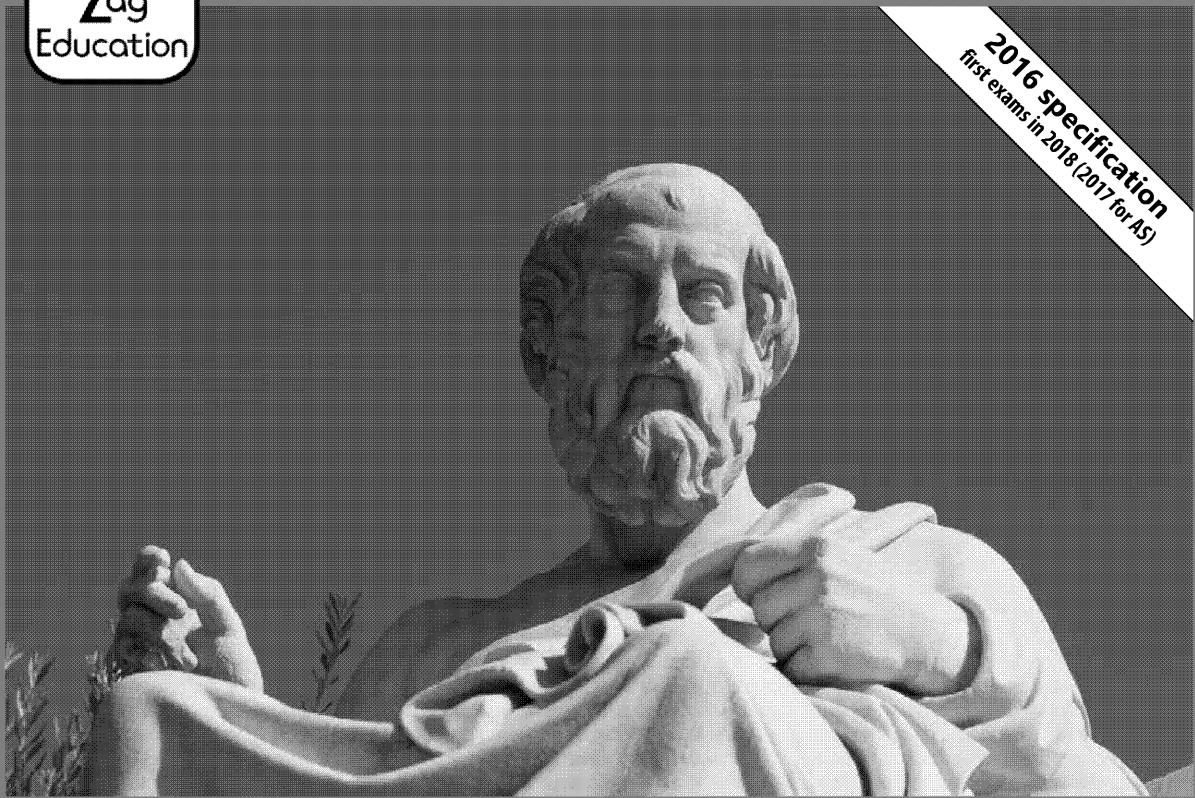


**2016 specification**  
first exams in 2018 (2017 for AS)



# Revision Summaries for AS and A Level Year 1 OCR

Component 1: Philosophy of Religion

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# Teacher's Introduction

The revision summaries in this series are designed to support your students as they study the AS and A Level OCR Religious Studies specification, and have been designed to cover the major themes and concepts of each topic point accordingly. This revision summary supports the Philosophy of Religion part of the specification. All students, whether they are academically strong, average or weak, can benefit from a concise and clearly explained set of notes to revise from, both as they work through the OCR course and when preparing for their end-of-course exams. It is recommended, therefore, that students be given each relevant summary after learning a topic so that they can clearly understand the summaries and refer back to them when needed. However, the summaries can also function well as a pack given to students in the run-up to their exams.

Each topic follows a set structure detailed below:

- ✓ **Glossary:** A clear list of important terminology students need to know when studying the topic.
- ✓ **Overview:** A look at the major themes of the topic, with a brief introduction to the major points of discussion and disagreement.
- ✓ **Key Points:** The main body of the summaries for each topic; they are a clear and concise set of notes that help students support their own knowledge and understanding of the topic.
- ✓ **Key Figures:** An important overview of any major philosophical or theological figures students are required to know.
- ✓ **Key Texts:** A set of notes around any important theological or biblical texts students may require background information about and understanding of.
- ✓ **Year 2 Advanced Considerations:** A brief look at how students may incorporate Year 2 knowledge and understanding into Year 1 topics.
- ✓ **Student Checklist:** A helpful guide to what students need to know by the end of the revision summary and a way to check their understanding and progress through a particular topic.
  - ! **Note:** The checklist is presented in question format and these questions would be ideal to set for homework or revision so that students can build the skills they need in order to progress to longer exam-style questions.
- ✓ **Exam-style Question:** A practice essay question with helpful assessment objectives, complete with levelled mark schemes and indicative content at the end of the resource. Mark allocations are not given by the questions because these differ from Year 1 to Year 2. These are useful for students approaching their end-of-year exams or wishing to improve their essay technique on a particular topic.

This structure clearly ensures students have not only a grasp of the key themes of each topic, but also a way to understand their place within the specification as a whole. Students who may have missed lessons or not made detailed notes may benefit greatly from these revision summaries, especially in helping their recollection of key topics closer to their end-of-course exams.

