

Course Companion for A Level Year 2 AQA Religious Studies

Component 2B: Christian Dialogues

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Teacher's Introduction

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

Remember!

Always check the exam board website for new information, including changes to the specification and sample assessment material.

However, in comparison to the other course companions for this specification, this resource takes a slightly different form and direction. The Dialogues topics within the AQA specification are designed to test a student's skills of reasoning and analysis; taking the knowledge they have acquired from their investigation into Christianity as a religion and comparing it against their studies into the Philosophy of Religion and Ethics. Students reading through this companion will thus be expected to already possess a good grasp of the key concepts, thinkers and ideas within these topics and use the material within to strengthen their understanding of the relationship between philosophy and religion. In the process, they will hopefully become more confident in their essay-writing abilities and powers of analysis when approaching their end-of-year exams.

Nevertheless, alongside the 12 sections that make up this companion, there are also a number of other features to help students with their learning and revision. The companion begins with an overview of the important discussion elements that are central to the Dialogues specification, looking at the kinds of questions they should be asking when working through each section. Self-guided activities are also included throughout the writing to further engage students with the material, and more information is provided on key thinkers and concepts where appropriate.

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

January 2022

STUDENTS' INTRODUCTION

Although you might not have anticipated it, your work on the Dialogues section of the course began the moment you began your first religious or philosophical topic. However, while it is important for your end-of-year exams, half of the marks for Component 2 revolve around questions involving Dialogues. Moreover, these questions involve a significant amount of analysis, meaning that understanding the concepts you've studied and how to evaluate the different arguments is key to getting the best possible mark for each.

This might seem daunting at first, but the AQA specification is highly interrelated. Philosophy of Religion and Ethics can be applied to your knowledge of Christianity and vice versa. One of this companion's goals, therefore, is not to go over what you have already learned, but to help you understand the relationship between philosophy and Christianity and put it into your end-of-year exams. Thus, it is highly recommended that you will have access to this companion in each of these 12 sections. However, they can also be separated and studied in different parts of the course. First though, we shall take a quick look at the structure and form of the Dialogues and the essential questions you should be asking as you progress through this course.

The Structure and Form of Dialogues

The Dialogues specification is oriented primarily around the religion you have chosen to study for your course. This companion has been designed to specifically cover Christianity. If you have chosen another religion, then turn back! However, for those who have been studying Christianity, this companion contains 12 different sections that match the specification for the Christian Dialogues. The

Philosophy of Religion

1. God
2. Self, death and the afterlife
3. Sources of wisdom and authority
4. Religious experience
5. The relationship between scientific and religious discourses
6. The truth claims of other religions
7. Miracle

Ethics

8. Christian responses to deontological, teleological, consequential and character-based ethics
9. How far Christian ethics can be considered to be deontological, teleological, consequential or character-based
10. Christian responses to ethical issues
11. Christian responses to social issues
12. Christian understanding of free will, moral responsibility and conscience

As you can see, the Philosophy of Religion specification is a little bit more succinct than the Ethics specification, but it still requires a good knowledge of a wide variety of areas, and you may find that one subject helps you in studying another. The key element to remember about the examination questions in the Dialogues sections is that they are **unstructured**. Simply put, you will be given a broad question and you will have to narrow down a number of different perspectives, analysing each and presenting your strongest position on the matter in question. Thus, you may well decide that you will play a part in writing about a particular topic such as religious experience or the afterlife.

The Dialogues specification itself covers how you should be approaching the topics. Thus, for each major topic, we will explore important connections between ideas of how philosophical and Christian perspectives might conflict, overlap and harmonise. We will not make a broad division between secular and religious perspectives. Rather than that, at times, for despite it seemingly presenting itself often as unchanging, the Christianity has been greatly influenced by both secular and religious perspectives throughout its history.

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Essential Questions

Beyond the basic topics presented in this section, there are a number of essential the Dialogues specification requires students to consider. Throughout this component, these are presented and illustrated, but a significant aspect of these questions is that they are open-ended – you must evaluate them yourselves and arrive at an argument you believe is strongest about them. For the first set of the questions for topics within the philosophy of religion, we can consider the first set of the questions for topics within the philosophy of religion.

Philosophy of Religion

- How far the (proposed) belief is reasonable; whether it is based on reason or faith.
- How meaningful the (proposed) statements of faith are, and for whom.
- How consistent the (proposed) beliefs are, and how consistent they are with other beliefs.
- The relevance of philosophical enquiry for religious faith, with particular reference to the nature of faith as ‘belief in’ or ‘belief that’.

There’s quite a bit to break down in these issues, but the key thing to analyse is the meaning of each statement. First, we have to consider what is meant by a belief being **reasonable** and **meaningful**. A belief is in accordance with our logical understanding of the world; being reasonable is when it is justified or explained with known facts, causes or effects. A belief based on faith is one that goes beyond such evidential grounds; it cannot be wholly justified. It is not always clear what kinds of beliefs are actually logical and to what extent many of our beliefs are. In important domains of philosophy, such as ethics, aesthetics or even science itself, we often find beliefs that are not wholly logical.

This is where the second of the important terms comes into play – the idea of **meaningful**. A belief is meaningful even if it is not wholly reasonable. In fact, it can be argued that many of our daily lives cannot be reasonably justified or explained but still are of key importance. Religious or spiritual beliefs are often of key importance. Here the term ‘meaningful’ is difficult to completely define, but it can refer to significance, value, purpose or importance, depending on the context.

The third and fourth terms to consider are **consistency** and **coherence**. In philosophy, it is thought to possess no logical contradictions. A secondary use is often whether a belief is consistent over time, or in different contexts. It is important to clarify whether you are using ‘consistent’ in this sense. For example, ‘God is incorporeal’ can be understood in multiple ways depending on the context. The term **coherence** is often used in a similar way, denoting a belief that is logical and consistent. However, in a broader philosophical position, it often means that the position itself is unified, or that it fits with another. Thus, like consistency, it can be important to clarify the use of the term in the context of the argument in question.

Lastly, the fifth and sixth terms to consider are **belief in** and **belief that**. These are the terms you are likely to employ in your end-of-year exams, but the broader distinction is important to understand. To use a ‘belief that’ statement, we are using the term in context of declaring a basic fact. For example, ‘I believe that God exists’ is equivalent to saying that one believes there is an actual God. ‘Belief in’ statements aren’t so straightforward. Stating that ‘I believe in God’ could mean ‘I believe that God exists’, but for many theists it takes on a deeper meaning. It is not just about God or faith in his divinity and care for humanity. The ‘belief in’ statements are not mere facts. They express deeper ideas, meanings or symbols of a person’s faith.

It is likely that you have already covered these terms in depth. Yet, knowing how important they are when studying the Dialogues specification, and throughout this component, it is important to clarify the key issues we’ve just outlined.

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Ethics

Just as with the Philosophy of Religion topic, Ethics has its own set of questions to be required to think about *'the impact of other ethical perspectives and ethical studies issues, both past and present.'* This includes:

- The challenges to and support for Christian views from other ethical perspectives.
- The compatibility of Christian views with those of other ethical perspectives.
- The relative strengths and weaknesses of Christian perspectives and other ethical perspectives on these issues.
- The implications of criticisms of Christian ethical teaching for the religion as a whole.

Throughout these criticisms, however, there are two clear running themes. The first is the effectiveness of Christian ethics in comparison between Christian ethics and other ethical perspectives. The second is the role of the companion will be dedicated primarily to this aspect, with the aim of providing a **critical analysis** of the coherency and soundness of Christian ethics. In this section, the ethical positions demonstrated the Christian ethical perspective to be weak or flawed.

This question can be addressed in multiple ways. On the one hand, there are many challenges to Christian ethics. It might be contended that Christian ethics does not provide clear guidance, does not possess meaningful ethical sources of authority (e.g. conscience, moral principles). However, Christian ethics can also be criticised based on the gap between theory and contemporary ethical issues relating to human and animal life. Ultimately, if Christian ethics cannot resolve, or gives unintuitive advice about, pressing ethical dilemmas today, then its relevance can be called into question, especially if other ethical positions potentially give better answers.

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AO1 and AO2 Assessment Criteria

A key aspect of the Dialogues specification is to test what AQA terms AO2 under **assessment objective**, and is used to categorise the different criteria with which you will be marked. Let's take a quick look at the difference between the criteria for AO1 and AO2.

AO1: Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of religion and belief, including:

- religious, philosophical and/or ethical thought and teaching
- influence of beliefs, teachings and practices on individuals, communities and societies
- cause and significance of similarities and differences in belief, teaching and practice
- approaches to the study of religion and belief

AO2: Analyse, evaluate aspects of, and approaches to, religion and belief, including their influence on individuals, communities and societies.

What's key to note here? The foundation of your answers will be AO1 knowledge in all the questions you will be set on individual topics within the Christianity, Philosophy of Religion and Ethics specifications. However, a key element to your exam answers will also be AO2 analysis and evaluation. The 25-mark questions in the Dialogues are not just about just being able to list facts or demonstrate understanding of key concepts but being able to evaluate strengths and weaknesses, evaluating what you believe to be the strongest positions in the field of theology and philosophy and is not as straightforward to develop in comparison to AO1.

It is within this companion, however, that hopefully your powers of AO2 analysis and evaluation will be developed. In each of the sections, the key areas on which you will be assessed will be explored and discussed, and ideas that you might employ in your exam answers. Sections are designed not just to provide information but to prompt further thought and discussion about the concepts you have already encountered.

Now, it is likely that there are some areas you already feel very comfortable with and others you are less so. You've already made up your mind about a particular issue, or you naturally feel there is a lot to be said about a particular topic. Therefore, the 12 sections of this companion may not be equally necessary, depending on your strengths and weaknesses. If so, you may want to pick out and select different topics to focus on. However, the companion is designed to provide prompts for your research, revision activities and discussion questions that may help you to develop your arguments on a particular area. Moreover, for each concept or argument you encounter, try to think about the following questions in this rough order:

1. Is the argument philosophically valid and/or sound? Are there any fallacies, or logical errors, that pose an issue?
2. Is the argument coherent with other philosophical positions? What inconsistencies arise from proposing the argument alongside other pre-existing beliefs?
3. What implications does the argument have for our philosophical and/or religious understanding of the world?

Working through these three basic questions is a good way to begin any AO2 analysis of an argument individually, before gradually widening the net to look at its overall coherence and consistency with other positions. Why is this useful? Well, if an argument fails the first hurdle by being logically fallacious, then you may well not need to consider its coherence. It simply may not be a sound argument, then it may be worth focusing on broader issues of coherence and consistency with a reasoned perspective on the world, or maybe it has unintuitive (or absurd) implications that you disagree with.

When working throughout this companion, try to analyse each section and divide it into different categories. At times, various boxes and notes will be present through this companion, and these may relate to criticisms of arguments to one of these questions. Keep an eye out for these as you work through the companion.


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CHRISTIANITY AND PHILOSOPHY

Starter Revision Activity:

Revisit the following areas of the Philosophy of Religion and Christianity course required to justify belief in the existence of God? Write down two responses, one taking a philosophical (or atheist) position and another taking a religious (or Christian) position.

Arguments for the Existence of God 	Ontological Argument	
	Key Terms	A priori, Necessity, Reductio ad absurdum,
	Key Thinkers	Anselm, Gaunilo, Immanuel Kant, David Hume, Alvin Plantinga
	Cosmological Argument	
	Key Terms	A posteriori, Contingency, Deductive reasoning
	Key Thinkers	Thomas Aquinas, David Hume, Bertrand Russell
	Design Argument	
	Key Terms	Design, Complexity, Spatial order, Inductive reasoning
	Key Thinkers	William Paley, David Hume, Charles Darwin

The Problem of Evil 	Soul-making Theodicy	
	Key Terms	Natural evil, Moral evil, Evidential problem of evil
	Key Thinkers	Irenaeus, John Hick, Richard Swinburne, D Z
	Free Will Theodicy	
	Key Terms	Problem of evil, Free will, Inconsistent
	Key Thinkers	Alvin Plantinga, J L Mackie, Richard Swinburne
	Process Theodicy	
	Key Terms	Panentheism, Persuasion, Becoming
	Key Thinkers	David Ray Griffin

Christian Doctrine on God	The Attributes of God	
	Key Terms	Omnipotence, Omniscience, Transcendence
	Key Thinkers	Jesus, St Paul
	Christian Doctrine on God	
	Key Terms	The Trinity, Son of God, Father, Kingdom of God

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Introduction – Bringing Together Philosophical and Theological Perspectives

From the large number of topics featured at the start of this section, it is easy to be approaching the topic of God. However, don't panic at this first hurdle! Many of the topics are covered in more detail later in the Dialogues specification, particularly issues such as religious experience, miracles and the afterlife. At the same time, it is important to note that when thinking about the topic of God there is an incredibly wide set of sources and discussions to draw from. If you do not know much about God in your end-of-year exams, it is more vital than in any other topic to not rely on a single argument and work from a more limited perspective on the issue.

It may be a bit of a platitude to say at this point, but beliefs about God influence philosophy and theology. Moreover, philosophy is often at its most systematic when thinking about God, and being and reality can only be potentially outlined through reasoned a priori and a posteriori arguments. Philosophers also rebut and address criticisms from atheists as well as paint a picture of religious experience. Thus, here it is perhaps most important to dwell on the nature of beliefs about God, not just whether they are reasonable. One key example of this is the problem of evil. Here, theodicies may well draw a logically non-contradictory position on the existence of God coherent with the rest of Christian theology (e.g. process theology) or with the non-theistic soul-making theodicies).

However, this is not to say that reason does not play an important part when thinking about the consistency of beliefs. Consistency is founded on the idea that beliefs should be reasonable in nature, and when evaluating **arguments for the existence of God**. Key objections to the ontological argument often rest on pointing out various fallacies and inconsistencies in their reasoning. These undermine the foundations of such arguments to the point where belief in God is undermined. At the same time, proponents of arguments for the existence of God often do not intend them as proofs but to simply show that the existence of a God is consistent with the world around us. In either case, the extent to which belief in God is reasonable arguably influences our understanding of religion.

These introductory discussions form the bulk of what we will cover in this section. When we look at the various religious phenomena in greater detail. For the moment, we will look at the various arguments for the existence of God and how to best assess them.

Comparing Arguments for the Existence of God

In your studies into the Philosophy of Religion, you will have covered three primary arguments for the existence of God; the **ontological argument**, the **cosmological argument** and the **teleological argument**. If these are perhaps the three most well-known arguments for God, they are by no means the only ones. For God's existence have been routinely proposed and the failure of these arguments does not mean that God is effectively disproved. At most, the failure of these arguments gives support to the proposal that belief in God is irrational.

Another key point to consider is that calling these three topics 'arguments' is perhaps a misrepresentation. A large number of different arguments for God are contained within each of these three categories. For instance, you've seen how the cosmological argument can be divided into two different arguments: the **causal argument** and the **argument from design**. The main thing these arguments share in common is an appeal to the impossibility of an infinite regress. Arguments they start from different foundations. So, when talking about the existence of God, be sure that you state which variations you are talking about and how these variations relate to the nature and existence of God. Precision is perhaps important when discussing a topic that has been discussed for thousands of years!

At the same time, these three topics do roughly demarcate different approaches to the existence of God. Moreover, they each appeal to **reason** in a different manner.

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The Ontological Argument

The **ontological argument** is in essence an appeal to pure reason. In attempting to reason alone, it states that it is logical to believe in God. This means that if the argument is sound, then it is also incredibly strong, for it must deductively follow that God exists if the argument is true. At the same time, it also means that the ontological argument is inherently weak if there is a soundness problem. If the conclusion doesn't follow from the premises, or the premises themselves are false, then the argument can be done to recover the argument. In hanging on to reason alone, the ontological argument is inherently weak.

The Cosmological Argument

The **cosmological argument** is, in contrast, not wholly dependent on reason. More deductive than the ontological, it still appeals to premises that in some way draw on our experience. A common criticism of the traditional cosmological argument is that it assumes certain principles to be indisputable, logical truths rather than assumptions founded on our experience. The contingency argument. The appeal for a necessary being is rooted in our experience of contingency. However, the cosmological argument has the benefit of talking about specific kinds of things rather than directly observable objects. Ideas such as the causal principle may be difficult to verify but have a universal quality that makes them difficult to both verify and refute.

What does this mean for the strength of the cosmological argument? Well, they are employing metaphysical principles we take for granted in our daily lives. Yet at the same time, it is not clear what status these metaphysical principles should have and whether or not they are universal truths. For everyday life, such questions might not be important, but when we consider the existence of God, they certainly take on a new significance, especially if God is outside of space and time.

The Teleological Argument

Lastly, the **teleological argument** is perhaps the one that is most significantly based on experience. It still plays an important part in its form and structure. In contrast to the ontological argument, most versions of the teleological argument employ inductive or abductive reasoning. It often uses analogy or through direct inference to the best explanation. In strict philosophy, teleological arguments are weaker; even if we agree with the premises, it may not be merely evidence supported.

However, this naturally isn't the whole story. Concepts such as design, complexity, and order are easy to question as broader metaphysical principles. The nature of experience is not a complete abstraction. It may well be directly visible to our eyes! This means that the teleological argument is not stronger in form, may well be just as strong due to the nature of the evidence.

Fallacies, Incoherencies and Inconsistencies

It is likely you have a good awareness of the natural strengths and weaknesses of each argument and approach. But beyond study of individual arguments the broader connections between the arguments for the existence of God are important to consider. Should theists be looking for a deductive proof on God based wholly on reason? Or should they be gathering evidence for his existence, forming a cumulative case for his creative actions? This is where the meshing of philosophy and theology most commonly occurs. If, like Anselm, one is claiming that one is 'a fool' not to believe in God, then it is natural to use an approach such as the ontological argument. However, if one is committed to the importance of faith as well as reason, the teleological argument may well be an acceptable approach also.

But where should we begin in analysing the **fallacies** of such arguments? For if there are key internal problems with arguments for the existence of God, then we might even have to judge their coherency with Christian belief. Well, one incredibly useful and basic starting point is the philosophy of David Hume. His work you will have

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applied to all of these arguments and more. But beyond your studies, it is Hume's enduring sets of criticisms of religious belief that spurred on a greater debate about faith and reason. Moreover, these criticisms were not motivated solely by a desire for broader epistemological work that Hume is best known for today. So, let's briefly apply Hume's criticisms broadly to the structure of these arguments for the existence of God.

Contingent and Necessary Beings

This is a problem which affects both the ontological argument and the argument whether the notion of a **necessary being** is in fact meaningful at all. When the notion is in the context of a philosophical proposition or statement which must be logically meaningful of the term is understood. However, in the context of beings it is thought to be taken to mean that a being must exist eternally. Yet, Hume points out a basic problem with the notion of a necessary being not existing without contradiction. Moreover, if we cannot conceive of a necessary being not existing without contradiction, it is not logically necessary in any way that a necessary being must exist. Thus, Hume's argument doesn't really add anything to our understanding of a being.

Naturally, this poses a problem for the ontological argument and is one of the influences on the more developed argument that existence is not a predicate, for it doesn't impart information about a being. Similarly, the same is true for the argument from contingency; the mere possibility of a necessary being does not imply that a necessary being must exist or is even possible. You can see this in Bertrand Russell in his debate with Frederick Copleston, where Russell points out the opponent's argument, where he points out he is making a philosophical leap by assuming a necessary being is sensible at all! In either case, the basic sentiment behind Hume's influence; does the notion of 'necessity' really add anything meaningful to our understanding of a being?

The Causal Principle

Beyond questions of ontology, Hume also provided a illuminating analysis of the history, many philosophers have taken the cause and effect to be an intuitive or self-evident principle. Surely every effect must have a cause? But as you will have studied, Hume's argument is not that human beings come to know a priori. Rather it is that the principle is not something that is constantly conjoined. There is no logical reason to suggest that the future will resemble the past at all. The belief is just a habitual belief born out of consistent observation of the past. Hume has no logical guarantee that an effect must have a cause, that a certain effect in the future will resemble the past at all.

It is important to note here, of course, that Hume is not arguing we should not believe in the causal principle, but that it does not guide our scientific enquiries and enables us to trust in the operations of the natural world. That when it comes to extraordinary events, outside the realms of human experience, we should be careful when employing it. This is certainly the case with arguments for the existence of God. In the version of the cosmological argument, it is taken that there must be a first cause of the causal principle. But why does this have to be the case? Could there not be a fundamental lack of experience of beginnings of a universe should give us pause before making such philosophical leaps.

The same is true of the teleological argument. It is claimed that evidence of design in the universe points to a designer. Yet, we have no direct evidence of universe design and so no reason to believe there must be a designer at all. One might claim it seems as if proponents of the teleological argument are making the creation of the universe rather than making a reasonable judgement. Altogether, Hume's criticism of the causal principle can underwrite several different criticisms of God, and it is worth getting to grips with it as best as possible.

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Anthropomorphism

Anthropomorphism, as you will have studied, is the attribution of human characteristics to non-human entities. Hume refers significantly to this idea in his critiques of design. In particular, fallacies of design in particular fall under this umbrella. Is design really a feature of the universe? Do human beings seek to make sense of a chaotic world? The world itself may not have any number of properties which we typically apply to it. Similarly, even if God is not necessarily mean God created a good, ordered or intelligent world. The subtle point prominent in the teleological argument, is that we should be careful when applying concepts which does not necessarily reflect the concepts. Humans are constantly seeking to understand even where there are none. When thinking about notions such as design, we are not just asking if they are philosophically meaningful and applicable, not just whether they are intelligent world. This also comes to the fore when we look at the problem of evil.

Revision Activity:

For each of the cosmological, ontological and teleological arguments, pick what you think is the most problematic fallacy, writing down a few sentences about your reasons. Is there any other fallacy in particular?

The Problem of Evil

In the same way we analysed the reasonableness of the various arguments for the existence of God, we can also analyse the same for the problem of evil. The ultimate question is whether the existence of God is rational or a matter of faith. Moreover, the problem of evil is perhaps the most significant difference in 'belief in' and 'belief that'. Evil is not just an abstract concept but something that we experience on a daily basis. Belief in a God that is fundamentally good is very different from belief that God does in fact exist. Theists, in the face of evil, trust in the goodness of God in a way that is different from holding a mere belief that there is a reason for the existence of evil. The different senses of belief when analysing the two primary forms of the problem of evil.

The Logical Problem

The logical problem of evil presents the clearest realisation of the **inconsistent triad**. The problem of evil is a logical challenge to a benevolent, omnipotent God. The three things cannot all exist in this sense, like the ontological argument, the stakes are fundamentally clear. Either God exists, or there is evil, or there is no God. It can be put together in order to demonstrate that there is a world where these three things cannot exist: a benevolent, omnipotent God (or evil) cannot exist.

What is important to note, however, is that the logical problem of evil is not intended to prove the non-existence of God altogether, but the God of classical theism typically invoked in the development of the primary philosophers behind its development, pointed out that even if the logical problem of evil is a logical problem, these aren't necessarily heartfelt. While they might argue (as Aquinas did) that evil is a privation, for example, so evil doesn't really exist, they don't follow through with it and change their theology accordingly. The same is true with soul-making theodicies. We should treat evil as such rather than seeking to eliminate it in all circumstances. We find someone suffering from illness claiming it was for our good in the heat of the moment.

At the same time, the logical problem of evil is weak precisely because it is not a logical problem. There are many examples where the three things can logically coexist. The free will theodicy is a classic example of this. If evil is the necessary result of human free will, and if we have free will, then the problem of evil is solved. If we respond here that we don't exactly have evidence for angels, but this to some degree is a separate issue to the logical problem of evil. It's not evidentially supported but whether it is *possible*. Thus, like the ontological argument, the logical problem of evil falls down wholly if a solution is provided.

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The Evidential Problem of Evil

However, the same is not true of the evidential problem of evil. In many ways, it is the character and purpose of evil that is in question. The evidential problem forces theologians to answer why evil exists in the way that it does. Arguments against the logical problem aren't always as convincing against the evidential problem. Theologians simply talk about angels and expect the problem to be solved. Rather, the onus is often placed on theodicies that often appear so **gratuitous** and **unnecessary**. Criticism is often directed against the evidential problem on the **coherency** and **implications** of the problem, rather than whether it proves God's existence.

Thus, the soul-making theodicy is in common with the teleological argument. The soul-making theodicy might initially appear to be an evidential case as it has to be built up for the existence of God. However, so an evidential case has to be built up for the necessity and purpose of evil. Richard Swinburne and other theologians have thus often turned towards a multifaceted approach to answer against this problem. They draw on the importance of free will to answer the problem of evil, while looking towards soul-making-type solutions to natural evil. As Swinburne argues, human beings are to make significant free choices and undergo moral growth, they are often seen to grow up in a **'toy world'** designed to coddle them.

In any case, both the logical and evidential problems of evil are different ways of questioning the **consistency** and **coherency** of the three premises of the inconsistent triad. Much like the arguments for the existence of God, it takes certain properties of God to be true. Whether belief in these properties is reasonable considering our experience or reason is a different question. While these differ according to the argument in question (e.g. necessity, design, etc.), it is vital to note the root property in question and address how it potentially also relates to the problem of evil. As we shall note in the next section, although it is most common for Christians to believe in a particular conception of God, there are alternative portrayals in the Bible that might affect the reasonableness of religious belief.

Revision Activity:

Do you believe that logical or evidential evil poses a greater threat to Christianity? Discuss your points for and against each, identifying how conventional theodicies may fail to address these issues.

Christian Concepts of God

For the most part, arguments for the existence of God and the problem of evil have been based on classical theism; a creator who is omnipotent, necessary, benevolent, omniscient and eternal. This is the concept of God that most Christians have subscribed to and continue to subscribe to. However, each of these properties is not necessarily fixed in meaning. The nature of omnipotence is heavily debated both in theology and the philosophy of religion. Does it mean power over all things, or is it subject to the limits of logic? If the latter, maybe it simply isn't logically possible to create a world without questions that aren't part of the AQA syllabus but are useful to think about in context.

Responses to the arguments for the existence of God or the problem of evil don't always fit with the God of classical theism, even if you believe that classical theism is a good response to the problem. For instance, a significant part of your studies into Christianity was learning about the various conceptions of God who believe God is neither omnipotent nor omniscient in the manner typically associated with classical theologians. Instead, they promote a pantheistic God who pervades the entire universe and has the power to **'persuade'** mortal beings, not directly control them. But why is it that some theologians in the philosophy of religion?

Well, let's turn to the cosmological argument for a start. In these contexts, trying to understand the cause is perhaps not the right way of thinking about the existence of God at all. The cosmological argument is not about the abstract beginning of the universe but is in a process of becoming with it. So the causal argument is starting at a wrong assumption. Similarly, with the problem of evil, one would argue that it is wrong to hold that God possesses the power to eliminate all evil.

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but matter possesses its own power to resist divine influence. Overall, the important balance between faith and reason may be dependent on the concept of God one holds. In the analysis of the philosophy of religion in comparison with Christian belief, it is essential to be able to criticise the God of classical theism or another concept of God entirely.

Faith, Reason and Classical Theism

With this in mind, we can think a little more deeply about the relationship between the topics we have covered. Each of the arguments for the existence of God has hidden assumptions, yet it is unclear to what extent these issues should affect our analysis of the causal principles. It certainly shows that trust in cause and effect alone would not be enough for people living believing that events might randomly happen. On a basic philosophical level, it should be clear that the mere existence of fallacious arguments is false; instead, they need refinement.

This means in your arguments you should not stop short at giving a basic version of an argument; you should endeavour to find how proponents of an argument might respond. There are many versions of every topic here throughout the twentieth and twenty-first centuries, so we will use versions of these topics to provide an inductive cumulative case argument for his existence. That while God cannot be proved through one argument alone, taken together with other arguments, which God is reasonably consistent with the observable universe. Moreover, Swinburne uses metaphysical principles, such as the principle of sufficient reason or the causal argument off the inexplicability of an infinite series in the context of the known universe.

The AQA syllabus is broad enough that you should have other ideas of modern theodicies. For while it may not be reasonable to believe in God due to a lack of evidence, it may be more reasonable when one adopts an updated version of these arguments. Since it is natural to recognise that Augustine's theodicy is inherently weak due to the assumptions which were commonplace in ancient world views. However, the central idea that evil exists is still relevant today in modern theodicies.

These updated arguments also naturally adjust the way we approach the God of the Christians is inherently unknowable, with belief naturally incorporating some faith. We can show that such a belief is on the right track, even if many Christians would be happy to claim otherwise. For in many ways, reason and faith may be on a sliding scale for theists. Some believe in God while others require faith. A key example of this might be salvation. While it may be true that if creator God exists, it is more a matter of faith to believe that such a God is dedicated to saving humanity. Nevertheless, with these considerations, let us turn to the final section, where we will be constructing arguments for the topics studied so far.

Revision Activity:

Is there an alternative conception of the Christian God which would answer the theological issues? Put yourself in the shoes of a Christian defending your faith against such issues through your ideal God.

Exam Question Preparation

Now we've covered the key aspects of discussion surrounding God, we can begin to think about how we might construct an argument to questions you may face in your end-of-year exam. It may seem daunting, but at heart it is simply realising the ability to express your opinions in a structured way. In preparation you can do as always is just to work out for yourself what you believe and the arguments and evidence for that belief.

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In your end-of-year exams, you're likely to encounter one of several forms of question:

- Analysing a particular argument for God from a Christian perspective.
- Evaluating the problem of evil for Christians today, including analysing theodicy.
- More generalised questions that potentially address a variety of different topics, including the existence of God.

The final kind of exam question is perhaps the most likely to be asked. For instance, the following question developed by us:

Exam-style Question:

'If the universe has a beginning, it is reasonable to believe in God.'

Critically evaluate this statement and evaluate this view with reference to the dialogue between science and religion.

Here, we can see that the exam question is quite open-ended. It is possible to take the design argument to the cosmological argument. It may be that you can address later topics such as the relationship between religious and scientific discourse. The question is 'reasonable'; the main thrust of your argument should be judging whether there is a good reason to believe in God beyond faith, or whether science may well provide an alternative explanation for the existence of the world instead. Moreover, the use of 'beginning' here is a good indicator that you are expected to talk about the cosmological argument, especially whether the concept of a beginning supports the existence of God.

Yet, when it comes to arguments for the existence of God, we've seen there is an alternative view, the philosophy of David Hume. If you're struggling to evaluate the strength of any of his initial critiques, questioning the assumptions behind it, whether it be the meaning of 'beginning' or the validity of a metaphysical law such as the causal principle. From this, you can develop a deeper thread of discussion, asking whether Christians should approach the question differently, or whether there is a more mature version of the argument that answers the issues raised. Altogether, you can eventually make a judgement on the reasonableness of belief in God based on the arguments you have discussed.

For instance, if you think the existence of the world certainly is puzzling, it may just be that we have a limited understanding of the proportion our beliefs to the evidence. Since we cannot gain any direct knowledge of the universe, nor of a creator God that might be behind such an action, any attempt to prove God's existence may well simply be speculation. However, the Christian may simply respond that God doesn't have to prove he exists, just show that his existence is consistent with the world we observe. Since we don't have an explanation for the world, or why it appears ordered and meaningful, it is certainly reasonable to invoke a personal explanation in the form of God.

These two sides can easily be supported by a variety of arguments and ideas we've seen in this chapter. Moreover, you can draw on information you refine through study of later chapters, including the discourse between science and Christianity. For the moment, however, we'll focus on a different set of topics: the self, death and the afterlife.

Revision Prompts:

Based on your studies throughout these sections, there are some revision prompts for you to think about in your notes on when preparing for your end-of-year exams. For each, consider how you might support your view with philosophical and theological conflicts, and how others might critically evaluate your position.

1. Do arguments for the existence of God prove that he does in fact exist? Or are they just philosophical speculation? Is God's existence consistent with the observable world?
2. Can arguments for the existence of God be anything more than philosophical speculation?
3. Do any of the arguments for the existence of God make belief in God more than just a matter of faith?
4. Is there a theodicy that effectively addresses both the logical and evidential problems of evil?
5. Does the nature of evil and suffering prevent belief in an omnipotent and omniscient God from being reasonable?


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CHRISTIANITY AND PHILOSOPHY: SELF, DEATH AND THE AFTERLIFE

Starter Revision Activity:

Revisit the following areas of the Philosophy of Religion and Christianity course: What is the best argument that justifies belief in the existence of an afterlife? Write down two secular positions and another taking a religious (or Christian) position.

