raised that this too has unintended consequences. If justification by works is all that matters, what is the role of the Church other than to enforce obedience to the law? If justification by faith is all that matters, is religious observance even necessary? Such questions were central to the divisions during the Reformation, and, as we shall see throughout the rest of this section, they are still relevant today in theological discourse.

Nevertheless, the difficult and intractable nature of this problem has not stopped theologians from trying to provide a solution. Thus, we shall first take a look at the views of a deeply influential tradition: Martin Luther.

Martin Luther and Justification by Faith Alone

Luther was a German priest and seminal figure in the Reformation who we previously looked at in the context of the development of the Bible (particularly the New Testament). One of the key issues that led to the Protestant rejection of the Catholic Church was one of many which Luther took up against the Catholic Church at the time. At the time, the Catholic Church was spurring on the practice of **indulgences**, these were payments made to the Church in exchange for forgiveness of sins. Between 1510 and 1520, where he began to develop his ideas on justification. Whereas in Catholic tradition the role of the Church was central in matters of salvation, Luther began to preach a doctrine of justification by faith alone. He argued that salvation is entirely the work and will of God. Human beings as fallen beings do not have the power to save themselves out of their own corruption, and it is only faith in the saving power of God's grace to be received. However, it is important to also note that faith itself does not

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instrument or means by which salvation is received. Luther summarises his position as an overview of his work until that point:

The first and chief article is this: Jesus Christ, our God and Lord, died for our sins for justification (Romans 3:24–25). He alone is the Lamb of God who takes away the sin of the world. God has laid on Him the iniquity of us all (Isaiah 53:6). We have thus been justified by His grace, through the redemption that is in Christ Jesus, in His blood. It is necessary to believe. This cannot be otherwise acquired or grasped by any works, law or merit. Hence alone, men are justified – namely, when they believe in that which God promises. And it is the Father's merciful will that such faith be freely given and earth and everything else falls (Mark 16:17). Amen. (Luther, Martin. 'The Smalcald Articles,' Part II Article 1)

It may seem quite an extreme position, but it is worth briefly considering the religious landscape at the time of the Reformation. The Catholic Church was an immensely powerful institution, capable of drawing together armies, deposing rulers and facilitating political careers. Moreover, there was an increasing perception that the Church was fundamentally corrupt, particularly around the granting of indulgences. These were (and still are) acts taken to reduce the punishment a person undertakes for their sins during their lifetime. Originally, indulgences were primarily intended for the dead and other good people to engage in a process of forgiveness of their sins, but by the time of the Reformation abuse of indulgences was rampant, with priests and other clergy effectively selling indulgences at the highest bidder.

Reorienting Christian thought around both the Bible and the religious individual was a key importance for Luther. The doctrine of sola fide effectively removed the work of the Church and places the burden on the individual to engage with their faith. Works are good deeds but the very actions of the Church are seen as corrupt, which were (not always necessarily) sin. When justification is through Christ alone, the only role the Church has is to preach the Gospel and help individuals understand its meaning, for Luther holds that justification is a one-time event but a process which allows individuals the power to become holier and closer to God.

It is well worth noticing, though, in the quote given from the Smalcald Articles that Luther's doctrine of sola fide is not a rejection of the Catholic Church but by a complete reinterpretation of Scripture. In the next section we shall explore some key ways that Luther drew upon the letters of Paul to influence his scriptural support for his beliefs.

Luther and the New Testament

The issue of faith and works is complicated when one turns to Scripture for there is both being part of Jesus' ministry. Throughout the Gospels, there is a clear call to faith in the saving power of God, yet at the same time there are plenty of passages emphasising the importance of good works. Perhaps one of the clearest examples of the latter is the parable of the sheep and goats in Matthew 25:31–46:

'Then he will say to those at his left hand, "You that are accursed, depart from me into the eternal fire which has been prepared for the devil and his angels; for I was hungry and you gave me no food, I was thirsty and you gave me no drink, I was a stranger and you did not welcome me, naked and you did not give me a garment, you did not visit me when I was in prison, and you did not comfort me." (Matthew 25:41–43 NRSV)'

Here, salvation and damnation are spelled out in clear eschatological conditions. Good works lead to eternal life, and wickedness is the path towards eternal punishment. But what is the premium of faith over works? To find this out, we have to turn to his treatment of the Epistle to the Romans.

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Justification and Romans

Romans is the longest and densest of the epistles, and most New Testament scholars written by Paul himself (there are a few of anonymous authorship). For theologians presented somewhat of an intellectual challenge, with many considering it to be a work outside the Gospels. Throughout, Paul writes on the nature of justification of faith in Christ for early followers as a path towards salvation. However, throughout the Reformation scholars generally agreed with the Catholic interpretation, which virtuous life. This was largely original to Paul in Romans 2:5–11:

'For he will repay each one's deeds: to those who by patiently doing good, they will give eternal life; while for those who are self-seeking and wickedness, there will be wrath and fury.' (Romans 2:6–8)

However, when Luther began lecturing on the epistles, he started to arrive at a view that although works are held to be important by Paul, there are significant parts of suggest that justification by faith comes first. For example, we can look to both Romans clear examples of supporting evidence.

'For in it the righteousness of God is revealed through faith for faith; as it is written: live by faith.' (Romans 1:17 NRSV)

'Therefore, since we are justified by faith, we have peace with God through our Lord Jesus Christ.' (Romans 5:1 NRSV)

Here, Paul seems to suggest that righteousness is subordinate to faith. While the view built off prior committed belief and obedience to God. This is the source of good works, faith cannot in turn be living a good life. However, Paul's Epistle to the Romans importance to Christian life. In 1523, Luther published the Epistle authored by Luther, he important piece in the Reformation. It is purest Gospel. It is well worth a Christian memorize it word for word and also to occupy himself with it daily, as though it were a law. Hence, the Epistle to the Romans as not only scriptural evidence for justification by faith, but also for salvation. Understanding it was central in order to live a good Christian life.

'Then what becomes of boasting? It is excluded. By what law? By that of works? No, for we hold that a person is justified by faith apart from works prescribed by the law.' (Romans 3:27–28)

However, at the same time, there is some evidence to suggest that Luther may we read his own views into Romans. In 3:28, he controversially translated the verse so through faith' instead of the version given above in the NRSV. While there is good translation was in circulation in Catholic circles prior to Luther's study, the word 'faith' original Greek text, and Luther had to defend his view here from Catholic critics within his interpretation.

However, Luther does not stop at drawing on Romans for evidence. He refers to other in the epistles. These include Ephesians 2:8–9 and Galatians 2:16.

'For by grace you have been saved through faith, and this is not your own doing; it is the gift of God, not by works, so that no one may boast.' (Ephesians 2:8–9)

'For we know that a person is justified not by the works of the law but through faith in Jesus Christ Jesus, so that we might be justified by faith in Christ, and not by the law, because no one will be justified by the works of the law.' (Galatians 2:16)

Here, there do appear to be clear parallels with Paul's statements in Romans, and views human works as insufficient for achieving salvation. This is not to suggest that

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(holding there are no religious laws) but that faith in Christ resulted in a state of love and righteousness. Thus, it is important to recognise that the law issues from love and are still necessary for salvation, but they do not cause salvation. As such, Luther's position of a believer who possesses faith but nothing else, but he still relies on works for justification solely comes through faith and not works. As he states, 'Faith is a product that helps doing good works constantly. It doesn't stop to ask 'good works' ought to be done if it already has done them and continues to do them with increasing.'

However, as we noted earlier in the discussion of Romans, there does appear to be within the epistle itself some ambiguity as to whether the other epistles do truly clear perspectives. So now we can turn to an analysis of the Epistle of James, in particular

Epistle of James

Like Romans, the Epistle of James discusses faith and works extensively. However, it presents a different picture of their relationship, in particular verses 2:14–26. In fact, so contradictory is the teaching that he explicitly had to reject their validity when it came to his doctrine of justification. Writing following his death has had to explicitly accommodate or defend James and his teaching by critics of Luther's theology. Let's take a look at some key parts of this section of 'Faith without Works is Dead':

'What good is it, my brothers and sisters, if you say you have faith but do not have works? If a brother or sister is naked and lacks daily food, and one of you says to them, "Go in peace, be warmed and filled," and yet you do not supply their bodily needs, what is the good of that? So faith by itself is dead.' (James 2:14–17 NIV)

'You see that a person is justified by works and not by faith alone. Likewise, faith was made alive in her when she welcomed the travelers and sent them out by another way, without the slightest hesitation. Faith without works is also dead.' (James 2:24–26 NIV)

At first glance, the epistle seems to quite explicitly argue that faith alone is not sufficient for achieving salvation. So why did Luther reject James, despite the clear teaching? Well, there has long been significant debate over the authorship of the epistle. Unlike James the apostle from the third century, there were some early Church fathers who doubted this claim and considered whether the text might be **pseudepigraphic** (written by an author). Moreover, it was not part of the **Muratorian Canon**, the earliest documented list of the New Testament books. Furthermore, there are a few pieces of evidence to support the notion of a non-apostolic author: it does not invoke any special relationship to Jesus in the introduction, and the rather elaborate Greek is at odds with the Jewish origins of the apostles. At the same time, there are significant similarities between the actual content of the epistle and Jesus' teachings, and there is little dependency on Paul's teachings.

Nonetheless, Luther in his early career was very critical of James, denying it was the apostle's writing and describing it as an 'epistle of straw'. He pointed out it contained very few references to Christ and held that it was just the writing of a Jewish person who had never seen Christ. There is evidence to suggest this view softened later in his career when Luther held the epistle as authoritative teaching. Nevertheless, it remains part of Luther's **Antinomianism** – a doctrine that was highly disputed – to this day for even if Luther did hold the importance of James as secondary to the writings of Paul, which were regarded as more extensive, detailed and authoritative for justification. The **Augsburg Confession** (one of the founding writings of the Lutheran Church by Luther), holds that while it is good for individuals to first be good themselves by good works, the Lutheran theologians, on the other hand, conventionally argue that the righteousness proposed by James. Instead, James asserts the close connection between faith and works, how righteousness is pronounced when people witness good works flowing from faith, and how good works and cannot exist without them.

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These ideas are echoed in Luther's original writings, even if there is a slight tension between the authority of James and then seeking to show how it is still consistent with the doctrine of Lutheran thought morphed into perhaps the more nuanced position in James, simply of true faith without accompanying good works. However, in the next part of this chapter, responses to Luther, particularly from the Council of Trent.

Discussion Activity:

What New Testament texts do you think are the most important when evaluating justification? Discuss in pairs or small groups.

The Council of Trent was the 19th ecumenical council of the Catholic Church and convened between 1545 and 1563, roughly divided into three phases. It was primarily prompted by a number of Reformed theologians and clergy who had begun to command the allegiance of many governors around Europe. Despite some minor attempts at reconciliation, the council became a Counter-Reformation movement, with the Catholic Church issuing condemnations of theologically typically proposed by Protestants. Furthermore, it resulted in clarifications and provisions for dividing the two denominations, one of them, of course, being justification. This took place in the sixth session and ended up with the council rejecting and condemning a number of ideas by Luther. One of these was, of course, sola fide, with the council instead supporting the modern Catholic position on justification. But why was the council so vehemently opposed to sola fide? A number of key reasons, arising out of both scriptural analysis and prior Catholic doctrine.

The first was that Luther's and other Reformers' conceptions of justification were based on the **reception of grace**. Not all Protestants came to hold this idea. In short, it put God as the one who ultimately chooses who will be saved, and human beings do not play a part in this. Sola fide and in the eyes of many Catholics, the two are intertwined. If the works of the process of salvation, then grace is not something in which human beings participate but is bestowed on those who are deemed to be faithful. Now, there were significant figures such as Luther and Luther about the nature of how grace worked, but the council was clearly emphasizing the importance of **human cooperation** in matters of salvation.

However, the Council of Trent was naturally keen to emphasise in this way how salvation is a process between God and man. It is a process in which there is no single moment of justification; both are contained in a continuous acceptance of God's grace and an equally continuous response. This is the principle Jesus endorsed during his ministry. Acknowledging this helps understand other qualms with the Reformation. If justification is by faith alone, then such a position could lead to how certain works could lead to condemnation. In particular, the Catholic Church argued that justification is not permanent and can be lost through the committing of mortal sins. **damage one's relationship with God**. In other words, the Council of Trent took umbrage because it implied serious sinners could receive salvation so long as they were faithful today, justification is a process which is intended to purify the individual from sin. If one sins egregiously, they cannot be purified.

Finally, the Council of Trent opposed sola fide as it suggested it implied that human beings could receive God's grace. Such a suggestion runs counter to the mystery of God and salvation, and the 'confidence' over knowing who will be saved and who won't be justified and saved. It is an oversimplification of the faith and mission, but it is an important point to note. In justification, the process of salvation was viewed by the Catholic Church as essential to the faith and mission; it was given to those who were faithful before all things. One cannot effectively judge who will be saved and who won't. The Council of Trent argued that implied individuals can acquire **eternal security** for salvation through works. However, through mortal sins or the unknown will of God, one should always acknowledge the face of God and not claim to know the workings of his divine plan for humanity. Or

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follow Jesus' example in the hope that one might be justified, rather than believing the faithful.

Finally, it is important to note how the declarations of the Council of Trent intersect Scripture, for the Council also rejected the Protestant idea of **sola scriptura**: that the authority in the Christian faith. Rather, it argued that sacred tradition was of equal authority. When one takes this into account, it is easy to see how Catholic objections to the Reformation proceeded. Analysis of Paul's letters could not have proceeded without the guidance in the view of the Council of Trent. Reformed theologians such as Luther had no Clavis in his views on justification. In essence, these views were just one person's take on the historical traditions that were present in the Catholic Church.