November 2019

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# Philosophical Language and Terminology

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<b>Aetion</b>	A Greek word meaning 'cause' or 'explanation', used to question what occurred in the way that it has.
<b>Analogy</b>	A comparison made between two or more things in order to show similarities in properties or behaviour.
<b>Behaviourism</b>	A philosophical and psychological view that puts forward that human behaviour is determined by natural states or dispositions.
<b>Category</b>	A fallacious form of reasoning where one mistakenly presents something in a different category than the one it actually belongs to.
<b>Consciousness</b>	The state of awareness about oneself and the world that other beings who possess it.
<b>Empiricism</b>	The view that sense experience is the primary source of knowledge.
<b>Fallacy of Composition</b>	A fallacy where properties of the parts of an object are mistakenly attributed to its whole.
<b>Infinite Regress</b>	A never ending chain of reasoning or explanation.
<b>Materialism</b>	A form of monism that claims that matter is the only substance.
<b>Metaphor</b>	A figure of speech where one uses a phrase or word to describe something in a way that is not literal.
<b>Metaphysics</b>	A branch of philosophy that questions and explores the nature of reality beyond the physical world.
<b>Monism</b>	The view that there is only one substance in the world (usually matter).
<b>Ontology</b>	The philosophical study of the nature and being of things.
<b>Rationalism</b>	The view that reason is the primary source of knowledge and truth.
<b>Reason</b>	The faculty of the mind that enables beings to use logical thinking in order to explain and understand the world.
<b>Soul</b>	The immaterial or incorporeal part of a human being, which is responsible for the mental abilities of a person, and to control the body.
<b>Substance Dualism</b>	The view that there are two different substances in the world: matter and mind.
<b>Telos</b>	A Greek word meaning 'end', which denotes the purpose or goal of something.
<b>The Forms</b>	An immaterial, unchanging, transcendent reality which constitutes the true nature of things in the world.
<b>The Prime Mover</b>	Also known as the unmoved mover, it is the first cause of all motion and the reason why all things are in motion.

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# Ancient Philosophical Influence

## Overview

Philosophy differs from many other subjects in that the ideas of past philosophers are dissected and discussed today, even those of ancient scholars. In many ways, modern philosophy has its basis in ancient Greek thought, and the discourse that occurred between ancient Greek philosophers in metaphysics, epistemology and ethics. Plato's view of the world largely informed the Western belief that reason should be the primary source of knowledge, while those looking for a more empiricist perspective, believing knowledge of the world was primarily gained through investigation into natural phenomena, were influenced by Aristotle. While those philosophers' arguments and understandings of reality might seem antiquated from a more modern scientific perspective, their deeper philosophical questions about the nature of reality, and how human beings can

## Key Points

### Plato and the Importance of Reason

- Plato is often described as a rationalist, as he put great emphasis on the primacy of reason in developing knowledge about the external world.
  - Much of Plato's world view can be found in his most famous and enduring work, Plato details dialogues between Socrates and other Greek figures, in which he expounds his beliefs on a wide range of topics, including the Forms, the nature and structure of the soul, and the role of philosophers in politics and society.

### The Forms

- Plato's metaphysics begin with his observation that the world through the senses is ever-changing.
  - Therefore, when seeking knowledge, the senses do not seem to be the best way to achieve this. Since the material world is impermanent and always in flux, Plato argues to argue that perception of the world through the bodily senses could not provide lasting and permanent knowledge.
  - Yet Plato notes that despite changing perceptions of the material world, human beings can grasp generalised concepts and ideas, whether they be ordinary, e.g. the colour blue, or high level, e.g. colours and morals.
- Plato, therefore, proposes that beyond the 'world of appearances', there is a material, unchanging reality separated from the material world that contains ideas and concepts human beings observe and intuit.
  - The 'world of appearances', as such, is full of imperfect replications of the Forms, an inferior reflection of the world of Forms, grasped primarily by bodily senses.
  - By contrast, the world of Forms is grasped by pure reason, and provides a concept or property that can apply to many things within the material world.
- Plato is not always clear about how Forms relate to the world of appearances.
  - He often cites the principles of geometry as ideal examples of Forms, also such as truth, justice and beauty.
  - However, Plato is less exact on whether there is a Form for every kind of thing. For example, is there a Form of 'tableness' for tables? Or a different Form of 'being a table' for the world?
- Plato claims that the Form of the Good is the highest and most perfect of the Forms, the source of meaning and value, and as such all other Forms can be understood in relation to the Good.
  - The Form of the Good is never instantiated directly in the world of appearances, and is appreciated piecemeal by the things human beings identify as good, which might be part of a wider overall good.