 Judgement and the Afterlife	Judgement	
	Key Terms	Particular judgement, General judgement, Second coming
	Key Thinkers	St Paul, Augustine
	Realms of the Afterlife	
	Key Terms	Heaven, Hell, Purgatory
	Key Thinkers	Dante, John Hick, Paul Tillich
	Self, Experience and the Afterlife	
	Key Terms	Objective immortality, Resurrection, Election
	Key Thinkers	Calvin, Charles Hartshorne

The Soul/Mind	Dualism	
	Key Terms	Substance dualism, Mind-body interaction, Cartesian dualism
	Key Thinkers	René Descartes, Plato, Richard Swinburne
	Materialism	
	Key Thinkers	Behaviourism, Reductionism, Category error, G. E. Hughes, C. G. Campbell, Richard Dawkins, John Hick

Introduction to the Relationship between the Soul and the Afterlife

In the previous section, we looked at some classic arguments for the existence of the soul. One piece of evidence often overlooked is the potential existence of the soul. Many people believe in an irreducible, immaterial part of the human person which persists after death, and this is often linked to belief about God and the afterlife. At the same time, belief in a soul has also been questioned by the growth of a scientific world view. If there is a soul, it cannot be discovered through scientific methods located anywhere in the human body. Thus, many have argued that belief in a soul is irrational. So should Christians still subscribe to this belief if it is wholly irrational?

Naturally, you will have considered such a question in your studies so far. But this is a question that you will be concerned with analysing belief in the soul and the afterlife from this angle, and it is a question that will be raised in your end-of-year exams concerning this topic. It is also a more difficult question to answer if you hold yourself to be a **materialist**, you might well imagine that belief in an afterlife is irrational. The growth of materialist perspectives has also seen an increased number of Christians who challenge this view. So, the possibility of a materialist version of Christianity is one of the challenges that a philosophical dualism might raise for traditional Christian belief. Your main task is to explore these nuances and decide whether the concept of a soul is coherent with our modern scientific world view. It is more important to understand why it is reasonable for human beings to look forward to something after death than to such questions by first revisiting the case for materialism.

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Reason and Materialism

At heart, the case for materialism is quite simple. Matter is the fundamental thing. Space, time... these cannot exist without matter. Even looking at humans, we are made of matter. Despite our conscious abilities. If the brain dies, so does the ability to think and feel. There is nothing there to believe that there is a soul, other than prior ideas about the existence of a soul. Who could create and sustain the existence of souls also? In other words, belief in a soul is either a case of circular reasoning. If we ask why we believe in souls, we might say God. But if we ask why we believe there is a God and then ask why we can't really say the existence of God is more than the mere existence of God doesn't give us any reason to believe human beings have souls at all. It is the material world but not an immaterial aspect beyond himself. It is the belief in a soul that makes the persistence of human beings after death – that makes a soul necessary.

Thus, materialism is, in a sense, the more self-evident position considering our scientific knowledge. It is important to note that this is not a historically widely held belief. Nor is it common in religious thought. Throughout much of human history it has been assumed that there is a soul. Otherwise, where do our thoughts come from? And what governs our actions? Psychological and neuroscientific research that has begun to answer these questions suggests that dualistic beliefs bear the burden of proof for belief in a substantially mental or spiritual aspect.

This imbalance is important to note when constructing an argument concerning the mere possibility that these things exist is not enough to make belief in them reasonable. It requires deeper philosophical argument which shows the errors of subscribing to a wholly materialist view. Some of these which we will briefly examine!

Religious Belief

This is a broad and difficult position to summarise. But as we have noted, many Christians cite sufficient evidence from the Bible and other forms of revelation to justify belief in a soul. The Bible contains key passages in which it describes how human beings might be resurrected. Traditional Christian theology is based on Platonic philosophy, of which belief in a soul is a central part. We might hold belief in a soul as something which can be judged impartially. If we accept religious evidence for the existence of God, we also naturally arrive at belief in a soul.

Philosophical Arguments for Substance Dualism

Throughout your studies, you will have considered several key arguments for dualism. The most famous have been René Descartes' **arguments from indivisibility** and **conceivability**. Simply put, these arguments identify the mental parts of the human person as possessing different properties to the body. If this is the case, then the mind and the body cannot be the same thing. Can we conceive of something really revealing its essential properties? We can go a little deeper into whether the mind has any **irreducible** properties.

Qualia and Property Dualism

Philosophers have long noted there's something strange about subjective experience. There is a personal element which isn't easily describable in physical terms. This often is referred to as *feel like*. For instance, although we know why human beings perceive colour, we don't know what it is like to experience the colour blue or what a person sees when they see red. Philosophers call such forms of experience **qualia**, and they perhaps hint that our experiences have properties that go (or contain) beyond our material understanding.

For theologians such as Richard Swinburne, such kinds of experience are enough to support **dualism**. The idea, as you may have studied, that mental experiences possibly independent of physical matter, cannot be reduced to or described by the properties of matter. Instead, they are **emergent** from physical matter. For theologians such as Swinburne, this is needed to support the belief that human beings can persist beyond death. It is these properties and experiences that can survive through the action of God.

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Near-death/Religious Experiences

Supporting such a notion might be the existence of religious experiences, including near-death experiences. These are difficult to quantify or even describe but are deeply persuasive forms of evidence. Furthermore, they share a lot of key links with discussions around the soul and the afterlife. Christians maintain a connection with God if not for some immaterial part of the self revealed during near-death and religious experiences. Altogether there is a strong case for religious experience, whether it be consciousness, qualia or religious experience, to be a real part of human experience, meaning that belief in the soul and the afterlife may not be wholly unreasonable.

Assessing These Arguments

Part of the challenge of assessing these arguments was to set out a rough path of how they might be defended from a materialistic perspective and a religious perspective. While these arguments aren't likely to be convincing, just as we did before with issues of God, we can defend them in their wake. Although Descartes' arguments might not support substance dualism, they do provide a stronger argument about property dualism. Similarly, although prior belief in the soul might impress the atheistic critic, specific evidence in the form of religious experiences can be used to defend the soul.

These more mature arguments also provide a response to the Ryle-style argument. A materialist is likely to contend that talk of the mind as a separate substance is tantamount to simply committing a category error in believing that the ability to conceive of the mind is enough to justify this being a real possibility. If this is the case, then dualism is simply an even think about whether it's coherent with our wider understanding of the mind. However, more in refuting **property dualism**, for although under this view mental properties are fundamentally dependent on physical matter. Moreover, the evidence for the immaterial is before our own eyes. We can all recognise the distinctive feeling of our experiences being inexpressible to others.

It is here also where the dialogues between religion and science are clearest, for we are not just to explain why we have these experiences but why these experiences are the way they are. This explanatory challenge is not describing why experiences feel a certain way to people but why they are premature. We've progressed a lot in our understanding of the mind in the last century. Could not a proper explanation for qualia simply be a future scientific discovery? If so, we can turn to another response to the challenge of materialism.

Revision Activity:

Go through your notes on each of the arguments you have studied in favour of the soul. Mark out of 10 for how philosophically strong you think it is and why you believe it is.

Then, once you have found what you believe to be the strongest argument, write a paragraph from a materialist perspective. Do any of these potentially change your initial stance?

A Materialist Christianity?

So far, our discussion has been focused primarily on the soul, though the same arguments can be made for the body. In fact, most concepts of the soul are proposed to be a mechanism by which human beings survive death. But what if the soul wasn't necessary in order to justify belief in the afterlife? One's intuition, could be a purely materialist religion when it comes to life and death.

Such a suggestion is not out of the question. In fact, if we wish Christianity to be a purely materialist perspective, it may well be necessary. This is the view at least of the Protestant theologian John Calvin. He forward his **replica theory** of the afterlife. His contention is that after we die God recreates us as when we were alive, which is the vehicle by which we become reunited with God. You have covered this in some way during your studies, but it is an important connection between Christianity and materialism. Moreover, it is one that also has some scientific support.

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Christian theologians, such as St Paul, subscribed in some way to beliefs about the soul. This is reflected in many passages in the Bible which suggest this as a possibility, particularly if the soul is immortal.

What does this mean? Well, for one it means that beliefs about a soul aren't necessarily connected to beliefs about an afterlife. Hick's project of demythologising Christianity potentially shows that we don't need to invoke a concept of the immaterial for ideas such as heaven and hell to be meaningful. Another supporting theory for this is Tillich's conceptions of the realm of the 'ultimate', which he construes more to be symbols of psychological realities that human beings experience during their lives. The central point here is that refutation of a soul is not necessarily refutation of an afterlife. If God is as all-powerful as Christians suggest, then perhaps a soul isn't needed whatsoever. The result is that belief in a soul may be seen as more **irrational** and less **coherent** if we accept the importance of a modern scientific perspective.

Here, you can think also about process theology and Hartshorne's suggestion that **objective immortality** in the afterlife. This means that although human beings would not have subjective experiences after death, they would persist in the mind and being of an undoubtedly radical and unorthodox, but they are important to consider when discussing the afterlife. For in the Dialogues part of your course, it is not always enough to present a basic concept such as the soul. Instead, it is important also to judge how this concept fits with other beliefs and affects our understanding of other religious and philosophical phenomena. The afterlife might just be a sign that certain elements of the Christian faith need to be re-evaluated or altogether should be abandoned.

Revision Activity:

Do you believe that Hick's vision of a materialist Christianity is reasonable? Or do you think human beings have a soul? Write down a few of your thoughts, noting whether you agree or disagree with Hick.



Philosophy and the Realms of the Afterlife

Throughout this section, there has been a broad emphasis on the importance of the soul. It comes to beliefs about the soul and the afterlife. Importantly, we've noted that if the afterlife is held to be consistent with the existence of a soul, we've also seen a purely materialist perspective on the human person. So, there is a need to assess the possibility of an afterlife, separate to our discussion of the soul. Yet, it is perhaps even more difficult to find evidence beyond Christian dogma for the existence of life after death. By its very nature, it seems to annihilate the possibility of subjective experience, so what else is there to draw on for circumstantial evidence such as near-death experiences?

Well, here even Christian thought about the afterlife is naturally vague, as you will see. Scripture seems to contain numerous physical descriptions of heaven- and hell-ly realms, often on the importance of judgement. Thus, what scripture seems to impart to us is not life after death but the need to be prepared. Righteous acts lead to reward, whereas sinful acts lead to punishment. The inherent simplicity of this framework is itself vital to note. What is likely to be fair beyond what the human mind can envision. Here, we can even see a form of **accommodation**. God has not revealed the nature of the afterlife simply by revealing the nature of the soul. It is only after death that belief and faith may be rewarded. If we are going to be rational, we should simply be rational to act well.



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The Coherency of Christian Beliefs about the Afterlife

So, philosophical talk about the afterlife doesn't necessarily benefit from an analysis. Neither can tell us what the afterlife will be like, nor what its nature might be. However, the consistency and coherency of beliefs about the afterlife with other religious beliefs holds that it is the soul that persists beyond death, then perhaps judging heaven and hell as missing the point. If it is an immaterial part of ourselves that lives on, then should we think of it as spiritual states? Similarly, if God is beyond the physical, then why would he impose physical punishment? What many Christian thinkers are ultimately seeking is that which reflects their system of beliefs. If there are no inconsistencies, then these can effectively support the coherency of the Christian beliefs as a whole.

A good example of this in action is in the eschatological thought of John Hick. Although he argues that there is no purgatory, based on a similar kind of reasoning to the Catholic Church's **universalism** – the belief that God will eventually save all people. Yet, if salvation is for all, even the wicked, then this belief seems to be irrational. For Hick's theology to be coherent, there must be a state by which individuals are forced to confront their sins and be purified before entering heaven. What is interesting here is that Hick chooses philosophical coherency over adherence to traditional doctrine. This raises questions about the nature of faith versus reason when talking about the afterlife. Since the afterlife cannot be proved, Hick still chooses to make his theology rationally coherent, thus supporting faith in a particular form of the afterlife.

Thus, it is important to note that even if belief in the existence of an afterlife is true, this does not mean that philosophical reasoning and reason as a whole do not play a role in developing your view to account for the coherency and consistency of your position. It is supported by experience or reason.

Revision Activity:

Is belief in heaven and hell more reasonable than belief in purgatory? Or is belief in purgatory speculation? For each realm of the afterlife, note down two arguments that may be reasonable.

Exam Question Preparation

Now we've looked at the different dimensions of discussion around the soul and the afterlife, more about how we can construct arguments for exam questions. The first thing to consider is the way that the broader debates between materialist and dualist perspectives frame this topic. The atheist committed to a wholly rational outlook is likely to say that the evidence is overwhelmingly in favour of a materialist perspective, while there is not any significantly strong argument in favour of dualism. It is a matter of faith to believe in a soul and the afterlife. However, this may not eliminate the possibility of shorthand for a person's character, personality or capacities.

On the other hand, we have a variety of religious positions that oppose this perspective. There are religious and philosophical arguments for both substance and property dualism. These render belief in a soul or the afterlife wholly reasonable. However, to demonstrate the coherence of these concepts that extend beyond mere faith or prior religious conviction. More than other phenomena such as religious or near-death experiences, there arises a need for recognising the potential existence of a spiritual or immaterial realm. So, the question arises: how might it be coherent and consistent with our understanding of the self?

With these perspectives in mind, we can consider an exam-style question:

Exam-style Question:

'There is no reasonable evidence for Christian beliefs about the afterlife.'

Critically examine and evaluate this view with reference to the dialogue between faith and reason.

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This question is perhaps one of the most straightforward you might receive, asking the reasonableness of a distinct element of this topic. However, it is key to note that you might receive a question that is a little more open-ended. Nevertheless, even such as the above, it is still up to you to narrow down a particular line of argument, heaven and hell reasonable due to evidence from phenomena such as religious claims, or are they reasonable based on philosophical arguments for God and the soul? Or, if one adopts a Christian materialist perspective such as John Hick?

Ultimately, what is vital is that you build a case for your position carefully and with good arguments for a soul, mind or afterlife to be established and then connected to what is done, it is then necessary to assess the coherence and consistency of arguments for anticipating what criticisms that might weaken it. The end result will not be an existing Christian dogma but one which attempts to show the underlying rationality of afterlife if there is one to be found!

Revision Prompts:

Based on your studies throughout these sections, these are some revision prompts to make notes on when preparing for your end-of-year exams. For each, consider how answering the philosophical and theological conflicts it addresses and how others might answer your answer.

1. Is there a good philosophical basis for believing in a mental or spiritual part of the self?
2. Should we take a scientific view of the human self, or is there still room for a soul?
3. Should Christianity adapt to new philosophical thought about the mind and the self, developing a materialist Christian world view?
4. Do arguments for the soul provide evidential support for beliefs about the afterlife?
5. Are Christian conceptions about the afterlife coherent with traditional theology? Should our understanding of the afterlife change?

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CHRISTIANITY AND PHILOSOPHY: SOURCES OF AUTHORITY

Starter Revision Activity:

Revisit the following areas of the Philosophy of Religion and Christianity course listed below, write down one Christian belief that has been influenced by each, as you progress throughout this section.

Sources of Authority	The Bible	
	Key Terms	Sola scriptura, Inerrancy, biblical criticism
	The Church	
	Key Terms	Sacred tradition, Apostolic succession, Magisterium
	Reason	
	Key Terms	General revelation, Natural law, Liberal theology
	Conscience	
	Key Terms	Ratio, Synderesis, Moral knowledge
	God	
	Key Terms	Divine command theory, Miracles, Revelation
	Religious Experience	
	Key Terms	Special revelation

Introduction - Comparing Different Sources of Authority

Out of all the Philosophy of Religion topics in the Dialogues specification, this is the one that most directly relates to the sources of wisdom and authority Christians draw on. Unlike the atheist or agnostic, the Christian might draw on reason, experience and perhaps their conscience when forming their views and ideas. On the other hand, the Christian might regularly let religious experience, prayer, the Bible and their views and ideas.

Yet, as you will have analysed as part of the Christianity specification, not all Christian sources of authority are of equal value. Moreover, there are broader philosophical questions about whether it is reasonable to trust in each of these sources of authority. Is believing in the teachings of faith more reasonable than reason? And is it truly possible to trust faculties such as conscience? We will be going over the differences between Christian perspectives but will instead be perceiving the different sources of authority from a philosophical perspective, looking at the reasons for and our understanding of reason and faith.

Furthermore, we'll be examining how to compare each source of authority from a philosophical perspective. For while Christians might trust one source of authority, this often arises outside of philosophical reasoning. The history of the Christian Church is full of judgement of different sources of authority and it is much more useful in Dialogues to look at authority from both a theological and philosophical perspective. What might a philosopher trust for a Christian? It is less likely to appeal to the atheist. First though, we must look at reason in the philosophical world view and how different sources of authority might be perceived.

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The Primacy of Reason

Why have we referred to reason as the foremost authority at the start of this section? From a scientific perspective, it is hard to deny that reason is perhaps the faculty that plays the most significant role in the formation of our beliefs. We are constantly (at least in philosophy) assessing different sources of information and trying to see if they logically cohere with our prior understanding of the world. Moreover, the knowledge we have is based on the systematic application of reason to our experiences and the arguments could one present to accept other sources of authority which aren't so

Well, in reality, we don't really employ reason as often as we might think we do. The last non-fiction book you read (this companion is an example). Reading it, you would have noticed that the information presented in that book was – on the whole – true, unless you were lying. Your trust isn't likely solely based on reason. If you were reading a book, you are most likely to be trusting in the information based on the credentials of the author or the knowledge you learn is likely to be judged against other knowledge which you have (the credentials of an author or a publisher). In fact, most of the things we learn are beyond use of our reason.

As another example, think about your observations of the room around you. When you observe many different objects, such as tables or chairs, it isn't necessarily reason that makes the attempts to justify trust in our experiences through reason alone haven't exactly been successful. The most famous example is in Descartes' *Meditations*, where he begins with 'I think, therefore I am') and uses this initial argument as a foundation for his concept of God, which he then attempts to develop an ontological argument for the existence of God, that God would never deceive human beings, so human beings can trust in our senses.

Descartes' arguments aren't exactly airtight and you certainly will have your own point of view. The point is that regardless of the overall primacy of reason, we regularly employ various other ways through the world. More importantly, this trust often rests on different sources of authority about the world. This means that, when thinking about sources of authority, it is important to make a distinction between 'having a belief that' and 'believing that'. For our beliefs about different sources of authority, extra assumptions are often made beyond the mere physical facts that surround our beliefs. We trust that it is important to probe in Dialogues and which provide an important foundation for faith as a whole.

Christianity and Reason

In your studies into Christianity, you will have examined the different ways that Christians use the use of reason in analysis of scripture and theology. Yet, with the exception of certain denominations which hold the Bible to be **self-authenticating**, you are unlikely to find Christian denominations denying the importance of reason in faith. From the Catholic perspective, reason is routinely employed as a source of authority, though often secondary to revelation and the Church.

However, there is a natural tension between reason and other sources of authority. Importantly, it is difficult to ascertain to what extent our beliefs are based on reason and how much on faith. For instance, liberal Christians are likely to argue that any teachings that are not coherent with a scientific world view are not true. Reason suggests that the world is organised in a way that Christian teachings about a natural ordering and purpose shouldn't be accepted. This is a source of tension in the faith. A classic example of this precedent is the theory of evolution, which liberal Christians will typically take to be true despite the fact that creation accounts are found in the Bible.

Yet conservative Christians are unlikely to feel the same way. Sources of authority include information directly imparted by God, who is omniscient and infallible. Why should we trust over the greatness of the Christian God? In this way, it is easy to see how

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the importance of reason in the Christian faith. If it is believed that reason is a natural faculty, then it seems absurd to prioritise other sources of authority over what is believed that human reason is impaired, e.g. by the Fall, or that other sources of authority are more reliable. If it is believed that human reason is impaired, then it is arguably rational to prioritise revelation over the information we receive from reason.

Now, such a distinction of course ignores the wider debate over the authenticity of reason. It is important to think about nonetheless. Within philosophy and other fields, there is a debate about what reason actually is and how it should be applied. What may be reasonable to one person is not necessarily reasonable to another, and what is reasonable in one context is not necessarily reasonable in another. Considering the sources of authority and the role of reason in a huge role, it is more difficult to discern which sources are reasonable than when we are dealing with arguments, such as those about the existence of God we explored in the first section of the debate. The complexity of the sources of authority makes it difficult to apply a dualistic framework onto issues surrounding this topic.

Revision Activity:

To what extent should Christians judge their beliefs against the use of their reason as a source of authority or simply a check upon the sources of authority we use?

As a simple exercise, note down three traditional Christian beliefs and analyse how they might undermine their plausibility. Do the results of this process require abandoning them to better fit a modern world view?

Analysing Rationality, Coherency and Consistency

So, what kind of analysis can we perform? Well, the complexity of the issue does not make it impossible to develop philosophical arguments one way or the other. If, for example, I put religious experience as a source of authority above all else, one might question this judgement. I might have problems with religious experience as a whole. Thus, the question for the Christian is whether it is rational to endorse multiple sources of authority over one. This issue has been the subject of many discussions around Catholic versus Protestant sources of authority, but there is no simple philosophical analysis.

This kind of analysis ties into questions about the coherency and consistency of our beliefs. While I used the example of complete trust in religious experience as a 'weak' position, many thinkers (such as Kierkegaard or Schleiermacher) who have adopted this position have argued that a philosopher of religion John Hick, whom you've studied in various guises, argues that the heart of all religious enterprise (although he also strongly advocates for a rational approach to the Christian faith does not necessarily also mean adherence to the Bible or the

The ultimate point here is that the problem of sources of authority is very open-ended. There is no single ultimate 'rational' Christian or atheistic position. Thus, when thinking about the relationship between Christianity, faith and reason, it is more vital than ever to narrow down your own position on each source of authority and judging how it might fit into an overall consistent worldview. It may be that you can exactly quantitatively weight the importance of every source of authority, but as long as you can identify those sources which should be prioritised for a Christian, a coherent worldview can be constructed and outlined.

Revision Activity:

Do you believe it is necessary for all Christian ideas to be coherent? Or does the Christian faith allow for this to be a fallible process?

Similarly to the last exercise, pick out three Christian beliefs and analyse any incoherencies in them. Are satisfactory answers available for these incoherencies, or should Christians continue to help find a solution?

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Faith and Sources of Authority

So far, we have noted two key ideas in this section. The first is that trust in sources is based on different sets of assumptions. The second is that a variety of different reasons have been developed out of these assumptions. Moving on from this, we can think a little more about the sources of authority you have covered in your studies and how they might be philosophically justified. Some, such as religious experience, will be analysed only briefly as they are covered in other topics. However, others – such as the Bible and the Church – will take centre stage and be dissected in detail.

The Bible

The status of the Bible as an issue you will have covered quite a bit in your Christian studies. You have analysed the relationship between the different books and parts of scripture, the different teachings within it as well as the correct interpretation of key figures such as Jesus. Christian theology are grounded on the fundamental belief that the Bible in some way is a source of divine authority. Moreover, the main thrust of atheistic criticisms of Christianity (and other religions) is that it does not reflect any special truth or revelation. It is just a book written by human beings, subject to the forces and laws that govern the natural world. It is perhaps easy to conjure up events that by their nature can appear mysterious to the naked eye. But for modern science and scientific world view, such explanations are less than convincing.

We will look at such critical arguments in more detail when we analyse the issue of miracles in our companion. But the case against the Bible being a source of authority can take a more of a priori argument, holding that no text should be held as possessing supreme authority over human beings. In other words, human beings have always got things wrong and have no special access to truth. Maintaining any text or faculty as possessing authority above all else is just a relic of a pre-modern world. It can also take a more a posteriori approach, holding that the authority of any text is based on our current evidence and experiences. Therefore, when we analyse the Bible, we need to be open to what should naturally count against its authority. This means that our trust in any text is based on evidence.

Now, such problems naturally come into conflict with a Christian world view. If we accept that the Bible is subject to revision affects its status as a source of authority. It would be hard to accept that the Bible contains human error. But they might accept that there are underlying truths which reflect the will of God. Therefore, it may also ironically lead to a disregard the authority of the Bible based on its various errors. On the other hand, some traditional Christians might regard the Bible, at heart, to still be infallible. What is the problem is a failure to understand its deeper message.

Coherency, Consistency and Scripture

As such, a key issue here is determining whether a lack of apparent **coherency** and **consistency** affect trust in it as a source of authority. While it is clear that the Bible doesn't always present a single set of teachings, this does not necessarily prevent it from being valuable to Christians. It has to be tempered with other sources of authority. Yet, there is also the possibility of a lack of coherency and consistency, along with potential errors. This means that it should not be a source of authority when, philosophically speaking, there are more reliable sources of authority.

So how do these problems tie into faith and faith? Well, it may highlight the importance of **sola scriptura**, which holds that scripture to be of the utmost authority. Unless there is a clear and aid interpretation of the internal issues found within scripture, belief in its infallibility is a matter of faith. Similarly, when the authors seem to present beliefs that are now considered to be irrational to trust the Bible on issues to which modern-day scientific belief is based. Then why should the Bible be trusted at all? Is it not meant to explain why the world is the way it is?

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Well, it may also be irrational to take a wholly simplistic or one-sided view of Christianity. As we noted in the beginning, trust in texts or scripture rarely is conducted on a case-by-case basis. Particulars are likely to point out the value of the Bible in giving deeper ethical and moral guidance beyond the remits of scientific explanation. In other words, critical examination of the Bible may miss the point when thinking about its value as a source of authority. If the Bible contains scientific errors, the Bible may not be a scientific text. Trust in it as a source of authority. The process of analysing its unifying, underlying message, not its surface explanation, is not irrational to dismiss it based on the presence of human errors in its pages.

Ultimately, what is key is that 'belief' in the Bible is not a mere example of faith in a text, but at least partially reasonable. Considering the kinds of teachings the Bible offers, the way they play out within the broader relationship between religion and science (with science as a companion, not a foe), the answers the Bible provides are potentially ones beyond which a purely rationalist approach this means that its trust is not necessarily misplaced. Yet, at the same time, complete trust can be misguided. Thus, scripture in itself can be a key case study of the relationship between faith and reason, highlighting both the shortcomings of a completely 'rational' outlook and the need for faith in scripture. In fact, this latter perspective we can analyse in a bit more detail when we

Revision Activity:

For each of the subjects below, research two biblical passages that provide conflicting views, found, assess how from a Christian perspective you might seek to resolve such conflict, and how an assessment involve accepting the principles of liberal theology?

1. Gender
2. Wealth
3. The afterlife

The Church

In comparison to the Bible, thinking about the Church as a source of authority can be a bit more complex. Discussions. With the Bible, we're asking to what degree trust should be placed in a text that, in large, has remained unchanged since the time it was written. While this potential for becoming outdated as beliefs change throughout history, the same is not necessarily true of the Christian Church is potentially much more flexible (depending on one's views) and open to new knowledge and ideas. Thus, when thinking about whether to trust the Church as a source of authority, to ask what kind of Church we're envisioning and the relationship between reason and faith.

Reason and the Catholic Church

One easy example to draw on here is the Catholic Church. Adherents believe that the Church is the continuing link between God and the world, with its clergy divinely appointed to carry God's will throughout human history. This in part is based on the idea of apostolic succession; that the Church has an unbroken line of clergy that can be traced back to the earliest Apostles. Thus, it reflects what was being taught during Jesus' lifetime and immediately afterwards. However, it also maintains that the Magisterium is capable of issuing new religious law. What is ordained is not simply a matter of repeating old teachings but in re-interpretation and crafting new ones based on novel religious insights from the Bible and tradition.

So strangely enough, this is a situation where one is required to trust the Church as an unchanging authority, but also to trust it because it is a body ordained by God and capable of interpreting its will. There is both faith in the Church as the true voice of God but also a need for reason is necessary in order to ensure that Christian teaching is relevant to modern audiences. Do we accept the idea that the Church has any sanctity at all? Surely the Apostles were not infallible, why, therefore, should tradition govern how we view the world? Such questions are difficult to answer, especially for the Catholic Church as their position on many issues has begun to look increasingly backwards in the modern age.

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Other Approaches to the Church

On the other hand, we might take the line of many Protestant Churches and hold that the Bible is the source of authority, it is not sacred in and of itself. It primarily is a source of teaching for Christians in order to help them understand the Bible. Here, one could hold that the Bible is in a more rational position on the Church. If one disagrees with the Church, it is not the Church which is supposed to carry sacred authority. Moreover, it can be argued that the Church is more likely to result in a more critical approach to scripture as there is no single interpretation, determined solely by those who are ordained.

Such conclusions are arguably reinforced in the large number of different denominations within the Protestant Church. Yet, taking a view of the Church arguably leads to its own set of problems. We can ask whether the Church is truly a source of authority at all if its own teaching is based on a reason. Surely what is being talked about is the use of knowledge and reason to justify an arbitrary or faith-based trust in an institution? Unless the Church does possess some special authority, the Church perhaps isn't a proper source of authority at all, merely a place of spiritual comfort.

Nevertheless, the final part you should be considering in this debate is to what extent the Church is a source of authority to Christians. Maybe the idea of a centralised Church always has been flawed. Should the Church function as anything more than a place to meet like-minded people? The decentralisation of authority of the Church may be an important step towards rational reform where reason is given over sustaining tradition. Here, you might use the Quakers as a key example. As the Church structures or hierarchies, it potentially embodies a different perspective on authority and function and the responsibility of individuals to develop their own insights and ideas.

Conscience, Religious Experience and God

So far, we've set up a discourse that focuses on a comparison between the Church and individual sources of authority, for by and large the daily life of a Christian revolves around these two. However, we also take time to consider a few other sources that you might employ in your argument. We have discussed individually in other articles, but it is worth bringing them to the fore as sources of authority.

The first source we can consider is that of conscience. For many Christians, conscience is the voice or will of God working through them. When a pang of conscience is felt, they are aware of potentially transgressing God's will. However, this isn't the only interpretation. A more developed view that conscience is the application of reason, guided towards good. **synderesis** – the notion that human beings are naturally inclined to do good and avoid evil. Critics such as Freud argued that conscience is merely the expression of conflicting forces, the superego clashing with the id.

Here it is clear to see the relationship between reason and faith in action. If conscience is the voice of God's will, then it is perfectly rational to follow it. Yet, it is perhaps also a matter of faith that conscience reflects God's will in the first place, rather than, as Freud suggests, as a product of upbringing. Nevertheless, even if Freud is right, many Christians will maintain some kind of trust in conscience if it has guided them towards good before. Moreover, once again we reach a kind of circularity: if conscience is perhaps, at least partially, based on the notion that its reliability is derived from God. There is also the further troubling issue that it is unclear to what extent external factors of consistency can weigh in on the guidance given by conscience. It is a purely internal matter for each person, and thus it cannot be conveyed as anything more than a feeling or an impression.

A similar kind of problem emerges in the case of religious experience. As we will see, the special properties of religious experience (numinous, ineffable) make it difficult to put into words or reason. Since our reason is in some way dependent on experience altogether, it is difficult to say that the properties of religious experience should guide us towards trusting or distrusting it. If we trust religious experience, then it is certainly reasonable to hold it as a source of authority, but it is also dangerous, especially if religious experiences guide us towards potentially delusional conclusions.

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Thus, we can arrive at the final source of authority: God himself. This is important about other sources of authority and the ways they can be trusted. For there is a faith behind Christians' use of the Bible, the Church and other sources of authority such as religious experience. This principle of faith is that it is God who is revealing himself through the Bible. If God is omniscient, then these sources must contain truths about the world, even if they are fallible. However, the tricky part for the atheist is arguing against this fundamental principle. The claim that God does not exist is a separate argument to holding that certain sources of authority are not analysed through reason.

But this is perhaps what the argument is about and sources of authority boil down to the claim that faith is a key part of belief in God and so this faith also extends to sources of authority by God. This is why it is important to be careful when constructing arguments about sources of authority. Claiming that God does or does not exist still does not answer the question about whether sources of authority should be put into sources such as the Bible. At the same time, it cannot be said that the Bible goes beyond mere reasonable judgement due to this underlying faith in God.

Revision Activity:

Which source of authority do you believe Christians should prioritise in their evidence? Write down three arguments for and against your views.

Exam Question Preparation

The most fundamental question you might be asked is: *What source of authority is trustworthy?* And throughout this section we've explored a number of different sources and delved into the underlying assumptions behind these answers. Nevertheless, it is a complex and difficult to tease out topics in the Dialogue as so much of the sources of authority in the Christian religion is based on the belief that God has revealed himself to human beings. Nonetheless, we could construct a number of different questions of which we will explore.