As you might well note that we're now at a bit of a crossroads. On the one hand, the point that human work should not decide justification, yet the response from the Reformation that denying human works implies unobtainable knowledge or security of salvation. So who should we support? Well, for clarity, we can look to the work of a more modern theologian.

E P Sanders and the Role of Works

So far, we have broadly analysed two sides to the debate around justification. On the one hand, Reformed views such as Luther's. These have emphasised a position of **sola fide**, arguing that human works play no part in justification. Christ's death was a final decisive action in salvation history, and there is no human power of God's will. Instead, through faith, God declares the faithful to be justified and one is assured of being saved. On the other hand, there is the Catholic view, which holds that justification is a cooperative, synergistic process, requiring the active participation of a human being in both right faith and works. Only then is the possibility of salvation raised for an individual, and even then, justification may be lost through mortal sinning.

However, both of these positions have been seen as imposing a certain view on Scripture, glossed over and the tension created between the two theological traditions. What if we look at the view of E P Sanders, who argues that a historical approach to understanding early Jewish traditions can yield great insights in this topic. A big part of Sanders' approach is the re-examination of key parts of Scripture, such as Paul's letters, in light of earlier Jewish Temple period (516 BCE – 70 CE). Sanders in particular is a key proponent of analysis in the context of the Jewish milieu within which they are likely to have been composed. Christianity was probably strongly Jewish in nature.

Why is this important in the context of justification? Well, we talked about how Luther rejected the law as necessary for justification. Such a rejection was emblematic of both his often expressed distrust in legalistic thinking, which he believed was rejected by St Paul in Romans. Luther's interpretation of Paul misses the mark. He puts forward from analysing Scripture that the Judaism of Paul's time was not overly legalistic, despite the depiction of groups like the Sadducees in the Gospel. In fact, much of early Christian writing is so often caricatured as rabbinic Judaism. So while we might intuitively read Paul as rejecting Jewish legalism, it is a misreading. Paul certainly rejected key Jewish practices such as dietary restrictions, but he was not necessarily rejecting the Jewish theological approach to justification.

So what is this approach? What Sanders suggests that justification encompasses being considered in the covenant with God. The idea of a covenantal people, the Temple Judaism that Sanders describes their views of salvation during this period. In short, this means that people are elected to be in the covenant with God in order to remain in this covenant. Sanders sums this up in eight steps:

1. God has chosen Israel.
2. God has given the law.
3. The law implies both God's promise to maintain the election and...

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4. the requirements to obey.
5. God rewards obedience and punishes transgression.
6. The law provides for means of atonement.
7. Atonement results in maintenance or re-establishment of the covenantal relationship.
8. All those who are maintained in the covenant by obedience to the law and faith in the promised Messiah will be saved. (E P Sanders, *Paul and Palestinian Judaism*, 1977, p. 103)

So applying this to Christian thought, Sanders argues we can make sense of the importance of faith in justification. While faith is important for Christians as a way of joining a covenant, it is equally important to follow the moral teachings of this Church in order to be justified. This involves both faith and works, and Sanders rejects the Reformed view of sola fide. Justification is a process, not a one-off act, and is maintained by those who accept it.



Session Activity:

Do you believe the New Testament letters support sola fide, or are works required for justification? Discuss in pairs or small groups.

The Community of Believers

The Christian Church has long been the most visible sign of the religion across the world. While not all Christians engage with the Church to some degree, and many accordingly align themselves with a particular denomination. Although this is often due to upbringing within a religious community, Christians also personally choose the church they attend, and this choice can reflect personal preferences. Moreover, such choices often arise out of individual reflection about faith. Many go beyond simply teaching and educating people about the faith, but also engage towards engaging followers in various forms of worship, evangelism and community.

Before we get into these aspects, however, it is just worth detailing how the term 'church' is used in different contexts. As you most probably will have noticed in your studies, 'the Christian Church' can have different meanings. On a universal scale, the church is often held to refer to the entire community of Christians, or at least those who profess faith in Jesus Christ. This may just be faith in the ethical teachings of Jesus, or a full-blown theological belief in his identity as saviour of humanity. Either way, it refers to the **community of believers**, whether or not people view themselves as such.



However, the term is often used on this smaller scale. Within a denomination, it may refer to that section of Christianity. For example, 'the Catholic Church' will often refer to Catholics as 'the Church', even while they recognise the existence of other denominations. On the smallest scale, as we all know, the term 'church' often refers to a local parish or congregation that gather under one roof. What's important to recognise is that, irrespective of scale, it refers to a community. Whether it be only a small Bible study group or the entirety of the Christian Church, it is the faith in Jesus that ties together all these individuals as a church. Thus, it is important that we understand this before looking at the various roles the Church undertakes.

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Activity:

Research your local church and note down the various services, programmes and activities it offers. Throughout this section, compare these with the various roles put forward by the Church of England, and whether they cohere!

The Community of Believers as a Model for the Church

Two of the main roles of the Christian Church arguably lie in the **Great Commission**, the instructions given by Jesus to his disciples in which they are ordered to spread the good news of the Gospel. This is particularly prominent in Matthew 28:16–20, where the instruction is given in terms, implying that the apostles were carrying on the work of God through their preaching. From the time of Acts, this idea is reflected in the early work of Peter, who preaches the Gospel to the Gentiles.



miracles himself. However, beneath these grander acts are indications of how the Church was founded as we know it today.

'Go therefore and make disciples of all nations, baptizing them in the name of the Father and of the Son and of the Holy Spirit, and teaching them to obey everything that I have commanded you. And surely I am with you always, to the end of the age.' (Matthew 28:19–20 NRS)

For there is scriptural evidence to suggest that the early Church had common practices and beliefs. Reading through Acts 2:42–47, one can get a sense of the early Church through community, unity and engagement. This included distinctive ideas of charity that were reflected in their ministry. In this sense, the Church at its very beginning was a community. The apostles were blessed accordingly with the divine power to perform miracles. These miracles not only strengthened their preaching of the Gospel but also reinforced their beliefs at the core of their religious community.

'Awe came upon everyone, because many wonders and signs were being done by them in Jerusalem. They were all together and had all things in common; they would sell their possessions and goods and distribute the proceeds to all, as any had need.' (Acts 2:43–45 NRS)

Naturally, considering our previous historical analysis of Acts as part of the section on the early Church, the more fantastical elements of Acts 2, whether it be Peter's conversion of 3,000 people or Jesus himself performed miracles, yet we can also notice that, despite these elements, the text focused on discussing the way the apostles put Jesus' teachings into practice. In Acts 2, the text emphasised that early followers sought to embody the ascetic ideals that Jesus embodied. They gave up their possessions, gave up property and gave to those in need. Their lives were a constant focus on spreading the good news to those who hadn't heard.

Moreover, there is an emphasis on religious practice and forms of worship. The early Church was encouraged by the author of Acts to spend much time in prayer, at the temple and at home.

'Day by day, as they spent time together in the temple, they broke bread at home and ate heartily, praising God and having the goodwill of all the people.' (Acts 2:46–47 NRS)

In the activities of the earliest followers, we can see five main aspects to focus on evangelism: spreading the good news to those who were ignorant of the Gospel, considering the very small number of Christians existing after Jesus' death. Without the Gospel, the Church would effectively cease to exist within a generation. Second is religious teaching, more precisely, the teaching of the life that Jesus represented. Moreover, Acts puts great emphasis, as we noted, on the charitable service within the early Church; it was not enough to preach the gospel –

The fourth aspect concerns religious practice. Followers were not simply working on their own prayers, traditions and practices centred around praising Christ. The early Church helped develop the fifth aspect: fellowship. The early community of believers was not just a group of people; it was the renewed social life this faith gave them, and the opportunity to develop strong relationships. Thus, considering these five aspects, we're in the position to ask: to what extent should the modern Church model itself on this early community? Are there any major differences or changes? And, importantly, is there any role of the Church in the modern world? The next part of the section will explore in the next part of the section.

Can we believe the early Christian community can be a model for the modern Church? While there are many differences in culture, situation and belief for them to be compared effectively, it is still important to consider the role of the Church in the modern world. The early Church was a small group of people, but it was a community that was united by a common faith and a common purpose. The modern Church is a much larger and more diverse group, but it is still a community that is united by a common faith and a common purpose. The early Church was a model of community, and the modern Church should strive to be a model of community.

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The Role of Christian Churches

To some extent, all these original beliefs and practices by early followers of Jesus were shaped by the way they are implemented or guided by Church doctrine can vary quite significantly. Some place much more emphasis on religious practice, ensuring that all followers have the opportunity to participate in a communal setting. Others, however, hold that the primary role of the church is to focus on cultivating fellowship. Some still even have a strong focus on evangelism, particularly in the early churches, which place great stock in spreading the Gospel to new communities and nations. In this section, we will look at how each of these five aspects of the early Church is implemented and how they emerge as a result.



Sacraments

The Eucharist and the Eucharist are two rituals that are considered to be **sacraments** by many denominations, including the Anglican Church, the Catholic Church and the Orthodox Church. It is one of the key duties of the Church to carry out these rituals and ensure that they embody Jesus' ministry and the history of the Church. This is because sacraments are not just ways of symbolically remembering Jesus' example but distinctive outward signs of God's grace. In other words, they signify God's continued presence in the Church and its members, and demonstrate the inward commitment those followers make to the teachings of Jesus.

However, you may well remember from your studies in Year 1 that not all denominations recognise the same sacraments. Moreover, there are strong disagreements about the ways one should perform them, such as baptism, and some denominations have quite radically different forms of worship, which do not fit into a sacramental mould. For example, the Catholic Church recognises seven sacraments: **baptism, confirmation, reconciliation, anointing of the sick, marriage, Holy Orders**, and the Eucharist, while the Anglican Church recognises only the first two. The schisms that emerged at the time of the Reformation were partly due to the overbearing role of the Catholic Church in the past, and many Christian people and movements have since placed more importance given to ritual over teaching and doctrine. Of particular issue for many centuries was what they viewed as the watering down of the Gospel to sacraments. In other words, the practice should be sacramental unless connected directly to the teaching of the Gospel.



Therefore, the role of the Church in carrying out sacraments is not to guide people to Church doctrine but instead to ensure that they reflect Jesus' teachings. Some Christian movements go even further than this. The **Quakers**, for example, do not perform sacraments and instead gather in groups to undertake silent meditation and participatory discussion from reading Scripture. On the other hand, the Orthodox Church tends to view all sacraments as essential, although setting aside certain key practices as more important than others. Although carrying out sacraments is an important Church responsibility, the very nature of what a sacrament is varies incredibly widely from denomination to denomination. This means that it is not always clear what role guiding the practice of sacraments is a primary role for the Church or not.

At the same time, discussion of the nature and practice of sacraments can obscure the importance of a general place of worship for Christians. While **private worship** is incredibly important, many also consider **public worship** to be an indispensable part of Christianity. The focus is on the place for the purpose of worship and, regardless of sacraments, it is a place where people can express their faith and trust in God. Whether this be through public services or more private prayer, it is often a place of peace and reflection, where they can focus their attention on God and not be distracted by the concerns of the outside world. Therefore, it can still be a key role as a place of worship, regardless of how certain worship practices are carried out.



Teaching

Teaching is often seen to be an obvious responsibility, but a key role of the Church has always been to teach. In other words, this is teaching on how to live a properly Christian life. This might include teaching on the ways that any ordinary person can follow in order to adhere to the will of God, yet it also includes religious teaching that goes beyond simple moral guidance. As you will have explored in your studies, the Church has a long history of teaching and guiding its members.

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wide range of advice about the meaning of life itself, and religious teaching may w
their lives in new ways, whether this be cultivating new attitudes or thinking about
Furthermore, many Christian denominations still teach certain cosmological ideas.
These might be beliefs about the nature of God or the way God is connected to the
often has particular beliefs not found elsewhere, and religious teaching in many churches
in contrast to other groups and movements.

Moreover, most Christian services emphasise the kind of **liturgy**. This is the form
teaching which in effect scribbles what goes on during a service. Not all churches, how
distinction is often made between **liturgical** and **non-liturgical denominations**. The
former liturgical churches focus on the kinds of worship involved in a service but a
these are those imparted through readings of Scripture or sermons given by
rulgies also vary in their strictness. In the Catholic Church there is a fixed
members can receive a balanced education on the teachings of the Church in

However, it is equally important to consider non-liturgical denominations. Of key
those that place much more emphasis on experiencing the Holy Spirit during service
Although there are many Pentecostal movements which still engage in routine Bib
many who eschew extensive Church teaching for much more dynamic services, wh
express their faith how they wish. In these forms of **charismatic worship**, as you w
are questions about whether they reflect the real teachings and emphasis of Jesus
such non-liturgical services may reflect the dynamic beginnings of the early Church
that there is much more attention given to proclamation over direct ethical and sp
Christian movements which adopt charismatic worship in their service. In these case
teaching is not the primary role. Instead, it is to inspire Christians and let them exp
Holy Spirit in their own lives.

As a last point, it is important to note that the efficacy of religious teaching is often
Bible in Christian communities. Many Protestant churches adhere to either sola sc
so hold that tradition and the Church are of secondary importance to the Bible. In m
Protestant churches, the main function of the Church is simply to guide stud
teaching that grants followers the tools to fully understand the message of
ions should also not undermine the importance of religious teaching in t
tion and the Church are viewed as sacred. In this case, church services and oth
Church are one of the main sources of information about the doctrines of the Cath
religious teaching is arguably just as important as study of the Bible, if not more so.