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## The Analogy of the Cave

- The analogy of the cave is an allegorical tale told by Socrates in the *Republic* to another man Glaucon that encompasses a number of important aspects of Plato's philosophy.
  - Primarily, Plato uses it to contrast the 'world of appearances', known through the senses, with the world discoverable by reason, arguing those who take the former to be good and real are living ignorantly.
- The analogy of the cave details a number of prisoners, who are chained in the darkness facing one way so that they can only see the passing shadows of objects illuminated by a fire behind them. These prisoners cannot conceive of the real world, and only know the world of the shadows given to them.
  - One prisoner, however, manages to break his bonds one day, and so begins to regard as real what was just caused by the light behind him. This discovery that the world of shadows is an illusion is a painful one.
  - The prisoner with this knowledge gradually makes his way out of the cave towards the sunlight at the end. Eventually he makes his way outside and into the real world.
  - Yet when the escaped prisoner returns to the others still chained up, the world of shadows is not real, and dismiss the escaped prisoner's arguments.
- Through the analogy of the cave, Plato draws a parallel to the world of the senses and the prisoners. Just as the world of appearances is a pale reflection of the world of the Forms, the shadows are a pale reflection of the world outside of the cave.
  - The unchained prisoners' struggle to escape the cave reflects the intellectual journey of the philosopher. It involves questioning both of the world of appearances and the world of the Forms.
  - The sun in the analogy of the cave represents the Form of the Good, and that illuminates all things. The prisoner's movement towards the sunlight is his movement towards the Form of the Good.
  - The dismissive attitude of the other prisoners indicates how the truths perceived by the philosopher are difficult to reconcile with their ordinary convictions. Plato through the analogy indicates that the journey to the truth is difficult, and many are incapable of the philosophical work necessary to reach it.
- The analogy of the cave contains many other aspects of Plato's political and philosophical views, it elevates the philosopher as being the only kind of individual capable of understanding the world.
  - The analogy is potentially also a commentary on the life and death of Socrates, who was executed by the Athenian authorities for spreading what they perceived as politically dangerous ideas.
  - There is a strong connection between the analogy of the cave, and Plato's concept of the 'philosopher-king'; it is only those who have emerged out of the cave who are capable of understanding the world.
  - It also contains important ideas about education; teaching people is not enough, you must give them the philosophical tools to let them be enlightened, and understand the world for themselves.

## Aristotle and the Teleological View

- Aristotle was a student of Plato, but put forward a very different world view, rejecting the theory of the Forms, contending that it is not necessary to look beyond the material world to find the truth.
  - Aristotle contended that theoretical knowledge by itself was not enough, it must be applied consistently or coherently to the world without contradiction.
  - Practical knowledge is, therefore, of key importance for Aristotle, and the material world should be the foundation from which general categories are developed through reasoning.
  - This means Aristotle is often called an empiricist, and his views on the importance of observation and experimentation shaped philosophical and scientific thought throughout the history of the West.

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- Aristotle through his observations eventually came to hold a teleological view of purpose or an end, based upon the potential different things possess, and what they are in actuality without interference.
  - He uses the term 'aition' (or aitia) regularly through his writings, which accurately the 'explanation' or 'origin' of a particular thing.
  - This term frames Aristotle's thought, as his starting point is asking what things; why they exist and why they came to be the way they are.

### The Four Causes

- Aristotle, from his observations of the world, put forward that there were a number of ways of explaining the existence, or origins, of things. In any circumstance one can say why something has changed or moved, there are four different types of cause.
  - The first is the 'material cause' of something; this refers to what the thing is composed of, whether it be its parts, materials or substances. Reference to the material of an object may explain change in things; for example, a chair is made because it is made out of wood.
  - The second is the 'formal cause' of something; this refers to characteristic of a thing such as its shape, size or extension. Reference to the formal cause may explain change; for example, the shape and structure of a chair from its parts.
  - The third is the 'efficient' cause; this refers to the agents which are the points, of change in something. The efficient cause is often necessary to bring about change; for example the woodworker acting to saw and assemble a chair.
  - The fourth is the 'final cause'; this refers to the purpose or end (telos) of something. The formal cause can explain the change in something; for example, the chair is made because individuals may have somewhere to sit.
- When looking at the change, it may be possible to cite multiple causes, and they are not mutually exclusive. In the example of the creation of a chair, one can see how all four causes are present.
  - The final cause is the subject of Aristotle's thought that makes it teleological. A telos (end) is attached to its usefulness to human beings. The idea that things have a purpose is central to Aristotle's overall understanding of the universe.

### The Prime Mover

- Aristotle's concept of the Prime Mover arises out of his questioning about the nature of the universe. While one can potentially understand the material and formal causes, the efficient and final causes are less obvious.
  - Aristotle nonetheless observes that change and movement in the universe. He argues that such change could not happen by itself, and the idea that everything is in an endless cycle is unsatisfactory also.
  - Aristotle, therefore, claims there must be a Prime or Unmoved Mover responsible for the movement in the universe.
  - This Prime Mover is perfect, beautiful, immaterial, indivisible and eternal. It is both the first cause of the universe, and the final cause of change and movement in the universe.
- The Prime Mover for Aristotle was not the initial push for all change and movement; itself would be affected by such pushing. Instead the Prime Mover pulls all change and movement into its result. For example, the circular motions of the planets.
  - In this way the Prime Mover is the final cause of the universe. All things are attracted to the Prime Mover, which exercises a pull or change upon the universe.
  - The idea of the Prime Mover greatly influenced the Christian conception of God in the works of Thomas Aquinas. However, the Prime Mover is not personally involved; it is a static, unchanging being that has no direct presence in the natural world.

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- Many have criticised Aristotle's teleology, particularly in light of modern science. It is often not regarded now as a valid philosophical question to ask the purpose of the universe itself.
  - Aristotle also may be guilty of the fallacy of composition. While change is observable in ordinary material things, is it not clear whether these changes apply to the universe as a whole.
  - Aristotle's cosmology is also difficult to reconcile with the Big Bang theory. It may be that there is an infinite regress of change and motion, and while the change can arguably be traced back to the beginning, this is a vastly different idea from the Big Bang.