The first question to consider is that of the typical Protestant view – that the Bible is the primary source of authority. We might begin by noting a few key Christian perspectives, such as Barth's view of the Bible as a witness to the revelation of Jesus Christ. From this we can probe: how can we truly disentangle what is correct witness versus human error? Does this not require a critical approach such as the Church? Should not our reason come before belief in the testimonies of the Bible? Is even holding the Bible to be a matter of faith? Is even holding the Bible to be an admission that belief in its teachings is a matter of faith? And does this mean that we cannot experience God, either through conscience or religious experience?

A similar approach can be taken with the Church or any other source of authority. The key note here is that if you do select a single source of authority to focus on, you must be able to provide supporting arguments and criticisms to a select key few. It is easy to get sidetracked by the same is true conversely if you choose to hold that Christians should adopt multiple sources of authority. It is important that you have the time to delve into complex arguments for each source and it is important that you are able to provide evidence of each source while fending off criticisms that might suggest that Christians prioritise one source over others.

Other Forms of Question

The second kind of question you might be asked is a direct comparison of two different sources of authority. For example, the June 2018 paper for the Christianity Dialogues specified a question about the Bible and the Church.

Exam-style Question:

'Secular critiques of the Church have undermined Christian beliefs about the authority of the Bible. Critically examine and evaluate this view with reference to the dialogue between the Bible and the Church.'

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Here, your answer is narrowed down for you. But equally this means that it is not of authority in particular. Whatever argument you are constructing, it must be fit for these kinds of more direct question that might appear. In our example of the argument earlier, it becomes easy to adapt this position when answering this question. All the problems that trust in the Bible faces from contemporary critiques of the Church surrounding the trustworthiness of Christian tradition and the Church's use of real interpretations of a document that has been deeply shaped by theological debate. address whether continued trust in the Church is reasonable if the Bible is regarded as the primary source of authority. Yet, if this is the case, are Christians still required to believe such as the incarnation or Trinity?

Such questions will be easier to answer after you complete your revision for the exam. Nevertheless, it is likely that the questions you will face will focus on one of these issues found purely in the Christianity specification. As such, it is worth ensuring that you understand the different ways that Christians of different movements and denominations might view surrounding religious sources of authority.

Revision Prompts:

Based on your studies throughout these sections, these are some revision prompts to make notes on when preparing for your end-of-year exams. For each, consider how you are answering the philosophical and theological conflicts it addresses and how others might answer your answer.

1. To what extent should reason be a key source of authority in the lives of every Christian?
2. Does reason fundamentally undermine trust in other Christian sources of authority? Can trust in revelation and faith survive?
3. Should the Bible be viewed as infallible, or are there too many internal contradictions for it to work?
4. What role should the Church have as a source of authority in contrast to the Bible?
5. Are any other sources of authority, such as religious experience or conscience, as important as the Bible and the Church?

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CHRISTIANITY AND PHILOSOPHY: RELIGIOUS EXPERIENCE

Starter Revision Activity:

Revisit the following areas of the Philosophy of Religion and Christianity course. For each area, note down one historical event that fits the criteria when progressing through this section.

Religious Experience	Forms of Religious Experience	
	Key Terms	Corporeal, Imaginative, Intellectual, Mystical
	Key Thinkers	Rudolf Otto, William James, Stace, Happold
	Analysis of Religious Experience	
	Key Terms	Principle of credulity, Principle of testimony
	Key Thinkers	Richard Swinburne, Peter Vardy, Sigmund Freud
	Religious Experience, Verification and Falsification	
	Key Terms	Cognitivism, Non-cognitivism, Form of life
	Key Thinkers	A J Ayer, Antony Flew, Ludwig Wittgenstein

Introduction – Philosophy, Theology and Religious Experience

In the last topic we briefly looked at religious experience as a source of authority for discussion to be had about the nature of religious experience and whether it can provide evidence about the existence of God. Here, reason and faith are difficult concepts to judge what kinds of experiences are trustworthy or not. While some might argue that our experiences converge in a kind of public agreement, such a process isn't necessarily widespread occurrences of religious experience, contrary to the wishes of atheists of convergence around a divine or otherworldly source. In this sense, religious experience is our own views, might be a complete matter of faith or a reasonable source of authority.

The Nature of Religious Experience

So how do we tease out a constructive philosophical debate around religious experience? It is arguably three parts to your studies that can be drawn into any discussion. The first is the experience itself. While we noted already that there does seem to be widespread experiences around the world, is it really correct to say that these all share common features? In the Philosophy of Religion course, you will have studied numerous different types of religious experience, from corporeal to intellectual to mystical forms. All these are oriented around God, but their similarities end. In fact, despite the work of William James and other thinkers, at the heart of religious experience is a set of shared sentiments. The actual expressions of religious experiences vary so wildly that it may not be right to gather them all under the same umbrella.

The Authority of Religious Experience

The second part is thinking about the properties of religious experience itself and whether it can provide evidence for the existence of God. Most commonly, religious experience is described as numinous. These properties mean that it is vastly different from our ordinary experiences. It is not a matter of public agreement that typically verifies our everyday observations. Here, we can differentiate between **public** and **personal** evidence for God. Even if we can form an effective base of evidence for a broad philosophical argument for God, this is not incontrovertible evidence for an individual's belief in God. Moreover, without access to such personal evidence, it can be difficult for the atheist critic to argue against such personal reasons for a theist's belief.

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However, in another sense, these unique properties also maybe give reason to doubt religious experience. Here, various arguments have been given by religious thinkers. Richard Swinburne, for instance, provides two principles (the **principles of testimony**) which argues make trust in the authenticity of religious experiences a matter of ordinary logic. We doubt our experiences unless given good reason, so why do the same for religious experiences? We might think of religious experiences as essentially **basic**, to echo Alvin Plantinga's beliefs. If this is the case, then religious experiences are not like any other kind of experience. They are building blocks of faith just as our ordinary experiences are the building blocks of science.

Yet, it is possible to take another view of these unique properties of religious experiences and differentiate them from other kinds of experience. On a fundamental level, we can see that religious experiences are not like any kind of corporeal, material thing, so it is not surprising that they are a special kind of experience. The trouble is, of course, that we cannot verify religious experiences. Properties, in so marking out religious experience as special, give us ample reason to doubt it. Such questions may arise from the similarities of religious experiences to phenomena like the lack of verifiability of the things being experienced (God). We will look at this later on, but for the moment we can turn to another slightly more nuanced issue: the nature of religious experience.

Religious Experience and Language

As part of your studies, you will have looked at philosophical ideas such as verificationism. While they appear to primarily concern religious language, they also tie in to debates about religious experience. For a key part of Christianity is not just historical accounts of religious experiences but the experiences Christians have of God. Yet, as we have noted already, religious experiences are not like ordinary experiences. Can these statements, accounts and testimonies of religious experiences have meaning according to a verificationist understanding of religious language? Unfortunately they do not. The problem is that religious experience would be either making metaphysical claims (about the existence of God) which can't be verified or simply making nonsense altogether.

However, there is a way to turn this around. Perhaps we take a **non-cognitivist** view of religious language. This means that religious ideas about God are not like statements in a game. If this is the case, then talk of religious experiences being verified, it just has to have meaning according to the rules of the relevant language. This is a slightly more difficult way to think about religious experiences. Essentially, it means that religious experiences are intended to be public arguments for the existence of God but ways for believers to express their experiences in a way that is meaningful to those who have experienced a similar experience. If many theists, this might seem a bit defeatist. Surely religious experiences across different cultures are evidence for God?

It is likely that many people would be unhappy relegating religious experience to a private matter. There is good scope for thinking about the ways in which religious experiences might be expressed symbolically in religious practice. Moreover, such an interpretation of religious experiences and the testimonies given by people who claim to have experienced them. For the moment, we shall turn to these criticisms and see what the theist might reply.

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Revision Activity:

Which of the factors listed above do you believe is the most impactful when assessing the reliability of religious experience as a source of knowledge? Along with your answer, note three supporting arguments.



Is Religious Experience a Trustworthy Source of

So, we've analysed a few different angles on thinking about religious experience. Can we trust them as a source of authority? Can we build an argument for the existence of religious experiences? What we will focus on in this section is whether belief in religious experiences is a matter of faith or reason. For while it may seem that the special religious experiences give us reason to distrust them, the reality is a little more complex. We will study this as part of your Philosophy of Religion course, but the key consideration is that religious experiences play a vital role in living religion today, not just in the past. We can be authenticated in our faith by first taking a look at the case for religious experience.

Christianity, Religious Experience and Faith

The first thing to note when thinking about religious experience in the context of Christianity is that there is commonly seen to be an element of irrepressibility in the nature of religious experiences themselves. By this, I mean that someone who undergoes a religious experience struggles to reconcile their experience of God with their ordinary life and world view. When you studied figures such as Rudolf Otto, hopefully you caught on to this aspect, for he captures it with the term *fascinans* (or fascinating). In other words, those who have religious experiences are not just blindly placing their faith in whatever they have seen. They often have to work through the challenge of seemingly experiencing something which is beyond their understanding.

Such forms of conflict can be seen in many of the major religious figures of the Christian faith, from Moses, Abraham or even St Paul. Thus, even in Christianity, there is an implicit conflict between reason and faith within religious experiences themselves. What this highlights with religious experiences is also coming to terms with a being (God) that requires one to have an authentic religious experience and then to continue living the same life as before. William James also notes this in his studies of religious experience. He gives us two key tests for an authentic religious experience: whether it produces genuine changes in behaviour and whether it produces genuine changes in character.

The Cumulative Case for God

So, what do we learn from this about the trustworthiness of religious experiences? Well, the complete certainty about religious experiences is impossible. Rather, there is always an element of faith in any religious experience. Thus, the kind of argument for God based on religious experiences is **inductive** to a significant degree. Moreover, it is a kind of **cumulative case** argument. Each religious experience provides additional evidence for potential existence of God that intervenes in the world. These religious experiences are generated in human minds. The result is a kind of belief based primarily on witness testimonies that by themselves might be doubtable but en masse they are more trustworthy.

This is an important aspect you should note when developing an argument. The argument that religious experiences must be caused by God but that the overall weight of religious experience is an argument for God. Such arguments are also strengthened by the fact that religious experiences of all shapes and sizes continue to happen, whether they be through basic prayer or more complex mystical experiences. Moreover, the trust in any individual experience is strengthened by the similar experiences undergone and the way these continue to develop within the Christian Church today. The sheer scale and wealth of religious experience is an important context to consider, not just in the past but in the present.

Perhaps the most interesting way we can think about religious experiences in the context of our ordinary experiences is that the novel that human beings experience is often described as a 'novel experience'. When we overcome internal barriers towards belief, it is like reading a novel. A novel experience is trustworthy, even if there is still an element of faith in it. This is the process theists wish to illuminate when talking about whether religious propositions can be considered **basic**. Moreover, it is a kind of process still in action today in the Christian faith. We progress to looking at some criticisms of the authenticity of religious experience, from a slightly philosophical perspective.

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Individual and Corporate Religious Experience

So far, examining the argument for God from religious experience has primarily focused on individual religious experiences. But there are cases where **corporate** religious experiences seem to have occurred. During a fairly brief period, a large number of people at a Christian Church had very similar religious experiences, which eventually led to a revival movement in the area. So why is corporate religious experience examined separately? Well, the nature of corporate religious experience is difficult to discern. Corporate religious experiences tend to be private, so the appearance of corporate religious experience does not ensure everyone had a similar religious experience. How could they have communicated their experiences?

For instance, the Toronto Blessing involved what many considered to be supernatural aspects of the religious experience, such as the manifestation of physical behaviours, thus automatically making it more difficult to dismiss. Many have criticised reports of the Toronto Blessing as being an atheistic ploy. The former typically point out that the events didn't reflect how God has typically communicated himself to modern audiences. On the other hand, the latter have claimed that the events were the result of mass hysteria, where the behaviour of some people influenced others to behave in a similar way and delude themselves into thinking they had a genuine religious experience.

Thus, corporate religious experiences are difficult to evaluate. Under the cumulative case argument, it would appear as if they are strong evidence for a single divine source of such experiences. However, corporate religious experience shows the importance of considering not just the number of experiences, but the quality of these testimonies also. The cumulative case argument for God based on religious experience points to a large number of experiences as evidence. It has to demonstrate that these experiences are reliable and trustworthy. Otherwise, as we shall see, the atheist has an easy line of attack.

Revision Activity:

Research the Toronto Blessing once again. Considering the time frame and the nature of the experiences, is it right to call the events a corporate religious experience? Or is it a number of individual experiences bound together?

Write down two arguments for each position. From these, evaluate whether the cumulative case argument is strong with defining a corporate religious experience.

Is It Reasonable to Trust Religious Experiences?

There is a clear line of argument for the theist when talking about religious experiences. The large number of religious experiences that have occurred throughout the world, combined with principles such as Swinburne's principles of testimony and credulity as reasons to trust religious experiences, unless given significant reason otherwise. Then, connecting these two lines of argument forms the cumulative case that such religious experiences are more likely than not to have occurred if God exists. God, especially considering the other religious evidence for his existence.

Yet, even within this argument, there is a clear line of attack for the atheist. As we have seen, the principles of testimony and credulity still admit that we may have reason to doubt religious experiences and the reports people make of them. Now, the special qualities of religious experiences themselves may not be enough to doubt them without other evidence, but the atheist can offer a set of explanations for religious experience, ones that may well draw attention to the fact that religious experiences are not unique. Moreover, they might even draw comparisons between religious experiences and other phenomena, such as mental health conditions, heavy drug use or even extreme emotions.

For instance, consider the biblical Christian account of the conversion of Saul on the road to Damascus. Saul witnessed a brilliant light from heaven before Jesus appeared before him. After this, St Paul (as he was known) was blind for three days and did not eat or drink. Taking this as evidence for the existence of God might simply say that Saul had a religious vision and was converted. But the atheist might argue that this could be the result of these factors, or even just due to a moment of psychosis or a hallucination, which is not uncommon in human beings across the world. Why should we jump to believe in God based on religious experience, especially when it seems so out of the ordinary?

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Psychological Explanations for Religious Experience

Alternative explanations for religious experiences are often described in psychological terms. One of the kinds of qualities thought to be unique to religious experiences are a product of wish fulfilment. For example you are likely to have studied is Freud's arguments concerning religion, where he argued that God is a form of wish fulfilment developed in response to our anxieties about the world. Religious experience may well simply be part of this wish fulfilment, where we seek comfort so much that their brain convinces them that certain experiences have a spiritual quality when they might be the result of ordinary neuroscience or delusions.

Similar sentiments have been espoused by other atheist critics, where religious experience is the result of a natural human tendency to seek patterns of order in the world. In the past, with limited knowledge of the world, human beings resorted to explaining natural phenomena such as earthquakes as the result of higher powers. Yet, in the modern world, we now have science and offer adequate explanations for most of the things we observe in the world. Thus, the need for religion and its associated experiences has been quelled in developed nations. Such a trend is known as secularisation observed in Western countries.

Nevertheless, there are a few problems with such a view. Despite our increased knowledge of the world, spirituality have far from diminished among human beings. Rather it can be argued that religion has simply declined. Furthermore, these kinds of psychological explanations are the strongest argument against God himself. For surely if God did exist, it is reasonable to think that he would have created beings with an innate desire or wish to seek him out. In an important way, these psychological explanations for religious experience rely on conjectures about the maturity or immaturity of the human mind. But these kinds of explanations themselves are difficult to test and don't always adequately explain why spirituality and religious experiences manifest themselves in the real world.

Neurophysiological Explanations for Religious Experience

Instead, an alternative kind of explanation can be put forward in neurophysiology. This suggests that religious experience is not a product of the mind but a direct product of the brain; neurons firing in certain patterns, or accidentally, due to our cultural background, project a religious meaning onto. Many of these processes are complex organs of which we still know very little. But scientists have already produced a neurophysiological level and explored the various triggers that can form different kinds of religious experiences, such as psychoses. Moreover, we have a wealth of evidence about conditions such as schizophrenia which can produce the kinds of experiences one might mistake as religious.

Why is this important though? Can these natural occurrences not be responded to with psychological explanations? Well, not quite. The problem occurs when looking at religious testimony and credulity. For if, on a neurobiological level, we cannot easily tell the difference between religious experiences and other mental phenomena, then it is hard to tell what a genuine religious experience is. Moreover, if religious experiences share a lot in common with other kinds of mental phenomena such as delusions, then it may even be fair to distrust the authenticity of religious experiences. In other words, we are given reasonable suspicion to doubt both the content of religious experiences and the testimonies of those who have undergone one.

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Revision Activity:

Research Michael Persinger and the 'God Helmet' he developed to test religious experiences. Is there good evidence for a neurophysiological explanation for religious experience? Discuss your ideas.



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Exam Question Preparation



Critically examine and evaluate this view with reference to the dialogue between



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The same kinds of arguments, however, can also be developed with more general authenticity of religious experience. Take a quick look at the exam-style question below.

Exam-style Question:

'Religious experience cannot provide trustworthy knowledge about the existence of God.'

Critically examine and evaluate this view with reference to the dialogue between

This is perhaps a more common and straightforward question you may encounter. You could use the Christian religious experience of St Paul to demonstrate how they led to significant insights. A key example might be St Paul's conversion and his writing of the Letters in the New Testament, which led to teachings such as the Ten Commandments. Yet, you could also use philosophical arguments about the credulity of religious experiences and the use of reason. In any case, it is most important that you both acknowledge the role of religious experience and analyse what kind of knowledge both ancient and contemporary Christians might claim from religious experiences.

Revision Prompts:

Based on your studies throughout these sections, these are some revision prompts to make notes on when preparing for your end-of-year exams. For each, consider how the dialogue between the philosophical and theological conflicts it addresses and how others might respond to your answer.

1. Is it correct to distinguish between different kinds of religious experience, or do they all share similar qualities?
2. Does the private nature and ineffability of religious experiences prevent them from being used for an argument for the existence of God?
3. Should religious experiences be thought of as a trustworthy source of knowledge about God?
4. Is any form of religious experience better evidence for God than another? If so, which?
5. Are there any convincing psychological or neurophysiological explanations for these experiences? How might this undermine religious experience as a source of authority for Christians?

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CHRISTIANITY AND PHILOSOPHY: THE BETWEEN SCIENTIFIC AND RELIGIOUS

Starter Revision Activity:

Revisit the following areas of the Philosophy of Religion and Christianity course: scientific theories studied, note down the major Christian beliefs threatened by each, and evaluate whether Christian claims can be reconciled with a scientific world view in this section.

 Science and Developments in Christian Thought	Evolution	
	Key Terms	Natural selection, Mutation
	Key Thinkers	Charles Darwin, Richard Dawkins, Richard Swinburne
	Big Bang Theory	
	Key Terms	Space-time, Singularity, Infinity
	Key Thinkers	William Lane Craig
	Quantum Mechanics	
	Key Terms	Free will, Determinism, Indeterminism
	Key Thinkers	John Polkinghorne

Christian Responses to Issues Raised by Science	Genetic Engineering	
	Key Terms	Gene therapy, Genetic engineering, Designer babies
	Ethical Issues	
	Key Terms	Cloning, Embryo research, Abortion, Euthanasia

 Scientific Perspectives in Christian Arguments	Arguments for the Existence of God	
	Key Terms	Infinite regress, Causal principle, Multiverse
	Key Thinkers	Thomas Aquinas, William Lane Craig, Bertrand Russell
	Religious Experiences	
	Key Terms	Psychology, Neuroscience, Wish fulfilment, Hallucinations
	Key Thinkers	Sigmund Freud, Richard Dawkins
	Religious Language	
	Key Terms	Verification, Falsification, Verification principle
	Key Thinkers	A J Ayer, Antony Flew, Ludwig Wittgenstein
	Life After Death	
	Key Terms	Physicalism, Materialism, Monism
	Miracles	
	Key Terms	Natural law, Mass hysteria, Verification
	Key Thinkers	David Hume, Maurice Wiles, Richard Swinburne

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Introduction – The Influence of Science upon Christianity

Throughout the companion so far, we've looked at a number of issues where the 'view' has played a key role in assessing the impact of reason on the Christian faith. We have always accommodated the importance of reason within their theology, the view that is now equated (perhaps wrongly) with a scientific outlook. The basic idea is that as science has led to an unparalleled growth in knowledge about the world, and as science is the system by which we test our observations and experiences, the intuitive conclusion is that science and religion are compatible.

Yet, at the same time, there are still many areas of philosophy and theology where reason is not the key example. Ethics is perhaps the most obvious. Knowing how the natural world works does not give us an insight into how we should behave. Nevertheless, there are also many areas where science and religion require some form of knowledge, such as genetic engineering. In these cases, where science and religion do not necessarily overlap, they do inform each other to some degree.

On the other hand, this relationship is not always two-way. With the rise of scientific liberalism, liberal Christianity, which examines and re-evaluates Christian teaching based on what science has given us. This means that liberal Christians generally try to avoid subscribing to the supernatural aspects of the faith and, in many cases, jettison aspects of Christian theology that naturalists find incompatible with their view. The aim is for a more mature Christianity, although many critics argue that this process of liberalisation removes its distinctiveness as a religion and fails to recognise the significance of the faith.

Furthermore, there is the possibility that liberal Christianity has simply kicked the can down the road. If it is so necessary to 'demythologise' the Christian faith, is that not just another way of saying that religion has become irrelevant? If it fails to explain why the world behaves in the way it does, or if it merely echoes moral sentiments that human beings naturally hold, should we simply reject it and instead maintain a purely scientific world view?

Overall, the Christian faith can be seen to be caught between a rock and a hard place when it comes to science. Those conservative Christians who refuse to accept key scientific teachings appear to be choosing blind faith in the face of overwhelming evidence and knowledge. On the other hand, those Christians who attempt to accommodate scientific teaching, in an attempt to remain relevant in a rational, scientific world, may well be tacitly accepting the end of the religion as we know it today. Thus the aim of this section is to look over your studies so far and consider the broader questions that arise out of this fork in the road that Christians face today.

Revision Activity:

What influences do you believe have led to increased secularisation in the West? Which of the phenomena below on which have been most and least influential on the decline of religion?

1. Science
2. Alternative religions and spiritual beliefs
3. Political separation of Church and state
4. Changing Christian beliefs about evangelism and conversion
5. Changing cultural norms

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Verification, Falsification and Christianity

The first topic in this section is verification, a concept that you might be asked to specifically address in your studies. The logical positivists, as well as figures such as Antony Flew, were keen to refashion religion in a more scientific image. In other words, verification was what scientists were concerned with in the natural world, so why should all human beings not be concerned with verification? Antony Flew drew his ideas about falsification from the work of Karl Popper, who had been demarcating the field of science from that of pseudoscience or non-science.

Logical Positivism

So, let's begin with the verification principle. The key thing to remember here is that it was not developed as a way to determine what human beings should say or do but what kinds of statements could be said to be **cognitively meaningful**. This means they can be realistically judged to be true or false. It is particularly important to note this in the context around whether Christianity should be interpreted from a **cognitivist** or **non-cognitivist** perspective that could very well come up in your end-of-year exams.

So, the verification principle, in asking whether statements be either analytically true or synthetically, obviously takes on a cognitivist world view. Yet, even if Christians accept the verification principle, is it applicable to religious beliefs? This is perhaps the most challenging of Dialogues. It is likely that you won't need to consider the internal problems with the principle as much as whether it truly captures the meaningfulness of Christian discourse. Consider such as 'Jesus possesses both fully human and fully divine natures', one of the major claims of the Chalcedon. Can such a metaphysical claim be verified? Unlikely, but equally it does not contradict the Christian faith, one that many people subscribe to.

Falsificationism

The same problem comes forth when we think about falsification. In your studies, you will encounter Antony Flew's criticism (arising out of the **parable of the invisible gardener**) by John A. Mitchell and R M Hare. Flew's argument presents a strong cognitivist challenge to theism: if a statement or belief can be effectively falsified, then it is not truly meaningful. In the case of theism, it leads to believers continuously qualifying their ideas of God in response to the often to the point of absurdity. Yet, once more we can ask whether Christians really subscribe to such a principle. There are many statements we cannot falsify that we typically find in religion singled out here?

This supposed 'singling' out is one way to challenge both these views. An enduring principle is that it omits too many historical, artistic and even scientific statements to be considered as cognitively meaningful. On the other hand, Flew's criticism is also problematic. Why should theists have to answer to falsification when no one else does? Even if it is a way to distinguish science from non-science. Ultimately, there is a deeper problem with the belief that religion should be subject to certain tests of reason to be meaningful. Perhaps, perhaps, is that religion is inevitably faith-based. But even Christians would acknowledge that, so are the challenges from atheists such as Ayer or Flew really that in

Beyond Tests of Meaning

Ultimately, it may be that single tests for cognitive meaningfulness are simply impossible. There is no easy way of capturing what is meaningful in a set of principles, let alone just one. It is pointed out the absurdity of such efforts. John Hick is a good example here, with his **eschatological verification**, which shows that Christianity potentially meets the verification principle so long as claims can be verified after death. Hick did not intend his argument as a verification principle, rather he just aimed to show that Christianity could be the wishes of its adherents to be meaningful!

Others, however, have attempted to meet them head on. Mitchell, for instance, offers a parable that is intended to demonstrate how Christians engage in a 'reasonable' faith. For a theist, there is an initial point at which they are given evidence of God (one might think of this as another human being upon meeting them). Yet, it is far-fetched to think that this can ever be challenged in our complex and difficult lives. Faith is a necessary component of life in God and his plan for humanity. As such, the Bible is filled with stories and parables of ways in which human beings can rise above doubt and continue to have faith. Many people put their trust in Jesus as both a spiritual and moral leader, a figure whom they can follow to live a good life.

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Naturally, there are still problems with such a view that you will have studied. Sin being is not exactly like trust in God, who is supposed to be omnipotent, omniscient. The broader issue is not that having faith in God or other people is wrong or unnecessary. We have numerous different roles in our lives, regardless of what endeavour we are engaged in. A scientist's belief that the world is fundamentally ordered and obeys certain natural laws is based on a kind of faith. It is not possible to observe everything happening in the world. If such a belief is true!

These nuances of faith we have already seen take centre stage in issues such as religion and the soul, where the relationship between faith and reason is not always clear. Perhaps most important, when considering the overall relationship between science and religion, we can still see a deep gap when thinking about religious language, for the principles, even if incorrect, potentially illustrate how religious claims are, in some ways, different from scientific claims. With this in mind, we can turn to the grander problem of whether religious language is interpreted from a **cognitivist** or **non-cognitivist** perspective.

Revision Activity:

Review Flew's parable of the invisible gardener and the counter-parables given. Were you to devise your own parable, what relationship between God and human beings would it illustrate? Briefly give a few sentences or a paragraph on your own counter-parable, noting whether it is from a cognitivist or non-cognitivist perspective on religious belief and language.

Cognitivism and Non-cognitivism

It is likely that the last section only covered ideas you've already studied. However, the verification principle and falsificationism are only a starting point for considering how to interpret the Christian faith. Should we treat Christians as making real truth claims about the world? Or are statements made by Christians only proclamations of faith? Part of the question is, at different times, the answer seems to be 'yes' to both. Christians will claim such as 'God created the world' is literally true, not simply a statement of faith. On the other hand, when Catholics make claims such as 'the body and blood of Christ is present in the Eucharist', it is little more of a statement to discern. While Catholics may argue that such a statement is not a claim, it does draw back from such a suggestion.

So, part of the problem is that, in a descriptive sense, both cognitivism and non-cognitivism. This does not affect the question about whether Christians *should* view their statements as truth claims or non-cognitive. Here is where we can tie our brief examination of logical positivism to the broader debate about the nature of religious language in Christianity.

Cognitivism

First, let us consider cognitivism. The argument given by a Christian here might be that religious statements are truth-evaluable but the criteria given by the logical positivists or Flew are simply too strict. Towards the internal problems of both the verification and falsification principles, it is possible to have meaningful discourse in a range of fields. Similarly, it might suggest a view similar to that of a reasonable faith can coexist with truth-evaluable claims. Or, on another tack, the difference between religious and scientific statements simply differs from verification of scientific statements, such as the verification or religious statements. Here, the onus is on the Christian to explain how religious statements are truth-evaluable and how these principles are wrong, and also how Christian statements are truth-evaluable.

In other words, defending cognitivism presents a double challenge for the Christian. If religious statements are truth-evaluable, it must be reasonable to suggest that there must be some way of determining their truth or falsity in practice, whether it is true or false. Otherwise, the notion of truth-evaluable is a contradiction. The debate around the relationship between scientific and religious discourse ties into the broader debate about the nature of religious language in Christianity.

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authority. It may be that Christians can hold that religious claims are by and large revelation, rather than observation and reason. However, this in many ways is different from saying that all statements should have universal truth conditions. For we wouldn't normally do that based on evidence from religious scripture!

Here is where the idea of **non-overlapping magisteria** might play a role. It may be that Christian claims are different because they concern a separate or coexisting field of knowledge. It would be that religious claims are verified by religious sources of evidence and scientific sources of evidence. There is possibly merit to this idea, but if supported, it is important to be precise. Does this mean there is effectively no overlap between the two? Can there be solely religious claims with evidence without religious pluralism? Regarding supporting a cognitivist position on the Christian faith opens a number of difficulties that are easily taken advantage of. Thus, if constructing an argument in favour of a cognitivist position, one has to work through whatever ramifications you can envision.

Non-cognitivism

Conversely, if one holds a non-cognitivist perspective on the Christian faith, these difficulties apply as much. Rather, one can simply claim that Christian statements aren't meaningful. They do their meaning derive from adhering to certain truth conditions. Rather, Christians (e.g. Tillich) or develop meaning from being contained within a particular Christian framework. Thus, it is only really possible to evaluate the complete meaning of a religious statement within a religious game or perspective. If one merely attempts to evaluate religious claims in terms of falsifiability, one is dragging terms and ideas from a more scientific perspective which do not hold weight. The key idea behind adopting a non-cognitive perspective upon religion is to hold their own meaning that is derived from the context and world view from which they are not meant to be tested or evaluated scientifically.

The advantages to non-cognitivism are clear. It develops a framework for understanding religious statements can be meaningful without resorting to tests such as the verification principle. It conforms to many of our intuitions about the way religions are practised around the world. People are doing so as a matter of personal communication and are not really intending to make cognitive claims about the world. Similarly, it doesn't really make sense to apply a broad scientific perspective when it fundamentally deals with matters of spirituality, ethics and meaning, all of which science addresses. Finally, there are many instances where scripture, the lives of religious figures do speak symbolically about their religious teachings in terms which elude scientific evaluation.

At the same time, the primary problem facing non-cognitivism is that there are plenty of religious individuals who do make cognitive claims about God and the world. Many believe in the idea that their faith is reduced to a matter of perspective. Taking non-cognitive statements such as 'God created the world' could not be interpreted as true or false from the perspective of a religious perspective which holds God to be creator. Rather than addressing the head on, non-cognitivism seems to accept that religious claims cannot be tested against the world and so make religious belief mere subjective opinion. Yet, as we shall note, this is necessary considering the modern developments in scientific knowledge.

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Revision Activity:

Do Wittgenstein's ideas about language games necessarily result in non-cognitivism? There is good evidence to suggest that Wittgenstein resisted such an interpretation. How one might construct a cognitivist perspective on language games.

Scientific Theory, Reason and Faith

The more theoretical discussion around the relationship between science and religion without reference to the real cases where scientific explanation appears to have replaced a world view. There are two key examples presented throughout your studies where the **theory of evolution** and the **Big Bang theory**. Both are typically perceived to be a challenge, yet both also have recent rebuttals in recent years where they attempt to reconcile

In the case of the theory of evolution, such attempts have focused on the idea that the principle, used by a creator God to facilitate the development of conscious life in the Big Bang theory, it's the case that this event was the means by which a creator question, however, is not whether these proposals are plausible, but whether the viability of a religious explanation. Simply inserting religious ideas about God into knowledge (as you will have studied) potentially guilty of 'God-of-the-gaps'-style reasoning is the notion that these kinds of religious proposals are just speculative investigation, which continues to bring new, evidentially supported explanations

In other words, what might seem to be a reasonable religious explanation is not, when one looks at the wider context in which it is presented. In fact, simply inserting without much thought is the kind of faith-based thinking that motivated Flew to statements as merely offering 'qualifications' for the errors in previous arguments rather than rejecting them as any good scientist would do. So how can the theists address these real-world concerns about the continued relevancy of religious explanation?