Mission

We explored how **evangelism** is contained in the foundations of the Christian Church
explicitly sets out how Christians have a responsibility to engage in missionary activity
certainly present in nearly all Christian denominations today. However, an equal in
good interfaith relations between Christian denominations and other religions, and
many churches take another look at how they engage in evangelism. In the w
encyclical *Redemptoris Missio*, written by Pope John Paul II, re-emphasises the importan
extensively about how missionary works can be performed in a successful manner.
evangelism should be differentiated and prioritised depending on who it is directed
those of other religions, to those of other religions, to those of other religions who have lost touch

A similar document was produced by the Anglican Church in 2010 titled *Sharing the
echoes many of the same themes within *Redemptoris Missio*, for there is a distinct re
Christian denominations that missionary efforts in the past have been some
the welfare of communities they have been directed at. The Catholic Church
e criticism for its evangelical activities in developing countries, where it has
the needs of local communities and cultures. At the same time, there is a healthy C*

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world, and for Christians who view their religion as having essential messages coming from individuals hearing the message of the Church outweighs these criticisms.

However, in recent years, many Christian mission efforts have been more internalised within the Western world. Evangelism has not been directed towards converting with a sign towards individuals in Christian nations who no longer actively practice the faith. This is later, due to the increased secularisation of the Western world, but also due to the worldwide religion. Simply put, most people do not need introducing to the Christian faith as they already have an awareness of it, not a full-fledged appreciation. This stands in stark contrast to the world which had to engage in evangelistic activities or simply cease to exist. It might be argued that the Church is no longer the primary focus of the Christian Church and instead charitable service and outreach is the primary focus by which the Church engages with the outside world.

One important point to consider, for there still are many Christian movements that emphasise the importance of evangelism. For example, you have already explored the revivalist movements and new churches across the developing world are reaching out to Western countries. These churches, particularly those evangelical in nature, which still regularly engage in mission and outreach in the world. This is in contrast to major denominations, which tend to view mission work as secondary to outreach. By engaging in charitable works or corresponding with the local community, the Church can reach the Church through more natural means. There is, therefore, a deeper question about the role of the Church to be construed as a singular role for the Christian Church, let alone a primary one. If the Church's role is up resulting in inadvertent harm or draws attention away from performing good deeds, then evangelistic activities should be of secondary importance to teaching and outreach. These are intimately intertwined, as we shall explore in the next part.

Service and Outreach

We hinted at the notion that mission is not necessarily a solitary activity. Often it is seen as a joint enterprise with the local church's service and outreach programmes, for when we take even a brief look at Jesus' ministry, it is easy to see how his various healings and miracles were intended not just to demonstrate his divine power or to help those in need. In other words, Jesus led by ethical example and his good works as a way of attracting people to hear his message. In the same way, the Christian Church places a high value on a myriad different activities intended to help both the local and global communities.

Covering the former first, most churches will at the minimum hold courses and classes for those joining the Christian faith. However, many will also do community work, whether it be to help with social difficulty, assisting organisations such as food banks or performing a variety of other tasks. The aim of these activities is both to help those who are most disadvantaged in the community and to present the church as a place of solace and safety which individuals can turn to if they need to. Many charities and charities operate in your area which are tied to the Christian Church!

Many Christian charities and organisations, however, also act globally. Many of these are denominationally tied; CAFOD, for example, is a Catholic agency that works to alleviate poverty and suffering in developing countries. On the other hand, Christian Aid is a non-denominational Christian charity that once had evangelical roots but now primarily focuses on providing aid to poor countries across the world. While such organisations do not actively evangelise, they are an important part of Church mission. Although helping others in need is an important part of the Christian faith, it also serves as a means by which the Christian faith is all about and can be seen in their own faith.

The final role we can explore for the Christian Church is that of a place of fellowship for individuals, their faith is a defining part of their identity, and naturally the Church will want to actively talk about it to others who share the same sentiments. However, the sign

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people's lives, and the central narrative of redemption and salvation within the Church. To equate it to a mere interest is understating the meaning of the Church for many Christians. It is much more than just a group of people who share similar ideals but an entire world united under the teachings and message of Jesus Christ. This is the main reason why many denominations see the Church itself as a sacred thing. This is the main reason why Christians can find solace and comfort in their faith.

What is the Main Role of the Church?

Throughout this section, we will explore a number of different roles that the Church plays. The different denominations might have different views on the importance of these roles. For more traditional churches, such as the Catholic and Orthodox churches, the focus may well be on teaching, worship, and sacraments, especially considering the more prominent position these denominations hold. Established denominations and Christian movements there might be a much greater emphasis on evangelism and mission, such that their unique vision or ideas can spread to new people. The different dimensions of their faith.

Beneath these different aims, though, are also various theological and philosophical foundations. Those modelling themselves after the early Christian community may well argue that the primary role of the Church, especially considering Jesus' call at the Great Commission. Whatever the role, if the Church is not working towards saving as many as people as possible, then it is failing in this role. Some may well argue that it is too easy to give undue focus to this call, or to overly prioritise evangelism. Rather, any evangelism work should be tied into service and outreach, just as it was for Jesus. The main aim of the Church should be to provide religious teaching.

This idea might especially come to the fore when one considers the importance of sacraments. For Catholics, the Church is sacred in itself, bestowing sacraments and ensuring they are performed by the earliest Christians and their successors. In this sense, providing sacraments and teaching as they preserve the central role of the Church. However, for other denominations which have eschewed many of these traditions, the central aim may well be just of evangelism. In this view, the Church has no authority in and of itself; it is just an institution dedicated to the service of God. There may be a wealth and knowledge of wisdom in the Church, but it is not the Church itself.

Therefore, it is important to understand how the roles of the Church are defined by different Christian denominations. In the next section, we will explore what key moral principles might be most important in the Christian faith.

Key Moral Principles

It is likely that in some way or another you have encountered Christian moral principles. Many of the common ethical sentiments we express have their origins in Christianity. The Christian whole has had a deep impact on the way we think about ethics. At the same time, there are debates both around what moral principles the Bible puts forward and how these are applied to modern ethical dilemmas. In particular, it is not clear whether there is a set of principles that should be employed equally. Similarly, there are questions about the extent to which Christians should accommodate them in their everyday lives. Is a Christian required to tell the truth to everyone, no matter what they have done? Jesus, during his ministry, if acting as a moral teacher, set a very high bar!

Moreover, Jesus is often seen to embody virtue-based ethical thought as much as rule-based. Christians are not just to follow guidelines but to improve their moral character so that they act well instinctively rather than for the goal of salvation by itself. The ultimate aim of Christianity as well as a spiritual one is the goal of following Jesus' example. This is centred around the notion of **agape**. This is a Greek term commonly defined as a love towards humankind and God which is thought of as the highest form of love, for it is selfless. Therefore, even if there is a situation in which the circumstances point towards being

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agape love would still mean one seeks the best for them regardless. We will explore how we come to the importance of compassion and forgiveness in Christian ethics.

It is finally also important to stress the importance of the Church in facilitating and upholding these principles. Although we explored in the last section how the Church can be seen as a body that helps spread and encourage the good virtues exemplified by the Christian, a moral beacon for Christians where they can go for ethical guidance, whether they are the laity. What is key is that Christianity encourages a fellowship among humans, and a key example of this fellowship and a organisation dedicated to developing it. This fellowship to spring from one of the key moral principles, which we will look at next: love.



Loving thy neighbour is one of the best-known Christian moral principles, and in many forms of Christianity it is a key principle for moral guidance in Christian communities. It calls for a loving attitude towards others, even if they were next door to us. However, there are a few important clarifications to note. The 'neighbour' here implies a universal solidarity with all human beings – an egalitarianism that transcends social boundaries. This idea in particular can be found in many of the teachings and parables of Jesus in his ministry. Most notably, we can draw attention to the parable of the good Samaritan.

When most people read this parable at face value, the initial meaning seems obvious. However, such a reading ignores the important cultural context behind its telling. At this time, the Samaritans were largely hated and distrusted by the Jewish people. The historian Josephus records an incident in which a crowd of Jews destroyed the Samaritan temple at Gezerim. Tensions were also high around the time of Jesus' ministry, with the Samaritans desecrating the Jewish Temple at Passover with human bones. So the inclusion of this parable in Jesus' teaching is likely to have been controversial from the outset!

Moreover, the parable sees not a priest or Levite, individuals dedicated to the service of God, but a Samaritan, a man of the man, who had been robbed, beaten and left for dead. The implication is that the Samaritan, who was not a Jew, may have been concerned with ritual purity, as the Samaritan was not only thought to be defiling. So Jesus' parable here sees a Samaritan helping a Jewish person, saving a Jewish person from near death while his countrymen were more concerned with helping those in need but to help them regardless of their social standing. The parable may well have been taking a swipe at the overly legalistic or puritanical attitudes that are depicted as common among the religious authorities in the Gospels.

'He answered, "You shall love the Lord your God with all your heart, and with all your strength, and with all your mind; and your neighbor as yourself." (Matthew 22:37-39)

The parable of the good Samaritan effectively emphasises the central role of agape love when its cultural context is considered. Moreover, it implies that love effectively entails a commitment to **social justice**. Loving thy neighbour is not just a case of loving one's neighbour; what love really entails is expressing a universal commitment to show love to those who are poor, marginalised and sick.

'You have heard that it was said, "You shall love your neighbor and hate your enemy." But I say to you, Love your enemies and those who persecute you' (Matthew 5:43-48)

This strong understanding of loving thy neighbour is shown in the composition of Jesus' ministry. Jesus is often portrayed as being in conflict with the religious authorities, particularly the Pharisees, who were being disserved by the hierarchical interpretations of the law. Jesus was seen to prioritise moral goodness over religious principles. However, at the same time, Jesus was probably not advocating an overturning of Jewish law, as many of these laws were rooted in the Old Testament. For example, Leviticus 19:34 sees God speak to Moses and say that the stranger who lives with you shall be as one of you, and you shall love him as yourself, for you were strangers in the land of Egypt.



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'The alien who resides with you shall be to you as the citizen among you; you shall love the alien as yourself, for you were aliens in the land of Egypt: I am the Lord your God.' (Leviticus 19:34)

This statement comes in the context of God having led the Israelites to safety out of Egypt. In response to the oppression the Jewish people faced there, this is an equally radical statement as the Samaritan. It calls for the Christian community not to be wholly inward-facing in its love. Love is something that should be given universally. As individuals are Christians, a greater understanding of this idea of love is needed. A look at God's relationship to humanity takes a deeper look at in the next part.

God's love and the human condition

There is a focus on love in the Christian faith, or where does this love have its roots? In discussing Christian ethics that its principles can't be analysed in the same way as secular ethical ideas. Many parts of the Bible illustrate how the love human beings have for one another is mirrored in the love God has for humanity. In fact, the various narratives of the Bible are a kind of salvation history, in the sense that they trace God's loving investment in the world over time. This arguably begins in the earliest moments of Genesis and continues onwards to the New Testament where God's protection of the covenantal Jewish people is explained as a manifestation of his love.

*'The Lord, the Lord,
a God merciful and gracious,
slow to anger,
and abounding in steadfast love and faithfulness,
keeping steadfast love for the thousandth generation,
forgiving iniquity and transgression and sin,
yet by no means clearing the guilty,
visiting the iniquity of the parents
upon the children
and the children's children,
to the third and the fourth generation.'*
(Exodus 34:6–7 NRSV)

God's love reaches its peak or zenith in the New Testament, where God sends his only Son to Earth as a sacrifice for human sin. You previously explored the various models of redemption and atonement in Year 1, and how figures such as Moltmann viewed the cross as a direct example of God's love for humanity and solidarity with their suffering. Although, of course, there are various reasons given as to why the crucifixion was necessary, theologians on the whole have viewed God's willingness to bear the consequences of human sin as emblematic of the unconditional love he has for humanity. Even in moral example theories of atonement, the importance of the cross as an example of love can be stressed, even if Jesus is viewed only as human and not divine. What is clear is that in an important sense the cross is not a necessary act; it is a voluntary expression of love for humanity and a willingness to sacrifice oneself in order that humanity might be saved.

Furthermore, it is key to stress how the dimensions of this love are illustrated in the Bible. We used to describe God's relationship with humanity in terms of Father and Son. As the Son, familial terms that are often used in Islam, into how Christians talk about God. In an important sense, human beings are God's children also, and this makes all other human beings our sisters. The idea behind this relational image is that it is essential for Christians to understand their relationship with God not just with God but with all other human beings. The concept of love is not just a power but a concrete reality which paves the way for understanding the world as a whole.

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‘Those who say, “I love God,” and hate their brothers or sisters, are liars; for those who love God must love the brother whom they have seen, cannot love God whom they have not seen. The converse of this: those who love God must love their brothers and sisters also.’ (1 John 4:19–21)

Thus, the model of God’s love and relationship to humanity forms an important basis for the Christian faith. Agape is due to God and all other human beings because of the love we have to them as children of God. This idea is seen in the verses of 1 John 4:19–21, where brother and sister is made explicit as part of the familial framework for which God is the basis. However, at the same time, it also raises the question whether such language is appropriate towards human beings, who are not expected of human beings themselves? Even if we expected them to act on God’s example? In an important way, the moral example of human beings are naturally fallible, ignorant and incapable of the universal love and behaviour as such might give reason and justification to act lovingly in one’s relationship with God. As saying throughout this course, the intentions and nature of God are of a higher degree.

The same may be true of the very images and metaphors we use to describe God’s relationship to humanity. Although familial terms are a useful convention, they probably fail to do justice to the complexity of humanity in the Christian faith. This raises the prospect that while God’s behaviour is the basis of Christian morality, it is not an exact model. In fact, we might well be better off put God’s behaviour as the basis, especially considering the different kinds of atonement that are presented in this course companion. Moreover, the Old Testament is often noted to present a God who does get angry, is jealous and is wholly concerned with justice. There are many instances in the Old Testament when God explicitly punishes human beings for their transgressions, with the destruction of Sodom and Gomorrah in Genesis.