## Key Figures



### Plato

Plato was an Athenian philosopher who lived in the fourth and fifth century BC, and is one of the most important thinkers in the Western philosophical tradition. In fact, Alfred North Whitehead once said that the European philosophical tradition is in essence a series of footnotes to Plato. Not only did his philosophy influence everything from Christianity to politics, it laid the groundwork for the work of mathematicians throughout history. It is generally thought that all of his works have survived to this day (if in edited form), and all present a philosopher keen to emphasise the importance of knowledge, and the necessity of philosophers within society to ensure effective governance.

### Aristotle

Aristotle was a philosopher who lived in the fourth century BC. Although a pupil of Plato, after his death his philosophical views began to diverge as he became much more interested in the natural world, now as the natural sciences, rather than abstract philosophy. Despite only about 30% of his works surviving until the present day, they offer a generally coherent picture of the importance of empirical investigation of the natural world, and how these investigations should influence the development of practical wisdom. Aristotle addressed a vast array of philosophical issues, and his ideas proved more influential than Plato's in subjects such as physics and metaphysics, but also ethics, politics, aesthetics and economics.

## Key Texts



### *Republic* (Plato)

*Republic* is Plato's best known work, and while primarily discussing political theory, also touches on metaphysics and thoughts on the Forms and the soul. It is set out as a dialogue, with Plato presenting Socrates who debates with a wide variety of Greek individuals. Overall, while it has provided a foundation for philosophers exploring political theory, *Republic* shows how Plato's political thought is deeply rooted in his metaphysics, and gives a number of distinctive presentations of this synthesis, such as the Allegory of the Cave.

### *Metaphysics* (Aristotle)

*Metaphysics* is one of the main treatises written by Aristotle, and addresses many key philosophical issues. Throughout, Aristotle attempts to address not only questions around the nature of existence, but also to exist and change, and how this change can be understood. In fact, one of Aristotle's main goals was to reconcile traditional Platonic rationalist thought, which posited a real, unchanging world of Forms, with the natural world. A key goal within *Metaphysics* is explaining what in objects causes change, and to outline this change, issues which are central to Aristotle's theories about the soul, causality and the nature of reality.

### *Physics* (Aristotle)

*Physics* is a more focused work than *Metaphysics*, examining the general principles of motion and change in the world. Here Aristotle not only lays out his definition of the 'nature' of things, but also discusses such as the four causes. From this he builds a teleologically driven conception of nature, where all nature acts towards ends, and how the motion of things comes from an internal essence. These ideas were immensely influential, and it wasn't until the development of a mechanical philosophy during the Enlightenment period that Aristotle's conception of nature was truly challenged.

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## Year 2 – Advanced Considerations

### The Nature and Attributes of God

The links between Aristotle's Prime Mover and the traditional Christian God will be explored during your Year 2 studies into the attributes of God. While the Prime Mover is a being personally invested in the world, one can note that this more deistic conception of God conflicts about his relationship to evil, free will and even just the effects upon the world. The Prime Mover can meaningfully be compared to God, however, is a matter of course. Whether a being could be 'necessary', as Aristotle envisions, without being omnipotent is a matter of course.

### Student Checklist

What Do I Know?	No Idea ☹	Some Idea ☺	Good Idea ☺
Why is Plato generally considered to be a rationalist philosopher?			
What are the Forms?			
How do the Forms relate to the world of appearances?			
What is the highest of the Forms?			
What philosophical view does Plato aim to describe in the allegory of the cave?			
How does the allegory of the cave emphasise the importance of reason in comparison to sense experience?			
Why is Aristotle considered to be more of an empiricist than Plato?			
How does Aristotle present a teleological view of the natural world?			
What are the four causes?			
How does Aristotle believe the four causes can explain motion and change in the world?			
What is the Prime Mover in Aristotle's philosophy?			
How does Aristotle present the idea of a Prime Mover?			
In what way does the Prime Mover cause motion and change in the world?			
What similarities are there between the Prime Mover and the traditional Christian God?			

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# Soul, Mind and Body

## Overview

The soul has traditionally been conceived to be the central, non-physical part of a person that forms their identity, and demarcates them from the physical world. It has been used to support ideas about life after death, morality and God throughout history, theology and philosophy. Yet, despite many more people rejecting the idea of a soul, it remains a difficult question with the increasing secularisation of many countries. It is a still difficult question to answer the immaterial aspects of the human person, whether it is a specific kind of mental substance or a general spiritual essence that allows for human beings to connect with an immaterial God. In any way, discussions about the existence of a soul are not restricted to religious circles; they are also found in philosophy and science, in our history, and just how the mind is connected to the body is a fiercely debated topic.



## Key Points

### Background

- The soul is not always an easily definable concept. Different ideas about an immortal soul have existed throughout history, and many words such as spirit, or mind, have been used to describe similar ideas.
  - One important aspect connecting these different ideas is that there is a belief in something beyond the physical beings; that the entirety of the human person cannot be fully described by the physical alone.
  - Accompanying such a belief are often separate ideas that the human soul does not require a physical substance for its existence. The soul, or mind, could potentially survive the death of a person, and is perhaps even immortal.
  - For many religious people, this is why the idea of a soul is of great importance. It is through understanding how human beings can have a relationship with God beyond the physical world is connected as a whole to an immortal God.