Cognitive Approaches

We've previously mentioned Basil Mitchell's response to Flew as an example of a move over the meaningfulness of religious explanation. However, we can also look at those who often points out the ways that science and religion not only intersect but can inform each other. While science can unveil how the world works on a mechanical level, it cannot explain the universe, the evidence of meaning and our wider moral knowledge. All the while, there is the consideration that there are spaces of the world that are not material and understanding, whether they be mental or spiritual. It is the role of religion to investigate these spaces beyond ordinary empirical means.

Polkinghorne has also invoked the difficulties of quantum mechanics in support of the idea that God may work on a quantum level rather than a macroscopic one. In combination, it might be put forward that Polkinghorne does endorse a more cognitive interpretation of religion is not simply to represent the declarations of faith or subjective opinions of followers but to make claims about the world that mesh with our scientific knowledge. Thus, he attempts to provide a view of religion while avoiding the God-of-the-gaps reasoning that can imperil modern

Thus, there may be space to understand statements such as 'God created the world' in light of known events such as the Big Bang. The same may also be true of the theory of evolution, part of a law-like deterministic world, for God as omniscient may have understood the process of creation of the world. Such approaches also potentially remain the 'reasonable' belief in God into a matter of good judgement rather than blind faith. Yet, this position is a colourless one. Christians aren't interested in showing that there is a cosmic creator God that intervenes in the world, but rather the possibility of salvation to humanity. This is the heart of Polkinghorne's approach.

This is a key point. Many atheists and agnostics alike have long admitted that a creator God is not the God most Christians have faith in. Moreover, while it provides a foundation for faith, it is much harder to connect the God and gods of religions worldwide with this very abstract creator. Thus, it may be that a non-cognitive approach captures the nuances and deeper manner.

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Non-cognitive Approaches

While the reconciliation between scientific and religious discourses may be possible, some would argue that such reconciliation isn't particularly meaningful. Religion may be a fundamentally different area of human life than science. Most importantly, religion deals with questions of existence and meaning which cannot be captured in strictly cognitive propositions. Polkinghorne's notion that the intelligibility of the universe requires explanation is a question about human life is 'Why do we exist?' or 'Why does anything exist?'. To a strictly cognitive theorist and the non-cognitive theorist, the latter does not hold that there is that can satisfactorily answer this question.

For instance, the theologian Paul Tillich argued that such existential questions were not an enterprise that could be approached as simply another object to be categorised by the fundamental methods of science. It was impossible in his view to comprehend. The only manner in which human beings could have an understanding of God was, therefore, through symbolic language, which allowed for the limitations of ordinary language and grasp at deeper meaning behind things in the world. By its nature is thus not cognitively true or false. Similarly, as we explored before, Wittgenstein's language games reaches a similar conclusion.

Thus, in contrast to Polkinghorne, many non-cognitivists might hold that the reconciliation of science and religion is simply unnecessary. Scientific explanations have not supplanted religion. The latter deal with questions of existence and meaning that are beyond the remit of science. At quite a nuanced point and naturally the same issues arise as when we previously explored the overlap between science and religion. Moreover, there still may be some overlap between science and religion. The question of the universe is and the presence of mysterious properties such as dark matter provide a context in which religion may have to address. Even if non-cognitivists might claim that religion and science are mutually exclusive, this does not mean that they might not complement each other in certain areas.

Technology, Religion and Faith

This possibility is perhaps more complex when it comes to talking about the relationship between science and religion in ethical matters. Many of these we will cover in greater detail in later sections, but the rapid advancement of technology possible by new scientific knowledge mean there is a potential for conflict between what is possible and what is thought and believed that extends beyond beliefs about God. The most significant conflict arises around the value or sanctity of human life. Those who are religious and hold that human life is of divine purpose are often opposed to new technologies that somehow subvert or undermine this purpose. For instance, voluntary euthanasia is still campaigned against by many Christian movements.

One other key example you have studied, however, is that of genetic engineering. This technology offers a number of divisive issues including personhood, quality of life and human nature. While it offers a way forward to potentially cure countless genetic conditions and improve human health, it may lead to greater inequalities in the future if its use is not restricted in some way. Those who are wealthier be able to edit the genes of themselves or their children in order to gain advantages? Could there be any unforeseen and unwanted consequences in allowing individual genetic modification?

These questions aren't answered by science itself and instead require some ethical reflection. Human beings should live their lives and what should be permissible in modern society. Some humanists who claim that such input should be developed free of religious influence would argue that religious principles can help illuminate these issues. In the case of genetic modification, human beings have a God-given purpose might provide a foundation for restricting its use where it has therapeutic use, not one based on individual improvement. In the kinds of questions you encounter, it may be appropriate to bring in these wider contexts rather than focus exclusively on issues primarily involving belief in God.

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Exam Question Preparation

Throughout this section, the overarching discussion around whether Christianity or non-cognitively has played an important role in analysing the degree to which might be reconciled. This might seem a little strange considering that it formed a part of the curriculum, but there is a good reason to making sure you're up to speed with how it fits into the elements of religious belief. For instance, take a look at the exam-style question below.

Exam-style Question:

'Christian statements about God are fundamentally cognitive in nature.'

Critically examine and evaluate this view with reference to the dialogue between science and religion.

This is a very open-ended question to which all the topics we've studied in this section can be approached? If you were to argue that Christian statements are cognitive, you might refer to a number of truth-evaluable claims Christians often make, the vital role reason has on (especially liberal theology) and the ways in which Christianity and science might interact. To argue that Christian statements are non-cognitive, you might well point to the use of metaphorical language in the Christian faith, the importance of faith and the important difference between faith and science endeavours. All of these can bring in the major figures you've studied, including Flew.

Yet you may well find yourself with a much more precise question about the relationship between science and religion. As of writing, these have not featured in AQA's sample or past examination questions, but the possibility that a question similar to that below could emerge.

Exam-style Question:

'Christianity cannot be reconciled with science.'

Critically examine and evaluate this view with reference to the dialogue between science and religion.

Here, many of the topics you will cover are similar, but there's a greater emphasis on the relationship between science and religion rather than a more philosophical discussion about the nature of language. You might refer to the theory of evolution, the Big Bang and quantum mechanics. Christian ideas might cohere with these natural explanations. Importantly, if such a question arises, mention what form of Christianity one is talking about. For while it is true that not all forms of Christianity may not mesh well with much of science, the same is not necessarily true for even radical proposals such as process theology. Regardless of the position you take, be precise and clear about the position you're defending or criticising.

Revision Prompts:

Based on your studies throughout these sections, these are some revision prompts to consider when preparing for your end-of-year exams. For each, consider how you might address the philosophical and theological conflicts it addresses and how others might critically respond.

1. Should Christian claims be subject to tests of verification or falsification?
2. Is a non-cognitivist perspective on religious language coherent with tradition?
3. What kind of language is religious language if it is non-cognitive?
4. Can Christian claims about the world be reconciled with modern scientific theories?
5. Can there be a meaningful dialogue between scientists and Christians if both use different languages?

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CHRISTIANITY AND PHILOSOPHY

THE TRUTH CLAIMS OF OTHER FAITHS

Starter Revision Activity:

Revisit the following areas of the Philosophy of Religion and Christianity course: exclusivism, inclusivism and pluralism, revise two biblical passages that could suggest attitudes towards other religions

Christianity and Religious Pluralism	Exclusivism	
	Key Terms	Christocentric, Extra ecclesiam nulla salus
	Key Thinkers	Karl Barth, Hendrik Kraemer
	Inclusivism	
	Key Terms	Anonymous Christians, Solus Christus
	Key Thinkers	Karl Rahner
	Pluralism	
	Key Terms	Universalism, Global theology
	Key Thinkers	John Hick

Introduction - Philosophy and Christian Attitudes towards Other Faiths

It can be difficult to envision a Christianity without a sense of exclusivism at its heart. Salvation is only available to people if you can't guarantee that you alone know the definite path to heaven. This is the problem modern Christians face when thinking about the reconciliation between their own vision of Christianity and the teaching offered by Christian tradition. In other words, how can we share in the truth presented by Christianity, or that no religions are true, or that the truth about God is only partially revealed? This naturally leads to a radical rethinking of the Christian faith. For thinkers, such as Karl Rahner, it means rejecting the centrality of the Church in matters of faith. It means addressing the myths that have lingered in the minds of Christians throughout history.

In your A Level studies so far, you will have studied both orthodox Christian teaching (which is exclusivist) and the broader philosophical debate around whether it is correct to claim truth in religious matters. Combining the two is perhaps one of the more straightforward aspects of your Dialogues study. For much of the debate about the right attitudes to hold towards other religions is centred around Christianity, due to it being the largest religion in the world. Exclusivism has sprung from the Christian Church and affected the way it has treated both atheists and other religions. Moreover, such treatment has often been hostile, leading to conflict and violence. The debate around attitudes towards other faiths has motivated many critiques of Christian exclusivism in the Church.

This is just one of many ways in which the discussion in this section will overlap with other parts of the course. The topic of exclusivism, inclusivism and pluralism is a complex and contained topic. Any question in the year-end exams are likely to be focused on this topic alone. This means that knowing this topic inside out is always useful. However, when it comes to the more radical ideas of pluralism, the discussion will first turn to the nature of exclusivism and its relationship to the Christian faith.

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Exclusivism, Reason and Faith

There are two primary arguments for exclusivism in the Christian religion. The first is as follows:

1. The Bible teaches that salvation is made possible for humanity due to God's atonement for human sin. Thus, salvation can only be achieved through Christianity. Other religions do not believe in this central teaching they cannot teach the truth and are viewed as misguided by those professing to be Christians.

Now, this basic argument can be given more nuance. But the essence of such argument is that, taken at face value, the Bible presents an exclusivist interpretation of the Christian faith. The Bible to be the ultimate authority when it is necessary to uphold exclusivist attitudes towards other religions is simply one of the many ways in which one is simply. One of the many ways in which one is simply. One of the many ways in which one is simply. One of the many ways in which one is simply. A classic example in support of this view is John 14:6 where Jesus states 'no one comes to the Father except through me'. Literally, this seems to imply that Jesus is the only figure who holds the truth about God.

However, here of course we can probe this line of thinking a little further. Why should we take the Bible at face value, rather than interpreting them alongside our modern knowledge? Should we take the Bible to be the utmost authority and not employ other sources? Should we probe at the underlying reasons behind maintaining exclusivist attitudes. But this can go, especially if one begins at the development of more modern liberal theology.

Before we address those avenues, we can consider the second primary argument from a Christian perspective:

2. Christianity presents a set of teachings about God, salvation and the world that are unique. All other major world religions are the same, presenting their own view about God and the world with each other about the nature of the world, God and the right way to live. No denominators or teachings between these major religions typically distorts, but they all share the same views. Thus, considering the distinctiveness between each religion, it does not make sense to share truths. Rather only Christianity could be said to be true and the other religions are false.

In comparison to the first argument, this kind of exclusivism is much more philosophical. It may be some surface-level similarities between religions but instead holds that, on a deeper level, religions do not share key teachings and truths. Thus, trying to reconcile them through dialogue or to change or distort these religions in order to make them cohere, which is simply not possible. Together Christianity and Hinduism is akin to saying both Ptolemy and Copernicus are right. The universe revolves around Earth while Earth revolves around the Sun. It just isn't reconcilable.

However, there are key disagreements to initially note with this position. For one, Abrahamic religions share more than just surface similarities. Not only do they share many of the same figures as key prophets. Moreover, nearly all religions have been influenced by early philosophical figures such as Plato and Aristotle. There is altogether a great deal of shared fundamental truths shared by most of the major world religions. Furthermore, despite disagreements about the nature of the world and God, many also share key ethical teachings about how to live one's life, similarities that are exposed often through interfaith dialogue.

Nevertheless, the key thing to note is that any Christian exclusivist or pluralist position is based on a set of arguments. It's not enough to simply say that Christianity is similar to other religions. Similarities can be reconciled but the more exclusivist aspects of the Bible and Christianity are not. On the other hand, Christians also need to show how to retain the distinctiveness of the Christian faith. If the truths of Christianity are not unique, then what is the point of Christianity? If salvation is possible without the action of Christ or the Church, then what is the point of Christianity? We shall explore both the inclusivist and exclusivist responses to these problems in the next section.

Revision Activity:

Which of the two arguments given do you believe is a stronger argument for exclusivism? Write down notes in support of your answer and review as you progress throughout this section.

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Inclusivism and the Middle Path

In the previous section, we outlined two rough arguments for exclusivism. One was that only the Christian faith can guarantee salvation through the mediation of Christ. The other was more reason-based, presenting the more philosophical argument that the teachings of the world's religions can be reconciled with one another. Meeting these two arguments head on can be a little daunting, but in the 1960s, a major response came from the Catholic theologian Karl Rahner. He argued that if it was not possible to be mediated through Christ, it was possible to reach God through other ethical and spiritual paths.

Thus, Rahner's concept of anonymous Christians was born. The central idea was that anyone who participates in a Christian life by following its ethical teachings and recognising the need for salvation can be saved. Thus, the challenge of the first argument is met as Christ is retained as the mediator of salvation. The second argument is also potentially met as it recognises the differences between religions without contradiction. However, this did not mean that Rahner rejected the traditional Catholic teaching that Christ is the only way to God. Perhaps the most controversial was that Rahner rejected the traditional Catholic teaching that Christ is the only way to God (also known as *extra ecclesiam nulla salus*).

So, what are the issues here for Christians? Well, first the function of the Church is reduced to mere education rather than being an essential mediating influence in salvation. This proves a problem for many Christians that hold the Christian Church to be sacred, such as Catholics. However, perhaps the greater issue is that while Rahner attempts to preserve the uniqueness of Christianity, it also makes Christian ethical teachings less distinctive. In fact, someone could choose not to worship the Christian God, but as long as they live a good ethical life, they will still be saved. While many atheists would certainly regard this as fair if God is thought to be benevolent, it also devalues the role of the Christian faith in the process. Many Christians would hold it important to believe in the *Christian* God, not just follow Christian teachings.

Neither are critics of other religions often happy about Rahner's proposals. One criticism is that Rahner effectively patronises other religions by reducing their beliefs and ideas to a mere ethical framework. In other words, Rahner doesn't quite accept the exclusivist's second argument and religious belief too much. In fact, those of other religions typically don't like being reduced to a mere ethical framework, rather than on their own beliefs. In many ways, Rahner's proposal is a step towards pluralism.

Addressing the Issues with Inclusivism

You are likely to have already studied many of these problems. But going a little further, how can we address these criticisms? The first may be simply to point out the philosophical problems with exclusivism. For instance, while exclusivists might place a great emphasis on ethics above faith in a Christian, we also have to ask what the exclusivists really believe about the idea that a benevolent God could allow the existence of all intents and purposes, led a good ethical life? Similarly, with the deep differences between denominations, is it right to hold onto the traditional idea that the Church is necessary for salvation? The second may be to argue that the Church is not just the most effective means by which to learn about the right path towards God, but the only way.

Similarly, addressing the critics of other religions, it can be argued that most would be happy to see their teachings in the same manner as Rahner. Many would say that if they did so, they might be more open to a kind of inclusivism. The issue is thus not whether Christianity has to be the 'right' path, but whether the teachings are compatible with an open attitude towards other religions and for effective interfaith dialogue. Moreover, Rahner's proposals can be seen as the first step towards a more inclusive Christianity. Christians can begin to learn about the true similarities between religions, with the aim of finding key shared ground. Yet, all these responses may take a slightly different tack to the exclusivist's arguments, one that endorses religious pluralism.

Revision Activity:

Is it fair to argue that Rahner's inclusivism relativises or flattens the claims of other religions? Discuss the arguments in support of his concept of anonymous Christians and two arguments against it.

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Pluralism and Reason

The main figure you will have studied as a strong advocate of religious pluralism is Paul Tillich. He was most of his life was fundamentally committed to dismantling the attitude that any religion has access to the truth about salvation. Instead, Hick argued that all religions are effectively different manifestations centred around a core source of religious insight, which he termed 'the Real' (which he also incorporated atheistic religions such as Buddhism). The Real typically reveals itself through religious experience, which, just as with any experience, is filtered through a cultural lens and so is different for different people depending on what lens one holds. Thus, although it may seem as though religions are mutually exclusive, once viewed from a different perspective it becomes possible to argue that they are instead focused on unveiling the deeper grounds from which our reality is composed.

But how do we address the first argument we studied? How can Christianity's conception of the Real be true? Well, the nature of Hick's arguments means that he is not claiming a foundational core to religious enterprise but showing also how this core can be understood in terms of scientific knowledge. If religious experience is, in part, psychological projection, then to find the essence of what this experience is directed towards involves shedding the subjective aspects that accompanies our interpretation of these experiences. Thus, Hick endorses a generic Christianity, removing aspects of theology that are more likely to be based on cultural assumptions and interpretation of scripture and religious experience.

This background is especially important when defending or criticising religious pluralism. When stating that Christianity is wrong or that any other religion is right; he's making a statement about the need to develop a more rational, scientifically informed conception of religion. In other words, Hick's world view is the end point of a very liberal theology, taking our most basic understanding not only what religious teachings are correct but how we should approach religion. In this context, Hick's call for a **global theology**, where those of different religions can understand the Real, makes a lot more sense. It's not a call for interfaith dialogue but a call to develop a broader unity between the claims of conflicting religions.

In other words, while the pluralist can argue that religions really are too different to have a common core, that these differences exist because individuals of conflicting religions haven't historically found the common core similarities in their religious experiences and teachings. Contending that there is a common core becomes not a reasonable philosophical position but a self-fulfilling prophecy. However, to find similarities, great changes in the religious perspective have to be made, starting with the assumptions where many find fault in Hick's arguments and we shall take a look at some of the issues.

Addressing the Issues with Pluralism

One of the immediate problems that Hick's pluralism encounters is how to make sense of the Bible, especially surrounding salvation. As you know, Hick is unusual in endorsing a view that all human beings will eventually be saved – but also a belief in **purgatory** where those who commit evil acts can meaningfully enter heaven. Yet, both these concepts are not supported. It can even be argued that although theological constructs such as the afterlife don't have a wholly firm basis in scripture, there is much more evidence for these concepts than for salvation. So, there really appears to be a difficult struggle in justifying Hick's conclusions over that of the Orthodox Church.

This is really where your own knowledge of Christianity can come in handy. Hick's view of the Bible, where each religion is judged not only against our own theological ideas but also against the cultural landscape of the time and the religious context within which they were written, is unsurprising that there's so much mythological baggage in the Bible. The people themselves were enmeshed in a mythological world view. When one reads the Bible, the person of Jesus becomes much less concerned in Hick's view with promoting himself and instead much more focused on relaying key ethical and spiritual truths which all religions share. The problem is that, over time, these teachings have become distorted and then become the actions of the early Christian Church.

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You may recall, for example, early ecumenical councils such as the Council of Nicea and the Council of Chalcedon. These were called to address key theological disagreements in the early church, such as whether the Son was coeternal with the Father or whether Jesus was fully human and/or divine. These questions were not always philosophically solved by participants. Often, it was simply agreed that a particular interpretation was right over another. What Hick is thus arguing is that Christianity is not fixed in its religious beliefs but is open to the right interpretation of scripture. These aspects can all be revisited and re-evaluated in light of our current understanding of the world. Moreover, we may end up with a more philosophical understanding of Jesus and the Christian faith by doing so. At the same time, there are those who may have reservations about such actions. What if we tried to change something that has such a long history?

The second major problem arises with Hick's conception of the Real. Simply put, what is the underlying reason for the religious enterprise? Hick's arguments for this concept of the Real are based on the idea of **natural theology**, a field of theology which holds that God can be observed, rationally, in the natural world. What Hick contends is that natural theology can't provide a rational basis for one religion over another. Thus, there is no independent reason to believe in one religion over another. But what about weird or irrational religions? For example, a religion that believed aliens created human beings out of starlight, would we believe in that over the Christian faith? In some way, we do recognise that there is a rational basis for religion.

Similarly, if religious experience is influenced by prior cultural contexts and concepts, is it a source of anything real altogether? If we are supposed to be sceptical of religion, how could we not just argue that religious experience is some kind of psychological process? The idea that psychological work into religious experience can come in handy. For Hick's criticisms of orthodox Christianity, especially if our contemporary scientific knowledge of the brain seems to hint that religious experience is a natural product of psychological or neurophysiological interactions. What may seem like a good argument for pluralism may well end up being a good argument against religion altogether.

Revision Activity:

What might Hick's 'global theology' look like in practice? As an exercise, write down what you could identify as a common theme across different religions and how Christians might integrate this with the study of other religions.

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Exam Question Preparation

Throughout this section, we've mainly focused on the single issue of Christian exclusivism, trying to tie together your pre-existing philosophical studies with Christian theology. Not included is a sample or past examination question on this topic, but you may potentially find one similar to the one we've devised below.

Exam-style Question:

'Christianity is incompatible with religious pluralism.'

Critically examine and evaluate this view with reference to the dialogue between

Here, the emphasis will be on judging whether one can be Christian and pluralist at the same time, or onto whether a theology such as Hick's can be justified in the context of the exclusivism of Christianity. Now, while this does give room for a more philosophical examination of Hick's pluralism, we will pay significant attention to the first argument given in this section and not solely on the philosophical arguments. They are simply distinctive from one another. Perhaps most importantly, it should be expected that key Christian ideas such as the incarnation and the Trinity prevents his theological pluralism. Whether it is possible to conceive of a Christianity in which Jesus is not the sole path to God is a question that

However, you may encounter variations on this kind of question. Some might ask whether Christianity is compatible with inclusivism, or ask whether all Christians should be exclusive. In either form of the question, however, it is useful to develop your own idea of the attitude of Christianity towards other religions. For, in any case, you will always be able to compare the question's claim with your own belief, either expressing support for the question's claim or criticizing it from a different perspective. In either case, make sure you have a response to the two major lines of argument and prepare any supporting evidence accordingly.

Revision Prompts:

Based on your studies throughout these sections, these are some revision prompts for you to make notes on when preparing for your end-of-year exams. For each, consider how the philosophical and theological conflicts it addresses and how others might respond to your answer.

1. Can a Christian exclusivism be justified on the basis of biblical evidence for Jesus?
2. Do the differences in beliefs between Christians and those of other religions justify exclusivism?
3. Is Rahner right to claim that salvation can be achieved without the influence of Christianity?
4. Does Rahner's concept of anonymous Christians deliver a genuine inclusivism, or is it merely claiming that all salvation has to come through Christ?
5. Is Hick's pluralism coherent with Christian belief, or does it demand too many changes to Christian theology?

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CHRISTIANITY AND PHILOSOPHY:

Starter Revision Activity:

Revisit the following areas of the Philosophy of Religion and Christianity course occurrences of three different miracles as a foundation to our discussion through

 Miracles	Realism	
	Key Terms	Natural law, Empiricism
	Key Thinkers	David Hume, Richard Swinburne, Maurice Wiles
	Anti-Realism	
	Key Terms	Coincidence, Symbol, Sign
	Key Thinkers	Paul Tillich, R F Holland
	God	
	Key Terms	Omnipotence, Process theology, Deism
	Key Thinkers	David Ray Griffin

Introduction – Miracles, Realism and Anti-realism

Out of all the topics in the AQA A Level Religious Studies course, the topic of miracles is contentious, especially in the present day. If an acquaintance testifies that they have seen a miracle, you are likely to be quite sceptical, preferring instead to look for a natural explanation. Moreover, belief in miracles has typically been soured by the number of less than meaningful miracles, such as seeing the face of Jesus in a crisp or piece of fruit. These are often dismissed as coincidences or suspensions of the laws of nature, leading to suspicions. We don't typically see the 'big' miracles that Jesus performed today, so we tend to say that if Jesus were to perform a miracle today, we would treat it as a kind of magical contravention of the laws of nature.

For at heart, the debate around miracles really is an extension of the critical discussion about the authority of religion. Should we trust our instincts today that are broadly scientific in nature, or should we trust the testimonies about miracles throughout history, even when these are perhaps from a less knowledgeable perspective than ours? There is an underlying tension that is similar to the tension in discussions about miracles, and depending on whether one adopts a realist or anti-realist position, that the authority of scripture and the Church is undermined as a result.

Thus, despite miracles seeming to be an isolated topic, there is much to interweave with other topics. A coherent position on miracles is likely to be formed not from an objective investigation of the world, but from pre-existing philosophical views. If one adopts a more scientific perspective, where the world is ordered by underlying natural laws, then miracles naturally will seem far-fetched and contrary to these laws. However, if one accepts that there is a spiritual dimension to the world, then it is not unreasonable to expect that this spiritual dimension, at times, might intervene in the natural world. As we shall see throughout this section, the debate about miracles is often more than just an argument about the existence of miracles, but more often than not going to hinge on other philosophical assumptions and ideas.

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The Role of Miracles in Christian Theology

Before we take this philosophical turn, it is important to consider the roles of miracles in the Christian Church. The Bible, especially the Gospels, can be seen to be primarily a witness to events that documents the lives of Jesus and other prophets, who, through divine influence, performed feats that seemed impossible to those witnessing them. This, most importantly, is the resurrection, regarded as the most important miracle contained within the Gospel narratives. The Christian faith hinges on the notion that the miracles in the Bible were authentic and able to grow the faith of Christ and God.

However, it is easy to see how this belief can be undermined. We certainly don't have any direct evidence of the resurrection (at least accounts that are authenticated as the original ones). It is a rough guide to the Christian Church about whether it is possible for such feats to occur in the present day. Typically, those in more mainstream Christian denominations subscribe to **cessationism** – the view that the period in which God enacted miracles or imparted spiritual gifts has ended. On the other hand, there are many Christian denominations and movements which subscribe to **continuationist** views – the view that spiritual gifts are still imparted to human beings around the world. These might take the form of healings, visions, glossolalia, and revelations and other kinds of events that are perceived to contravene laws of nature.

In many ways, it is difficult to distinguish which of these views is more reasonable. If God is believed to have intervened in the natural world throughout history, why would he stop in time? On the other hand, why should we continue to believe that God regularly intervenes to demonstrate his existence to human beings? Perhaps most key here is the notion of a barrier. The idea that God has to maintain a certain barrier between himself and the world, so that his power is preserved. If God were to reveal himself to humanity completely, it would make the distinction between good and bad actions a bit meaningless, since we would be able to choose between good and bad will. Yet there is no easy way to ascertain how much evidence God would have to provide for miracles are required in the modern era, given our propensity to be sceptical about miracles in the first place!

Nevertheless, the same questions remain the same when questioning the existence of miracles. If they occur, it is possible to doubt the authenticity or reliability of miracle reports. Many of the miracles contained in Christian scripture. The result would either be a Christianity gutted of any mythological or miraculous elements, or a Christianity that is based on events which, by today's standards, seem impossible. In this sense, there is a case to say that belief in miracles is reasonable given their nature and propensity across the world. However, justifications are often similar in form to those given in favour of the authenticity of miracles. In cases, these is a phenomenon that goes beyond a materialistic understanding of the world. They naturally call for scepticism about their trustworthiness or reliability as a source of evidence about the world.

For if miracles do truly exist, then they are very good evidence for God. Moreover, if Christians are correct, then this evidence is still able to be judged in the present day. The arguments surrounding miracles are often philosophical and abstract, key attention is on the kinds of miracle reports we're considering and the relationship to Christians today. The trustworthiness of historical writers, even if they are in their own cultural contexts? Or are accounts of present-day Christianity, which experiences may or may not reflect the past? With these questions in mind, we can turn to the orthodox position on miracles, and see how it holds up.

Revision Activity

Which do you believe is the most reasonable Christian position – that God still intervenes in the world today, or that such acts have ceased to occur? Write a few notes in the space below.

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A Philosophical Analysis of Miracles – Realism

One of the most common definitions of a miracle is an event which is inexplicable by scientific laws. Now, there are still various ways of interpreting this statement. The one put forward by David Hume, is that miracles involve a *transgression* or breaking of the laws of nature by another agent. This is likely to have been the focus of your studies into **realism** – the view that the world is viewed as objective, supernatural occurrences caused by God. In other words, we are looking at a matter of interpretation. There are clear instances where God or a deity has intervened in a way that involves them acting beyond the limits of the physical world.

Yet, the trouble with this definition is that identifying these events is difficult in itself. Ultimately, it is difficult to find examples that are not just inexplicable by scientific laws but which are wholly inexplicable altogether. Taking the Gospels as an example, we can see this problem in action for contemporary Christians. Jesus supposedly turned water into wine, which does seem to break the laws of nature due to the impossibility of directly transmuting one substance into another. However, is this event truly inexplicable? Could it not be that onlookers were tricked, mistaken, or misremembering this event? Such possibilities have to be considered particularly in light of the lack of scientific knowledge audiences possessed compared to individuals today.

As such, there are many Christians who, despite taking realist positions on miracle accounts as genuine. One can even find theologians who focus solely on the resurrection event in the Gospels and don't try to justify the myriad of healings or nature miracles in scripture. For the resurrection is claimed to occur by nearly all early Christian sources. The resurrection of Jesus is certainly a case of something that might be truly inexplicable, not just in light of our current knowledge and understanding. So, thinking about the resurrection as the gold standard for miracles, how might one undermine a realist position that uses this miracle as an example? This is an anchor point for our discussion.

Hume, Testimony and Evidence

Hume is likely to be one of the key critics you have studied surrounding miracles. It is easy to misinterpret his arguments. There are two key parts to note, which are very useful to address in end-of-year exam questions.

Hume's First Argument

The first is almost an a priori problem that realists face when attempting to support miracles. Hume does not argue that miracles are not impossible. That would go against his empiricism, which is ultimately judged according to the evidence given by our sense experience. Rather, his point is that the nature of miracles means that the evidence for them will never be strong enough to show that laws of nature cannot be transgressed.

Let's apply this to the resurrection accounts. Throughout the course of our lives, it has generally been accepted that one cannot return from death (especially if one has lived many days). The evidence for such claim is uncountable. Philosophers will even use the example of a tautology, due to the overwhelming empirical evidence for such a position. The evidence that Jesus rose from the dead is limited to a number of different eye-witness accounts and details and times reported. While there is perhaps evidence for this miracle, it is not strong enough to show that the claim that human beings cannot return from death is false.

Now, the key point here is that Hume argues that we as human beings should always follow the evidence. That is the essence of being a rational person. And if a rational person weighs the evidence for and against the miracle reports about Jesus' resurrection, especially from a naturalistic perspective, it will clearly be in favour (at least initially) of believing that Jesus could not have risen from the dead. The evidence for this law is clearly too strong.

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Hume's Second Argument

Now, Hume of course does not end his argument here. What if the miracle report to be completely trustworthy and authentic? And surely there is greater reason to trust eyewitnesses? For it is certainly right to point out that the resurrection was not witnessed by many potential witnesses. This is where Hume's second argument comes in and it is more contentious than the first.

Hume does acknowledge that it may be possible that a witness is completely reliable and that evidence could effectively counter the first argument. Moreover, we may have multiple witnesses that mean there is a greater reason to trust miracle reports if these are inexplicable events. But we have to ask here, is it ever possible that a witness is completely reliable when there is plenty of evidence that human beings by nature are unreliable? Moreover, could we ever really say there are ever more witnesses to a miracle event than the operation of natural laws?

Hume points out a number of ways in which human beings may be unreliable. This includes the tendency to believe in the fantastical (despite conflicting empirical evidence), the tendency to exaggerate, our propensity to fall victim to witnesses' rhetoric and the tendency to accept religious explanations. Perhaps most controversially, Hume notes that miracles at least have their origins in 'ignorant and barbarous nations' and, as such, the reports of miracles in these societies develop new scientific knowledge and understanding of the world.

Let's think about the resurrection in the context of these issues. Abandoning all prior knowledge of the Bible, could it not be that the witnesses to Jesus' resurrection were mistaken? Could they have been invested heavily into believing Jesus had divine authority? Could the visions they had been influenced by religious suggestion or even a misunderstanding based on a more mythological understanding of the event? Could it be possible, and what Hume is thus suggesting, that no witness can be completely reliable, especially those of previous historical societies and cultures.