So using God as the basis for Christian morality does come with some challenges. In one sense, God is mysterious and unknowable, meaning that the principles and ideas we use to judge his actions are limited. On the other hand, the picture of God throughout the Bible can vary greatly and does not always represent the ideal of agape as presented by Jesus within his ministry. Therefore, it is important to note that while God is the basis for Christian morality, it may well be that the figure of Jesus or another source of moral principles than God. In the next few sections, we explore another foundation for Christian moral principles.

Discussion Activity:

Do you believe God’s actions in Scripture are a good basis for Christian morality?

Truth and Honesty

Another important virtue often put forward in Scripture is that of truthfulness and honesty, which is typically oriented around being good and loving to one’s neighbours, such as in Ephesians 4:25. However, beneath this call to honesty there is a broader message about the importance of fellowship, for the Christian Church as a community is considered to be one body, one Spirit, one Lord, one faith, one baptism, one God and Father of all. This section of this theme, and in order for such a community to flourish, it is important to build on its foundations.

‘So then, putting away falsehood, let each of us speak the truth to our neighbors, for we are members of one another.’ (Ephesians 4:25 NRSV)

Thus, it is important to note the aspects to honesty here. The first is the naturally human tendency to lie, but the second is the consequences in building a community. Honesty itself is necessary for fellowship; it is not possible to trust others if one does not speak the truth. This highlights another important relationship between honesty and love towards God. In essence, God’s love requires a certain honest cooperation from us. This is seen in 1 Samuel 12:24.

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'Only fear the Lord, and serve him faithfully with all your heart; for consider who you.' (1 Samuel 12:24 NRSV)

Honesty, in an important sense, is linked here with faith, for it is not possible to be transparent about one's misgivings and wrongful deeds. In the context of the sacrifice of Jesus and the goodness he shows towards them, honesty towards God is a proper response, yet this in turn requires another important Christian moral principle to explore in the next part.

Conscience

We have seen how honesty is linked to moral improvement. However, there is a specific virtue that connects the two: **conscience**. This term is used in a number of ways, but it is referred to as a moral sense each person possesses that naturally distinguishes between good and bad. Some Christian theologians have even suggested that conscience is a voice within human beings to help them along the right path. However, there are a number of different views on the term. While it certainly might help steer right behaviour, it can also sum up the state of mind people find themselves in.

'Indeed, this is our boast, the testimony of our conscience: we have behaved in the sincerity, not by earthly wisdom but by the grace of God—and all the more toward

In this sense, conscience is a state of moral honesty: an acknowledgement of the good and bad one has done in their life. Moreover, 2 Corinthians 1:12 here suggests that it is important to have a clear conscience. This means repenting for one's past sins and attempting to be more morally upright in the future. Conscience is linked with both honesty and the idea we should explore next. For example, Romans 2:13-15 forward that Christians should be aware of themselves as sinners. To suggest that someone lacks conscience is to suggest that they are not aware of their sins and seek forgiveness for them.

'The saying is sure and trustworthy for acceptance, that Christ Jesus came into the world to save sinners, of whom I am the foremost.' (1 Timothy 1:15 NRSV)

What we can turn to the final important moral principle that Christians see as central to their faith is forgiveness.

Forgiveness

One of the central messages of Jesus' ministry is the importance of repentance and forgiveness. As God, he is the ultimate judge, the only being capable of wholly forgiving sin, and, as we know, forgiveness requires honesty about one's shortcomings and the possession of a clear conscience. However, even if forgiveness can be granted only by God, this does not mean that we should not forgive each other in all circumstances. This point is made strongly in Colossians 3:13, where forgiveness is placed on a par with many other important Christian virtues.

'As God's chosen ones, holy and beloved, clothe yourselves with compassion, kindness, gentleness, and patience. Bear with one another and, if anyone has a complaint against another, forgive each other as the Lord has forgiven you, so you also must forgive.' (Colossians 3:12-13)

Naturally, this call to forgiveness is perhaps one of the most difficult moral principles to live by in many ways, as it ties in with the call to love one's neighbour as a universal moral principle that applies regardless of context or circumstances. Even if someone has done grave wrong to you, Christianity is what we call 'forgiveness'. Forgiveness is central, therefore, to a Christian's moral life. As Matthew 6:14-15 states, unless Christians forgive others, they cannot expect God to forgive them.

'If you forgive others their trespasses, your heavenly Father will also forgive you; but if you do not forgive others, neither will your Father forgive your trespasses.' (Matthew 6:14-15)

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What is the Most Important Moral Principle?

This is a difficult question when considering ethics. There have been some religious thinkers who have suggested that the overriding principle in Christian morality is the promotion of good. One of the most prominent of these was a Christian thinker who argued that this was the only important principle and there were no other important rules that Christians were obliged to follow. In fact, the most loving action according to the situation at the time. Fletcher termed his moral theory 'situation ethics' and held that many practices such as abortion and euthanasia were potentially permissible in certain circumstances.

Now, situation ethics is quite different (at least for Christian ethics), for commonly Christians are taught that there are many moral principles, ideas and virtues that are important. In fact, it is not just one principle that is important. However, Fletcher's ideas mean that Christians could be perceived as being selfish if that was the most loving action. While this might seem extreme, it does reflect the complex nature of many moral problems. Sometimes people have to make difficult choices, and we should not hold a grudge against people who have to make them. They are acting to demonstrate the most love possible.

However, aren't ideas such as honesty, forgiveness and even justice important? Agape is an example, as we noted, is as much about having a clear conscience in following what is right as closely as possible. Fletcher's ethics seems overly subjective and open to interpretation. It is about demonstrating agape love, and it can easily be argued that truth, honesty and forgiveness are naturally intertwined with love, not separate from it. While Christians should always strive to be the most loving, this should always be in light of other virtues that Jesus declared to be important. It is not just about love, but the most important moral principle but instead equal to all the other ideas that contain within them. When evaluating what Christian ethics holds to be important about love, it is we must consider how principles interact and how Christians can realistically follow them in their everyday lives.

Discussion Activity:

What do you believe to be the most important moral principle in Christian ethics? Discuss this in pairs or small groups.

Quick Quiz

1. What is sola fide?
2. What scriptural text does Luther argue is antilegomena?
3. What is covenantal nomism?
4. What is the Great Commission?
5. What is a sacrament?
6. What is agape?
7. What text does the phrase 'Love your enemies and pray for those who persecute you' refer to?

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THEME 4: RELIGIOUS PRACTICES THE RELIGIOUS IDENTITY

What you will learn in this section:

- A. The theological debate around the practice of baptism in the Christian Church:
 - whether infant baptism is justified with reference to the views of Augustine
 - the argument for and against baptism, with reference to the views of Karl Barth
- B. The theological debate around the nature and practice of the Eucharist, including the different ways the Eucharist is practised across Christian communities:
 - Catholic theories about the nature of the Eucharist, including transubstantiation and transfinalisation
 - Protestant theories about the nature of the Eucharist, including consubstantiation
- C. The theological debate around the identity of Christian festivals, including:
 - the diversity in Christmas celebrations, particularly between Eastern Orthodox and Catholic traditions
 - the diversity in Easter celebrations, particularly between Eastern Orthodox and Catholic traditions
 - whether there are any unifying ideas or principles behind the celebration of the Christian world

Starter Activity:

In your own time, look up on YouTube or another video platform how different churches (the Catholic and Eastern Orthodox traditions) celebrate the Eucharist at Christmas. What can you notice? Note the most obvious and compare with your sources as you watch.

Key Thinker

Name	Augustine (Hippo)
Born	354
Died	430
Key text	<i>Confessions</i> (397–400), <i>City of God</i> (early fifth century)
Why are they important?	Augustine is probably the most influential of the early Church Fathers. His ideas about creation, eschatology and original sin have shaped modern Christian theology on a wide variety of topics, including free will. However, his views have often gathered controversy and many modern thinkers have criticised the dogma that original sin is passed on to all humans.
Did you know?	Augustine was an unlikely advocate for the abolition of slavery, writing in the <i>City of God</i> that the institution was the result of original sin and unbefitting of those seeking God.

Key Thinker

Name	Karl Barth
Born	1886
Died	1968
Key text	<i>Church Dogmatics</i> (1932–1962)
Why are they important?	Barth is one of the most influential twentieth-century theologians, a Reformed theologian in nearly every topic imaginable and who has had a profound impact on Protestant thought alike.
Did you know?	Barth was a key member of the Confessing Church in the 1930s, who opposed the Nazi Party. He was even deported from Germany for not signing an oath of loyalty to Hitler.

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Introduction – Worship and Practice

In Theme A we explored the role of the Bible in the everyday lives of Christians. Or briefly mentioned, however, was how the Bible was a source of information about festivals that Christians engage with throughout the year. To a certain extent, it is the basic reasons why Christians celebrate at Easter or Christmas, but the deeper events are richer theological issues that are still discussed today. This theme will, therefore, explore why Christians engage in certain kinds of worship and practice. We will take a deeper look at why different thinkers offer diverging perspectives on the nature and importance of worship activities.

In particular, one of the two different forces creating tension between Christians is the significance of tradition. Should Christians as a whole have historically professed their faith in God and what this faith has signified have been practised in the Church in a similar fashion for thousands of years? It is important to maintain such traditions against the modernisation or transformation of them. At the same time, religious practices are to a degree affected by more liberal trends. Do Christians adhere to certain traditions even if they make sense only within a more traditional context? Or does it seem out of place when a more scientific perspective is adopted?

Throughout this section, you should think about these two questions and evaluate them on what philosophical or theological merits they might have but on the way they are practised. Questions about religious practices are not just intellectual speculation but have a real impact on being Christian today and may have ramifications beyond simply a change in the way Christians choose to engage in.

A Bit of History

The first question we can ask when we look at baptism is simply: why are Christians required to be baptised? At the very least, it is a rite of **adoption**; it signifies the moment when an individual chooses to begin a relationship with God under Christian teachings. As such, baptism is often called **Christening**, referring to the person being taken up by Christ during the event. It is likely that you or someone you know has been baptised during their life. Even as the UK becomes more secularised, many parents still choose to have their children baptised at an early age, a ritual appropriately termed **infant baptism**. However, increasingly parents are choosing instead to let their children make the choice themselves when they are older. Different denominations, as we shall see, don't even perform infant baptisms, requiring that the individual be of age and reason before committing themselves to a relationship with God. Being baptised is often referred to as a **believer's baptism** (although 'adult baptism' is often used), and this section will examine the various arguments for and against both infant and adult baptism in the context of different Christian traditions.

But first, it is worth quickly looking at what baptism involves. In the Catholic and Anglican traditions, baptism typically involves **aspersion** (a sprinkling of water over the head) or **affusion** (a pouring of water over the head), while various blessings are given to the initiate. However, especially in the case of infant baptism, immersion is also common, where the initiate is completely or partially dipped under water. But the baptism ritual can vary greatly. For example, until the Middle Ages, the initiate was often naked. However, since then, infants have often been dressed in special white garments, such as baptismal robes to symbolise the new life they are entering into a relationship with God. Similarly, the prayers spoken at baptism rituals vary greatly. One of the most common passages is John 3:1–6:

Jesus answered him, "Very truly, I tell you, no one can enter the kingdom of God without being born of water and Spirit. What is born of the flesh is flesh, and what is born of the Spirit is spirit."

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One further important element of believer's baptisms is confessions of faith. Typical declarations read out by the initiate prior to being baptised that testify to the baptismal reasons for undertaking the ritual. This is in order to show that the person being baptised has made a decision and made a real commitment to a relationship with God.

Baptism is considered by many Christian denominations to be a sacrament, including Eastern Orthodox churches. A sacrament is a Christian ritual that is thought to represent a spiritual change in a person. As such, baptism then becomes a visible symbol of God's indication that he is personally involved in the lives of human beings. This is important for Christians, the baptismal act is not simply a symbolic commitment to God but involves their understanding of their physical state that enables true reconciliation with God. For some, it represents an actual rebirth of a person, not just a symbolic one.

Many denominations, however, subscribe to the idea that baptism is a sacrament, but the idea that baptism is anything more than an outward personal sign that a person has committed to obedience to God's will. Human beings' sins have already been washed away, and baptism itself does not accomplish anything or represent a real change. However, this does not mean that Baptists, who still hold it to be an essential element of the Christian faith. Whether baptism is seen as a wholly symbolic act will be discussed later in this section. For the moment, the more pressing debate: whether infant baptism should still be practised.

Activity:

Read the account of Jesus' baptism in all the Gospels (Matthew 3:13–17, Mark 1:9–11, Luke 3:21–22, John 1:29–34). On reflection, note down three key aspects of this account. How do you believe these aspects influence modern-day baptismal practice and compare to the ideas of Jesus throughout the Gospels?

The Case for Infant Baptism

We noted before that infant baptism has been practised for a long time in the Christian Church. It is itself arguably not a sacrament, but its importance for upholding the importance of a ritual, especially in the face of criticisms of its performance. So why has infant baptism been a fixture of the Church? Should it continue to be so in the future?

To make the case for infant baptism back to the early Church, yet beyond this, we can see that infant baptism was practised by the very earliest Christians, before official Church structures were in place. Some scholars believe that it was not a common occurrence in the first century. Acts (see 16:15, 16:31–33) to entire households being baptised, this is not clear evidence that they actively baptised their children. Similarly, there is no direct ritual in Jewish tradition for infant baptism, and Jesus himself was baptised by John the Baptist as an adult. This means that early Christians engaged in infant baptism, Scripture does not directly confirm this.

The earliest direct references to infant baptism instead come from early Church Fathers. Irenaeus (130–202 CE) talks of children being 'born again to God', while other passages within the work of Origen (185–254 CE) and Tertullian (c. 155–240 CE) speak of infant baptism as customary among Christian populations. So, at the very least, we can state that infant baptism had its roots in the second century, with it largely becoming standard practice by the third century. Nevertheless, it should be noted that infant baptism was still just as common, partly because many new converts to Christianity were adults from other religions and because many people preferred to wait until they were older or ready to commit to the faith.