### Plato's View of the Soul

- Plato believed there were two separate parts to human beings: the immaterial soul and the physical body.
  - The soul is not only immaterial, but indivisible (simple), immortal and timeless.
  - It temporarily inhabits and is united with a physical body during the life of the individual, but is separated, returning to the immaterial world to fully contemplate the Forms (note that Plato has contended Plato potentially believed in reincarnation).
  - The soul, therefore, gives the physical body life itself, and influences how the body behaves. In many ways, the soul governs the personality of an individual.
- Plato argued that the soul had three elements, or parts: appetite, emotion and reason.
  - He uses the metaphor of a chariot to illustrate this; the chariot is reason, the two horses are appetite and emotion.
  - The appetite seeks and produces pleasure; the emotion produces anger, and the reason seeks the truth and what is real.
- Plato, at the end of *Republic*, details a story now called the Myth of Er (note here 'word' or 'account'). It describes a soldier, Er, who dies in battle, but returns to the world of the living after 12 days. He discovered he was undecomposed.
  - Once returned to the world of the living, he details the 12 days between his death and rebirth, and the journey through the afterlife and celestial spheres of the astral plane.
  - Plato attempts to detail a number of important ideas in the Myth of Er. One key idea is that all human beings possess an immortal soul that moves on to a life beyond the material world.
  - Also key, however, is the idea that human beings should contemplate and live virtuously in this life so that their soul may benefit in the next life. For those who are good, their soul will be rewarded, and those who are bad will be punished.

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## Aristotle's View of the Soul

- In line with his more empiricist beliefs, Aristotle takes a different approach to it as a separate immaterial substance, Aristotle seeks to ground his definition of human beings, looking at what characteristics, material and immaterial, might have.
  - Aristotle, therefore, views the soul as a 'nature', or 'essence', that persists through their life, and although it is not a mere body, or even a corporeal thing, it has capacities, abilities, form and overall being.
  - Aristotle uses the example of an eye to illustrate this idea. While an eye defines its existence by its capacity to see. Were it not able to perform this function, we can reasonably say it was not an eye. In the same way, human beings can be defined by their abilities, capacities and functions present in them.
  - Aristotle also disagreed with Plato that the soul could survive beyond death. For Aristotle, it is reliant on and bound to matter in a being.
- Aristotle distinguishes between three elements of the soul in human beings:
  - The vegetative soul; this is held by all living beings, and enables them to grow and reproduce. However, it has no powers of reason or rational capabilities.
  - The appetitive soul; this is held by all animals, and gives rise to emotions and desires, enabling the ability for a being to experience the world.
  - The intellectual soul; this is only held by human beings, and gives the ability for abstract thought, experience, and the different perceptions, appetites and desires that come with it.

## Consciousness

- Present in both Aristotle and Plato's theories is the idea that the soul is the seat of thought, and consciousness in human beings has proved a difficult phenomenon to understand. As, at first glance, it has peculiar properties that set it apart from other physical phenomena.
  - Even today, there is a vast range of competing theories about the nature of consciousness, and the extent it can be reduced down to physical terms and descriptions.
  - One difficulty is that consciousness is a broad term, usually referring to the state of rational awareness that human beings (and potentially other beings) have of their surroundings.
  - Importantly, in terms of consciousness, human beings do not simply just react to their environment. They form ideas, and use these ideas to investigate and understand the world around them.
  - Human beings as such possess an 'inner life'; subjective, personal experience that is unique to the individual, and cannot easily be compared to those of others.
  - For many, the existence of consciousness, and the inner mental lives of human beings, is something that, supposing that the mind (or soul) may be of a different substance or property, as it possesses certain properties or dimensions which physical objects do not.

## Descartes and Substance Dualism

- The idea that the mental and physical are different substances is the appropriate name for the philosophy of substance dualism. The alternative to this philosophy is physicalism or monism; the theory that there is only one kind of substance (which most intend to be physical/material).
  - Plato and Aristotle are dualists, but a famous philosopher who put forward an influential theory of substance dualism was René Descartes.
  - In his works, particularly in the *Meditations*, and in *The Principles of Philosophy*, he puts forward a number of philosophical arguments designed to show that the mental and physical must be different substances.
- One of Descartes' arguments develops out of Descartes' conception of the 'cogito ergo sum' (I think, therefore I am). He starts with his beliefs about the world to radical doubt, finds that there is one thing he is not doubting: the thinking being. He is often succinctly quoted as saying 'I think therefore I am'.
  - This leads to Descartes prioritising the mind over the body. For it appears that the mind can exist without the body, but not vice versa. This implies that the mind is of a different substance to the body if it can persist in ways the body cannot.

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- Descartes provides two clear arguments for supposing the mind and body are distinct substances. They rest upon Descartes' notion of 'clear and distinct ideas'. Ideas like the cogito, cannot be doubted to be certain so long as they are present to the mind.
  - Descartes' arguments rest on the idea that if two things have fundamentally different properties, they must be ontologically distinct; that is of a different kind of being.
  - The first argument he gives is that the mind is clearly and distinctly a thinking thing, while the body is a non-thinking, extended thing.
  - The second argument is that the mind is indivisible, while the body is divisible. The mind cannot be separated into parts, while the same cannot be said of the body.
  - These differences in fundamental properties are enough for Descartes to conclude that the mind and body are not one and the same substance.
- Substance dualism faces a number of problems. One issue that plagued Descartes was how the mind and body interacted. How can an immaterial, thinking substance affect a material substance? Descartes offered the pineal gland as a point of intersection between the two substances, but this was an unsatisfactory answer.
  - There are also issues with the validity of Descartes' arguments themselves. If one can conceive of two things having different properties, they must be distinct substances.
  - Some philosophers following Descartes have argued for a slightly different form of dualism. This says there is only one substance (physical), but that complex interactions between different parts can give rise to specific mental properties that aren't describable by physics alone.
  - For example, a person's perception and ideas about colour might not be fully captured by an account of the neurons firing in their brain.