But what about the number of witnesses? Well, Hume acknowledges this is a fact that cannot be denied. The number of witnesses to the resurrection may outnumber the number of witnesses to the regular operation of natural laws. In other words, maybe up to a hundred people witnessed the resurrection, while only a few hundred people have watched others die and never return. Taking this aspect together with the unreliability of witnesses we have a situation where we cannot reasonably say that the evidence for miracle events ever outweighs the evidence for the regular operation of natural laws.

Evaluating Hume

Hume's two arguments here are an incredibly useful grounding when discussing miracles. We can refer to them early where appropriate. However, it is key here to note that Hume's argument is an **epistemological** argument, concerning what we can know rather than what is possible. He is not saying that miracles do occur but that we, as rational beings, will never encounter good enough evidence to believe that they have in fact occurred, in light of the overwhelming evidence for the regular operation of natural laws that govern the behaviour of the world around us. So, how can we respond to Hume? Let's take a quick look at a number of key options:

1. Question the soundness of his first argument; that our evidence for **inviolable** natural laws is greater than that of miracle events.
2. Question the soundness of his second argument; that witnesses are both too few and too unreliable to outweigh our evidence for **inviolable** natural laws.
3. Question Hume's definition of miracles themselves.

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Revision Activity:

Which of Hume's arguments do you believe is the strongest against miracles from an epistemological perspective? Note your answer and provide a few supporting comments, comparing them with the other arguments throughout this section.

Challenging Hume – Realism

So, let's take a look at Hume's first and second arguments. In many ways they seem to challenge the possibility of miracles but our reasons for believing in them, a much more manageable task. Religious critics have pushed back against Hume's reasoning here in a number of ways. There are also guides to evaluating arguments in support of a realist position on miracles. Let's look at some of the key suggestions.

1. Hume Misunderstands Natural Laws

This is perhaps the primary challenge to Hume's first argument. For how does Hume claim that natural law has been violated in our everyday lives? We typically walk around assuming that things behave in a regular way, but is this really an evidentially backed argument or just a presumption? Why should this presumption be prioritised over competing assumptions, such as that things can behave in unexpected ways, events, and the world does not always behave uniformly? In other words, we might be inclined to accept the possibility of the violation of laws of nature based on our observations of nature.

C S Lewis proposes a similar kind of argument to this, suggesting that if one does not accept the possibility of miracles. In other words, our acceptance of miracle events does not depend on where we evaluate competing kinds of evidence, but against a backdrop of pre-existing assumptions about the world, one being that reality is not just physical and that non-physical things exist.

Others, however, take a slightly different tack which you might also employ in your own arguments. You don't necessarily have to be interpreted as **universal** truths. Rather, they can just be based upon theories put forward by contemporary science. Polkinghorne takes up this point. He does not tell us what can and cannot occur but instead what goes against our expectations at a certain point in time. In other words, the evidence for natural laws isn't really about what is true, but instead what is coherent with our everyday experience of the world. Yet, for miracles, such as resurrection, what is important to judge is whether such events are coherent with the idea of a creator God and how that God might be acting to bring in a new relationship with humanity.

Richard Swinburne also takes a similar position that you might find useful to draw upon. He suggests that scientific laws are **statistical** rather than **fixed, universal** truths. In other words, they are based on observing things happening in a regular fashion over and over again; they tell us what is likely to happen, not what necessarily will happen. Thus, if one accepts the possibility of a creator God with unlimited power, then it may be possible for such a God to act in a way that suspends or violates natural laws, without the actual meaning of 'natural law' being affected. In fact, miracles are not regular events, but irregular ones. For if they were regular, we would begin to question whether they properly operate in our everyday lives!

All these arguments don't question exactly Hume's first argument, but they do point out that the possibility of miracles is not as simple as balancing evidence for inviolable natural laws against the possibility of a miracle event. Instead, we have to consider more deeply what we consider natural laws might operate in a world where a creator God may be active.

2. Testimonies and Miracle Reports

One problem that perhaps emerges with the second horn of Hume's argument is that testimonies as good evidence for miracles is a problem being that using the balance of probabilities to evaluate evidence for miracles does not take into account the difference between the different kinds of evidence. Swinburne, for instance, gives a good reference here and points out that miracles may be 'physical events' not just the sight of miracles occurring. In our example of the disciples encountering the physical wounds of Jesus, thus confirming that he was dead and not just a vision. It may be that similar kinds of physical evidence occur (such as healings) that confirm that something has occurred which contravened or violated natural laws. These kinds of physical evidence may be of different, independently verified kinds, but they all point to a miracle event.

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Furthermore, we can think a little more closely about how we go about investigating Science has regularly changed what we think are the dimensions and parameters of singular experiments. If we adopt Hume's idea that more witnesses must be present for the confirmation of natural laws, then we might point out such standards are central to the practice of science today. In fact, much of what human beings accept about the world is based on the trust in the experiments and accounts of scientists who use complicated devices. Yet, we don't question the fallibility of the human person in the same way we do not question the criteria Hume uses when judging witness testimonies. Are they too strict?

Supporting Hume – Realism

The challenges we've noted so far present some interesting points. The central argument of Hume's argument oversimplifies the process of assessing miracle events. It's not just a lack of evidence but instead a real process of uncovering how a miracle event might happen. More importantly, **coherent** with a pre-existing understanding of an interventionist God. Another troubling line of enquiry for theists and a way of potentially supporting them. Both theists and atheists alike have pointed out the inherent trouble with a God that intervenes in the lives of human beings.

The figure you have perhaps studied most is that of Maurice Wiles, who argues that we should not believe in a non-interventionist God. For if God can arbitrarily intervene to prevent or simply help other human beings, why would God not then intervene at other moments? The problem of miracles is tightly woven in with the **problem of evil**. The existence of miracles and human beings and reveal himself also essentially proves that God possesses the power to not choose to do so. The existence of miracles is thus a threat to the idea that God is benevolent.

Moreover, it would seem to make the laws of nature meaningless in the first place if objects can behave, then they do not really constrain anything if a deity can arbitrarily intervene. A few replies we can mention here. The first reply appeals to a different kind of objection. For instance, **process theists** might well argue that God does not intervene in the world all the time. The laws of nature and other miracles might just represent the limits of his power to influence the matter of the world in a way that revealed his power.

The other kind of response, however, focuses more on what benevolence means. Wiles that if God were benevolent then he would surely want to interact with his creation. The Christian use of familial terms represents this kind of personal relationship. God, who is thought to occupy a parental role, not just the role of creator. More importantly, neither arbitrary nor amoral for they may well inspire belief and encourage human beings to make the world a better place, rather than just one in which evil is accepted as a natural fact. While the objection may hold some force, it is important to balance his ideas against those of the coherence of an interventionist God is an important task, but it may not sink the argument.

Challenging Hume – Anti-realism

So far, we've noted how you can construct an argument or a discussion based on the coherence of miracles before expanding such a discussion with reference to other thinkers. However, we have not yet looked at point three mentioned earlier – the possibility that Hume's argument is simply erroneous. Why might this be the case? Well, the primary approach to miracles in history has been to view them as real events. Yet, as history has progressed, coherence has become more common. Additionally, as liberal theologians have questioned many of the foundations behind Christian doctrines, many thinkers have shifted to anti-realist perspectives on the fundamental understanding of what miracles are.

As you will have studied, this involves interpreting miracles not as acts of God intervening in the laws of nature but as a subjective experience of highly improbable or strange occurrences. This is an argument to the one put forward by non-cognitivists in discussions around the nature of miracles. Many of its proponents share a common approach with non-cognitivists. For example, they argue that miracles are not events but rather subjective experiences.

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that religious language was, by nature, symbolic, and who proposed a generally non-Christian claims, also holds that miracles are simply astonishing events with great resonance. They do not challenge our rational understanding of reality but instead point to greater mysteries of being.

Such arguments have the potential to neuter the main thrust of Hume's argument – to question the legitimacy of the laws of nature! But, equally, it is folly to imagine that human beings from reading meaning into our experience of the world. We perceive meaning whenever we engage with things we imagine to hold a deeper meaning, whether or not the object that produces a symbolic or aesthetic response. So, it's not as if the anti-realist is truly radical; instead, illustrating non-cognitivism, anti-realism is a way of addressing the criticisms of religious claims by telescoping out the kinds of questions and problems religious language poses in everyday life.

The most significant anti-realist figure you are likely to have studied is (again) Max Weber. His position is explicitly connected to his criticisms of realism, and, similarly to Tillich, his arguments have symbolic significance for the theist. They are a way to learn about the nature of the world that will might be reflected on Earth. For it is important to note that if God did create the laws, it is likely that he would possess knowledge about the improbable or strange events that influence these in a way at the moment of creation to allow for human beings to exist. So, perhaps the most key point to note when thinking about anti-realism is that it is to argue that God did not have a hand in or plan events that seem miraculous. Rather, miracles involve direct interventions by God in the world, nor do they involve violations of the laws of nature.

Criticising the Anti-realist Position

The primary problem facing the anti-realist is the same as that facing the non-cognitivist – the view that miracles are a matter of subjective experience with scripture that serves as a guide with direct religious significance? Think for a moment once again about the resurrection. The doctrine holds that Jesus' death was a punishment for human sins, with the resurrection representing a representation of victory over death and a promise of salvation for all of humanity. If the resurrection is a subjective experience, what does that mean for human beings and the world? Taking an anti-realist position on miracles may fundamentally undermine much of the doctrine that is central to mainstream denominations across the world.

In other words, it is both difficult to make an anti-realist position coherent with the doctrine and challenging to account for how miracles can continue to play an important role for religious people. The anti-realist position may not be an answer to the criticisms of Hume but instead a capitulation to the claim that Christians cannot reasonably prove the existence of miracle events and so instead treat them as proclamations of faith. It calls into question whether religion can be a rational faith founded on unprovable or wholly subjective events.

Moreover, we can approach this problem a little more philosophically. If the meaning of miracles is subjective, then how do we know exactly what meaning would give to a miracle? As we have noted the problem of **trivial** miracles – those which to the ordinary person seem extraordinary but which religious people have given meaning. These might include seeing the face of Christ or hearing the sounds of angels in the misty air of a river. It ultimately becomes meaningless if it is just interpreted as an extraordinary event with religious meaning. If something is merely extraordinary does not necessarily make it miraculous! Thus, it is important to note that now taking miracles to possess only subjective meaning does not seem absurd. Anti-realists arguably have an uphill struggle in developing a satisfactory account of miracles that does not succumb to this kind of problem.

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Is an anti-realist position more reasonable than a realist position on miracles?
Bible as a source of authority for Christians today?


Write down two arguments for and against an anti-realist position, noting whether you think the arguments are convincing from a contemporary Christian perspective on miracles.

Throughout this section, we've explored how it's possible to centre discussion of a topic likely to have been covered in depth – David Hume. Then, from these arguments, one or two discussion points encompasses either a realist or an anti-realist perspective on miracles. Neither to justify whether belief in miracles is rational or simply a matter of faith. For a ZigZag-given example of what you might encounter in your exams:

'It is incoherent for Christians to be realists about miracles.'

Critically examine and evaluate this view with reference to the dialogue between

This is perhaps the most straightforward question you might come across. You're asked whether or not miracle events can be said to have occurred or whether they are a matter of faith. As we explored in this section, you might reference the historical evidence for Christ's resurrection, before looking at the philosophical arguments for and against miracles. You might reference Hume, but make sure you characterise his arguments correctly; Hume argued that miracles happen, just that we can never possess enough evidence to know or believe a miracle has occurred. As evidence we have for the inviolability of natural laws. For the purposes of our evaluation, we can't claim that miracles do not happen, but do make sure to note this nuance in your answer.

Alternative!  make counter variations in this kind of question which refer to the nature of biblical miracles. You may even get a question that directly addresses the issue we've given below:

'Belief in miracles is a matter of opinion.'

Critically examine and evaluate this view with reference to the dialogue between

In either case, you can draw on the same kinds of information in your answer. Make sure the question is framed in such a way as to draw in different discussions from others around non-cognitivism, which might provide broader support for an anti-realist position. Be sure you address the question directly and be precise in your arguments!


Based on your studies throughout the semester, these are some revision prompts, notes on when preparing for your end-of-year exams. For each, consider how your philosophical and theological beliefs it addresses and how others might critically

1. Should Christians believe that miracles still occur today, or are they only a fact of history?
2. Does Hume successfully cast doubt on the reasonability of believing in miracles?
3. How do Hume's arguments affect Christian beliefs in the Bible as a source of authority?
4. What arguments might Christians give in response to Hume's critiques?
5. How might Christianity adapt to accommodate an anti-realist perspective on miracles?

CHRISTIANITY AND ETHICS: MORAL DECISION-MAKING

Starter Revision Activity:

Revisit the following areas of the Ethics and Christianity courses. For the ethical moral decision-making process for each and research how it might approach the

 Christianity Moral Decision-making	Deontological Ethics	
	Key Terms	Law, Duty, Obligation, Categorical imperative
	Key Thinkers	Immanuel Kant
	Teleological and Consequentialist	
	Key Terms	Utility, Hedonism
	Key Thinkers	Jeremy Bentham, John Stuart Mill
	Virtue Ethics	
	Key Terms	Virtue, Vice, Eudaimonia
	Key Thinkers	Aristotle

Christianity Moral Principles	The Bible	
	Key Terms	Agape love, The golden rule
	Key Thinkers	Jesus Christ, St Paul
	The Church	
	Key Terms	Sanctity of life, Magna Carta, Catechism

Introduction – How Do Christians Make Ethical Choices?

The first topic in the AQA Ethics and Christianity specification asks us to think about the decision-making process and how it is reconciled with other ethical perspectives. Initially, you will explore secular ethical perspectives. Secular ethical perspectives don't use God as a source of authority, so why even bother with religion? It's a fair point to make initially, but we shouldn't assume the distinctiveness of Christianity. Our intuitions about what is right and wrong are often shaped by different forces that are difficult to pick apart, and there are significant ways that Christianity differs from other ethical perspectives, particularly when it comes to actual moral guidance.

As a starting point, it is useful to think about a basic question: how should a Christian approach a moral dilemma? The basic starting point for an answer to this question is likely to be scripture. However, moral guidance within scripture is not always so clear. At times, the Old Testament and there are many ethical laws in the former which Christians no longer follow, so it is not always clear whether Christians should prioritise the Gospels or other books, so the advice is often unclear. So, we may simplify the process a bit and point towards Jesus as the prime source of moral guidance.

Yet even this is problematic. Jesus does not present a unified system of ethics. He focuses on, moral guidance is given by a variety of indirect laws, principles, parables, and an appeal to common sentiments such as love or compassion. Should we thus follow the rule, or should we view Jesus as a **moral exemplar**, aiming to act in a way that we can emulate? If we follow the rule, what laws should we prioritise if the former, and, if the latter, how can we help us with modern technological issues such as abortion, euthanasia, and genetic engineering? It can seem as though Christians have not only a multitude of sources of ethical guidance but also a multitude of interpretations of these sources. Narrowing down even a basic position on scripture is a challenging task.

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So, we may look to other sources of authority to help us with this task. Catholics, for example, pay attention to the doctrines of the Catholic Church, since it is held to be of equal authority to scripture; they may look to both scripture and the Church for moral guidance, not prioritising one over the other. If there is a conflict, it is a conflict. On the other hand, liberal theologians may well employ current scientific and cultural values to evaluate the teachings of scripture. Those who are more liberal may prioritise scientific ideas and moral progress have important roles to play in developing Christian ethics.

Altogether, this means that there are two difficult tasks. The first is understanding what a unified, distinctive Christian set of ethical principles or concepts. The second is understanding how these concepts to guide moral decision-making. However, the two aren't necessarily separate. They certainly inform the formation of a Christian ethics. Perhaps the most important factor in understanding Christian ethics involves looking at what Christians are required to do. With that in mind, we can compare different ways in which Christian ethics can be compared with other secular and religious ethics.

Deontological Moral Decision-making

At first glance, it might appear as if Christian ethics is the closest fit to a deontological ethics. As we will have studied, deontological ethics holds that what is good and right involves following a rule. Accordingly, most deontological ethics places a strong importance on **moral intention** – that a rule is followed but that a person intends to follow that rule when acting. In contrast, systems of ethics place little to no moral value in the consequence of an action, just in following the rule in the first place.

So, how can we observe deontological ethics in Christian moral decision-making? Perhaps in the Old Testament, which is littered with various moral rules that Christians are expected to follow. The Ten Commandments is often held up as a foundational pillar of Christian ethics, with individuals being required not to transgress any of the principles given within. Some books, such as Leviticus, detail long lists of ethical and religious laws that could be seen as deontological ethics. However, the New Testament has a notable absence of such rules. St Paul gives teachings that could be interpreted to be strict ethical laws (e.g. the prohibition on eating meat that has been offered to idols). It is not clear whether Christians are explicitly expected to follow such rules exactly or simply as guiding principles in living.

There are two parts to this issue. The first is that it is agreed that Christians are not bound by the rules given in the Old Testament, especially those that are religious, dietary or ceremonial. These are even supplanted by many of the principles given in the New Testament. More importantly, the Gospels criticise the legalistic thinking of his religious opponents such as the Pharisees, who placed much importance on adherence to religious tradition and not enough on good moral actions such as compassion and love.

Thus, there is a tension when thinking about the Bible as a system of deontological ethics. In fact, when we look at contemporary Christian ethical practice, there is often a divide in how moral guidance is construed. More conservative or traditional Christians are likely to look at the moral rules in the Bible as essential to follow. However, more moderate, or liberal Christians are likely to view them more flexibly; important to follow but not when this involves sacrificing one's good intentions, conscience or virtues. In other words, perhaps the Bible does not give complete moral guidance in our everyday lives. For a little more clarification, we can turn once again to the work of a deontological ethics – Thomas Aquinas.

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Aquinas, Natural Law and Christian Ethics

We can think a little bit more about the relationship between Christian ethics and at the work of Thomas Aquinas; for natural law, although teleological at heart, also has deontological elements. Aquinas, as you will have studied, held there was one guiding principle – the idea that good should be pursued and evil avoided. From further reasoning on this principle, it becomes possible to identify the **primary precepts** of which there are several. These aren't really deontological. Aquinas doesn't think that the primary precepts should follow, but rather that they are general teleological principles (e.g. a natural law says human beings should act to bring about the best that is possible). So where does deontology fit in?

Well, Aquinas held that the primary precepts were ultimately too abstract to guide human beings having to apply practical reason to derive from these general principles more specific laws that can resolve ethical dilemmas. These secondary precepts might include laws against murder and many other common moral intuitions. However, not all secondary precepts make sense we might not always be required to follow them, because they concern things that are just things we might refrain from. Thus, it can be seen how Aquinas' ethical teleological framework that can effectively give moral guidance, so long as reason (both abstract and practical) is used through the moral decision-making process.

Kant, Deontology and Christian Ethics

Such a system of natural law might well appeal to Christians looking for a deontological system that still holds a teleological core. In other words, the ends of human action can still be good while adhering to strict moral laws, so long as those laws reflect our natural inclinations. The most interesting is that Aquinas' natural law is very similar to secular systems of natural law. Immanuel Kant, and these similarities are perhaps more than skin deep.

For it is likely that you have studied how Kant argued that good should be one of the three possible foundations of deontological ethics to be meaningful. And although his mention of God is claimed to be important, his ethics still derives much of its force from the application of reason, not from God himself. This makes it interesting in itself, but it is also important to analyse in comparison with natural law. For despite the fact that Kant developed out of a teleological framework, many of them still mirror the teleological principles of the application of the categorical imperative. For example, do not steal can be justified as a universal law and as a universal Kantian law. So why do both of these systems mirror each other?

A key aspect is the reliance on reason as a foundation for ethical thinking. Both Aquinas and Kant ultimately draw on reason for moral guidance. For Aquinas, this reason is much more concrete. For Kant it is much more abstract – a tool to derive universal moral principles. Moreover, in the face of contradictions in reason, it can be contended that these same contradictions would lead to the formulation of secondary precepts. Finally, despite the different ends of ethical thinking, the application of both natural law and Kantian ethics. For Aquinas they are a way of identifying the right end of ethical conduct, while for Kant they are a way of ensuring that actions are not merely in accordance with duty.

What does this reveal? Well, it shows that Christian ethics potentially has a lot more in common with deontological systems of ethics than merely having God as its foundation. Moreover, it isn't too far from Aquinas' use of reason within a natural law framework. The key difference between Kant and Aquinas does not have a teleological slant to his ethics. In other words, thinking about the right action is not needed to arrive at the right ethical law, nor are human beings required to ethically justify their actions to an ethical end point. Rather, moral laws are available to all with a correct application of reason.

Now, this only shows a key difference between Christian ethics and Kantian ethics. The processes Christians might use (if employing reason as a source of moral guidance) is not too greatly different. This is key to note. Christians do regularly fall back on religious laws when thinking about the nature of these religious laws when thinking about the right action. This is a key factor in an individual's ethical life, then their moral decision-making process may be more in line with a proponent of Kantian ethics!

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The Categorical Imperative and Moral Decision-making

It might seem as if the comparisons between Christian ethics and Kant finish with the role of reason in both ethical systems, but there is perhaps a little more to be said about the processes involved in Kantian ethics as a whole. For if both Christianity and Kant acknowledge the importance of reason, shouldn't we be able to identify concepts such as the categorical imperative in actual Christian ethical decision-making? Well, there may be some significant overlap, and not just in the kinds of laws generated by Christian and Kantian ethics.

A clear example of this is the Golden Rule as put forward by Jesus in the Gospels. In his heart, this holds that we should treat other human beings as they would be treated themselves. Yet, although this seems very intuitive as we move through our lives, there is a curious logic behind such a principle. For we can ask why this principle makes sense at all. We might say that it is based on a broader principle of equality, yet it is easy to imagine treating people differently depending on their wishes and desires, even if we thought we were equal. In fact, when we probe a bit deeper, we can see that the Golden Rule is a moral principle based on the kind of **universalisation** that is essential to Kantian ethics.

Let's unpack this a little further. If we were to conceptualise a world in which everyone did as they pleased, other however they wanted, this world would arguably be contradictory, or at least unstable. For if this world existed, it would be more than likely that no one would get treated as they deserved. Everyone has a morally free licence to do what they want to each other. Thus, there is no way to have a morally good law, for it passes the categorical imperative in contrast to its counterpart. Of course, it is unlikely that Jesus somehow was thinking of Kant when he uttered the Golden Rule. However, the process of universalising moral laws, much like the categorical imperative, is a key part of how Kant's categorical imperative, and its process of universalising moral laws, mesh with certain forms of Christian ethical thinking, especially when it comes to forming laws for our everyday moral interactions.

Revision Activity:

If Christians employ reason as a source of authority, should reason play an important role in ethical decision-making? And does this mean employing an ethical system closer to Aquinas or Kant?

Make a few notes on your answer and compare to the other ethical systems reviewed.

Teleological Moral Decision-making

In the previous section, we looked at natural law and how Aquinas developed a theory that professed to offer good moral guidance through the correct application of practical principles. Now we will explore how the dimensions of Christian ethical decision-making may vary depending on the ends Christians are required to work towards. In other words, was Aquinas right in identifying the right general principles Christians are required to work towards? If not, what should we be working towards when attempting to make ethical decisions?

This is a difficult question to answer partly because it relies so much on the sources of moral authority that derive potential ends. Aquinas holds that human nature is defined by the ability to use reason to fulfill our purpose as human beings. At the same time, Aquinas does acknowledge that the primary precepts he uses as exemplar principles derived from reason are exhausted by the natural law precepts that reveal themselves as we further reason on human nature. Moreover, the natural law must be understood in light of God's eternal law and the divine revelation found in scripture and the sources of revelation. In other words, reason is limited and must be supplemented by faith and of ethical guidance to ensure we are acting according to the right moral ends.

Yet this all ends up quite complicated. What happens when our reasoning on natural law? There appears to be plenty of aspects of our human nature that are discussed and easily revealed by use of our reason. Think for a moment about contemporary life.

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reason to critically examine the Bible and eliminate elements that contradict our faith. Thus, although Aquinas perhaps identifies some of the right ends of ethical conduct, he does not provide clear moral guidance. So, what should we take from scripture and reason separately? What is the basis for teleological moral decision-making?

We can think about this problem not only as one of the nature of Christian ethics but also as one of identifying good actions from more general moral principles and ends. This is where we can apply in practice and come to examine different applied ethical issues. For the moment, however, let us return to Aquinas to another more radical theory of ethics.

Situation Ethics and Teleology

As you are already aware, situation ethics holds that there is only one right end of ethical conduct: the promotion of agape love. This is the basis of Joseph Fletcher's situation ethics, which is the central moral message of the Gospels and the primary principle by which Christians should live. Now, what's interesting is that the teleology of Aquinas leads to very different conclusions than those of Fletcher, yet both are held together by an emphasis on scripture and reason. For Aquinas, the law of love is the basis for the law of love while our reason is essential to work out in any situation what actions best exemplify agape love. Thus, perhaps ironically, the structure of natural law and situation ethics are very similar. The primary differences are they identify different teleological ends. Situation ethics does not develop deontological moral principles out of these ends.

This means moral decision-making for Christians is at heart not clear-cut, even within situation ethics. Christian moral decision-making need not endorse a deontological approach and a consequentialist approach depending on the ends of ethical conduct one derives. Moreover, weighing up these different ends is not an easy task and is based largely on faith. For Aquinas, the whole of the Bible is the word of God whereas for Fletcher, it is primarily the words and actions of Jesus. Yes, we can go a little deeper into situation ethics and look at how Christian ethics might have influenced moral decision-making processes in consequentialist theories.

Consequentialist Moral Decision-making

So far, we've seen that Christian ethics can veer away from an obvious deontological approach by identifying different ends of ethical conduct that are dependent on the ends of ethical conduct that are important. So, to what degree might Christian ethics be consequentialist; that is, to what degree is it dependent on the consequences it produces? This is not a typical way of thinking about ethics for theologians, yet as we have seen from the example of Fletcher, it may be that Christians can follow the law of love and choose actions which exemplify agape love in any given situation. We gain a little more insight into consequentialist ethics from a secular perspective.

As you may have guessed, your primary source should be the work of Jeremy Bentham. Bentham was a legalist, dedicated to developing a system of ethics that might be applied to law. This emphasis means his ideas can be contrasted quite interestingly even with consequentialist theories such as Fletcher. For utilitarianism, the position defended by Bentham, holds that the right action is the one that produces the most utility. This holds that the right action is the one that produces the most utility, interpreted by Bentham as the maximisation of pleasure and the minimisation of pain.

In comparison to Fletcher's law of love, Bentham believed that utility could be calculated for each action, and although this is difficult (even with Bentham's hedonic calculus), it is feasible that it could be calculated. In comparison to Aquinas, human nature is not the basis for reason or by which we are inclined to do good and avoid evil. Instead, Bentham took the fact that humans generally seek pleasure and avoid pain, using this natural fact as a basis for his ethics. The ends of ethical conduct could not be more different from the Christian thinkers yet Bentham even has a place for God in his ethics. It is just dedicated towards what Christians as a very base **hedonism**, the view that what is good is what is pleasurable.

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Comparing Bentham and Christian Ethics

With this comparison in place, it might seem as if there is little for the Christian to learn from Bentham's consequentialist ethics, particularly when it comes to making. For one, a key part of utilitarian ethics is **impartiality**, the idea that no one's interests count over another. In one sense, this seems strange. Shouldn't we prioritise the welfare of the poor over the rich? But if one examines Jesus' words a little more deeply in the Gospels, impartiality should form an important part of Christian ethics to some degree. A Christian should not just be concerned with who matters to them, but with humanity as a whole, including the poor and marginalised.

Secondly, when we get down to moral decision-making, how do Christians decide what is a good action and what could be a bad one? We can envision many situations where the good is much more obvious than the bad. In these situations, is telling the truth really complicated? Moral intuitions here are important. If a Christian naturally holds love to be important, they are likely to want to increase pleasure and reduce pain in people. Bentham is only pointing out a simple, if not always obvious, principle about goodness and badness in natural terms. The abstract idea of agape love is always graspable in real-world scenarios. Thus, we are potentially in a similar situation to Kant. Even if the ends or sources of ethical conduct are different, Christians may still align with consequentialist aims in moral decision-making, even if these don't seem resolute.

Revision Activity:

Is there any biblical evidence to suggest that Christians should accommodate their ethical thinking beyond demonstrating love? Research and pick two passages that support consequentialist Christian ethics.

Character-based moral Decision-making

The final form of moral decision-making we can look at is perhaps a form that Christians can identify with. Ethics that is character-based typically asks people to act according to the virtues of a morally good person. The classic example you will have studied is that of virtue ethics, which asks that to act well is to act virtuously. This means performing actions one can envision a virtuous person performing while avoiding actions which a vice-like individual would embody. In many ways, this is similar to the idea of Christian ethics. Even if Aristotle held a different end to ethical conduct (eudaimonia or flourishing) than the virtues Aristotle identifies as important we might find in the figure of Jesus Christ.

Why is this important? Well, it is very common to find Christians who hold that living ethically involves acting as Jesus would have done in an ethical dilemma. In other words, Christians are asked to embody the virtues of Jesus' character and embody them in our own lives. Moreover, this kind of reasoning can arguably help with ethical dilemmas that aren't easily covered by the commandments in the Bible. To act with compassion, humility, courage and truthfulness can potentially help in situations that don't have an obviously morally good path to take. Moreover, so long as the importance of practical reason, these virtues can be flexible. For one can still be virtuous even if it is necessary to lie on occasion.

Aristotle and Christian Ethics

Such a harmony is unsurprising since Aristotle has been a huge influence on many Christian theologians. The kind of moral decision-making we have outlined does align with Aristotle's idea of a golden mean between virtue and vice perhaps does not easily align. For Christians typically look towards Jesus as an ethical example, not towards an abstract ideal. A Christian's character in order to derive what are virtues. More simply, we don't need to run through the vices of deficiency or excess, for we have a direct source for what is virtuous in Jesus. This means when Christians are in ethical dilemmas, the process by which they decide what is virtuous is perhaps more simplified than the kind of reasoning Aristotle wants us to use.

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Second, it is not as clear to what extent the figure of Jesus influences ideas about virtuousness. While there may be a few clear examples, such as being selfish or difficult to place vices that Aristotle envisions, such as being melancholy, self-deprecating. Think about the nature of Christian discipleship. Does this mean simply being charitable? A theologian such as Bonhoeffer might argue, being completely dedicated to the will of God. There is not always a clear path to noting the exact relationship between the virtues and what their counterpart vices might be.

The cause of this is quite clear. Since Jesus is perfectly good in the Christian faith, it is difficult to compare him to when thinking about vices. But this means we have no real way to compare Jesus to when thinking about vices. To some extent, this is remedied by the ethical teachings and words of Jesus himself, it should be noted. In decision-making, one example as looking towards Jesus as a moral exemplar. In other words, one can look to Jesus as a moral exemplar. In other words, one can look to Jesus as a moral exemplar. In other words, one can look to Jesus as a moral exemplar. Yet, this shouldn't also obscure the fact that Christians draw upon in moral decision-making beyond the teachings of Jesus. When it comes to deciding what is vice-like behaviour. Yet, this shouldn't also obscure the fact that Christian moral decision-making may be at heart and the way in which Christians help them live their lives.

Exam Question Preparation

It is unlikely that AQA will directly ask you to compare the moral decision-making of Christianity with other secular positions in an abstract fashion. As we shall see when it comes to the most likely going to be asked how Christianity and another ethical position can be compared. The issue you will have studied. Yet this does mean that you should have a good grasp of how Christian and secular moral decision-making might cohere and differ. And what this section of the course is about. Christian moral decision-making, depending on one's interpretation, can be described as either rule-based, consequentialist and character-based. Moreover, when compared to other ethical perspectives, it holds a lot in common with the secular ethical positions you have studied. Whether it be Kant, Bentham or Aristotle.

Thus, it is important when you address later applied ethical issues, that you properly understand how Christian moral decision-making may intersect with more secular moral decision-making. Of these similarities, one that humanists argue God is not needed to develop a viable ethical system. Nevertheless, as we shall explore in the next section, the nature of moral decision-making in Christianity is not just about how Christians make ethical decisions, but what the principles are that generate ethical principles and to what these ethical principles are directed. This is partly when talking about teleological ethical decision-making, but there is plenty of progress to evaluating the nature of Christian ethics as a whole.

Revision Prompts:

Based on your studies throughout these sections, these are some revision prompts to make notes on when preparing for your end-of-year exams. For each, consider how the prompt addresses the philosophical and theological conflicts it addresses and how others might answer your answer.