What are the theological foundations of infant baptism? For an answer to this question, we can look a little later in time to the writings of Augustine of Hippo (354–430 CE), who, perhaps more than any other theologian, laid out the case for baptising children as early as possible. Augustine held that all human beings are born with original sin, and that baptism is the only way to cleanse the soul of this sin.

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born with **original sin** due to the disobedience of Adam and Eve resulting in the Fall of man. This original sin pervades all aspects of human behaviour. Although human beings are good, they are naturally wounded by what Augustine called **concupiscence**, best understood as disordered or selfish desires. Free of divine influence, human beings were effectively defenceless and conflicted by desires of the senses, and Augustine argued that this was the fate of the whole human condemned crowd.

This might seem a little unfair at first, but it is clear that although original sin is still a Catholic doctrine, it is down a little since Augustine's writing. However, the key thing to note is that human beings inherited original sin and were unable to remove it through their own efforts. Augustine argued that the grace of God was the only way of saving human beings, and faith took priority over good works. This led to a Christian movement called **Pelagianism**, which was in opposition to Augustine's view. Pelagians who believed that human beings did have significant free will and were able to achieve salvation through their own efforts.

So how does this all tie in to infant baptism? Well, Augustine generally presented baptism as absolutely essential in order for a person to be saved. At the moment of a person's baptism, they receive the grace of God, cleansing them of original sin and allowing them to be reconciled to God. On this course, that in Augustine's time, child mortality was much higher than it is now. Most children died before the age of five, and so Augustine was naturally concerned that children who died before baptism could not be saved. Hence, in order to ensure that salvation was possible, he argued that children should be baptised as early as possible in order to remove their original sin.

Naturally, you may well have some objections to this line of thinking. What about all the infants who hadn't been baptised? While it may be Catholic doctrine to believe that they are condemned, Augustine's theology has often been criticised as being overly pessimistic. In fact, it has been seen almost as God holding human beings back from achieving salvation, preventing them from achieving grace, regardless of what good works they do in their lives. Augustine, however, is subscribing to belief in **double predestination**, the view that God both foredetermines who will be saved and who will be damned. This is an idea which is likely to be unappealing to many people. In the context of the course, however, the importance he places on infant baptism. In the Catholic Church, it was an essential step in ensuring one could receive the grace of God and be saved from original sin.

At the same time, we might well reject such a strong idea of original sin and argue that we should not condemn infants to hell simply because they are unbaptised. If this is the case, why should anyone be baptised at all? This question once again came into view in the sixteenth century during the **Reformation**, a period when the authority of the Catholic Church was being questioned. Various Protestant movements were being developed around the writings of figures such as Calvin and Luther. One of the new denominations of Protestantism was a group known as the **Anabaptists**, a term which means 'those who baptise again'. One of their central practices was rebaptising Christians who had been baptised as infants, arguing that it was necessary for candidates to make a sound and free confession of faith before being baptised. Furthermore, they claimed that infant baptism was not a valid practice and should be rejected altogether in Christian worship.

This was quite a radical position for the time and was opposed by many Reformed Christians, in particular who challenged the Anabaptists was Huldreich Zwingli, an important reformer. Zwingli made a different case for infant baptism. He argued that, like Augustine, Zwingli argued that baptism was necessary to wash away sin. However, he argued that this lack of power did not undermine the importance of baptism in Christianity. The fact that Christ himself was not baptised as an infant (but as an adult) was not a matter. Zwingli gave the example of how women participate in the Last Supper. Even though the Bible does not explicitly say that women were present at the Last Supper, this does not mean it is not important. Therefore, Christians to baptise their children, this does not mean it is not important. The reading of Scripture.

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So what is baptism in Zwingli's theology? Well, he primarily holds that baptism is a covenant with God. In this way, it is more than a simple pledge of obedience or relationship (although his view is often reduced to this idea). However, there is a link within Zwingli's thought. The first thing to note is that Zwingli connects his idea of baptism with traditional Jewish practices. If circumcision is the sign of the Jewish people's covenant with God, then baptism is the sign of the Christian people's covenant with God. In this way, although baptism does not automatically confer God's grace or represent the inherent worth of an infant, it extends through new generations of people as an important sign in Christian communities to be upheld.

From this idea, we can see the second important element of Zwingli's thought here. Baptism is not simply a matter of confirming the faith for the infant involved but also for the parents. In this sense, baptism does not represent the faith of the individual but rather the faith of the community. Baptism is a way to describe the Christian covenant laid down by Christ. Reducing baptism to a mere act of obedience is denying the importance it has for the community at large and the role it plays in binding generations of Christians under the same church.

However, it is easy to potentially poke holes in Zwingli's arguments. Could believer's baptism undermine the unity of the Church? All that would be required is for individuals to be older when baptized, a difference that would not necessarily undermine baptism as a sign of the covenant. So, if baptism involves the wider Christian community, why should this undermine the consent of the individual? Despite Zwingli protesting against the Anabaptists, his argument might subtly suggest that those who do not actively participate in the church ultimately feel their baptism is less meaningful due to not actively participating in the church. In this mind, we can turn to the other side of the argument, best presented by the famous theologian Karl Barth.

The Case for Believer's Baptism

In the last part of this section we explored the different arguments for infant baptism. We have noticed that Augustine's view of baptism functions more or less as an apology in the face of criticism. In many ways, the case for believer's baptism is perhaps more straightforward. We typically trust children to make rational, sound decisions that are in their best interests. Now, do we generally believe that infants are capable of consenting to baptism? Regardless of one's prior theological beliefs, there is an easy philosophical argument to be made. Baptism as an adult is a much more meaningful process for the initiate than for a child. As we will spell out this argument in more detail with reference to the views of Karl Barth.

First, it should be noted that Barth himself was a Reformed theologian and perhaps one of the most influential Christian thinkers of the twentieth century. His work extended far beyond discussing baptism, but his rejection of infant baptism is rooted in his wider theological thought. Before we get into his views, it is worth considering the quotation below, which sums up some of the major points of his argument for believer's baptism.

Baptism without the willingness and readiness of the baptized is true, but not valid and correct; it is not done in obedience, it is not administered according to the proper order, it is not a clear baptism. It must and ought not to be repeated. As, however, a wound in the flesh is a weakness for the baptized, which can certainly be healed, but which is so dangerous that it presents itself to the Church: how long is it to be guilty of the occasional weakening through a baptismal fracture, which is, from this standpoint, arbitrary and dangerous for the Church Regarding Baptism (p. 40)

One point we can draw out is the importance of consent. Barth argues that baptism is not just a matter of obedience to God. Such a commitment can be meaningful only if it is entered into by the individual. In order to understand the basis for this position we have to delve a little deeper into his thought.

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We explored in the previous part how Augustine argued that infant baptism was necessary for being missed out on the possibility of salvation. Barth wholly rejects this idea, arguing that the concepts of **election** (how God chooses those to be saved) were mistaken. Christ's sacrifice is for the salvation of all human beings, not just those who had been baptised. For Barth, the power of baptism lies in itself. Nor does its power lie in the initiate's choice or understanding. It is the power of reconciliation with God. Simply put, nothing changes when a person is baptised because they already possess the means to reconcile themselves with God. Therefore, God's free choice alone determines who is saved.

For Barth, baptism is, therefore, a **cognitive** (in the mind) event, which symbolises the reconciliation between God and humanity. It is only in reinforcing the reconciliation between God and humanity by Christ. So what does baptism now have in Christian belief? Well, baptism is not a magical process. Instead, it is best characterised as an awakening of faith. For Barth, the presence of God in the world that responds in kind to any human being. In this sense, baptism is, therefore, a sort of 'instrument' of Christ and the Holy Spirit which strengthens their faith through cognitively opening themselves up to reconciliation. The main aspect of baptism is the **subjective** fashion in which it encourages faith in the initiate.

This idea lends context to Barth's rejection of infant baptism, for if its meaning is only in the mind of the initiate, then baptism can be meaningful only if a 'willingness' or 'choice' is made by the person being baptised. This can, in a sense, be reduced to the idea of consent, but the key point is that no real cognitive change could occur in an infant who is being baptised. For Barth, the capacity for an awakening of faith or the ability to respond to the presence of God in the world of infants is not necessarily an incorrect or improper procedure – it is just a bit pointless. Such irresponsibility in the context of faith in the saving power of Christ is a serious point of contention, since it denies the initiate the power and profundity of baptism. Barth mentions himself in the quote, to persist in administering infant baptisms when it is rooted only in arbitrary tradition is a somewhat pathetic act of the Christian Church.

But what of Zwingli's point about the importance of baptism for parents and Christians? There are two major issues at stake here. The first is that Christ himself was baptised, and therefore, those who are baptised immediately are simply not following biblical practice. The second is that baptism is undermined by the objective meaninglessness of the ritual itself. Barth argues that the importance baptism has is rooted in the saving power of Christ, not the human capacity to connect with this power. Trying to justify baptism based on human need and diverts attention away from the core requirement of the Christian faith that one must have faith. Not only is infant baptism without scriptural precedent, its justification based on the needs of the communities denies both the role and importance of God and the meaningfulness of baptism. If baptism has no saving power in itself, there simply is not a case to be made for its subjective importance of a person's faith and understanding during the ritual itself.

In the next part of this section, we shall explore another key religious practice in Christianity that mirrors the theological discussion around baptism: the **Eucharist**.

Discussion Activity:

Do you believe the Catholic Church should give up infant baptism? Discuss in pairs.

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B: Eucharist

While there are many key religious practices in Christianity, such as baptism or marriage, none are as important or as universally practised as the Eucharist. Also termed Holy Communion, the Eucharist is a Christian church service and is one of the primary ways Christians can maintain a relationship with God throughout their lives. As a ceremony, it primarily represents the commemoration of Jesus' death when Jesus offered his disciples bread and wine as a symbol of his body and blood. Many Christians perceive it as a foreshadowing or prediction of his future sacrifice on the cross. Therefore, during the Eucharist each week, Christians reaffirm their belief in the crucifixion and the continuing presence of Jesus' message and love across the world.

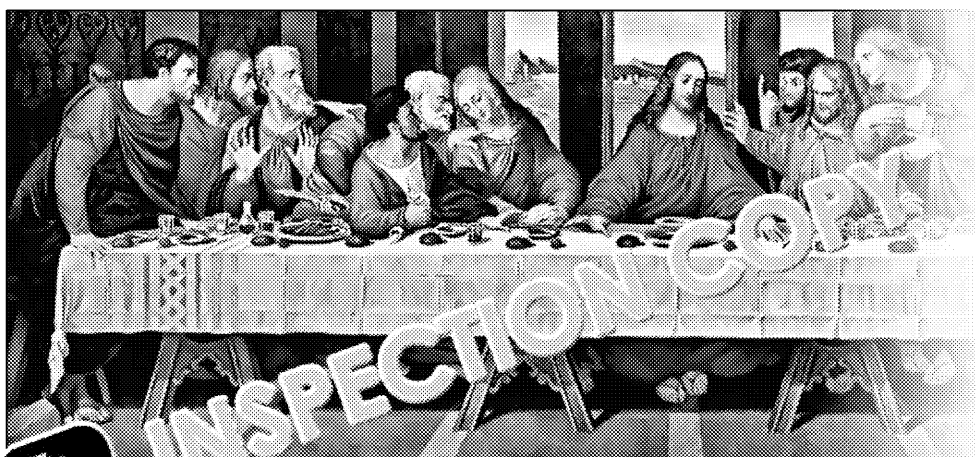
Unlike baptism, there is no widely agreed interpretation of the Eucharist. Generally, Christians hold that Christ is present during the ritual, though this is still a matter of theological debate. Moreover, beliefs about the Eucharist vary greatly in the place it has within a Church service. In the case of the Roman Catholic Church, which is one of the most important ways that Christians can regularly communicate with God, the Eucharist is one of the most important ways that Christians can regularly communicate with God. In the Church, yet for Christians such as Quakers the Eucharist is not even present, and for others it is conceived of as a symbol of Jesus' ministry and sacrifice rather than as a mystical presence of God in the world.

However, even within the Catholic Church there are numerous theories about the Eucharist, and in this section we will explore whether it is even correct to hold that Christ is present. We will look at the common ground between the various Christian approaches to this important ritual, briefly looking at the scriptural basis for the Eucharist itself and noting some key points for further study.

The Bible and Eucharistic Practice

Beyond tradition, why do Christians practice the Eucharist? This is a more difficult question to answer than might be imagined. As we noted above, the Eucharist is primarily a commemoration of Jesus' death, but it is also presented as a ritual for future Christians to emulate. In the Bible, the Eucharist, under its other name, the Lord's Supper, is presented more as a symbol of spiritual insight. The same is true of Matthew, while in John it is the beginning of the end of Jesus' ministry. In fact, it is only in the Gospel of Luke that Jesus really presents the Eucharist as a religious practice that the disciples should follow in the future.

'Then he took a loaf of bread, and when he had given thanks, he broke it and gave it to them, saying, "This is my body, which is given for you. Do this in remembrance of me."' (Luke 22:19)



In the Bible, the Eucharist is presented as a divine command, a way for Christians to continue Jesus' work after the resurrection. Despite this command, there is a more fundamental question: did the historical Jesus himself see the Last Supper in this way (although that is a question that is difficult to answer)? What is important is that, regardless of this historical question, there is clear evidence that

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central practices of early Christians. We can gain a glimpse into this via 1 Corinthians, the 'institution' of the Last Supper and the divisions in the Christian community about how it should be practised and how it should be practised.