## Ryle and the 'Ghost in the Machine'

- Gilbert Ryle takes aim at Descartes and other substance dualists in his book *The Concept of Mind*. He attempts to clarify the language used to discuss the mind, and show that talk of the mind potentially contained hidden errors, and created philosophical issues where there were none.
  - He describes talk of the mind as a 'ghost in the machine' - a non-physical substance as talk of a 'ghost in the machine' - an entity to explain physical processes, when such processes are already explained by their physical parts.
  - Ryle certainly contended that Descartes' substance dualism was making a mistake in treating the mind and body as two different substances. Just because it is difficult to conceive of the two as ontologically different, does not mean that this is the case.
  - Ryle uses the example of a tourist visiting Oxford University to illustrate this. If you visit all the colleges and libraries, they still ask at the end of their tour where the 'Oxford spirit' is. In the same way, one could describe all the physical processes of the brain, and still not have described the mind, even if the physical description is exhaustive and satisfactory.
  - Ryle does not explicitly deny that all talk of the mental is false. His point is that talk of the mental means there is a specific 'mental substance'.
- Ryle himself was a 'behaviourist'. He argued that talk of inner mental states was a philosophical intrusion. Philosophical introspection to investigate the mind should be rejected. Instead, it should be replaced by talk of behaviour, and 'dispositions' to behave.
  - Behaviourism is a form of 'materialism'; that there is only one kind of substance, and that mental states are simply the product of physical interactions and processes.
  - While there is plenty of scientific evidence that human beings' behaviour is determined by their environment, there is also evidence that human beings reason and reflect beyond behaviourist influences.
  - Mental states, such as consciousness, also do not seem to have a satisfactory materialist explanation. Everyday talk of intentions, desires and beliefs does also seem to have an explanatory role in evaluating human behaviour, and so many reject behaviourism.

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## Materialism and Reduction

- A large number of philosophers and scientists now endorse materialism as the best way of explaining the mind. There has been great success in explaining different parts of the mind by their physical processes, and many believe this success might continue until a full picture of the mind can be explained in physical terms.
  - Key to this project is the idea of 'reduction'; that talk of mental states can be equated with talk of physical states. While psychology is still far from such a reduction, many mental phenomena are now given physical descriptions.
  - Not all believe such reduction is possible or can occur. Many materialists believe that even if ultimately a product of physical processes, it is impossible to translate our current talk of the mind and ideas into physical terminology.
  - Dualists, on the other hand, argue often that this failure to reduce talk of the mind is an indication that the mind is something fundamentally different to the body, a separate substance, or a set of different properties.

## Should We Still Talk about a Soul?

- Many religions still talk about the real existence of an immaterial soul. The success of explaining the mind in physical terms is of less importance than the possibility of upholding an important non-physical aspect of human identity.
  - For secular dualists, talk of a soul might be a useful way of illuminating the distinction between the mind and body.
  - Materialists might adopt a number of perspectives on the use of the term 'soul', explicitly, both as a literal and metaphorical term, arguing that it clouds our understanding of the mind as a set of physical processes; for example, Ryle.
  - On the other hand, some materialists might argue that the soul is a useful metaphor about personal identity. Richard Dawkins, for example, distinguishes between 'Soul 1', the soul as a spiritual substance, and 'Soul 2', the soul as being the set of capacities, nature and motivations as determined by their genetics and environment.
  - In this case, 'Soul 2' would refer to the existence of a real, ontological entity, but a metaphorical one about physical identity, closer to an Aristotelian perspective.

## Key Figures

### René Descartes

Descartes was a French philosopher who lived primarily through the first half of the 17th century. However, he was also a prominent scientist and mathematician, whose ideas not only influenced geometry, but also calculus and algebra. Furthermore, he helped bring modern physics and a mechanical conception of the universe, moving away from Aristotelian ideas about the nature of the universe (which was still an important influence). Within philosophy, he is perhaps most famous for his belief that mind and body were separate substances, which he justified through a series of experiments. While much of philosophical thought has moved beyond Descartes' ideas, his work is understated, and his works have laid the foundations for much of the Western philosophy of the last 400 years.

### Gilbert Ryle

Ryle was a twentieth-century British philosopher who wrote about a large number of topics, but perhaps most famous for his critique of Cartesian dualism, and his behaviourist view of the mind (a fan of the behaviourist connection to his ideas). Ryle believed that much of dualist thought was based on logical errors, and that traditional talk of the 'mind' and 'mental states' should be replaced by talk of such as 'dispositions' and 'propensities' to behave or act in certain ways. While his views were challenged in the 1960s and 1970s with the rise of cognitive views of the mind, his works have still influenced the outlining of the ways that psychologists should experiment on and measure behaviour.