1. What sources of authority do Christians employ when thinking about the process of moral decision-making?
2. What role, if any, does reason play in Christian moral decision-making?
3. Does Christian ethics accommodate consequentialist decision-making, or is it fundamentally deontological?
4. How prominent are ideas about virtue in Christian moral decision-making?
5. Can Christian moral decision-making be categorised into any single system of ethics, or does it accommodate a variety of systems of ethics?

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CHRISTIANITY AND ETHICS

THE NATURE OF CHRISTIAN ETHICS

Starter Revision Activity:

Revisit the following areas of the Ethics and Christianity modules. Pick two Christian approaches to ethics. Research how they approach ethics. Do they fit into any single ethical system, or are they a multifaceted ethical system?

Christianity and Moral Decision-making	Deontological Ethics	
	Key Terms	Law, Duty, Obligation, Categorical imperative
	Key Thinkers	Immanuel Kant
	Teleological and Consequentialist	
	Key Terms	Utility, Hedonism
	Key Thinkers	Jeremy Bentham, John Stuart Mill
	Virtue Ethics	
	Key Terms	Virtue, Vice, Eudaimonia
	Key Thinkers	Aristotle

Christianity Moral Principles	The Bible	
	Key Terms	Agape love, The golden rule, Beatitudes, Good Samaritan
	Key Thinkers	Jesus Christ, St Paul
	The Church	
	Key Terms	Tradition, Holy Spirit, Magisterium, Catechism

Introduction: The Nature of Christian Ethics

In the previous section of this course companion, we looked at the different ways in which Christians approach moral decision-making. Through this discussion, it was noted that a Christian may well turn to deontological, consequential, teleological or virtue ethics in an ethical dilemma. Moreover, despite the diverging ends and sources of Christian ethics, similarities can be found between Christian moral decision-making and other systems. In this section we're going to truly address what makes Christian ethics distinctive. What principles, laws and concepts might emerge from the sources and ends of Christianity?

For there is ultimately a tension at the heart of the Christian faith, especially as new denominations continually emerge within the religion itself. First though, cast your mind back to the first centuries AD, when the early Christian Church was properly beginning to form and separate itself from other religious sects and groups. Here, a great deal would have been said around the world in terms of spiritual and ethical beliefs, especially considering the Jewish roots of the faith and referred to what we now know as the Old Testament. In establishing a new religion, those who were Christians were initially more concerned with what made them distinct from the theological and ethical realms of other religions.

Nowadays, we can easily identify these distinctions, whether they be religious rules or practices) or moral principles about the right way to live, raise a family and act towards others. These distinctions are always so clear when we compare Christian ethics in particular with other world religions. We've seen how discussions about inclusivism and pluralism often point to the ethical outlook between individuals of different religions, to the point where they agree that salvation is available to all who simply live a good life. But these similarities have in common Christianity as a whole. Is it simply distinctive due to its theological beliefs and moral laws does it put forward?

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The answer to these questions depends largely on the kind of Christianity we choose. More conservative Christians are likely to endorse more of the strict moral principles of the Church. For instance, conservative Catholics are still likely to endorse a strong opposition to practices that disagree with permitting abortion, euthanasia and contraception, even when the consequences of these practices seem to be positive. In other words, they might well view the Bible and the Church as a deontological system of ethics, where salvation is guaranteed by following the law of God and these sources of authority. Alternatively, they might prefer a teleological system of natural law ethics, where deontological ethics are represented through the primary and secondary precepts.

On the other hand, it is important to consider the beliefs of more liberal Christians such as a strong view on the sacredness and principles in the Bible, balancing them with modern knowledge, including scientific and cultural beliefs. In this case, they might endorse only life principles, rejecting any endorsement also against a recognition of the importance of the Bible. This might also lead further afield for sources of ethical authority other than the Bible. Some might think in areas such as feminism, pluralism and political theory to inform their beliefs. They might view Christianity as incorporating different kinds of deontological, consequentialist and virtue ethics, depending on these different sources of authority that are held to be important.

Regardless, throughout this section we will be balancing these two different perspectives, looking at the degree to which taking a conservative or liberal stance on Christianity is justified. For a common complaint from conservative Christians is that the liberalisation of Christianity is no longer truly unique and cannot be divorced from secular ethical theory. In this we agree with secular humanists, who argue that religion is not essential to be a good person. We will also question whether a conservative Christian position is truly ethically coherent or if a more liberal position is needed to make sense of our modern-day ethical intuitions. With these questions in mind, we begin our first area of discussion – whether Christian ethics is deontological in nature.

Is Christian Ethics Deontological?

We noted when discussing moral deontology that Christian ethics often see God's laws as the basis of morality. There are plenty of biblical examples of Christians following in their everyday lives, traditions, and laws that often present ethical dilemmas or moral laws, and even Jesus gives important laws that separate Christian ethics from Jewish ethics. Naturally, there are some differences between Christian and Jewish deontological ethics. Thus, deontological ethics can be interpreted. On a meta-ethical level, Christians may have a theory, claiming that what is good is equivalent to God's laws and commands. Another form of natural law in which God's commands accompany a universal moral good and specific precepts, principles or laws.

In the case of Protestant theologians, concerns with natural law mean that deontological ethics have often focused on a meta-ethical grounding of divine command theory. Church is too broad now to centre around one interpretation, with different forms of teleological and character-based ethics often endorsed, with varying degrees of natural law. For Catholic theologians, natural law is generally preferred, meaning there is a joint interpretation of Christian ethics. Yet, because secondary precepts are the most controversial for Catholics, it can be argued that Catholicism is generally concerned with deontological ethics.

In these cases, living a good life is fairly simple. If a Christian wants to achieve salvation, the Bible and Church. Nevertheless, such a view is growing more controversial. The idea that Christians should follow the Ten Commandments without hesitation comes into contemporary moral thinking for a practical reason. Moreover, the idea of strict adherence to the Ten Commandments is often associated with religious fundamentalism, perceived by many to be far too rigid. It is often held that the Ten Commandments are the right actions to take, does this have to manifest in a rigid way? Are Christians always required to follow, or does it allow for more consequential interpretations of Christian ethics?

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The Bible and Deontological Ethics

The Bible is filled with moral laws, as we've noted quite a few times now. These principles, such as the Ten Commandments, to more ambiguous statements. For example, Jesus tells his onlookers to 'love your enemies and pray for those who persecute you' (Matthew 5:44), a law that Christians have to follow, even when they are under threat of violence, in any circumstances under which this rule might be broken (for example, if the principle of non-violence may be Christians having to be absolute pacifists, rejecting violence at all costs, or conditional pacifists, who can endorse violence if it produces a greater good effect).

For conservative Christians, it is likely that they will see nuance in these kind of statements that appear to function as a moral law, it is the duty of Christians to follow them. However, for liberal Christians, the fallibility of human beings, not a nuance in what Jesus has said. Moreover, the kinds of character virtues espoused by Jesus in passages such as the Sermon on the Mount, are a more reliable way for Christians to ensure that they adhere to the moral laws he sets down in the Gospels.

Yet, for liberal Christians, this interpretation might be questioned. Do we not look at the Gospels because these can provide better moral guidance than the limited number of laws in the Ten Commandments? Maybe even the moral laws are a way of cultivating good virtues, such as loving your enemies. Certainly, there are times when Jesus stresses the importance of good moral intentions, but he does adhere to the law. Moreover, Jesus at times seems to question the law, as he does when he is challenged by groups such as the Pharisees. Could it not be, as Fletcher suggests, that Jesus is advocating a traditional moral law favoured by Jewish groups at the time, instead exhorting his followers to love in any situation?

These questions are complicated, but it shows there is more than one way to approach the Gospels, even if they seem to intuitively adhere to a deontological schema. It may be that the right action is not determined by whether it follows a law but whether it is directed towards the good. In short, those moral laws Jesus teaches may be a route towards love, virtue and even utility.

The Church and Deontological Ethics

We can see similar problems arise when we look at the way deontological ethics is applied in the Christian Church. Typically, throughout history the Christian Church has generally declared certain actions to be right. More conservative denominations in particular are likely to hold onto these views when it comes to modern ethical dilemmas. On the other hand, more liberal Christians can have a more permissive attitude, acknowledging that people may have a variety of beliefs that mean they view actions as right or wrong depending on the context.

For instance, if we take the Catholic Church as an example, their strict views on abortion are generally maintained. They generally maintain a strong opposition to practices such as abortion. In this case, they simply endorse a moral law that says, 'it is wrong to practise abortion', where the rightness of the action is dependent on whether it follows this law. Of course, there may be exceptional circumstances, such as a mother's life, which fall under the principle of double effect, but a more liberal Christian might prefer a consequentialist or character-based approach to the problem. They may instead hold that an action is right when it is a loving action, compassionate, or when it just would result in the most happiness.

We can see the divide clearly also when we look at the differences in how the Church views moral law. The Catholic Church endorses a natural law approach, where the Church is a traditional source of secondary precepts. This means, in an important sense, that the Church is authoritative when it comes to human law in Aquinas' ethics. On the other hand, more liberal Christians maintain the same kind of authority, relegating such matters to scripture itself, while recognising a variety of ethical perspectives. Simply put, it is important to consider the different interpretations of scripture when thinking about Christian ethics, but also the role of the Church as a source of authority, for these tacitly may influence how we think about the nature of moral law.

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Revision Activity:

How significant a role do moral laws play in modern Christianity compared to the answers in the starter activity to your studies throughout this section and your

Is Christian Ethics Teleological?

We've briefly considered this question already, but we're going into a little more detail. Christian ethics is truly teleological. For while it may seem as if there is potentially both a divine one (God) and a natural one (love, virtue, rationality, utility), the case is not so simple. It's more about the role of meta-ethics in teleology.

For if we adopt a strict form of divine command theory, resulting in a Christian good is simply following God commands. There isn't an end to our moral actions beyond obeying these divine commands. On the other hand, if we hold that there is some ethical conduct, such as a natural human purpose based on our character and capabilities, it can well be teleological. Such forms of teleological ethics are obviously found in both

So, the teleological nature of Christian ethics is, to a large degree, based on which ends are pursued. Euthyphro dilemma, and there is significant disagreement still among theologians about the ends of Christian ethics, if there are really any at all. However, if Christian ethics and human moral conduct are perhaps what truly makes it distinct. For while secular ethics appeal to God-given human reason or agape love are ends that secular ethicists do not. Moreover, having these unique ends to ethical conduct also means that the increase in happiness may not affect its uniqueness. Even if our modern ethical intuitions and knowledge derive moral guidance based on these ends, the distinctiveness of these ends remains.

Despite this, there are still similarities we can draw between secular ethics and Christian distinctive teleology behind it. For one, situation ethics and utilitarianism aren't being critical, we may even say that agape love and agape love are really appeals to happiness really is. In other words, while it may seem as if agape love is unique, it's down to choosing the action which promotes the most happiness. Similarly, while natural law has a unique understanding of human purpose, it is still very similar to virtue ethics. Moral guidance is reasoning on what allows human beings to flourish in different circumstances. To remember that even if certain teleological ends appear unique to Christianity, they are indistinguishable from teleological systems of secular ethics.

The Bible and Teleology

Part of the difficulty with addressing the teleology of Christian ethics is that the teleology is not explicitly addressed in the Bible. Human ethical action is generally reported to be in accordance with God's will and be necessary for salvation. But whether ethics has a teleology or not beyond this requires a bit more interpretation. It involves identifying that human beings were created for a purpose by God, what this exact purpose is, and how moral principles reflect this purpose. For a theologian such as Aquinas, who was heavily influenced by Aristotle, this purpose wasn't a given from the teachings of the Gospel. It had to be derived from reflection on human nature. Similarly, for Fletcher, the purpose of human ethical action is throughout Christian scripture. Rather than focusing on the words of Jesus himself, both cases, the ends of human ethical action do not necessarily come through from a list

This, however, is a broader discussion about how we interpret sources of authority and address in the philosophy of Religion specification. Of course, you should not add your own answers to issues of ethics. But it is useful to know how these two different topics relate. The Catholic Church is central to ethics because there needs to be a reasonable interpretation of scripture and tradition but also of the nature of human life itself. In this sense, the teleology of ethics plays a deeply important role in applied ethical issues for Catholics today. Much of the Catholic opposition to abortion and euthanasia, for instance, is driven by concerns raised by the natural law

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On the other hand, Fletcher's willingness to contemplate the potential rightness or rejection of these kinds of formal ethics. The only end to consider is agape love. There are no severe reflections on human nature nor does it require a formal authority such as the church to demonstrate it at any point. The ultimate authority is Jesus himself and his loving words. A careful reading of the Gospels themselves. Moreover, knowing what is loving cannot be reduced to simple concepts. This knowledge comes for Fletcher from a process of moral maturation that we develop as we work our way through different ethical dilemmas in our lives.

Revision Activity:

Are there any significant ends to which Christian ethics beyond acting according to God's will? Do you believe there are other ultimate purposes to life?

Note three possible ends to Christian ethical action and write a few sentences on each.



Is Christian Ethics Consequentialist?

Despite the prominence given to Fletcher in the AQA specification, it still should be noted that whether Christian ethics is consequentialist is perhaps one of the most controversial positions. While situation ethics is recognised by many to be a viable ethical system, it is not one of the many mainstream Christian denominations, and Fletcher faced a great deal of criticism for proposing his ideas. At the same time, in the last section on moral decision-making, we saw how situation ethics may unwittingly adopt elements of consequentialist moral decision-making. For Fletcher, the only good is agape love or utility. For, ultimately, one of the benefits of consequentialist ethics is that they provide useful moral guidance in complex ethical dilemmas, where our ordinary moral principles are too inflexible or unhelpful.

But even if that is the case, does that truly mean that Christian ethics is consequentialist? A great deal of the opposition to consequentialist ethics in Christian tradition arises from the fact that it leads to grotesque conclusions about what is right. It violates the integrity and sanctity of the individual, however, flips this idea on its head. If actions might seem bad but could really be good in a given situation at hand. Ending the life of a person who is in great pain but can't fully recover would be a result for everyone involved, even if it seems an instinctually wrong action to undo. How can Fletcher arrive at such a conclusion when there are moral principles in the Bible?



The Bible and Consequentialist Ethics

Just like teleology, the Bible does not overtly discuss consequentialism as a distinct ethical system. It is a scripture to an extent to find a grounding for situation ethics. However, he is also aware of the existence of moral principles. Rather it comes from reasoning on the central law he holds is a law of love.

Matthew 22:34-40

When the Pharisees heard that he had silenced the Sadducees, they gathered together. A lawyer asked him a question to test him. "Teacher, which commandment in the law is the greatest?" He answered and said, "You shall love the Lord your God with all your heart, and with all your mind, and with all your strength. This is the greatest and first commandment. And the second is like it: 'You shall love your neighbour as yourself.' On these two commandments hang all the law and the prophets."

Now, it may seem as though even this law isn't really consequentialist by itself. It is about loving God and others. It is perhaps not merely a state of mind. If I only thought of loving as a state of mind, I would hardly be regarded to be a good person. Rather, as Fletcher holds, loving requires us to perform actions which themselves are loving. And the measure of the goodness of an action produces, not whether it follows certain laws or principles. Thus, there is a strong argument behind Fletcher's adoption of the law of love, one that can easily be questioned by theologians favouring other ethical positions. Maybe lovingness is just an intention supposed to develop to help us follow God's law, not a kind of good we are supposed to achieve.



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At the same time, Fletcher's position is hardly inconceivable. His move from the Christian ethics makes sense if the law of love is held to be central to moral decisions. This of course hinges on a certain interpretation of the Bible which disregards or ignores its text in favour of a very Christocentric perspective. But this also still perhaps gives it a consequentialist flavour. No secular ethical system is likely to endorse agape love as a basis for human moral actions, even if it sometimes coheres with a consequentialism with which Fletcher arguably diverges from Christian tradition, his vision of Christian ethics is in its own right.

Christian Ethics Character-based

The final aspect of Christian ethics we can consider is the role of character traits. It has been very much regarded in the Christian faith, although they play a complementary role. In other words, the importance of virtue is not just as an end to moral action but instead as a means. According to the teachings of the Bible. Thus, it is important to first note that, to say that Christian ethics is partly character-based. Very few Christians would argue that more like Jesus, even if their moral principles don't seem to cohere exactly with his.

But how far should we judge Christianity to be character-based? We explored the nature of Christian moral decision-making, noting how a Jesus-based version has its pitfalls when it comes to issuing moral guidance. But there are a few more problems which is that taking a purely character-based approach to Christian ethics may well be problematic. Why is this the case? Well, if we're attempting to live according to how Jesus would act, as emblematic of the kind of virtues we should be cultivating in our lives, then any attempt to do so, without ever holding Christian virtue ethics to have any connection to God, is a character-based conception of Christian ethics may fail to be religious at all.

The Bible and Virtue Ethics

There is a potential avenue around such criticisms. For there are many kinds of virtues. A person would not recognise a warrior as a pacifist. For instance, piety or faithfulness is one kind of virtue, alongside more conventional ideals such as chastity or meekness. In the Bible, there are many such as Jesus may be different from those a secular individual might be. The same time, it also leaves us with the problem of finding competing virtues. Jesus as a character in many ways seems to conflict with many figures that are present in the Bible. In fact, the kind of warrior-messiah envisaged by the Jewish people at the time of Jesus, contrasts with the pacifistic individual who is celebrated as the Messiah by Christians.

Also, perhaps more troubling is finding a virtue-based teleology in the Bible. When the goal of ethical conduct was eudaimonia, or flourishing, this is unlikely to appeal to Christians as a fundamentally areligious concept. So, what might be an option? Well, one option is to follow the beaten track, and that you are unlikely to have covered in your studies, is that of theosis. This is more commonly discussed in the Eastern Orthodox Church and refers to a process of becoming more like God in those who have committed to themselves in faith. It begins with an individual's moral actions until eventually they reach the point of unification with God in heaven.

This idea is potentially a stretch beyond what you will need to know for your exam. However, understanding how a character-based version of Christianity might possess a goal beyond the law, in short, a Christian may wish to cultivate certain virtues as part of theosis, with the aim of achieving union with God. This obviously does not answer all the problems we've discussed, but it may interact with the moral laws found in the Bible. But it does present the option of a character-based Christian ethics that may be philosophically coherent, if not entirely theologically coherent. It presents a distinctive version of Christian ethics that goes beyond the virtue ethics.

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Revision Activity:

Is Christian ethics primarily character-based, or are considerations of character and moral laws? Write down your thoughts and see whether you can spot any philosophical tensions.

Exam Question Preparation

The first two sections of this companion for Ethics may seem a bit weighty at first, but the dimensions of Christian moral decision-making, seeing how they can be compared and contrasted. In this section, we've taken it a bit further and have philosophically examined how deontological, teleological, consequentialist and even character-based in nature. The kind of response you may receive is one similar to the kind we have developed as an exam-style question.

Exam-style Question:

'Christian ethics is not character-based.'

Critically examine and evaluate this view with reference to the dialogue between deontological and teleological ethical systems.

Here, the emphasis is on whether a character-based system or a virtue-based system is more appropriate for Christian ethics. There is an easy point at which to begin your analysis, and that is whether the system is philosophically and theologically coherent. Moreover, there is a variety of possible responses.

1. Christian ethics is not character-based.
2. Christian ethics is partially character-based but is also deontological/consequentialist.
3. Christian ethics is wholly character-based.

As we've explored, the position of many Christian denominations and theologians is that Christian ethics is character-based. But by now you should hopefully have the tools to argue for any of these positions. We will argue that Christianity, for instance, is wholly deontological due to the Bible's command-based theory view of ethics, although plenty of other positions are possible! Similarly, if you want to point to the faults of other systems and explain how Christian ethics primarily focuses on character.

Either way, there is always going to be a broad scope with these kinds of questions. You will always to develop a good understanding of each position we've studied in case it comes up. Moreover, the above question can easily be reframed into other kinds of questions. For instance, see the exam-style question we've included below.

Exam-style Question:

'Christian ethics is deontological.'

Critically examine and evaluate this view with reference to the dialogue between deontological and teleological ethical systems.

Here, although the question is essentially the same in structure as the previous one, the focus does shift a little bit. Here, you will have to explain how the moral laws in the Bible either do or do not support a deontological Christian ethics. However, since a little of the Bible seems to grant a role for deontological laws in the Christian faith, the burden of proof is placed against this position rather than for it!

Revision Prompts:

Based on your studies throughout these chapters, these are some revision prompts to make notes on when preparing for your end-of-year exams. For each, consider how it addresses the philosophical and theological conflicts it addresses and how other systems of ethics respond to your answer.

1. To what extent is Christian ethics concerned with following moral laws?
2. Can Christian ethics be effectively compared to or reconciled with Kantian ethics?
3. How does Bentham's utilitarianism differ from Christian ethics?
4. What role does virtue play in Christian ethics?
5. Is Christian ethics truly distinctive as an ethical system?

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CHRISTIANITY AND ETHICS: CHRISTIAN ISSUES OF HUMAN AND ANIMAL LIFE

Starter Revision Activity:

Revisit the following areas of the Ethics and Christianity courses. For each of the revise what Christian ethical perspectives say and what principles they employ in decision-making on these issues

Applied Ethics	Issues of Human Life and Death	
	Key Terms	Embryo research, Designer babies, Euthanasia, Genetic engineering, Assisted suicide, Capital punishment
	Key Thinkers	Thomas Aquinas, Joseph Fletcher
	Issues of Non-human Life and Death	
	Key Terms	Intensive farming, Blood sports, Cloning
	Key Thinkers	Jeremy Bentham, Aristotle
	Christian Moral Principles	
	Key Terms	Sanctity of life principle, Personhood, Natural law
	Key Thinkers	Jesus, St Paul

Introduction – Applying Christian Ethics to Contemporary Moral Dilemmas

Whereas in the previous sections we were discussing the nature and distinctiveness of Christian ethics in comparison with other ethical systems, the focus of this companion will be focused on applying Christian ethics to other meta-ethical concerns such as the will. Yet, applying Christian ethics to contemporary moral dilemmas is at least partly dependent on how we construe Christian ethics in the first place. The grounding in the previous sections studied so far before we turn to applied ethics is a strictly deontological interpretation of Christian ethics? Or an alternative system of virtue ethics? Or situation ethics? How we grapple with a particular ethical issue or moral dilemma will depend on the system we choose to adopt in response.

But, as we shall examine in more detail later, being able to compare Christian and secular ethical positions is perhaps the most important part of the Dialogues specification in ethics. It is not just about asking at least one question on an applied ethical issue or topic to which you will be required to compare a Christian ethical perspective with a secular perspective. For instance, this might be comparing Aquinas and Bentham's utilitarianism on an issue such as genetic engineering. Thus, developing a deeper understanding of Christian ethical stances and their major differences with secular positions is essential.

This means that the next few sections won't be analysing the details of the differences between Christian and secular ethics studied so far. The table above features a list of the issues that the focus of this companion will be on. It is important aspects of Christian and secular ethics and how you can use different ethical systems to address any ethical issue you face in your end-of-course exam. For cultivating this deeper understanding, the easiest route to confidence is not in your assessments but in your wider education.

Science, Technology and Human Life

Before we delve into these ethical principles, we can first explore a little bit about the issues that arise. For, to some degree, many moral dilemmas we face now still have similar roots. They can be traced back through historical narratives, myths or more theologically inclined documents. The relevancy of traditional Christianity largely comes down to whether the teaching of the Bible provides guidance to Christians today. If the ethical issues we face are vastly beyond the scope of the Bible, then the relevance of Christianity is less clear.

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Bible, then even if Christianity is a useful text to study when thinking about what help us in our ordinary lives. And while to some degree this might be remedied by the Bible being the ultimate source for the key ethical principles that Christians hold dear.

So, when we look at the ethical issues in your AQA specifications, what is the real cause of them? The answer is – by and large – **technology**. The advance of scientific knowledge means we have the capability to manipulate, prolong and change the course of human life more than ever before. Moreover, these technological advances have made us question what is **intrinsically** valuable (valuable in and of itself) and whether we should be focusing on what is **extrinsically** valuable, such as happiness or comfort. This has also brought attention to the problems and divisions behind human beings and other non-human forms of life. Should we really put the centre of our ethical perspective when our ability to manipulate the natural world has caused untold suffering and damage to the environment?

But what of ethical issues such as homosexuality or marriage? Well, the advances of the world have also lent themselves to a broader materialism in our general perspective. Technology has allowed us to probe the most microscopic parts of the world and the kinds of phenomena traditionally feared by the Christian Church are as natural as the elements of the world. This has even led to Christians re-evaluating institutions such as marriage, to focus on the individual rather than emphasising the unbreakable spiritual bond that the sacrament was. In this sense, it is important to recognise that technological and scientific change has brought applied ethical issues. If we question one aspect of Christian tradition concerning marriage, we equally question another ethical issue in a similar fashion.

Why stress this now though? There is one key reason. The assessment questions tend to focus on a single ethical issue. Instead, they might address whether Christianity is compatible with animal rights and welfare. They might ask you to evaluate whether Christians have a right to human life and death. In either case, the scope of the question is much broader than it appears, bringing in multiple ethical issues in your answer.

Christianity, Personhood and Scientific Developments

The most common problem that emerges when thinking about new technological developments is the question of personhood. In the past, it was perhaps easier for Christians to create a divide between the human and non-human beings were perceived to be the only beings that were truly rational and self-conscious. The human being was the prime example of what constitutes a person in comparison to an animal, which could be seen as a mere creature. Yet, with increased scientific study of animals, these boundaries are being withdrawn. Animals, such as dolphins, primates, pigs and crows, which are capable of solving complex problems and which seem to possess elements of conscious thought similar to those of human beings, are now being seen as more emblematic of being persons than, say, a baby? Furthermore, these animals possess complex emotional lives and have rich experiences of the world that include love, fear and joy.

These questions around personhood are particularly important when we think about the value of human life. For they question how we approach issues such as abortion, euthanasia and whether someone is truly a person at the moment of conception, or does personhood only develop at a later stage. The capacities we hold to be representative of personhood are also important. Similarly, if a human being loses their capacities due to injury, does that mean they lose their status of personhood? The question of the definition of personhood, but our intuitions about it influence how we approach issues of human and non-human life and death. Moreover, these intuitions aren't necessarily independent of our culture. Our attitude towards life and death is dependent on our cultural context with it and our perspective on the universe. A more materialistic outlook on life is often linked with a more materialistic outlook on personhood.

Yet, for the Christian, such considerations are potentially dangerous. While they might potentially improve the welfare of individuals, the possibility of subverting a strong Christian moral framework could lead to negative effects on the way we view the unborn, the disabled and the marginalised.

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important here leading up to our examination of different Christian principles is that personhood and the potential sanctity of life are not just rooted in religious belief. The fact that beings are created in the image of God is an important foundation for viewing human life as a more philosophical concern about moral equality underlying it. For a latent criticism around the definition of personhood is that we may undermine the moral respectability of human life. This is most commonly expressed as a slippery slope argument, but there may also be the view that more is gained morally when we view human life as intrinsically valuable rather than as a mere measure of happiness or welfare. These arguments we will explore in a bit more detail when we look at key Christian principles in the next part of this section.

Revision Activity:

How do you think we should define personhood? And should any definition of personhood include the rights of animals? Write a few sentences outlining your beliefs as we progress through this section.

Applying Christian Moral Principles

So far, we've given a brief overview of the kinds of topics you will potentially be examining. We've also looked at some concepts that have driven the development of new ethical dilemmas. In this part, we will look at some Christian moral principles you might draw on to help develop your arguments. This is especially considering the general wealth of ethical teaching present in the Bible that has been commonly employed when talking about applied ethical issues in modern discussions. We will be comparing Christian and secular ethical systems. With this in mind, we can turn to some of the most important – Christian moral principle active today.

The Sanctity of Life Principle

As you should know, the sanctity of life principle holds that all human life is inherently valuable. It is one of a number of general moral laws that Christians are expected to follow. The most important of these is that life should be preserved whenever possible. Since God creates each human being with a purpose, and since human beings are created in the image of God, ending any life early is seen as a violation of God's will. Throughout history, the sanctity of life principle has typically thought to refer to the value of human life. In this sense, it is a simple principle to understand and is one that perhaps doesn't need much explanation. But in a more modern context, where medical technologies have sufficiently advanced beyond the imagination of those in the past, new issues have emerged.

For there is a potential ambiguity in the sanctity of life principle. Does preserving life mean that we should never allow a possible reason to end it prematurely? Or does it mean that we should simply consider the value of human life in all of our actions? We might end with a *strong* sanctity of life principle, where it is wrong to end human life prematurely, or a *weak* sanctity of life principle, where the value of human life is considered, but it does not always outweigh all other considerations. To apply the sanctity of life principle, it is necessary to be specific about which form you are using, as the form you choose influences the ethical principles we derive from it.

The Strong Principle and Applied Ethics

The strong principle can be contended to give clear moral guidance in issues of applied ethics. However, at the same time, it is perhaps more inflexible. The guidance it gives may be morally unhelpful in some cases, such as in the case of euthanasia and genetic engineering. In a strong principle, we are always to preserve life, even if it risks greater suffering for the individual. This is where Christians fail to consider how the strong principle should be applied. If life is sacred, shouldn't we be more committed not only to preserving it but to ensuring that it is of the highest quality? The sanctity of life mean that we should attempt to eradicate poverty, disease and ill health.

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The first problem here is that the sanctity of life principle, as we noted before, impacts human life. But does this plan involve suffering? Would God intend for us to suffer? Or does this plan involve us overcoming suffering through the means available? There are potentially a few contradictions when we are thinking about the strong sanctity of life principle. In particular, the notion that God has a plan for each human life can be interpreted in a way that easily conflict. If life is sacred, then preservation of life may not be the only principle.

The second problem is that the strong principle, if taken on face value, seems to have a difficult implementation. For instance, we argue that we should not end the life of an unborn child. This is a decision that would seem to conflict with our moral intuitions. Now, those in support of the strong principle might raise the principle of **double effect** in these cases. Yet, for critics, this is simply another factor. Other considerations are important beyond the mere preservation of life. For example, in the case of **passive euthanasia**, which in principle involves death by omission, is rarely the practitioner's knowledge of what is going to occur.

In short, these kinds of exceptional cases are not really exceptional at all; rather, they require us to consider other important principles (such as the quality of life, compassion, or the overall value of life, not just a blind wish to preserve it. If this is the case, then the strong principle is inflexible but misguided.

The Weak Principle and Applied Ethics

So, what is the alternative option? Well, naturally it is to adopt a weaker form of the sanctity of life principle. We would generally preserve human life without the issues that arise from the strong principle. There might be exceptional circumstances where procedures such as abortion are justified, especially when someone's **quality of life** may be severely affected. Thus, we are to consider not only the sacred nature of human life, but also the other factors with which we must weigh our abilities to reason, love and experience.

So, what's the problem? Well, for many Christians, especially those of the conservative tradition, this weaker version makes it fundamentally meaningless. If we are to consider the quality of life, or other factors besides sanctity, then it doesn't mean that life is inherently valuable. In fact, it can be seen as a tacit admission that the sanctity of life is not absolute. Altogether, a conclusion that a lot of Christians would be reluctant to stomach. For many, the other factors we are required to consider and how these arise. Should Christians consider other factors? Should philosophers and other theorists about the value of human life? Or should they stick to what the Bible says?

The Sanctity of Life and Animal Rights

The issue is perhaps further complicated when we think about animal welfare and the sanctity of life principle, it is only human life that is sacred and so should be preserved. But what about animals? Do animals fit into this interpretation? Do we have no duty to protect animal life? The Bible has fundamentally set apart human beings as sacred. Such a principle ties in well with the concept of **dominion**. But it says ultimately very little about the importance of **stewardship**. The sanctity of life principle may overlap with non-human beings.

On the other hand, a weak sanctity of life principle may allow for greater flexibility. For instance, if other factors may be important when considering the sanctity of life, then we might be more open to the use of animals as a source of organs for medical testing. This is a significant negative consequence for the environment, despite the possibility of preserving human life in different ways. The emphasis thus shifts to stewardship of the earth rather than dominion, and critics may argue that the weak sanctity of life principle fails to allow for a proper divide between the value of human life and the value of non-human life. Regardless, it is important to note how different interpretations of the sanctity of life principle have ramifications beyond human ethical issues.