Whoever, therefore, eats the bread or drinks the cup of the Lord in an unworthy manner, eats and drinks the body and blood of the Lord. Examine yourselves, and only then eat the bread or drink the cup, so that you do not eat and drink judgment upon yourselves. For those who eat and drink without discerning the body, eat and drink judgment upon themselves. (1 Corinthians 11:27–29 NRSV)

In many ways, this debate has not really gone away. St Paul in the above passage is not simply a warning to copy or overlook but a vital way of examining oneself in the light of the Eucharist, which reveals the presence of God in the world. However, you might be asked to 'do this in remembrance of me'. It is not a detailed guide about who can take the Eucharist today or how the Eucharist should be practised in a modern Christian community. The foundation for the Eucharist is really just layers of Church tradition, and as various traditions come into conflict, criticisms of these traditions have been laid bare. Thus, we can see the theological debate around the Eucharist, beginning with a selection of Catholic theological perspectives on its meaning.

The Catholic Church and the Eucharist

The history of thought about the Eucharist in the Catholic Church reveals a long line of what are often termed 'literalistic' interpretations of the religious practice. In short, this designation is used due to Catholic theories generally emphasising an actual change occurring to the objects used with the Eucharist. The bread and wine, in an important way, cease to be merely material objects and take upon some aspect of the divine, just as they did during the Last Supper. This is quite a tall claim, but the various Gospel narratives about the Last Supper, particularly those of Matthew and Luke, are to a certain degree ambiguous, and this declaration that the bread and wine be taken either literally or figuratively is very much dependent on one's approach to scripture.

There are different degrees of literalism when it comes to Catholic theories about the Eucharist. There is some real, substantial presence of Christ during the ritual, but the bread and wine are converted into the actual body and blood of Christ, with only the appearance remaining. This change is typically held to occur at the moment of **consecration**: when the priest who is leading the service utters the **Words of Institution** or repeats the language used by Jesus at the Last Supper and is thought to be acting in the presence of Christ within the church leading the Eucharist.

There have been some theologians who have sought to provide a theoretical or moral basis for the doctrine of transubstantiation, but such backing is often limited. The Catholic Church simply holds that it does so in a way that sustains the faith. In this way, one not only remembers the life and teachings of Jesus but also practically feels the overwhelming and magnificent power of God acting in the world during the Eucharist.

Although transubstantiation is not always universal in all Catholic circles, it is one of the central doctrines of the Catholic Church, and certain aspects of the Eucharist ritual reflect this belief. For a start, the faithful are required to **genuflect** (bending a knee to the ground) to the **Blessed Sacrament** (the bread and wine that are thought to be the body and blood of Christ). This action also takes the form of a sign of respect, including in some forms of Orthodox Christianity, yet it is important to note that it reflects the reverence given to what is thought to be the real presence of Christ.

Another practice, one not routinely adopted by the Anglican or other Protestant churches, is the consumption of consecrated bread and wine. If there is any left after the **Mass** service, it is taken as a

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a special receptacle designed to conserve what becomes the **Reserved Sacrament**, that the body and blood of Christ should not be discarded or treated with anything but reverence. In contrast, most Protestant churches, which do not uphold transubstantiation, instruct ministers to reserve the consecrated bread and wine, with some even forbidding it, leading the Eucharist consume any remaining bread and wine.

Finally, it is important to note that the Catholic Church restricts the giving of the Eucharist to those who have been baptised and have not committed mortal sin (many churches go further and require that they have been confirmed). These are serious requirements, and it is not surprising that if the individual does not meet them, they potentially face damnation. Mortal sins are thought to be quite extreme, and traditionally have encompassed adultery, divorce, homosexuality and abortion. However, the Church's stance shows signs of softening due to the controversy over the above issues. This reflects both the belief that mortal sins fundamentally separate humans from God, and the view that the consecrated bread and wine are genuinely Jesus' body and blood. The belief that the consecrated bread and wine are genuinely Jesus' body and blood, and that the separated from God to receive them is administering a blessing they do not deserve.

However, there are also a variety of other Catholic theories about the Eucharist that aren't accepted as Church dogma. These have often been put forward as ways of explaining the mystery of the Eucharist itself. If the consecrated bread and wine are genuinely the body and blood of Christ, why do they not appear to be a more significant material change? Similarly, we've noted that the Catholic Church's very literal interpretation of Scripture. What if there were a more reasonable interpretation of the Catholic Church's teachings that Catholics to accept what at first glance can appear to be a very unintuitive doctrine?

One variation we can look at here is **transignification**. As the term suggests, this theory holds that there is no change in actual substance at the moment of consecration, but that the bread and wine are subjectively present. Thus, it still upholds the idea that there is an underlying change in the Eucharist while making sense of the fact that the bread and wine, well, physically remain bread and wine. Overall, transignification attempts to avoid the quite misleading idea of what the bread and wine have a certain physical structure, their substance is not necessarily changed. In other words, although the bread can be bread and wine chemically or physically, it is only subjectively changed. At the moment of consecration, the elements of the Eucharist are subjectively changed to reveal Christ's presence.

Transignification is a little tricky to wrap your head around, but, at heart, it simply tries to explain the real presence in the consecrated bread and wine while they substantially remain bread and wine. It is a modernising move considering the somewhat archaic way the mystery of the Eucharist is often explained, but it is also a move rejected by the Catholic Church. In Pope Paul VI's 1965 encyclical *Mysterium Fidei*, the theories of the Eucharist are considered and rejected, including **transignification** and **transfinalisation**, which are regarded to fail to uphold the real substantial presence of Christ during the Eucharist.

Turning to this latter idea though, transfinalisation is a theory put forward by Karl Barth in the 1920s to those we have explored, rejected transubstantiation. He held that it rested on a misunderstanding of substance as a whole and was an example of a sort of overly mystical thinking which placed too much on human power over the divine world. Instead, Barth suggested a 're-orientation' of the Eucharist, changing 'transubstantiation' to his preferred term, arguing that a new purpose of consecration was being given. The purpose of the bread and wine that is changed, not its underlying substance. This is a new purpose for the Eucharist ritual, as the consecrated elements are now capable of arousing faith in Christ, and this is what for Barth should be the focus of the religious practice rather than the physical change. Transignification and transfinalisation come from different theological approaches, and we shall explore in the next part of this section.

Activity:

Christians still hold that transubstantiation happens during the Eucharist. Is this an unscientific, mystical belief that should be abandoned? Discuss in pairs or small groups.

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Protestant Approaches to the Eucharist

In comparison to Catholic theories, Protestant churches vary much more in their approach, although it should be noted that many still hold similar views. For example, Anglican Catholics that there is a **real presence** of Christ at the Eucharist, although they generally reject **transubstantiation**. So what replaces this belief? Well, many Anglicans still hold the corporeal presence of Christ in the Eucharist, just that the bread and wine are not. Instead, many academic Anglican theologians have developed a theory known as **consubstantiation** that during the Eucharist the body and blood of Christ are present alongside the bread and wine.

Before we explore this further, it is worth taking a step back. Consubstantiation was first established by early church fathers such as Irenaeus before later being declared heretical by the Council of Trent. Nonetheless, there was a movement in the fourteenth century towards a more rationalist approach to the Eucharist, known as **Radical Reform**. This was a pre-Protestant form of Christianity that in many ways sought to bridge the gap between the Reformed theologians and the Catholic Church. Rather than rejecting transubstantiation, yet this opposition was motivated less by a direct rejection of the Catholic Church's firm belief in the real presence at Eucharist. What ultimately was important was the focus on the Word of God during the ritual rather than discussion over how the change in substance reflected the change in Christ.

This ambivalence is still a key part of Anglican practice today. Most churches simply accept that there is a real spiritual presence of Christ at the Eucharist and don't delve into exact details of how consubstantiation works. However, at the same time, it is clear to most Anglicans that transubstantiation is unsatisfactory, for there is no magical conversion of the bread and wine. At heart, the real presence is necessarily spiritual but not necessarily physical. This is why, in contrast to Catholic Mass, Anglican Communion services generally do not have strict restrictions upon who can partake in the Eucharist. The idea of a 'worthy' recipient is often known as **the spiritual presence**. The belief is that those who are separated from God's grace can only partake in the physical bread and wine, with the spiritual nourishment being denied to them. This is seen as a way to access the real presence of Christ, which is acceptable because there is no physical presence of the consecrated bread and wine. However, there is no requirement to reserve any remaining consecrated bread and wine in the Anglican Church. The real presence of Christ fades once the Eucharist is consumed, and there is no presence to any leftover elements. In comparison, as we noted, the Catholic practice of the Reserved Sacrament as the consecrated bread and wine is seen as a way to preserve the blood of Christ.

However, it is still possible to question whether consubstantialism is still a too literal approach to the Eucharist. The focus of Luke 22:19, as we noted, is remembrance. Why isn't this the focus instead of some mystical presence of Christ brought about by the service? Well, so with this suggestion and reject any view that the Eucharist is about anything more than remembrance. Christians are termed **memorialists** and take the position that the consecrated bread and wine are understood only as symbolising the body and blood of Christ. What is most important is the focus on the mind of the participants, not any notion that there is a real objective presence of Christ.

Memorialism is most commonly upheld by the Baptist Church and many other Protestant denominations who affirm that there is a real presence of Christ at the Eucharist. However, about many churches who adhere to memorialism is that they are normally open to all who wish to partake in the Eucharist is delivered during a service. In fact, Baptist churches across the world by **Communion**, similarly to the Catholic Church and other Orthodox churches. This, as the Catholic Church, is restricted to members of the church itself. But while the Catholic Church has restrictions on a faith and moral basis, Baptists often reserve Closed Communion for members of the church. The idea is that the partaking in the Eucharist, even if it is a symbolic act, is a true discipleship and should not be taken lightly as mere ritual. The idea of a 'worthy' recipient is often known as **the spiritual presence**. The belief is that those who are separated from God's grace can only partake in the physical bread and wine, with the spiritual nourishment being denied to them. This is seen as a way to access the real presence of Christ, which is acceptable because there is no physical presence of the consecrated bread and wine. However, there is no requirement to reserve any remaining consecrated bread and wine in the Anglican Church. The real presence of Christ fades once the Eucharist is consumed, and there is no presence to any leftover elements. In comparison, as we noted, the Catholic practice of the Reserved Sacrament as the consecrated bread and wine is seen as a way to preserve the blood of Christ.

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These beliefs raise an interesting question. Even though nearly all Christian denominations have different interpretations of the Eucharist, it can be asked whether these differences really matter in practice and implementation. This debate we shall explore in the final part of this section.

The Diversity and Similarity in Eucharistic Tradition

We've looked at a variety of ways in which theological interpretations of the Eucharist have noticed that, despite various conceptual differences, the core ideas and practices have the same grounding. With the exception of a few denominations, most Christians will be one of the most important traditions in the Christian faith, and schisms between denominations in opinion. In fact, the Eucharist is one of the main routes to **ecumenism** employed by Christian denominations. Eucharist is often seen as an act of Christian solidarity and unity. Moreover, regardless of the theological differences, the act of consuming bread and wine as an act of remembrance is central to the Eucharist. What differs generally are only small details such as the materials used, how these materials are treated before and after the service, or the blessing said during the service. So do the theological differences explored throughout this section amount to much?

Well, in one sense, the answer is a transparent 'yes'. Even a cursory look across the world reveals innumerable conflicts over what the Eucharist means, whether it be between Catholics and Protestants, or between both these denominations and Baptists. Great schisms have emerged over the Eucharist, and Christian movements to declare other positions of the Eucharist as heretical, and if reconciliation will happen. Moreover, beliefs about the Eucharist often reflect key theological positions. Christian movements and denominations analyse the Bible. We've seen how the Bible is used to support the symbolic interpretation of baptism in the Bible, and underlying these are broader conflicts about the extent to which biblical references to religious practices should be taken literally. Whether the actual materials involved in the Eucharist undergo any physical change is an issue that is partially emblematic of the differences between various Christian denominations. The existence of **mystical** events is another point of contention.

At the same time, however, we also 'no' because, regardless of theological disagreements, the Eucharistic rite remains broadly the same throughout Christian history. In all cases, the rite is undertaken fundamentally as a way of remembering the life and death of Jesus for the salvation of human beings. Through the Eucharist, all Christians are united in commemorating Jesus. It makes the past events of Jesus' ministry real for Christians and a respectful recognition of his life and death. Moreover, it can be contended that the Eucharist is a practice that allows for variations in theology surrounding the Eucharist. There are always differences within local Catholic and Protestant churches that reflect both the unity of local communities and the diversity of eucharistic practice on a global scale. What ultimately may matter most is that humans can commemorate Jesus and understand his life in the way they wish rather than subscribe to a particular interpretation of the eucharistic ritual itself. If this is the case, the different interpretations explored in this section are perhaps more a reflection of academic theological discussion than a reflection of the understanding of the Eucharist by practising Christians around the world.

C. Festivals

If you're not a practising Christian, chances are that the most contact you have with the various festivals we celebrate as Christians is through Christmas and Easter mark not only the calendar, but times when many of the UK shuts down, with individuals taking time off work being scheduled. As such, whether or not you hold Christianity to be important, it is a part of the lives of people in the UK for much of the year, and Christian morals tend to filter down in practice through the way we spend time with loved ones.

At the same time, there has been a marked secularisation of these festivals over time. Christmas is now more readily centred around the buying of presents or figures such as Santa Claus, and the most memorable part of Easter for most children is surely the retail

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However, these festivals still hold a great deal of theological and spiritual importance. Celebrations, although likely to incorporate elements of secular culture, have importance and often will be the main focus of their holiday periods. Moreover, those celebrations are intended to reflect on their faith and think about the ways in which it affects their everyday lives.