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## Key Texts

### *The Principles of Philosophy* (Descartes)

*The Principles of Philosophy* is a less well-known work of Descartes than the *Meditations* and the *Method*, and is essentially a shorter synthesis of both these works. However, it does set out Descartes' views on not just metaphysical philosophy, but also on natural philosophy and his mechanistic view of the universe for the time it was written. The key parts about the mind and body occur in paragraphs 60–65, where Descartes presents a succinct version of his argument that he believes demonstrate that mind and body are distinct substances. While *The Principles* is more influential in moving natural science away from a wholly Aristotelian perspective, the thoughts of the natural philosopher and mind and soul still have an importance place within philosophy.

### *The Concept of Mind* (Gilbert Ryle)

*The Concept of Mind* was first published in 1949, and is Ryle's most famous work. It is a full refutation of Cartesian dualism (appropriately titled 'Descartes' Myth'), and is one of the most enduring, with many considering it the final nail in the coffin for substance dualism. *The Concept of Mind* goes further than that, with Ryle building a broadly behaviourist philosophy on the advancements at the time, and his own ordinary language philosophy. While this was not as popular in recent years, *The Concept of Mind* is often credited with helping to bring the subject of the philosophy of mind, which previously was just considered to be a whole part of philosophy altogether, and not a distinct field of study.

## Year 2 – Advanced Considerations

### Religious Language

The correct interpretation of the soul may come down to broader questions about the nature of language. During Year 2, you will study how religious language may be symbolic. If this is the case, then religious language may be metaphorical, hinting at or suggesting deeper truths about the nature of the soul and identity. More so, religious language about a soul might also include connotations that are not literal. If this is the case, then scientific criticisms might not be relevant to religious discussions of the soul or mind. It is important, therefore, to consider not only what the soul might be, but also how the language frames and structures talk of the soul in the first place.

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## Student Checklist

What Do I Know?	No Idea 😞	Some Idea 😊	Good Idea 😄	
What is the soul?				
How has the idea of a soul been approached in different ways throughout history?				
How did Plato advance a tripartite view of the soul?				
What is the Myth of Er?				
How does Aristotle's idea of the soul differ from Plato's?				
What are the three elements of the soul in Aristotle's thought?				
Why is consciousness thought to be important when discussing the soul?				
Why is the soul often connected to ideas about the self or mental substance?				
What is substance dualism?				
Why does Descartes believe the mind and body are separate substances?				
What issues are there with substance dualism?				
Why does Ryle accuse Descartes, and other substance dualists, of making a category error?				
What do materialists believe about the soul?				
How might the soul be approached metaphorically?				

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## Practice Exam-style Question

1. 'Belief in the soul as a spiritual substance is nothing more than a cate

### HINTS

**In your answer you should:**

show a consistent knowledge and understanding of the philosophical debate including:

- traditional religious teaching regarding the soul and substance dualism
- the importance of materialist critiques of the soul in the twentieth century
- different philosophical perspectives and approaches to the questions surrounding the soul.

Analyse and evaluate different approaches to the issues surrounding the soul, which ideas are justified, and whether talk of the soul should be literal or metaphorical.

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# The Existence of God

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<b>A Posteriori</b>	Knowledge that depends at least partially on experience.
<b>A Priori</b>	Knowledge arrived at through reason alone, independently of experience.
<b>Abductive Reasoning</b>	A form of reasoning which begins with a set of observations and seeks the best explanation for those observations.
<b>Analogy</b>	A comparison made between two or more things in order to highlight similarities in their properties or behaviour.
<b>Anthropic Principle</b>	A philosophical idea that claims the universe possesses certain properties that explain or are compatible with the existence of conscious life.
<b>Causal Principle</b>	The idea that all effects must have specific and sufficient causes.
<b>Complexity</b>	The state or arrangement of a thing that possesses many intricate parts or functions.
<b>Contingent</b>	An object or being that depends on something else for its existence and out of existence.
<b>Deductive Reasoning</b>	A type of reasoning where the premises of the argument, if true, guarantee the conclusion.
<b>Fallacy of Composition</b>	A fallacy where properties of the parts of an object are mistakenly assumed to be properties of its whole.
<b>Inductive Reasoning</b>	A type of reasoning where the premises provide strong evidence for a conclusion, but do not guarantee the truth of the conclusion.
<b>Infinite Regress</b>	A never ending chain of reasoning or explanation.
<b>Necessary</b>	An object or being that does not depend on anything else for its existence, or cease existing.
<b>Order</b>	The arrangement of objects or things, such that they behave according to certain laws or principles.
<b>Predicate</b>	The part of a sentence that gives information about its subject.
<b>Principle of Sufficient Reason</b>	The philosophical idea that all things require a sufficient explanation or state.
<b>Reductio ad Absurdum</b>	A form of philosophical argument which attempts to show that a particular position inevitably leads to an absurd or impossible conclusion.

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# Arguments Based on Observation

## Overview

The idea that God can be observed, or is revealed, in nature has many different religions and belief systems. Within Christian thought, it forms the basis of much of the faith. Much has been written on how to reconcile the ideas of the Bible with empirical science. However, arguments for the existence of God based on observation usually take the form of arguing that certain features of the world can only be explained by reference to God. While the teleological argument is the feature of design, while the cosmological argument is the causal principle, or the contingency of natural objects. Both kinds of argument have many critics express important doubts about whether it is a too great a philosophical leap to a transcendent, eternal and immaterial God from resolutely material aspects of the world. While many religious people think such arguments were not intended to prove God outright, consistent with many different, salient features of the universe.