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Biblical Moral Principles

What exactly can we focus on when we talk about moral principles in scripture? We looked at in previous sections. There are examples such as the law of love and also commands to act towards social justice, equality and faithfulness to God. So how do these relate to modern ethical issues? Should we prioritise one principle over another? In later parts, we will examine these questions in relation to both situation ethics and virtue ethics. In this analysis, it is worth considering some of the basic laws and virtues that can be found in the Bible.

Biblical Moral Laws

One of the most basic principles in the Bible is thought to be the **golden rule**, which can be seen as a direct law, a moral principle or a simple guide to the right kinds of moral action. Regardless, it is a very powerful, particularly when thinking about basic moral issues. For example, if we put, we would not want to be lied to or stolen from in most cases, so we shouldn't lie or steal from other people. Similarly, it might provide a basis for a broader equality when it comes to issues like homosexuality and transgenderism. No one would want to be discriminated against in their own life outside their control, so any discrimination against others of this kind is also wrong.

Note here, though, that this kind of universal principle does potentially go against other systems such as natural law and situation ethics. For the former, reasoning on the basis of the kinds of acts and behaviours which require condemnation, despite the importance of the golden rule. Similarly, for the latter, the law of love might require us to perform acts such as lying or stealing to be more loving. This does not mean that honesty, for instance, is not generally more important than lying where the law of love may contradict our intuitions about the golden rule. Altogether, the golden rule to be an example of a heuristic (shortcut) in moral guidance, not a strict rule that is required to follow.

However, it is also worth considering other principles in the Gospels which may require us to follow them even if they do not take the form of a strict rule. These in particular include the **parable of the good Samaritan**, which might be possible to derive a principle such as 'help those in need'. This is a very broad, but it's the kind of principle that might support arguments for euthanasia, for instance. One person might argue that helping those in need involves letting them die if life has become unbearable, while another might argue that this help simply makes the process of dying as comfortable as possible. More broadly though, we can link moral action in the Bible to the place of moral virtues.

Biblical Moral Virtues

Think once again about the parable of the good Samaritan. In one sense, we could derive a principle of charity from the narrative. Alternatively, we could construe it as talking about the importance of compassion and love in one's life. Many different teachings in the Gospels fit this theme, from the accompanying healings to the more general principles found in passages such as the Sermon on the Mount. Altogether, Jesus' example seems to suggest that when thinking about modern ethical issues, it is worth looking to apply the kinds of virtues he embodied, such as compassion, honesty, and love.

Yet, in comparison to straightforward principles such as the golden rule, virtues are more complex. We derive moral guidance from, especially when complex ethical issues are concerned. Compassion, for instance. Under its most basic interpretation this virtue should mean that we value other human beings and to be concerned about their welfare. Perhaps for this reason, it is studied, such as in the parable of the good Samaritan, compassion is easy to apply. Stealing someone's property, for instance, is a case where compassion is not easy to apply. Stealing someone's property, for instance, should mean that we treat anybody well, regardless of their sexual or gender identity.

But think for a moment about the Catholic Church (and other mainstream Christian churches in history). Do they not maintain that it is important to condemn sin while remaining compassionate? Here, we might disagree with this interpretation of compassion, but the fact remains that it is a virtue that is central to their teaching.

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compassion isn't an easy process. These same problems arise when we consider and euthanasia. Many Christians would argue that any kind of euthanasia apart from passive euthanasia is profoundly uncompassionate, since it maintains a fundamental disregard for the value of human life. But there are plenty of individuals who are in favour of legalising active euthanasia for those suffering of some individuals, arguing that it can only be compassionate to allow them to die if they wish. Altogether, it is important to remember that biblical moral virtues are not absolute, which means there is still an active debate about the correct way to apply them to many modern ethical issues.

Revision Activity:

Do Christians today still value biblical moral laws over use of reason in ethics, or have they become proven too inflexible in a modern society?

Research and write down two examples where modern Christian denomination has challenged biblical law on contemporary ethical issues.

Natural Law

After considering how biblical principles and virtues face problems when applied to modern ethical issues, consider how more established positions might approach applied ethical issues. Instead of examining how they can relate to each individual issue; rather, we will look at some general principles of implementation that you may choose to focus on in your exams.

The first of these is natural law, which is perhaps the most difficult to grapple with when it comes to ethical issues. For as you hopefully should recall, natural law contends that there are certain things that are part of human nature. There are thus kinds of capacities, characteristics and behaviours that are inherent to develop effective moral principles that guide our lives. For Aquinas, there were four primary precepts that include protecting and preserving human life, reproduction, education, worshipping God and living in society. From these primary precepts, using practical reason, we should be able to derive secondary precepts that give effective moral guidance.

But you may well notice that some of the primary precepts are a bit vague. More specifically, are human beings really required to reproduce, for instance, or even to live in society? What counts as education? What about the ordering of society? Is any action which potentially destabilises society intuitively good consequences? All these problems are hidden within Aquinas' system. It becomes distinct problems when we try to apply them to different modern ethical issues. It is unclear when we encounter these problems whether it is the primary precepts within natural law that are flawed or whether natural law is fundamentally flawed as an ethical system.

Let us consider abortion as an easy example. Under Aquinas' natural law (and that of many other religious traditions) it is wrong because it transgresses our imperatives to both preserve human life and to reproduce. But here we might encounter a number of problems. Is abortion for reproduction really be viewed in moral terms? Isn't it simply a natural desire, not a moral imperative? The only thing potentially supporting this belief in Christianity is scriptural evidence, not natural law. Similarly, we've explored the problems with preservation when we looked at the same issue from a different perspective.


The problem only grows deeper when we think about homosexuality and transgender issues. Our opposition to these phenomena under natural law is once again the transgression of the imperative to reproduce. But our modern scientific knowledge shows these phenomena are entirely natural. Do natural law theorists re-evaluate the primary precepts, or should we question the validity of the former? The former may be a path forward where natural law might cohere with modern moral intuition. However, it may be that trying to generate moral principles based on a subjective process, and natural law cannot offer truly helpful moral guidance. Either way, when we apply ethical issues from a natural law perspective, it is important to trace how the issue relates back to the original primary precepts developed by theorists.

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This is perhaps truest when we consider issues of non-human life and death. The precepts here is that they are all human centric. This means that a division is art beings and animals, with the former having no real responsibility to the latter un Aquinas himself said as much, contending that human beings were effectively all wish. Ultimately, this means that under Aquinas' natural law human beings do n as intensive farming unless they impact other human beings, e.g. through enviro this seems to transgress good principles of stewardship a seems to be a blank guidance natural law can give. Do we not have some moral responsibility to anim for how their exploitation might affect h vest.

Situation Ethics

Comparativ  natural law, the moral guidance given by situation ethics is eas practice. This might sound a little strange, but think about the nature of situatio contends ultimately that the right action is always dependent on the situation or at hand. We have to apply what is a very simple and abstract idea, the law of lov problems of our material world. In other words, it is always easy to know for the approach an ethical dilemma. It is another thing entirely working out or calculat

However, that does not mean we cannot form general judgements about loving. It is likely, for example, that theft and lying are generally unloving actions, even in some circumstances. Similarly, it is easy to argue that being tolerant, respectful relationships and transgender individuals is also likely to be loving. Where situat complicated is around issues of human and non-human life and death. For instanc Many would argue that in many circumstances it is, as long as the individual facin autonomous choice to die. The same perhaps is true of genetic engineering in m individual cure their genetic condition or improving their p, are a loving action?

At the same time, for problems such as abortion and designer babies, the choice i really call these loving actions if we endorsed the practice of either? Or are they material concerns? Regardless, there still may be situations where allowing these Fletcher's e  er, which best captures is a kind of 'maturity' when it comes to m words, the  up ethicist is one who can recognise that context matters and way they formulate moral guidance. Even if some practices seem intuitively wro there may be certain situations where they might be loving, despite appearance

A further advantage of situation ethics is that it perhaps can incorporate issues c more reasonable fashion than natural law. The law of love need not be human c precepts are. Thus, we could easily contend that intensive farming or blood spor situations. In this way, situation ethics, in being more abstract in certain aspects moral guidance which can prove useful to Christians in truly understanding non-

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Revision Activity:

Is situation ethics or natural law a more productive ethical system for Christian contemporary ethical issues?

Note down three arguments for and (all) your chosen position.



Applying Secular Moral Principles

Even within systems such as natural law and situation ethics, there is the implicit principles they produce must cohere in some way with biblical law. However, where the requirement is, of course, absent. In many ways this frees the ethical debate from such as the sanctity of life principle. On the other hand, depending on which ethical other problems arise. When comparing religious and secular ethical systems, especially ethical issues, it is important to note how the draws links between each connect to their. Throughout our exploration of each system, we will therefore, look not only at their unique moral guidance but also at how they can lead to unintuitive or unusual conclusions in ethical systems in question.

Kantian Ethics



Kantian ethics is perhaps one of the most difficult systems to evaluate, especially to fill out how it could be applied to contemporary ethical dilemmas. What is clear is that the categorical imperative provides easy guidance for issues such as theft and lying. The universal law is envisioned by Kant himself, with laws generated against each. Of course, if the laws are universally binding, there can be no circumstance which permits breaking them. If a neighbour came to your door asking for the address of your neighbour whom they wished to commit a wrong action by lying to them. In this way, although the moral advice is often clear, it can also be resolutely inflexible.

But what about homosexuality and transgender issues? These are morally social issues which are not easily universalisable. We might formulate a law about equality, claiming 'all people should be treated with equal respect'. We might even refer to Kant's second formulation of treating individuals as ends. But this doesn't answer questions about whether same-sex marriage is allowed to marry, and whether this truly is an issue of equal respect or whether it merely excludes some individuals from certain wedding practices. In other words, the principle of the categorical imperative may prove difficult to apply to cultural ethical issues.

The same might be said for practices such as abortion and euthanasia. We might claim that killing is not allowed except in instances where the mother might suffer. Such a principle is arguably universalisable without contradiction, since a world in which killing is allowed would produce greater harm, death, or unhappiness. The principle hinges on what we define as severe distress or harm, and whether embryos or foetuses are seen as ends in and of themselves, not just as means to an end. The same is true for euthanasia. If the principles are entirely specific to a particular situation, the moral guidance they provide is meaningless or overly simplistic.

Moreover, we encounter similar problems in issues of non-human life as we do with human beings. In Kantian ethics which requires human beings to consider the welfare of animals, mistreatment would result in a contradiction upon universalisation. The second formulation is to treat other human beings as ends, but this is based on a recognition of other people as rational beings. To conceive of animals as having the same rational powers to deduce moral laws, then to use them as a means. But is this really correct? Does it not show, perhaps, that reason is not the basis of morality, and intuitively we bring in other principles, virtues and ideas when deciding on moral issues?

Altogether, Kantian ethics is very good at generating broad laws about right and wrong, but a bit more when considering complex applied ethical dilemmas, which require a bit more nuance. If you're asked to compare Christian ethics to Kantian ethics, care needs to be taken. Kantian ethics may not always grant useful guidance on a particular issue, nor may it always be clear. This is not to say that the various formulations don't at least hint at the potential of the system, but that the scope and applicability of Kantian ethics is a matter for debate among its proponents. Thus, in any answer it is key to note how these shortcomings affect the way we think about thought and Christian ethics around difficult ethical dilemmas.

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Utilitarianism

In comparison to Kantian ethics, utilitarianism has often been argued to be able to deal with dilemmas, even if the utility of various actions is difficult to calculate in practice. The dilemmas you should be aware of, are often now termed **act utilitarianism**, as they require the utility for each action that we undertake. For simpler issues such as theft and lying (according to Bentham's hedonic calculus) might be fairly straightforward. Typical of stealing a bar of chocolate might not be greater than the distress it causes a shopkeeper. There are plenty of situations we can envisage where the result is reversed. If I had a starving child to feed them is likely to be acceptable, even if it would generate a significant amount of minor pain caused to the shopkeeper.

Where this approach is difficult is potentially when we consider social issues. For example, if the majority was against same-sex relationships, then allowing same-sex marriage might cause greater total pain for the majority than pleasure for the minority in same-sex relationships. This is potentially true of transgender issues. In fact, one of the primary problems you might find with act utilitarianism is that it offers no protection for minority groups and potentially the majority, as even minor pleasure given to the majority is likely to outweigh great pain for a minority. This is potentially where Bentham's ethics are more contentious compared to Kant's. Kant's latter's second formulation of the categorical imperative guarantees some rights for all, which is true of Bentham's ethics. Thus, there is no hard and fast guidance about social issues, particularly the treatment of minority groups.

However, Bentham's ethics allow us to perhaps properly address issues of human and non-human life and death in a manner which other ethical systems so far have failed to do. Whether it be abortion, euthanasia or cloning, we are only required to decide what would provide the greatest pleasure versus minimal pain. If we take euthanasia as an example, there is perhaps a clear case for legalising voluntary euthanasia, since a person's choice to end their suffering is likely to cause a net gain in pleasure for themselves and their families. It may also lead to a more permissive attitude surrounding genetic engineering, as the ability to cure genetic conditions and improve the welfare of human lives will naturally take precedence over the worries about changing human nature and personhood.

Finally, as long as we include the pleasure and pain of non-human beings in our calculations, utilitarianism potentially allows us to properly address issues such as intensive farming and blood sports. Peter Singer has often made strong arguments for vegetarianism and veganism, as the pain human beings receive from eating meat is comparatively minor to the massive pain intensive farming inflicts on animals. In this sense, it is clear how a utilitarian position can support animal rights and welfare, especially in comparison to natural law and Kantian ethics. It is also important to consider the tyranny of the majority. If enough human beings gain pleasure from eating meat or watching blood sports, does that override the pain and suffering experienced by the animals?

Virtue Ethics

Finally, we can consider how virtue ethics can be applied to a variety of ethical issues. Unlike Kant and Bentham, and Kant, the moral principles given by virtue ethics are a little more difficult to apply, but it can also be argued that virtues are more easily complemented in practice. We don't have to follow rigid principles but instead focus on the virtues and behaviours that are considered good. For example, honesty and lying, for instance. It is generally clear that a virtuous person would be honest, even if practical reason dictated that this would not always be possible.

Moreover, we can point towards virtues such as compassion, respectfulness and honesty. These virtues can help us address social issues such as same-sex relationships and transgender issues. In all, virtue ethics holds that promoting accepting attitudes towards all individuals is a more virtuous approach than persecution and marginalisation. Moreover, there is no problem of the tyranny of the majority.

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Bentham's utilitarianism. Since all people should aspire to be virtuous and achieve potentially a natural tendency towards equality within virtue ethics. However, the what virtues we choose to emphasise in any given society or culture.

This is perhaps the greatest problem facing virtue ethics when thinking about its dilemmas. Aristotle, for instance, identifies a number of virtues which we are unlikely such as liberality and magnificence. Yet, there are also many, such as friendliness, would recognise as still important. Moreover, although many of these are difficult dilemmas, they do at least point towards the kind of behaviour we should be endorsing. Euthanasia as a key example. While we might argue the person in the face of suffering potentially should also recognise that those not suffering should have compassion that are. The the instances are severe enough, it may be acceptable to allow especially if the possibility of them achieving eudaimonia is being severely limited by

The same is potentially true when we consider issues of non-human life and death we recognise that eating meat is sometimes a necessity. Such a recognition is part good sense. Yet, our adherence to other virtues such as compassion or temperance would have us recognise that practices such as intensive farming involve a disregard for the suffering of other beings and may result in more vice-like behaviour towards all life. Thus, eudaimonia may involve practising virtues not only towards other human beings but also towards non-human beings and cultivating a virtuous character to the entire natural world. For some this may be a bit of a philosophical leap, but it is key to note that, depending on the kinds of virtues we believe people should embody, virtue ethics can be very flexible in generating moral guidance.

Revision Activity:

Can Christian ethics learn from the application of secular ethical systems, or does thinking on modern ethical issues?

From your previous work, note three ways in which Christian ethics might contribute to contemporary ethical issues.

Exam Question Preparation

This section is the broadest in the Dialogues specification and is one that you should be studying as part of your exam preparation. A good knowledge of how to compare ethical systems in the context of contemporary ethical dilemmas will be likely to be the two questions you will encounter. This is especially the case as the kinds of questions could arrive in a variety of forms. Check out the exam-style question given by us

Exam-style Question:

'Christian beliefs about animal rights and welfare are inconsistent with the view

Critically examine and evaluate this view with reference to the dialogue between natural moral law.

This is the first kind of question you may find, requiring a comparison of consistency between another ethical system. In this case, the example is quite simple, as natural moral law is a form of ethics, so what is required is to evaluate whether Christians as a whole agree with natural moral law on animal rights and welfare. Here you may raise a number of issues and one that could be mentioned is that both Christianity and natural moral law don't generally oppose using animals for human benefit, as part of the Christian principle of stewardship. It is seen how natural moral law, in being a human centric form of ethics, does not extend at all to non-human life.

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Why does this matter? Well, there are plenty of Christians who might oppose in on the basis that both these practices are not very compassionate or loving. In the raise situation ethics, and how Christians might consider wider ethical principles out by Aquinas. In other words, there are plenty of ways to take apart this quest attitudes towards animals can be more varied and complex than natural law sup can also be used in broader questions about the relationship between Christian non-human life. Check out another exam-style question below:

Exam-style Question:

'Christian beliefs about animal rights and welfare have been undermined by ins ethical systems.'

Critically examine and evaluate this view with reference to the dialogue between

Here, the scope is much broader. You might bring in a variety of ethical systems out how Christian principles around dominion and stewardship have developed in Similarly, you might again reference natural law and situation ethics, talking abo welfare and rights of animals from different Christian perspectives. These can al variety of secular ethical systems we looked at, particularly utilitarianism and vir higher status on animals than systems such as natural law.

Lastly, you may encounter questions that ask for a direct comparison between C of ethics. See once more the exam-style question below:

Exam-style Question:

'For both Christianity and virtue ethics, voluntary euthanasia is wrong.'

Critically examine and evaluate this view with reference to the dialogue between

For this question, the comparison is clear. However, it may be difficult to compa on a single point and here is where good knowledge of both ethical systems will that both Christianity and Aristotle are likely to share many virtues in common. Th virtue ethics to natural law or situation ethics, which may well develop different euthanasia. Moreover, it may be useful to develop some nuance in your answer we should be focusing on here (e.g. compassion) or do other virtues and factors knowing these systems back to front will enable you to make precise and effectiv in your exam answers.

Revision Prompts:

Based on your studies throughout these sections, these are some revision promp make notes on when preparing for your end-of-year exams. For each, consider h answering the philosophical and theological conflicts it addresses and how other your answer.

1. What key Christian principles might a religious person employ when approa
2. How should the sanctity of life principle be interpreted for contemporary Ch
3. Should concerns about the quality of life play a role in Christian moral decis contemporary ethical issues?
4. Can Christianity provide meaningful guidance on issues of non-human lif
5. In what ways might secular ethical systems undermine the moral guidance g contemporary ethical issues?

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CHRISTIANITY AND ETHICS: CHRISTIAN ISSUES SURROUNDING WEALTH, TOLERANCE AND FREEDOM OF RELIGIOUS EXPRESSION

Starter Revision Activity:

Revisit the following areas of the Ethics and Christianity courses. For both wealth and tolerance, revise two case studies, each which demonstrate the problems surrounding the issue.

Christianity and Social Issues	Wealth	
	Key Terms	Reversal, Prosperity gospel, Piety
	Key Thinkers	Jesus, Aquinas, Joseph Fletcher
	Tolerance and Freedom of Religious Expression	
	Key Terms	Church and state, Law, Rights, Utility
	Key Thinkers	Aristotle, Jeremy Bentham

Introduction – Christianity and Social Issues

In comparison to the singular applied ethical issues we studied in the last section, social issues are more difficult to grapple with using traditional systems of ethics. In many cases, social issues are more moral guidance about problems such as wealth or freedom of religious expression, rather than ethical ones. At the same time, it is always important to remember that, in the real world, theory, and, therefore, politics, to some degree is applied ethics. We use our ethical reasoning to decide what is right for society, and what laws we would need to implement to ensure that this equal and just society or society for all.

Think for a moment about natural law. There is a reason why Aquinas held that the good of society, alongside other principles such as education. We rarely have a direct and singular form. Instead, they are enmeshed in deep and complex contexts. When we think about a particular issue in the first place. While it is easy to argue that education is good for a child, it is not so clear what this education should consist of and whether education should prioritise the thought and knowledge of children themselves.

In short, social issues are naturally messy. We can use our pre-existing systems of ethics to guide us, but, for the most part, such a process does not often occur in real life. Look at a social issue, such as problems of wealth or tolerance. Will they reference situation ethics or utilitarianism? Or will they talk about the different parties involved in a social issue and generalise from the intuitions of each side. However, in a more academic setting, these are essential questions. Should we prioritise the right to free expression of religion, even when it potentially conflicts with other values? Should we relegate religion to the private sphere and restrict the freedom of religious expression? These kinds of questions we shall grapple with in this section, looking at how different thinkers might approach these problems.

Christianity and the Issue of Wealth

The issue of wealth has long been a historical problem for the Christian Church; and it is likely to prove more divisive in the coming years. For there have been Christians themselves over whether it is right to accumulate wealth during one's lifetime, or whether to seek it in the first place. It is likely you will have studied these tensions through the course, but here we will unpick them a bit further using the ethical tools developed through the course. Moreover, we shall question whether it is right for wealth to be construed as an individual's right, or whether it is one that extends to all human beings today.

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The Bible and Wealth

One key feature of Jesus' ministry in the Gospels is his embracing of those who are beyond this focus, there are many aspects of his teaching which suggest that the correlates with spiritual depravity. In short, focusing on money or material goods leads to immoral choices but also to a neglect of one's spiritual duties. In Matthew 19:16, Jesus says a phrase that 'it is easier for a camel to go through the eye of a needle than for someone to enter the kingdom of God' (NRSV). Moreover, wealth appears to be a stumbling block for Jesus' followers in the Gospels, including the Pharisees, the money changers in the Temple, and Judas Iscariot (Jesus for money!).

In comparison, many other religious teachings talk about the importance of compassion and charity. Luke 19:21 sees Jesus saying to a rich young man, 'If you wish to be perfect, go, sell your possessions, and give the money to the poor, and you will have treasure in heaven'. Many biblical scholars have identified numerous themes arising from this contrast. One is the idea of **reversal**, exemplified in Luke 16:19–31, the parable of the rich man and Lazarus. This holds that the afterlife will see individuals' fortunes turned upside down, the rich becoming poor and the poor becoming rich (though in spiritual wealth, not necessarily material!). Another is that of piety and asceticism, where one tries to live without excess material belongings. (This ideal has, however, been more traditionally found among monks and monasticism in the Christian Church, rather than among the lay community.)

With these aspects in mind, you might think that Christian teaching is fairly clear. However, remember that the reality is a little more complex. In one sense, wealth is not always a bad thing. It has driven new technological advances that have improved human welfare. It is not necessarily the generation of wealth but the unequal distribution of it and the money hoarded and accumulated it. Thus, what should be focused on is the use of wealth to improve the lives of the poor and marginalised. Moreover, wealth has been influenced by cultural influences that have shaped how communities have thought about it and interpreted the Bible.

One of these movements that has been studied is new Christian movements that encourage wealth. These typically phraseise that wealth can be seen as a reward for faith, with churches encouraging wealth as a way to secure one's fortune in life. Prosperity gospel is often criticised by more moderate or mainstream Christian denominations, but movements often pointed to passages such as Mark 10:29–30, which seem to suggest that Christians should give up their lives for faith, not just in the afterlife. Moreover, those who support these movements point to the more prevalent connections between wealth and faith that are present in the Bible. It is a more cohesive view of the Bible to find similar connections in the New Testament.

So, the problem is complex, and it is important to be aware that Christian ideas are not always influenced by the Bible. When considering the issue, it is worth focusing not only on the Bible, but also on the Church and the ethical systems derived from Christian sources.

The Church and Wealth

The previous part probably contained a lot of information that you are already aware of. However, in traditions in biblical interpretation, one of the main problems of wealth and the reward for faith, have a long history of conflict in Christianity. The purpose of any work is to work out whether one tradition should be favoured over the other, or whether there is a middle path between the two. Finding such a middle path is a contentious issue in Christianity. Looking at the relationship between wealth and the Christian Church.

Many mainstream Christian denominations have long been under attack for hoarding wealth and focusing this wealth on expanding Church institutions rather than helping the poor. The Church is perhaps a key example, with its wealth often estimated to be 10–30 billion pounds. The Church point to the need for it to maintain the large number of buildings, workers,

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world, but there is still an inherent tension concerning a Christian denomination's wealth when Jesus taught about the problems that wealth can cause.

In response, the Catholic Church, among others, has often pointed out that it is the love of money that is the source of evil, not the accumulation of wealth itself, especially when it is used for good endeavours. But we previously pointed out how Jesus did not merely question the love of money, he emphasised how wealth should be redistributed towards the poor. In contrast to many other denominations, it is likely that the early Church was much more concerned with the use of property and the accumulation of wealth. Although, there have been plenty of Christians who have aimed to move closer to this ideal and distribute their wealth among those in need, the Catholic Church certainly has engaged in plenty of charitable activities, it can still be questioned whether it should be more committed towards this ideal also, rather than accumulating further wealth.

Christian Ethics and Wealth

So how can we incorporate Christian ethics into this discussion? Well, the first relevant ethical framework is the concept of **natural law**. For how could the accumulation of wealth be justified in the context of natural law? The main principle that seems to have the greatest relevance is the principle of the common good of society. Simply put, a society in which a few people command great wealth while the majority live in poverty is not to be one which is successfully ordered. Similarly, it may be one in which human rights are not nor perhaps educated properly. In other words, it would be easy to develop secular ethical arguments that excess wealth should be redistributed towards others where it is not needed. One could argue that Christians are obliged to follow these, depending on the fortunes of a particular society, but they must also ensure that they are consistent with the primary precepts set out.

The same is likely to be true of **situation ethics**. Fletcher's law of love commands actions that would best demonstrate agape love. In many situations, it is likely that the use of wealth is more loving than buying a new television, so Fletcher's ethics is likely to lead us to be more concerned with everyday life and much less concerned with accumulating wealth. Of course, the use of wealth for the benefit of others, such as if buying a new television for a child, is a good thing. But altogether, both provide grounds for opposing the accumulation of wealth, especially if it causes negative social or environmental impacts.

So, considering that both these forms of Christian ethics potentially support a strict approach to wealth, how can its accumulation be defended, whether it be in the context of the early Church or modern Christian movements that adhere to the prosperity Gospel? In many of these systems there is also an emphasis on practical reason in implementing principles in the context of the ethical dilemma. The Catholic Church, for instance, may simply argue that it is not their duty to dissolve their wealth without risking harming not only Christians but other people in need of charitable support. However, we can further question whether it is right to prioritise the accumulation of wealth over matters of wealth. For a more critical perspective, we can turn to secular ethical frameworks.

Revision Activity:

Is the problem of wealth becoming more acute in the twenty-first century, or has it been reduced by the actions of Christians? Explain their accumulation of wealth?

Note down a few ideas and compare with your classmates to secular critiques of wealth.

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Secular Ethics and Wealth

In the last section, there has been the implicit assumption that the Bible and/or the church is the source for how we think about wealth. But secular ethical systems obviously do not think about social issues. In other words, religion and, as such, the Christian faith are central to society and our thoughts about inequality. They are only important either if they bring right moral principles or if they bring some natural or instrumental value to society, thinking about wealth, secular ethical systems can now discuss very different kinds of moral

Take, for example, **Kantian ethics**. Kant developed a maxim such as 'do not accumulate wealth' which is arguably universalisable. A world in which everyone accumulated or sought to accumulate wealth would be likely to be a disaster for a variety of reasons, whether it be social inequality, environmental destruction or a world in which everyone limited the amount of wealth they could have. This would result in great inequality and charity. Yet, in many ways, this kind of thinking criticises the kind of thinking that we might hold in a capitalist society, which often holds that profit is inherent to the kind of teaching that Jesus espoused, although to a different end. For Jesus, wealth is an obstacle, whereas for Kant it may just result in rational contradictions when taken to its logical conclusion.

What's key though is that some might object to how we just applied the category of wealth. It could be argued that if everyone sought excessive wealth, then the world would be a more prosperous place and social welfare would increase. This is really the difficulty with using the category of wealth. It can prove useful for working out the different ways that excessive wealth leads to contradictions or problems, but it doesn't really tell us whether wealth is a distinct moral problem in real-world contexts. For this, we might have to turn to other ethical systems.

Take the example of Bentham's **utilitarianism** next. Here, there is nothing generally wrong with wealth; it is only an issue if it results in decreased utility. We can first note that this can provide a context to Jesus' teachings. For it can be argued that wealth – up to a certain point – is good. Money enables us to eat well, enjoy activities with friends and live a healthy life. However, after a certain point the happiness that wealth brings is reduced. Many note that we don't often seem to gain much happiness from buying new, often inessential, things. This may be necessary to think more broadly about the unhappiness or pain that wealth can cause.

Think for a moment about much of the developing world, where poverty may be a major issue. The distribution of wealth results in the hungry, sick or marginalised gaining significantly less than the wealthy. It could be that the right act for those who are wealthy is to give their excessive wealth away. However, arguments that, practically, this kind of charity is problematic in a political or economic sense. Various kinds of corruption may present the general argument that excessive wealth in any country should be redistributed, much in the same manner that Jesus taught. In fact, these kinds of arguments were developed by utilitarian thinkers such as Peter Singer, who argue that those earned in the developed world should give a fixed portion of their income to those in developing countries.

Finally, let's think a little more about Aristotle's **virtue ethics**. For while wealth does relate to concepts of virtue, it is rare to find anyone arguing that greed is a good character trait. Aristotle points out magnanimity (generosity) as a key trait for a virtuous person to possess. While virtue ethics does not present a general argument for wealth redistribution, it does hold that excessive wealth is not sought. Thus, any individual would be engaging in vice-like behaviour if they were not generous, and allowing wealth inequalities to persist would be a moral problem. This presents the closest secular view to Jesus' teachings, which often focus on wealth as a moral issue rather than a specific social problem (although some theologians do disagree here).

Thus, although there are differences in interpretations, many systems of secular ethics can cohere with Jesus' teachings rather than those of movements such as the prosperity gospel. The important is that, for all, wealth isn't a sign of goodness or faith but something to be managed according to certain criteria. In this sense, secular ethics can be a useful comparison to Christian ethics in discussing problems of wealth in a broader context. For now, though, we can turn to the topic of **freedom of religious expression**.

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Christianity, Tolerance and Freedom of Religious Expression

In comparison to wealth, it is perhaps even more difficult to evaluate the social and ethical issues surrounding tolerance and freedom of religious expression. For as a personal moral imperative, it is often seen to be good to tolerate those who hold different beliefs or lead different lifestyles. However, as a social principle, it emerges that this tolerance can only extend so far. Those who hold different beliefs or lifestyles may not change in order to accommodate their preferences, which in turn may generate opposition to such changes. Even on an everyday level, many of our beliefs are not simply preferences but are moral imperatives. How is it possible to tolerate the actions of a person who you believe is fundamentally wrong?

Tolerance in this way is often contrasted with freedom of religious expression. For many Christians, it is often seen as an important component of their faith to be able to practise elements of their faith in the public sphere or express their beliefs in the ways they act. Yet these practices and actions can be seen as problematic to many, and throughout your studies you should have examined a number of examples where Christians have come into conflict with their employers, neighbours or even the state over issues perceived to be their deeply held beliefs. Throughout this section, we won't be looking at the historical context (which they are important to know); rather, like wealth, we will be looking at the ethical issues surrounding this issue and examining how you may critically approach it in an exam context.

Christian Faith, Practice and Worship

What's important to note first is that not all elements of Christian expression are controversial. When Christian practice coheres with common ethical sentiments and values, there is little controversy surrounding the way Christians practise their faith. Rather, there needs to be a clear ethical issue or controversy to arguably be generated.

The first is that the practice needs to be within the public sphere. This is often not a simple concept; broadly, it means in a place, location or space which is accessible and used by all members of society. In public spaces, the most important guide to action is usually the law; however, depending on the context, there may be a consensus that there are some activities that are acceptable and others that are not. It is often agreed that religious practices should be allowed in public spaces, even if they are controversial or disagreeable to some. However, in many secular countries, an instance of mass religious expression, such as a protest, would be perhaps less agreeable to many if it breaks the law if proper measures are followed, would be perhaps less agreeable to many.