So why are we studying festivals? Well, not all Christian celebrations take the same form or even happen on the same date. As we will explore in this section, there are many theological factors that affect the way that different denominations celebrate. We will focus on the split between Western churches such as the Anglican and Catholic churches and the Eastern Orthodox Church, you will remember that even within these broad groups there are numerous smaller denominations in the celebration of Christian festivals. In particular, it is important to note that Christians can be grouped together. Those of the Eastern Orthodox Church do not always follow the same calendar traditions, and specific celebrations are often different. Nevertheless, we will attempt to explore key differences between the two main groups.

Christmas

Most people in the UK recognise that Christmas, at heart, celebrates the birth of Jesus. The purpose of the festival is to recognise his enduring presence in the world. For Christians, Christmas is a time to reflect on the life of Jesus and the meaning of his death. Christmas, Christians may refer to Jesus as 'Emmanuel/Immanuel', which means 'God with us'. However, this basic description hides a more important element of Christmas: the celebration of the **incarnation**. As we explored in the birth narratives, the moment when the Word became flesh and lived among human beings. It is this doctrine that gives Christmas so much spiritual meaning. If Jesus had never come to Earth, he could not have died for humanity's sins and we could never be reconciled with God through his salvation. The celebration of the incarnation is perhaps the key theological aspect that binds all Christmas celebrations throughout the world, from Western to Eastern churches. It is a reflection upon the incarnation that gives Christians the opportunity to improve their relationship with God and with their friends and families and help out those in need in their local communities.

It is here that the similarities stop. For a start, between Western and Eastern churches, the date of Christmas is very different. Here, it is important to note that, to a certain extent, the date is completely arbitrary. The birth narratives, as you will remember, do not mention when Jesus was born, and, even if they did, it would be difficult to justify this date as historical evidence that early Christians did celebrate the birth of Jesus and this eventually led to the date in the fourth century CE as 25th December, which corresponds to the winter solstice.

However, if you're a bit of a history buff, you might know that the old Roman calendar was the best-known version of this calendar, which was used throughout the Roman world. The Julian calendar (so named because it was introduced by Julius Caesar), yet this calendar had a flaw. Although it accounted for leap years when calculating the revolution of the Earth, it possessed a small discrepancy: the calendar year was about 10.8 minutes longer than the actual year. This meant that every four centuries, the calendar year gained three days, causing it to drift out of alignment with the solar day.

For the Romans, this wasn't considered a big enough issue to warrant change. It wasn't until the sixteenth century, the Julian calendar was almost 10 days out of alignment from what was considered the actual year. The Council of Nicaea in 325 CE led to the introduction of the Gregorian calendar by most of the Western churches. The Eastern Orthodox Church, however, stuck to the Julian calendar. Due to the calendar being out of alignment with the solar day, they came to celebrate Christmas on different days from the Western churches. At present, the Eastern Orthodox Church celebrates Christmas on 7th January instead of 25th December, and it will continue to do so.

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This difference in date also highlights other differences, particularly in the celebration and afterwards. In the Western churches, the lead-up to Christmas is known as the **Advent**, which varies in length but typically begins on the Sunday nearest to St Andrew's Day and lasts for four weeks (thus encompassing three other Sundays) before ending on Christmas Day. During this time, Christians begin to prepare for the celebration of Christmas, both remembering the birth of Jesus and anticipating his **Second Coming**.

These preparations take various forms. Many Christians will have seen **Advent calendars**, which are often made of various types of greenery, and are decorated with small pictures or messages for each Sunday in Advent, one of the outside candles being lit on each Sunday. The four candles are normally thought to represent the four Gospels: Matthew, Mark, Luke and John, though they are also said to represent hope, peace, joy and love. The **Advent** is a time when all elements that tie into the birth narratives we explored in Theme 1. Light is a central theme of the season is an easy way for Christians to meditate on the events leading up to Christmas.

Other preparations take similar celebratory themes. Ministers and clergy delivering services often wear royal purple or blue vestments, and congregations will be encouraged to sing hymns that typically glorify the prophecies and arrival of Jesus. Ordinary Christians will decorate their homes and plan their holidays. The **Nativity play** will often be staged during the week leading up to Christmas Day. This allows people to learn about the events leading up to the birth of Jesus, as recorded in Matthew and Luke and gives young children an introduction to some of the central themes of Christian faith. Some churches even run an **Advent course**, in which participants are encouraged to think further on the meaning of Christmas.

Finally, in modern Christian communities **Christingle** services are often held, in which a candle is placed on top of an orange in order to symbolise Jesus as the 'light of the world'. These are often held in schools and families, aiming to give them a more personal introduction to the preparations during the Advent. Some services even extend into Christmas Day. Many churches also hold a service that includes the **Epiphany**, which celebrates the arrival of Jesus into the world.

In the Eastern Orthodox churches, as demonstrate Advent to be primarily a time of celebration in Western churches. In Eastern churches this period is often more austere and less celebratory, focusing more on the birth and Second Coming of Jesus, the **Nativity Fast** prior to Christmas is primarily on the glorification of the incarnation. Generally, this fast runs for 40 days, during which followers abstain from meat, dairy, fish, eggs, oil and wine. However, during the last week of this period, fish, oil and wine are allowed.

Although the **Nativity Fast** is not as severe as one we shall study later in this section, it is a significant undertaking for committed Orthodox Christians and reflects the different focus of the Eastern Church. The purpose of fasting is not to simply test the person undertaking it but to focus the mind on spiritual rather than physical ones. Orthodox theology often elaborates on the connections between the physical and the spiritual, such that altering the circumstances of one can affect the other. In fact, by following the example of Christ himself undertook in the desert, one emulates his example and becomes more like him.

As a result, the Christmas period in Eastern Orthodox churches is often perceived as being more focused more on spiritual growth than on the celebration and joy. Many Christians undertake the full 40-day fast with the exception of fasting during the eve of the **Nativity**, when the star Sirius is seen in the night sky. Furthermore, a special service called the **Divine Liturgy for the Nativity of Christ** is held on Christmas Eve, with the **Divine Liturgy for the Nativity of Christ** held for committed clergy living in monasteries. As such, there is no midnight service, with the service held early in the morning on Christmas Day. The Eastern Orthodox Church's preparation much more similar to how the early Christian Church celebrated Christmas. Although repentance is a theme, it is not as prevalent as in **Lent**, which perhaps is the year for Christians of all denominations.

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There is one final difference yet to explore, and that is the time following Christmas **Epiphanytide**, which has its focal point on the day of **Epiphany**. In the Western Church it falls on 6th January, whereas in the Eastern churches it falls on 19th January, yet, despite both churches celebrating very different parts of the Bible. Moreover, they equally have different customs and traditions. For Western churches, Epiphany commemorates the visit of the Three Kings to the infant Jesus, as depicted in Matthew 2:1–12. As such, it is sometimes called **Three Kings' Day** or **Twelfth Day**. It might initially seem an odd event to focus on, but there is a broader meaning behind the Gospel. Most Christians take it to be Jesus revealing himself to the Gentiles and, thus, his mission towards humankind. Epiphany is seen as the culmination of **Christmastide**, running from Christmas to Epiphany (although the Catholic Church no longer celebrates Epiphany specifically 12 days after Christmas).

How is Epiphany celebrated by Western Christians? Well, you might well recognise the custom of removing your Christmas decorations. This is a custom followed by many churches and it is considered inauspicious to leave decorations hanging past this date, or else **Candlemas** (the conclusion of Epiphanytide on 2nd February) at the latest. Churches also celebrate Epiphany, or during the season, in which the leading priest blesses Epiphany water and chalk. This chalk is then used to write the names of the wise men on or over the doors of homes. Christians in some central European countries will also eat **Three Kings' Cake** or **Three Kings' Sweetbread** decorated with icing and glazing. Overall, these celebrations are often focused on Jesus' arrival and mission towards the human world.

In contrast, Epiphany in the Eastern churches is focused on a very different event: the baptism of Jesus. The emphasis is, therefore, on the revelation of Jesus' identity and mission. Baptism is one of the few major events in the Gospels. Jesus' baptism is one of the few moments in the Gospels where he is present, and so for Eastern Christians it is a key celebration of Jesus as the Son of God himself. Just as with Christmas, there is a strong focus to the tradition. The eve of Epiphany is another significant day, and on the day itself the churches perform the **Great Blessing of the Waters**. This is a rite performed both on the evening before and on the day itself. This latter custom is more striking as in many Eastern countries it sees a priest bless the waters by casting into them a cross. There, the priest will bless the waters by casting into them a cross. Afterwards, the priest will then take samples of the water which are distributed to the neighbourhood.

Moreover, Epiphany sees the normal fasting laws we've noted throughout this section lifted for eight days afterwards. Therefore, Epiphany celebrations in the Eastern churches are more joyous as those in Western Churches, although focused on a different event. There are many customs and traditions that tie into these celebrations. In fact, every European country has its own traditions around this festival period. Next, we shall look at another key event in the Christian calendar, **Easter**, and the differences in practice surrounding it.

Easter

Easter, in comparison to Christmas, is perhaps the main Christian festival that has seen the most secularisation. At heart, it celebrates Jesus being resurrected from the dead, after his crucifixion, although this celebration also incorporates many other major events leading up to this event. Theologically, it also encompasses a number of ideas central to the Christian faith, including Jesus' fulfilment of Jewish law, the atonement and the reconciliation of humankind with God. Furthermore, for many Christians Easter provides hope for their own resurrection and life with God in the afterlife. Whatever traditions and customs accompany Easter, celebrations generally aim to remind Christians of these important aspects of their faith. However, just as with Christmas, there are a number of variations in the way Western and Eastern Christians celebrate Easter, so much so that it might even be contended that they are almost different festivals.

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Beginning with Western churches, it must first be noted that the dates of Easter vary according to the liturgical calendar, although **Holy Week**, the main period of celebration, typically begins on the Monday before Easter Sunday. Holy Week is preceded by **Lent**, a 40-day period of fasting (not counting Sundays). Lent is perhaps the most solemn period in the Western churches, and clergy (or deacons) are required to fast and abstain from festivities. Other celebrations such as Maundy Thursday are also discouraged. Clergy will also engage in greater amounts of prayer and fasting. Traditionally, as the Catholic Church required practitioners to eat only one meal a day, abstaining from all pleasurable foods. However, in the last 100 years, this custom has been relaxed, and other forms of commemoration such as prayer, piety or abstinence. In recent years, there has been a change in Lent. Many Christians (even non-Christians) will aim to give up a vice during this period. By doing so, they reflect upon the 40 days Jesus spent in the wilderness.

Lent lasts until the Easter Vigil is celebrated on the evening of **Holy Saturday**, but may end it earlier, on **Maundy Thursday**. This is the first of three days known as the Passion Week, the passion narrative in the Gospels, including the crucifixion, death and resurrection. Thursday commemorates the Last Supper as described in the canonical Gospels, and Christians are encouraged to reflect upon and remember Jesus' words and actions during this meal. Thus, typical church services are held for most denominations, which include one important addition: the washing of feet. This is a practice that has long been popular in the Catholic tradition but is increasingly adopted by other denominations and reflects how Jesus washed his disciples' feet at the Last Supper. The word 'Maundy' refers explicitly to the Christian rite of foot washing, although the Latin word 'mandatum' meaning commandment. Lastly, the morning of Maundy Thursday is when the service being held, traditionally called **Chrism Mass**. It is typically a solemn affair in which the congregation are encouraged to renew their baptismal promises, and the holy oils used are blessed for their use throughout the next year.

Next, on **Good Friday**, Western Christians traditionally commemorate the crucifixion and death of Jesus. It is typically a solemn occasion similar to Maundy Thursday, and important church services are held throughout the day. For example, in the Catholic Church the Good Friday service is divided into three important parts. The first is the **Liturgy of the Passion**, a ceremony in which the clergy prostrate themselves in front of the altar as a way of symbolising the fall of human beings and the grief and sorrow at Jesus' death. Following this, passages are read or chanted, and a series of prayers is said for all the different sections of the Christian Church. Next is the **Adoration of the Cross**, in which the crucifix is displayed to the congregation, who venerate it by bowing to it or kissing its base while hymns are sung. Lastly, there is **Holy Communion**, in which the Eucharist consecrated on the eve of Maundy Thursday is served to the crowd. Among Protestant denominations, there is a less strict structure to services but instead a variety of local customs that similarly commemorate the event and express Christians' grief at the event. In the Anglican Church, services often take place in the evening, while in the Lutheran Church followers typically abstain from eating and drinking.

Finally, there is Holy Saturday, the day before Easter Sunday, which in comparison is a more stripped-back affair. Churches typically hold a Solemn Mass during this day in the morning, and some cover their altars in black cloth to reflect the period of time before the resurrection. However, these restrictions are only adhered to until nightfall, whereupon the Easter Vigil is celebrated. This is a service which traditionally is the first major celebration of the resurrection. Depending on the church involved, it may begin as soon as dusk or last until the next morning, but some key elements are practised throughout the night. The first is the lighting of the **Paschal Candle**, which represents the light of Jesus' resurrection and continues to burn throughout the rest of the Easter season. Once the candle is lit, the service continues with church while prayers and blessings are spoken in a call-and-response fashion between the priest and the congregation.

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The Easter Vigil also sees the renewal of baptismal vows by the congregation in their sermons and teachings given on the meaning of the resurrection and the continuing world. Finally, most Easter Vigils end with the **Eucharist**. Once sunrise has occurred, **Sunday** begins: a day of celebration in which Lent fasting and abstinence end. It also marks the beginning of the Easter season, which lasts seven weeks and ends with **Pentecost Sunday**, which celebrates the Holy Spirit upon the disciples.

Throughout the Western world, Easter Sunday is typically a bank holiday, and churches are open throughout the day for those who did not attend the vigil. Easter Sunday also sees various traditions, such as the rolling of Easter eggs, a symbol of new life and rebirth. In the past, these were dyed chicken eggs, but most Christians now use ceramic or wooden eggs. Overall, while Easter is often a somewhat solemn period, it marks the passage of events in the Gospels, and the focus is often on commemoration, even though the preceding 40 days of Lent involve abstinence.