This leads us to the second aspect. The practice needs to embody some element that is seen to be morally disagreeable, unlawful or obtrusive to those who are present in a public space. This aspect can be very vague, and it is important to note that this vagueness is a key feature of freedom of religious expression. For instance, a local church taking donations for a building project is unlikely to be frowned upon, even if there are religious motivations behind it. However, a local church attempting to evangelise and convert people by preaching on the streets might be seen to be even more disagreeable when they directly impede people's rights, such as blocking the way or grant their custom or services to individuals in same-sex relationships.

The problem here, though, is that Christianity is literally a broad Church. It holds a wide range of beliefs and movements, some of which hold certain beliefs that would be reprehensible to many. However, there are continued exhortations not only to preach and convert others, but to live by their own convictions. Thus, for many Christians, freedom of religious expression is not simply a matter of being able to practise their faith in the public sphere. They may well believe they are entitled to operate in the public sphere without fear of condemnation and living in confidence. Moreover, they may well translate such freedom of religious expression into a belief that individuals have the explicit right to practise their faith freely.

Moreover, there are pragmatic concerns for Christian Churches. The increased secularisation of many countries that has often accompanied a retreat from the Christian presence in the public sphere has led to worries that Christianity fundamentally cannot survive as a religion unless free religious expression is allowed. In some sense, religions must be allowed to freely express themselves in public in order to survive. As any other activity, whether it be music, art or film, enjoys the same kind of protection, so too should religion.

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debates around freedom of religious expression are not always competing discourses of value and happiness. In other words, the limiting of freedom of religious expression with a limitation of joy for those who are religious, and this may be necessary to protect the values all its citizens.

So, what we can see is that the debate around freedom of religious expression can be complex. For secularists, there may be an undue focus on the harms of freedom of religious expression. Religious individuals may be inclined to overlook the conflicts that too much freedom can cause. Thinking about freedom of religious expression and tolerance is not just focusing on the harms but trying to judge the importance of freedom in the context of our modern society. Freedom of religious expression should be limited in certain degree but allowed in other cases. May not be in a way that causes people trying to go about their daily lives. May be allowed but not on religious holidays or other important moments. These are the things we are grappling with in order to give nuance to your position wherever possible.

Natural Law

Despite this nuance potentially being important, there may be support from Christian natural law for freedom of religious expression. For instance, let us consider Aquinas' primary precepts of ethics. If you recall, Aquinas holds that worshipping God is one of the primary precepts. If we value, we might well say that natural law should support a strong belief in freedom of religious expression. Worshipping God is not simply something which is done in private, but often in public. At the same time, you might have already noted that another primary precept is the ordering of society. It is not simply say that worship of God should be allowed at any given point. Instead, we must consider how the primary precepts against each other when developing secondary precepts, or human laws.

Moreover, we might employ practical reason when thinking about the situations that arise from these secondary precepts. Altogether, this means that while worshipping God is a primary precept for Aquinas, it cannot be pursued at all costs. Instead, we must consider how we can worship, harmonise with the ordering of society. If we pursue freedom of religious expression without regard for the ordering of society, there may be conflict and destabilisation of society which prevents the primary precept from being pursued. Thus, it is key to note that even within Christian systems of ethics that explicitly hold freedom of religious expression as an essential good, there is room for pragmatism when it comes to freedom of religious expression.

Situation Ethics

The same is true if we consider freedom of religious expression from the perspective of situation ethics. However, in comparison, it's a little more difficult to evaluate what limits we might place on freedom of religious expression. In one sense, allowing religious individuals to freely practise their faith is a good thing. For the individual practising their faith, ensuring that this practice does not cause harm to others is a good thing. The result may be that situation ethics advocates for some limits on freedom of religious expression. It allows for religious individuals to engage in forms of worship that could be considered harmful to the community outreach.

The problem perhaps with situation ethics is that there is no direct rights or constraints on freedom of religious expression. If you imagine a situation whereby every time a Christian preached in public, it would be more loving for Christians not to preach in public. Yet, if there are no guaranteed rights to freedom of religious expression in situation ethics, it may be difficult to justify the imposition of such rights if the only reason is love. Perhaps ironically, considering the Christian ethic, situation ethics may restrict religious activity to the private sphere.

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Revision Activity

Should freedom of religious expression depend on the kinds of beliefs being expressed? Should there be a blanket right for individuals to practise what they deem to be religiously important?

If the former, try to compile a list of unacceptable religious behaviours as a reference point. If the latter, try to compile two arguments to support your position.

Secular Ethics, Tolerance and Freedom of Religion

So far, we've generally considered freedom of religious expression from a Christian ethical perspectives, there is no primacy given to Christianity, nor is there any inherent social level. Thus, in contrast to the perspectives studied so far, it is perfectly coherent to hold that freedom of religious expression should be banned or completely limited. This is a viable conclusion to draw, however, depends on a number of factors, which

Kantian Ethics

Taking **Kantian ethics** first, let's try to universalise the maxim 'one should freely express religious beliefs without limit'. Does this result in a contradiction or a conceptual conflict? There is no contradiction, yes it does. For we live in a world with a huge number of different religious beliefs. If we universalise this, it can be argued that if we all were allowed to freely express our beliefs, there would be chaos. In fact, it may simply result in enough conflict and violence that individuals cannot actually freely express religious beliefs at all without threat of harm! Thus, the categorical imperative, freedom of religious expression does have to have some limits.

The same kind of problem emerges when we consider another maxim, 'one should not express religious beliefs, worship and practices'. For there are plenty of religious beliefs and practices of other religions and systems of thought. In this case, what would happen were individuals would be forced to tolerate religious people committing moral wrongs? They would be forced to tolerate the intolerant! Thus, we might judge that tolerance, just as with freedom of expression, has its limits.

Yet, we have to be careful here. Is the categorical imperative really giving us good moral advice? That Kantian ethics can't really give good concrete advice about complex social issues is clear. That we should be tolerant of others' religious beliefs that do not cause direct harm, or that religious beliefs should not be practised publicly. In other words, the situation should not have been practised in the first place. These kinds of complexities are not easily universalisable to the categorical imperative may show that ideas such as freedom of religious expression without limits are not viable. Under certain assumptions, it doesn't necessarily show us what the limits on religious expression should be.

Utilitarianism

Here, we can turn to Bentham's **utilitarianism**. What's key here is that the moral value of freedom of religious expression is good is the happiness that is produced by the act. If we limit it, then the happiness is reduced. Naturally, depending on the consequences of these acts, we might find a point where the happiness of freedom of religious expression is maximised. If presented without limits, the happiness by clashes between religious individuals may produce more unhappiness than happiness. If much, then the same result may occur. What's interesting about utilitarianism is that the moral value is dependent on the levels of religious belief in a country and the happiness that religion brings.

The first is clear in affecting how we measure the importance of freedom of religious expression. If people in a society are religious, then it stands that allowing some freedom of religious expression is a good amount of happiness. Promoting tolerance would also certainly have the same effect. The more difficult is assessing the happiness that religion brings individual people. No one would of course say that their faith brings them more pleasure than pain. But what about the restrictive moral laws that prevent people having fun? Or a religious focus on suffering and death? Aspects aren't particularly joyful and yet are often present in different religious groups.

Thus, if adopting a secularist point of view, utilitarianism might be a natural fit for assessing the moral value of religious expression. First, secularists point to how too much freedom leads to more unhappiness. They also point to the inherent characteristics of religious belief itself, arguing that the unhappiness caused by increased freedom of religious expression leads to increased happiness. If we argue that faith, then it can be argued that greatly restricting freedom of religious expression leads to decreased happiness in any society. This kind of view to a certain extent can be found in new atheism. For if we believe that religion itself is inherently harmful or leads to unhappiness, then it can be argued that freedom of religious expression should be greatly restricted.

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Virtue Ethics

The final ethical system we can consider is **virtue ethics**. While this might be applied about how we treat each other, it is a little more difficult to apply to freedom of religious expression as it gives greatly depends on the kinds of virtues we identify as being important. It is perhaps holding that tolerance itself is an important virtue to develop. If this is the case, it is an argument for allowing freedom of religious expression not only out of compassion but also because being virtuous also means being tolerant of the differences between individuals and groups.

But what about religious practices that we might regard as being non-virtuous? For example, denying business to individuals could be a cause of a lack of tolerance, respect or not applying virtues universally to both religious and non-religious groups. But this is a difficult issue as different groups will have different virtues to be important. And what of virtues Aristotle might identify as important? Indignation? Would this not cause us to oppose practices, religious or not, that we might find objectionable? There are a lot of complexities when considering how to develop a virtue ethics approach to freedom of religious expression. For some, this may be a sign that virtue ethics is not the best approach, whereas for others it may highlight simply how complex the issue is, and solutions that are not misleading us about the right ethical path forward.

Exam Question Preparation

Any exam question you are likely to receive on either freedom of religious expression or wealth will be straightforward, assessing whether Christianity and/or other secular ethical systems support or oppose practices that place limits on them. For instance, take a look at the exam-style question below.

Exam-style Question:

'Freedom of religious expression should be limited for the public good.'

Critically examine and evaluate this view with reference to the dialogue between religious and secular perspectives on an approach to moral decision-making.

Here, the kinds of argument that are supposed to incorporate are quite clear. On the one hand, the Christian views on freedom of religious expression with Bentham's utilitarianism. Throughout the section, we can see how both perspectives might take a more liberal approach to freedoms, or how they might restrict them for public good, happiness or even the ordering of society. You might encounter a similar question about wealth:

Exam-style Question:

'It is immoral to accumulate excessive wealth.'

Critically examine and evaluate this view with reference to the dialogue between religious and secular perspectives on an approach to moral decision-making.

This is perhaps a little more difficult to address. But in the first part of this section, we saw how Aristotle's virtue ethics placed a strong emphasis on magnanimity or generosity. We can now compare and contrast each perspective and highlight the ethical dilemmas involved in discussing the nature and morality of wealth.

Revision Prompts:

Based on your studies throughout these sections, these are some revision prompts for you to use as notes on when preparing for your end-of-year exams. For each, consider how you might apply a philosophical or theological conflicts it addresses and how others might critically evaluate it.

1. What is the right biblical teaching around wealth?
2. Can modern Christian movements such as the prosperity gospel cohere with traditional teachings?
3. How might secular systems of ethics critique Christian teachings on wealth?
4. Should there be any limits to freedom of religious expression?
5. How far should individual tolerance extend to morally disagreeable religious practices?


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CHRISTIANITY AND ETHICS: FREE WILL, MORAL RESPONSIBILITY AND CONSCIENCE

Starter Revision Activity:

Revisit the following areas of the Ethics and Christianity courses. Revise Christianity's view of the nature of conscience, before offering your own criticisms of each. Come back to this throughout this section.

 Free Will and Moral Responsibility	Free Will and Moral Responsibility	
	Key Terms	Hard determinism, Libertarianism, Compatibilism
	Key Thinkers	John Calvin, David Hume
	Conscience	
	Key Terms	Synderesis, Ratio, Superego, Collective conscience
	Key Thinkers	Sigmund Freud, Thomas Aquinas, Emile Durkheim

Introduction – Freedom and Normative Ethics

Throughout most of the Dialogues ethics specification, you don't have to think about free will and moral responsibility as separate concepts from moral action. In this sense, the final part where we look at free will, moral responsibility and conscience is separate in content to the rest. However, it is very useful to try to gain a good understanding of these concepts not only is there always a good chance that a question may arise in your exams, but it also helps us to think about ethics altogether. In the case of free will and moral responsibility, these are key concepts for Christianity. Without them, the meaning and purpose of salvation is brought into question. Similarly, although conscience is not always how we perceive it to be as important, for Christians it is an essential way of understanding God's will in their everyday lives.

So how can we effectively compare Christian thought to secular analysis on both of these issues? One thing to note is that both, to some degree, possess a metaphysical component to their analysis. For example, when we talk about free will, for example, what we are arguing is not whether we make choices free of external influences, but whether human beings have genuine agency above and beyond the physical world. In other words, if human beings do have free will, it is potentially something that is not reducible to the relationship between our minds and the material world. Similarly, if conscience is something more than just a good, then we are dealing with a real structure of the world on a level which we cannot understand in natural terms.

These metaphysical considerations are important, for there are many strands of thought in modern philosophy that reject this kind of talk. For the compatibilist or hard determinist, it is not possible to suppose that human beings can act in ways that are above the laws and constraints of the natural world. For psychologists such as Freud, the same is true for human conscience. There is nothing about it that is merely the product of different environmental forces acting on the mind. Yet, for Christians, these issues are perhaps more scientifically appealing, have their own set of issues. Is ethics really just a set of rules that we have created? Is it fundamentally not in control of our own actions? And if this is the case, should we still believe in the idea of theological determinism when thinking about the Christian faith? These kinds of questions will be explored a little further in this section.

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Free Will and Moral Responsibility

As noted in the introduction, free will is often thought to be deeply important for theologians have professed that human beings must possess **libertarian** free will judgement and salvation to be meaningful. If we truly did not have agency or autonomy, human beings arguably cannot be morally responsible for their choices. And if human beings are not morally responsible, then it cannot be just or fair for God to judge people accordingly. Condemning people potentially becomes an arbitrary and almost despotic act if it is not important for Christians. Either human beings possess genuine free will or Christians are not.

In truth, the history of Christianity is a little more complex than this argument suggests. Libertarians would argue that human beings have complete autonomy all the time or at least most of the time. Most Christians would be happy to admit that a person's environment, character, and other factors are important reasons for how they act. Moreover, it would be strange to imagine that God at any time didn't consider mitigating factors. The faith of someone born into a life of suffering is more valuable than the faith of someone who was born rich and never had to struggle. If the judgement may be a mystery, this doesn't prevent Christians from having a nuanced view of free will.

For think a little more about the foundation of such a form of free will. Under a libertarian view, God who guarantees the freedom of our actions. Yet, it is also God who created an ordered world where two things in any theological picture must cohere somehow. It would be strange if human beings were causally excluded from all forces in the world, and as you may have seen, if they did possess such an extreme freedom, it may result in a kind of moral paralysis. Instead of focusing on every action rather than focusing on cultivating our characters such that we are able to live out Christian virtues. Moreover, a nuanced view accommodates the kinds of struggles that good Christians face. If it were as easy as simply selecting another action out of many options, it would be difficult to develop as a coherent concept.

So how might a Christian idea mesh with libertarian ideas of free will? You have seen philosopher Robert Kane as an example. He suggests that God guarantees the possibility of free will during our lives. Specifically, he suggests that these are key moments where human beings exercise agency in critical ethical situations. These moments are the basis for our fundamental moral decisions we approach all other situations from then on. What's important also is that these situations are not necessarily common. If we tie this into a Christian world view, it might be that all human beings are created with the capacity for good and goodness during their lifetimes, which are the primary way in which God judges us.

Theological Determinism

Alternatively, we can also note that there have been Christian thinkers who have embraced theological determinism and rejected the idea that human beings have genuine free will. One notable of these was John Calvin, who held that God elected those to be saved, and others to be damned. No human being is predetermined. Now, there are considerable disagreements as to whether or not double predestination – the idea that God also wills the condemnation of some people – is part of Calvin's thought. Calvin's thought is that God, as a supremely powerful and knowledgeable human being, is not ignorant about matters of salvation. Rather, it is through his grace alone that human beings are saved from the face of their corrupted nature after the Fall.

What's interesting of course is that theological determinism itself is a kind of hard determinism. If only free will we have is the freedom to live as we have been created. It is not a freedom that enables one to achieve anything by one's own means. This is only possible through the grace of God. Those who are saved are predestined to be saved. Where this kind of theological determinism does conflict is with the idea of free will and a deterministic world. For secular hard determinists, the causal regularity of the world. Whereas for Calvin, free will is simply incompatible with the deterministic world. It might well seem a strange position to take now, but it is important to note that not all Christians have free will.

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Revision Activity:

Do Christians have to choose between libertarian free will and hard theological criticisms of both these positions and research whether there are any alternatives.

Hard Determinism

So, we have a standard Christian position in place when thinking about free will. Is there any room for a different Christian position to come forth? First, let's think about the world itself. The world around does appear very regular and ordered. And every effect seems to have a sufficient cause. Finally, these causes and effects seem to be thoroughly physical. We don't need to invoke a mental or spiritual dimension in order to explain how and why human beings do what they do. These are the fundamental premises for determinism that Christians usually accept.

One method is to simply argue that despite there being evidence for determinism, on the one hand, we simply don't have the tools to probe every single human action on the other. Nor do we have the ability to even see whether cause and effect hold across the universe. Simply put, positing the truth of determinism is simply speculation. A determinist may reply that positing indeterminism is speculation, but there is something about the way that an indeterminist perspective is at least coherent. One interpretation of quantum probabilistic behaviour of electrons under observation is just what it seems like. In the real world, particles ultimately behave in an indeterministic manner and we still have room for human agency. It may be that free will arises as a result of quantum fluctuations.

However, this is very speculative. It is certainly true that determinism isn't necessarily right about the rarity of self-forming actions in an indeterministic world, this means we can observe a meaningful case where determinism doesn't pertain would be extraordinary. The determinist does not necessarily have to be a hard determinist. One can accept the explanation we have right now of the world, but not think that this means free will is impossible. We will look at a bit more when we turn to compatibilism. However, if we are presented with evidence, then why not choose hard determinism?

Well, the strength of the libertarian argument might attempt to point towards the value of libertarian free will. For the Christian, this may be a combination of religious superstitions and intuitions. If we don't have free will, then why does there seem to be such inner conflict? Such thoughts may be chance, but they may be an indication (perhaps a divine nudge) that we are not significantly free. Simply put, we may not have to question determinism to accept the value of free will. The argument may just be presenting the various kinds of mental, spiritual and religious experiences.

Compatibilism

One possibility that you may not have covered during your studies is that of a Christian compatibilism. It sounds a little bit strange, since how can one effectively judge actions that are compatible with determinism? Even if we accept Hume's revised ideas about free will, where they are simply the way things are, the character, surely the Christian sense of freedom requires that we be able to act in a way that human beings could overcome a concept such as original sin or act so as to achieve salvation. But this kind of contrast is perhaps one that is set up due to a divine judgement resulting in an afterlife of heaven or hell. What if we adopted a form of compatibilism where all human beings were saved?

Here, a compatibilist might make more sense, but it would still be very controversial. As a Protestant, Hick is in favour of purgatory and universalism – argued that compatibilism is a 'spin doctoring'. The only kind of free will that was meaningfully defensible, he argued, was based on a non-Cartesian dualism. Hick's arguments potentially hold some force for compatibilism, even if less fatalistic than hard determinism, still entails a 'soft determinism' where we don't really have agency over their lives, only the appearance of agency. This is not to say that these views are wrong, but they don't necessarily strike at the heart of what Christians believe.

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At the same time, maybe it is in the afterlife – rather than in our current material world – that we can achieve genuine freedom. In a sense, this life could exist to shine a light on God and provide a place to reflect. If we think about Calvin's views more broadly, there is nothing in compatibilist Christianity could not exist, but it would require a great revision of moral responsibility. Moreover, we would have to approach issues such as justice and judgement quite differently. A court of law if we learned that human agency was limited. We might begin to look at character traits in order to examine their actions, rather than to believe they deliberately chose them.

For let's go back a moment to one of Hume's arguments in favour of compatibilism. We live in a seemingly regular world. In this regular world we generally draw conclusions about motives, emotions and character from their actions. Where we can't find an explanation, this is due to hidden causes we are unaware of. In other words, we don't really have free will. We do have powers of agency, rather we do on the whole take a much more deterministic view of explaining their behaviour. This is important, as in the Christian world view, if we are we supposed to truly explain human actions? How do we know what actions are due to character and environment, and which ones are genuine instances of free will?

The Christian might argue that this is only for God to know at the moment of judgement. Hume's idea carries a lot of force. Internally, we might believe our own actions are free, but when we apply this same logic when studying human behaviour as a whole. For if there are hidden causes, how do we judge these in terms of moral responsibility? What makes someone choose to do something good, without reference to their past motives, desires and character? This makes such choices inherently spooky and raises the prospect that moral responsibility actually *requires* determinism to make sense of it. Thus, when thinking about Christianity, it is important to balance the desire for libertarian free will in the religion with the general understanding that this kind of concept brings in the real world.

Revision Activity:

What position on free will do you think is most philosophically coherent, and how does it relate to Christian belief?

Write down your own views and evaluate whether Christianity should be seen as a matter of debates or whether there is independent religious justification for a particular version of free will.

Conscience

Although we may not always trust it, conscience plays an important part in our everyday lives. In quick kinds of ethical dilemmas we often face and our feelings of guilt or satisfaction. It is more so true for Christians, who have often viewed conscience as something God has given us to understand God's will or one that allows human beings to fundamentally understand right and wrong. In this sense, talk of conscience can sometimes be equated in importance to the idea of God. To have conscience, would we really be capable of making good decisions, or would we be lost? In discerning what is right and what is wrong?

Similarly, we can ask whether we can trust our conscience if its origins are not divine. If it is just naturalistic processes. At most, conscience may simply be an inner voice that comes from psychological tendencies that have been instilled in us from a young age. All these issues are studied throughout the course. In the Philosophy of Religion, we will look at this part of the course and tie deeper in thinking about how we can evaluate a tradition's importance. We will also look at conscience and whether or not its importance can be preserved in a modern world.

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Conscience and the Voice of God

The idea that conscience is a way of understanding God's will is most simply expressed as the voice of God communicating with us during ethical dilemmas. This idea is a nuanced theological consideration of conscience, but it is an important foundation to evaluate the role of conscience in our everyday lives. For if interpreted to be the voice of God, it potentially conflicts with free will and moral responsibility. We would not have to choose for ourselves and act on them but simply follow our conscience, for that would be a good choice. This problem is also keener when we consider the times when our conscience tells us to do something that we know is wrong. There are plenty of occasions where individuals have made the wrong choices or acted against their conscience, yet if this were the case it would amount to saying that God willed something that was wrong.

Thinking about the nature of conscience this way reveals an important tension in its evaluation. Conscience for Christians in some way has to reflect the will of God, but it also has to allow for the possibility of being wrong. This tension is inherently hard to resolve when God is the source of the conscience cannot be a simple idea. Rather, there needs to be some interpretative flexibility or fallibility while preserving its ability to generate good moral guidance that reflects the will of God.

Aquinas and Conscience

The main focus of your studies into Christian ideas about conscience will be the view of Thomas Aquinas. Aquinas' view of conscience was not a manifestation of the voice of God; rather it was wholly moral reasoning that signposts what is right and wrong in any given ethical dilemma. Conscience then is a product of the intellect and is most simply the end point of our rational ethical reasoning. When we apply the correct application of natural law, it can be said to be a correct conscience. A conscience that is not the correct application of natural law is an erroneous conscience, which, although binding human action, does not have the force of law. An exempting circumstance for an erroneous conscience is when there is invincible ignorance that could not have reasonably been overcome given the situation.

This naturally is a truncated version of Aquinas' ideas. But you can see that it outlines the inherent tension we identify with the simple Christian view of conscience. It can be seen that Aquinas' view of conscience is not simply a matter of reason (or ratio) itself. It is not an abstract concept but rather a practical one. Yet, at the same time, we can note that conscience is a God-given property to human beings. It is what ultimately separates us from other beings and defines our natural purpose. Aquinas' view is quite a nuanced answer to the problems facing a Christian understanding of conscience.

Yet it is not without its problems. For Christians, reducing conscience to a matter of reason diminishes its importance to our everyday ethical lives. Many Christian forms of worship and prayer are a direct communication to God. Moreover, many Christians believe that God intervenes in the world through religious experience and miracles. Is it so far-fetched to imagine that God can direct human beings at times of ethical difficulty? Or could it not be that human beings and God are in a constant dialogue about what is good? Aquinas may be giving a philosophical answer to a problem that has no simple solution as long as one can resolve some of the theological tensions in positing such a direct communication.

At the same time, Aquinas' view of conscience also presents a problem. It does not fully answer the question of conscience in practice. If it is a matter of reason, then why are some individuals more rational than others? And why are there people who are able to reason through a variety of matters so able to overcome their conscience where necessary? This is a very nice in theory, but it does not easily explain how conscience works in practice. It is difficult to find the line between agreeing with or ignoring a large number of morally complex issues. Aquinas' distinction between vincible and invincible ignorance to explain various individual differences in moral reasoning potentially only pushes the problem further down the line. For what are we given to know in any given situation, and why is this knowledge not often more accessible to us? What action to take?

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Moreover, we find further problems when we consider individual decision-making conscience. For trust in our conscience comes from believing that it is a good source of knowledge. This means that in the past, when we have performed a good action, our conscience has been satisfied. When we have performed a bad action, we have felt a pang of guilt arising from our conscience. For Aquinas, conscience can be either correct or erroneous. Moreover, its error is not based on its ability to guide us but rather our ability to reason about a situation. If we are unable to reason properly or in possession of a conscience, then it can be (and often is) a poor reason at all to trust our conscience. Yet, we ultimately live in a bind, for Aquinas says we must follow our conscience. For both the secular critic and the Christian, there may be deep

Revision Activity:

Are there any alternative Christian points of view on conscience to Aquinas? Research on conscience and make notes on an alternative theological perspective to Aquinas.

Secular Views on Conscience

In the previous part, we saw how Aquinas attempted to provide a solution to the problem of conscience. Yet, ultimately, it is unclear whether he managed to escape the problem. If we view conscience neutrally, as a faculty of our practical reason, we're still placed in a bind: we are obliged to follow our conscience, even when it might regularly lead us astray. Perhaps the solution to conscience in some way is trustworthy and important to follow in the first place. The secularist response is resolved by simply pointing out how conscience is not a real source of moral knowledge. What kinds of values instilled in us through the various influences on our lives?

This is often the focus of secular views of conscience. Throughout your studies, you will encounter both psychological and sociological interpretations of conscience. But present secularism sees conscience reflects something else, and is not an internal ability to discern right from wrong. Conscience therefore may differ from person to person, or society to society, without ever needing a foundation in reason or human nature. This does not mean that there aren't similarities between the views of different people, but that these aren't reflective of conscience being an objective moral faculty. Many Christians wish to see conscience as a reflection of God's law. Let's take a look first at psychological views of conscience.

Psychological Views of Conscience

The most prominent figure you will have studied around psychology and conscience is that of Freud. For Freud, conscience was the product of the interactions of the unconscious mind, composed of the superego, the ego and the id. In particular, the superego can be best said to contain or represent that which we think of as conscience. It is the moralising part of our mind, developed through an internalisation of the values and norms taught to us during our upbringing and throughout our lives. Yet, the superego is not a dominant aspect of our mind. Regularly the id, which is directed towards baser desires, will drive us to do things that the superego disagrees with. Even the ego, the rational part of our mind, is always beholden to the superego.

So, taking Freud at face value, we can observe a number of key things about the conscience. The first is that it does not represent any objective, trustworthy source of knowledge. If my parents taught me that stealing from my friends was a good thing, I'm unlikely to feel a pang of conscience when I do so. Second, it treats the conscience as something that is not universal. Among many of our friends, we do not regularly follow our conscience because our mind, not our conscience, is particularly instinctual. There are plenty of situations where we find it desirable to do the wrong thing and act on this. Third, Freud is not saying that all neuroses can arise due to the unconscious interactions of our mind, and recognising this and its demands can lead to greater understanding of human moral behaviour, for

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Now, Freud's claims were, and still are, controversial. Much of modern psychology takes a more scientific approach than Freud, whose claims ironically are quite scientific since there are no experiments to prove his ideas about the unconscious mind. Despite this, the central idea that there are processes in the mind that are beneath our conscious thoughts is still influential. It is this trend that perhaps poses the greatest threat to Aquinas' understanding. Aquinas treats conscience as a rational process, where the errors it produces are correctable through knowledge. But if conscience is a process that is fundamentally inaccessible to our rational powers, then it certainly can achieve what Aquinas would not want it to.

But is Freud really a threat, or is there a place for Christian views of conscience in modern psychology? Maybe conscience is not a rational process but an essentially moralising part of the mind that points towards the good. We could subtract Freud's ideas about interactions between the conscious and unconscious and simply say that there is some internal God-given part of the self that helps us choose the good. This part of the self also does not need to be unchangeable or the voice of God, but is affected by our own free choices and character. But it may well be essential in order for us to freely choose the good in the face of conflicting desires. In other words, conscience is a way of understanding how libertarian free will could work in practice.

These are all quite speculative thoughts, but it is important to consider whether modern psychology could cohere, despite their surface differences. More modern views of psychology are often studied, often focus on the concept within a developmental context. Conscience is seen as a maturity that are reached depending on the kinds of moral situations, education and experiences one is exposed to. If this is the case, then conscience isn't necessarily something rational or simple as being the voice of God or morality. It might be representative of our own ability to intuitively understand the moral lessons we have been brought up with. Thus, if we accept these ideas, it is important to consider what alternatives there are for Christians when

Sociology and Conscience

Beyond individual psychology, we can also look to society and culture for clues about how conscience may have developed. One who has studied this is Emile Durkheim, who posited the idea of collective conscience. This is an autonomous set of values, norms and ideals that defines any culture and is accessible to all members of that culture when facing ethical dilemmas. Simply put, when we are seeking to understand conscience, we must think on an individual level, but on a societal level to some degree. Our actions are shaped by the kinds of norms and values that persist within the different cultures and societies.

We can potentially see this in action across a large number of more complex ethical concepts such as equality, freedom and human rights. However, collective conscience can also be used in more precise ways, such as believing there is an important moral aspect to art, for example. What a sociological understanding of conscience potentially adds is a broader understanding of the different influences that govern each individual in a society, enabling us to see the factors which play an important role in our everyday thinking.

What does this mean for Christians? In one sense, it is partially positive. It implies that individuals are, to some degree, going to have a collective conscience which reflects the values of their society. It is perhaps not as pessimistic as Freud's view, which would have conscience determined by upbringing alone. However, like a psychological view of conscience, it calls into question whether Aquinas have mistaken the nature of conscience due to a misunderstanding about its origins. What may seem to be a universal principle of human moral life may simply be a societal one. Thus, it could be argued that we cannot draw universal conclusions about conscience altogether.

This does not necessarily mean that conscience could not have some roots in human nature. It simply means that there are distinctive differences between the ways conscience interacts with individuals or groups. It raises the question whether it is right to trust conscience at all. In our own societies or cultures, we may follow one's conscience since it is likely to reflect the values and norms held by that society. In discussions between them, conscience may not be a reliable source of knowledge.

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conflict. In fact, one could potentially argue that relying on intuitive understanding led to violence between different cultures around the world. Thus, it might be in responses a broader sociological understanding of conscience when thinking about it, not solely focus on its individual psychological elements.

Exam Question Preparation

Similar to wealth and freedom of religious expression, it is likely that the question will and conscience will be fairly straightforward. Take a look for a moment at the question below.

Exam-style Question:

'Christian ideas about free will and moral responsibility are incoherent.'

Critically examine and evaluate this view with reference to the dialogue between faith and ethical studies.

Here, you are asked to directly grapple with the problems facing Christian ideas about responsibility and judgement. You may well begin by noting in what ways Christianity of free will, before critiquing this position by noting the internal problems it faces. Viable alternatives of compatibilism and hard determinism. One avenue may also be crime and punishment as a direct way of introducing and explaining these views. This addresses the relationship between free will and responsibility.

However, it is also key to consider the kinds of questions you might face when the question is asked. Examine for a moment the exam-style question we've provided below.

Exam-style Question:

'Conscience is not a trustworthy source of moral knowledge.'

Critically examine and evaluate this view with reference to the dialogue between faith and ethical studies.

Once again, there are many discussion points you can bring in to help answer this question. There is the idea that conscience is a reasonable process and so capable of pointing the way when applied correctly. On the other hand, there are the psychological and sociological arguments that steer away from describing conscience as an objective source of knowledge. When you answer, make sure you justify it with well thought through and precise arguments!

Revision Prompts:

Based on your studies throughout these sections, these are some revision prompts to make notes on when preparing for your end-of-year exams. For each, consider how the question is answering the philosophical and theological conflicts it addresses and how others might answer.

1. What kind of free will is necessary for Christian ethics to be meaningful?
2. How do secular ideas about free will critique traditional Christian perspectives?
3. Does conscience have a foundation in reason, or is it simply a reflection of psychological or sociological factors?
4. Can Christian views of conscience be reconciled with modern psychological findings?
5. Can conscience be trusted as a source of moral knowledge?

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