However, when we turn to the Eastern churches, we can notice a few major differences. For example, like Christmas, the date is significantly later (generally by a week or two but sometimes more). Additionally, many churches still use the Julian, not the Gregorian, calendar. Easter is also more complex in the East, as the period of Lent is referred to as **Great Lent** and there are some significant differences with both. However, at the same time, there are also many liturgical similarities, and whether the two traditions can be easily compared, or whether they exhibit irreconcilable differences, is a matter of debate.

Beginning with Great Lent, there are a few key aspects which should be noted. The Western churches it is primarily a period of fasting, it is significantly longer. It was the discipline around fasting and abstinence during Lent that has been weakened, but it still occurred to quite the same extent in Eastern churches. Followers are committed to abstain from meat, fish, eggs, dairy products, wine, and oil during this period, with the exception of certain days. Moreover, there is a strong emphasis on prayer and penitence during this period. Eastern Christians are encouraged to pray, commit to confession of their sins, and attempt to make restitution with others towards. This emphasis on penitence, however, also includes charity and almsgiving. Lent is seen as a time of opportunity for repentance and self-improvement in Eastern churches.

Great Lent is also technically shorter than in the Western churches. It typically lasts 40 days, including the six days before Easter. Furthermore, there are a number of liturgical methods by which it is encouraged among followers. A special service book, called the **Lenten Triodion**, is used, and, gradually, material from this book replaces parts of regular services until Holy Week. During the week, the Eucharist is also not given, as it is a joyful event. The focus on penitence and repentance that characterises the Great Lent period. This is very different during the Great Lent period, and the hours in which churches open for prayer. Members of the local congregation have the opportunity to engage more fully with the liturgy.

One final important difference which should also be mentioned is the chanting of 'Kyrie eleison'. Literally meaning 'praise the Lord', it is one of the most common phrases used in the Great Lent period. Western churches refrain from uttering it, for the focus is on abstinence. However, rather unintuitively for some, during Great Lent, the chanting of 'Kyrie eleison' is more in the East. That fasting isn't supposed to be a practice that involves suffering but instead should be a way to better oneself in the light of God. Any suffering that human beings are too flawed or too sinful to be balanced against the knowledge of God's forgiving nature. Thus, although the practice is stricter in Eastern churches than its Western counterpart, it may be a step too far in the West. Instead, the practices adopted by Eastern Christians have to be analysed in their own context, and not just what the practices themselves intuitively suggest.

Great Lent also ends before Holy Week, on a day called **Lazarus Saturday**, so named after Lazarus in the Gospel of John (11:1–45). However, the fast partially continues into Holy Week.

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Sunday, although at various points the rules are relaxed. For example, on Maundy Thursday Eastern Christians are permitted to consume wine and oil. Similarly, the washing of feet is common on this day, and, typically after the final evening liturgy churches will change the hangings to black or darker versions to signify the beginning of the passion (in contrast with the stripping of the altar in Western churches). Furthermore, there is often a special service involving the reading of twelve Gospel twelve significant passages from the passion narratives to detail Christ's last instructions to the disciples, Christ's death and his last moments.

These acts of remembrance continue into Good Friday. Following the changing of the hangings in the churches the clergy will generally wear black vestments and engage in a series of readings. Similarly to in Western churches, the Eucharist is not practised on this day as a very strict fast for committed Christians, who are expected to abstain from food and drink (if their health allows). Perhaps the biggest difference, however, is that Eastern Christians commemorate the events of the passion but recreate them in a distinct and more dramatic way. In the early afternoon Christians gather for the **Vespers** of Good Friday, which commemorate the death of Christ. This is a special service in which, during readings and hymns, the figure of Christ is placed on a cross in the church, wrapped in a shroud and taken to the altar. At the end of the service the cross is placed upon a table to represent the tomb and processed through the streets.

This procession primarily takes place on the Friday night and is a unique service for Eastern Christians. It is known as the **Lamentation at the Tomb**. Crowds will gather around the body prior to the procession and a series of **lamentations** between readings of Psalm 119 by the clergy. After this, the body is placed outside of the church before being returned to the tomb. Although the clergy play a large role here, and every church follows different practices, the service ultimately has a greater emphasis placed on, in effect, a re-enactment of the passion narrative, not just a commemoration. As such, there is practically no funeral service held for Christ himself, as he is generally one not of mourning but of celebration of Christ's rebirth.

This expectation of joy is fulfilled at the Easter Vigil, more commonly called the Paschal Vigil. As in Western Churches, committed followers stay all up night to celebrate the resurrection. Before midnight, many will gather to hear Old Testament verses, and the **Agony in the Garden**. However, midnight is when the main service begins. At first, all the lights are extinguished except for the flame on the altar, and the congregation waits in the dark until the priest proclaims the resurrection of Christ. At this point, the Paschal Candle is lit and the congregation lights their candles from the flame. After this, the priest leads a procession around the church and the congregation sings the **Gloria** for the beginning of the divine liturgy. This marks an important point in the service as the priest greets each other the **Paschal Greeting**, which involves one person saying 'Christ is risen!' and the other replying 'Truly he is risen!'. Furthermore, the service becomes much more jubilant, with the usual liturgical proceedings.

Overall, the emphasis after the proclamation is on joy and exuberance at the return of life. Lent is broken, and throughout Easter Sunday people will feast in celebration. In fact, Easter Sunday begins is regarded by Eastern Christians as one continuous celebration. In church services, giving Paschal services, and there are generally no processions around the church. Easter Sunday is perhaps of greater significance in Eastern tradition due to the stricter rules of Lent before it, and is often a very colourful affair in which all the local community gets involved. The service is accordingly often very elaborate and the church initiates a period known as the **Pentecost** days until the **Feast of the Ascension**. This is the last day of the Easter season, and greetings are said to the feast until the next year.

Similarity and Similarity in Festival Traditions

Thus local cultural traditions around Christmas and Easter are far too numerous to provide detailed summaries we have explored throughout this section don't do justice to the diversity of celebrations. However, through examining how Western and Eastern churches compare

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and resurrection of Jesus in different ways, we can see the stark diversity in Christianity. In many ways, this diversity mirrors the variations both in baptismal practice and Eucharist. We have analysed throughout this theme, and once again we can question to what extent are these truly the same celebration throughout the Christian faith. If both these festivals are based on divergent elements of faith and require different rituals, is it possible to truly unify the Gospels themselves?

This is a difficult question to answer, and it depends on one's willingness to draw distinctions between the Eastern and Western churches. In the case of Christmas, it is transparent that the Eastern churches primarily celebrate the birth of Christ and reflect upon the impact this had upon the world, while the Western churches are brought together to commemorate the events of the Nativity. This latter event is especially important as, regardless of one's denomination, it is recognised that the sacrifice of Christ enables the reconciliation of humankind. This is a belief shared by Christians across the world, regardless of the way this belief is practised.

At the same time, we can see clear differences between the Eastern and Western churches. The Eastern churches place a greater premium on the importance of fasting and abstinence before major events, while the Western churches and celebrations eschew much of the excessive festivities that are often associated with the Eastern world. It is thus a common observation that both Christmas and Easter in the Eastern churches are a much less secularised and commercial affair. However, there are also similarities. The Eastern churches' celebration, particularly around the feasts that accompany Christmas Day and Easter, is often more austere and demanding than the Western world. Instead, the emphasis is on the importance of individual spiritual growth around key festival periods.

Conversely, Western churches often focus on the importance of communal celebration, while the Eastern churches take a more individualistic approach. This is not to suggest that both Christmas and Easter are purely individualistic, but typically the demands on Christians to observe these festivals are much less rigorous. In the Western world, decorations play a more central role in the way Christians express their feelings and devotion during these periods, especially at Christmas. Nonetheless, just like the Eucharist, it may be that the shared faith and doctrines of the Christian faith enable the kind of diversity shown in festival traditions. The festivals may unite Christians through their understanding of the Bible through religious practice, and may thus bring Christians more than it separates them, with the myriad festival traditions offering Christians across the world to learn from one another.

Quick Quiz

1. Give two differences between infant baptism and believer's baptism.
2. Who did Zwingli defend the practice of infant baptism against?
3. What is transubstantiation?
4. What is consubstantiation?
5. What is memorialism?
6. What is Advent?
7. What is Epiphany?
8. Why do the Eastern and Western churches hold festivals on different dates?

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ANSWERS TO ACTIVITIES

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Theme 1 Activity

How would you harmonise the birth narratives? Write down what you can in synthesis. Luke. What would you leave out (if anything), and why?

This activity is designed to get students thinking both about the historical credibility of the birth narratives and how this should be reflected in contemporary perspectives. Is the theological message more important than what is historical and what is not? If so, students may suggest the three Wise Men in their harmonised narratives, whereas the Gospel of Luke may give a very bare narrative, only including the basic details of the birth.



Theme 2 Activity

How would you reinvent God if you had the choice? Write down five different unorthodox beliefs that you believe would help describe him, and list your reasons why.

This activity is designed to apply McFague's ideas about 'reimagining' God. If she is right, there is a large number of terms, models and metaphors that suit God depending on the needs of the people today. Basic ideas might be familial in nature (e.g. mother/brother/sister) or more abstract (ruler/queen/friend).

Theme 3 (AS) / Theme 2 (A Level) Activity

Research your local church and note down the various services, programmes and activities. Throughout this section, compare the different roles put forward by the Church of England and whether they cohere!

This activity is designed to get students to think about how the Church operates in the world as a practical entity. Depending on the size of the church, there will be many different services and outreach, and students can hopefully get a sense of how Church activities are scaled up or down according to the denomination and church involvement.



Theme 4 Activity

Read the account of Jesus' baptism in all the Gospels (Matthew 3:13–17, Mark 1:9–11, Luke 3:21–22, John 1:29–34). On reflection, note down three key aspects of this account that you believe are important to modern-day baptismal practice and compare to the ideas you study throughout the course.

This activity is designed to get students thinking about the scriptural foundations of baptism, an often-overlooked part of the discussion around the need for infant baptism. In practice, about whether other theological ideas should play a greater part in modern baptismal practice, and how true to the way Jesus himself was baptised.



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ANSWERS TO QUICK QUIZZ

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Theme 1 Quick Quiz

1. Redaction criticism is a critical method of biblical study which looks to discern how the text was shaped according to their theological aim.
2. Harmonisation is the process of combining two or more texts in a unified narrative.
3. Matthew and Luke provide 'parallel' gospels.
4. Demythologisation is a critical method employed by Rudolf Bultmann which aims to strip away the mythical aspects of the New Testament, leaving only the ethical and theological elements.
5. The 'kenotic' model is a theological model which holds that Jesus at times temporarily set aside his divine nature.
6. Universal judgement is the judgement of all humanity at once, typically thought of as occurring at the end of time. Particular judgement is the individual judgement of a human being occurring at their death.
7. Psalms gives a number of hymns, songs, laments and verses primarily designed for worship.
8. Dominion is a Christian concept found in Genesis which holds that human beings have been given rule over the natural world and use it how they wish.

Theme 2 Quick Quiz

1. Immutability is the quality of being impervious to, or unable to undergo, change. It is the quality of not being able to experience pain or pleasure. The former can be true but not the other way around.
2. Reimaging means creating new models and metaphors designed to complement or replace male-focused terms used to describe God.
3. Moltmann wishes to say that God is not immutable, impassible. God can experience pain and suffering, it is of his own volition. God does so to share humanity because of his love for us and in solidarity with those suffering.
4. 'Pre-existence' of the Son refers to whether the Son exists coeternally with the Father before the time of Jesus.
5. The Filioque clause is the controversial clause or belief in the double procession of the Holy Spirit from the Father and the Son.
6. Christus Victor is a model of atonement that focuses on how Christ's death overcame the forces of evil in the world.
7. Anselm's satisfaction model focuses on how the atonement was necessarily to satisfy the honour owed by humanity to God.
8. The moral example model of atonement focuses on how Christ's death is an example for us to follow, a sacrifice that inspires human beings to reconcile themselves with God.

Theme 3 (AS) / Theme 2 (A Level) Quick Quiz

1. Sola fide is the view that justification comes by faith alone.
2. Luther argues that the Epistle of James is antilegomena.
3. Covenantal nomism is E P Sanders' view that justification comes by an introduction into the covenant and adherence to the rules and principles of that covenant (works).
4. The Great Commission is the instruction given to the disciples at the end of Jesus' ministry and teachings.
5. A sacrament is a ritual or ceremony that is thought to demonstrate or impart God's grace.
6. Agape is universal, unconditional love as demonstrated by Jesus throughout his ministry.
7. The 'Sermon on the Mount' includes the teaching 'Love your enemies and pray for those who persecute you'.

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Theme 4 Quick Quiz

1. Infant baptism is on children and generally involves aspersion, whereas belief more commonly involves immersion.
2. Zwangli defended the practice of infant baptism against Anabaptists.
3. Transubstantiation is the belief that the bread and wine become the Eucharist, the body and blood of Christ at the moment of consecration, even though the substances of bread and wine remain.
4. Consubstantiation is the belief that at the moment of consecration the body of Christ is alongside the bread and wine in the Eucharist.
5. Memorialism is the belief that there is no change in substance at the moment the bread and wine become the Eucharist only symbolise the body and blood of Christ.
6. The Feast of Epiphany precedes Christmas when Western Christians begin to mark the birth of Jesus.
7. The Feast of Epiphany is the holiday succeeding Christmas when Western Christians celebrate the Three Kings, and Eastern Christians celebrate the baptism of Jesus by John the Baptist.
8. The Eastern and Western churches hold festivals on different dates as the West uses the dating of the Gregorian calendar, whereas the Eastern churches use the Julian calendar.

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