## Key Points

### Background

- Arguments for the existence of God based on observation are, by their nature, inductive reasoning, although in the case of the cosmological argument, deduction is often proposed.
  - All of them also draw upon various inferred properties or features of the world commonly invoked in more general philosophical and scientific argument.
  - In the case of teleological arguments, ideas about the order, complexity and purpose are commonly developed, while in the case of cosmological arguments, more ideas about cause and effect, or contingency and necessity are drawn upon.
  - Most criticisms of these arguments either criticise these ideas directly, or point out severe errors in reasoning from the potential existence of these ideas to the existence of God.

### The Teleological Argument

- The teleological argument (also called 'the design argument') attempts to infer the existence of God from the existence of certain properties of design observed in nature.
  - The argument is that one can observe the work of God in nature is a long enduring order and regularity, even though they are not intelligent. This overall regularity he grounds his teleological argument in the idea that things in the world are not intelligent.
  - If everything were up to chance, then non-intelligent objects would not exhibit order and regularity. For Aquinas this implies that the behaviour of objects is set or determined.
  - Yet since these 'set' objects do not possess intelligence, they cannot be the cause of their behaviour. Rather, their regular behaviour must be set by an outside intelligence.
  - An analogy for this idea is a seed growing into a tree. The seed does not exhibit intelligent behaviour; instead this must be the work of an outside intelligence in the seed.

### Aquinas's Fifth Way

- Aquinas, in the fifth of his five ways, puts forward a version of the teleological argument to show that the existence of God is compatible with reasonable observations about the world.
  - He grounds his teleological argument in the idea that things in the world exhibit order and regularity, even though they are not intelligent. This overall regularity he grounds his teleological argument in the idea that things in the world are not intelligent.
  - If everything were up to chance, then non-intelligent objects would not exhibit order and regularity. For Aquinas this implies that the behaviour of objects is set or determined.
  - Yet since these 'set' objects do not possess intelligence, they cannot be the cause of their behaviour. Rather, their regular behaviour must be set by an outside intelligence.
  - An analogy for this idea is a seed growing into a tree. The seed does not exhibit intelligent behaviour; instead this must be the work of an outside intelligence in the seed.

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- Aquinas, in his teleological argument, draws upon Aristotle's idea of a 'final cause' as an explanation for how a particular thing came about, Aquinas claims that this can be found in the non-intelligent objects participating.
  - Aquinas's teleological argument differs from those that follow, in that it does not focus on complexity or function, but begins with the idea of any non-intelligent object moving towards a purpose.
  - While this might be intuitive, it is also weak in the same way as Aristotle's argument. The regularities underpinning the change and movement in objects are better explained by laws and theories such as evolution.

## Paley and the Watchmaker Analogy

- The watchmaker analogy is perhaps the best known version of the teleological argument. However, there is still debate as to what the analogy is intended to demonstrate.
  - An analogy is a form of inductive argument, which attempts to use the similarity of similar properties between two things in order to explain the nature or behaviour of one or both.
  - This means arguments from analogy are stronger when there is a high degree of similarity between the two things being compared. If they share a large number of properties, it is potentially more likely that they share a common additional one, or exhibit certain similar behaviours.
  - Teleological arguments often employ analogies in order to compare the world to a watch, claiming that the shared properties between both means they must share a common explanation.
- Paley, in his book *Natural Theology*, draws an analogy between a watch and the world. He claims the world has similar properties of functional order and complexity to a watch, and thus can be used to infer that the universe must have had a designer.
  - He contends that a person who came across a stone for the first time might conclude it existed in such a fashion. However, if they came across a watch, they would reach a different conclusion. They would infer it had been designed because the functional parts suggested it must have been designed for a particular purpose.
  - Paley argues the same is true of the world. Wherever one looks, the world exhibits a functional complexity that one could not believe arose out of chance. Instead, it was designed by an intelligent designer.
- Paley's argument, although involving a comparison, is not for certain a strict analogy. It is attempting less to draw a direct comparison with the world and a watch, knowing they are vastly different.
  - Rather, Paley can be interpreted to be saying that both the watch and the world share properties of functional order and complexity.
  - The existence of these properties accordingly warrants an explanation, and that explanation is an intelligent design, capable of creating an orderly and complex world.
  - In this way Paley potentially employs abductive reasoning, or inference to the best explanation. There may be other reasons for the functional order and complexity of the world, but it is more likely it was designed that way.
- Paley also attempts to avoid a number of other challenges to his argument. For example, he avoids the charge of anthropomorphism. He does not claim that the designer is the same as a human with certain attributes.
  - Nor does he claim that the watch/world is perfect, or able to be compared to a human. He claims that one has a complete grasp of the world, just enough to know it is complex and ordered.
  - Similarly, Paley acknowledges there might be unordered parts of the world, but argues that the balance the world is more ordered than disordered, and the best explanation is that it was designed.

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## What's Wrong with Design? Hume's Criticisms

- The teleological argument was prominently criticised by David Hume in his book *Natural Religion*. In this text he offers a number of solid charges against both the world, and the inference to a designer from an observation of design.
  - Hume had previously offer a wide-ranging challenge to the causal principle that the future will resemble the past is based on experience of the constant conjunction of events into a principle of the mind by habit.
  - This motivates a large portion of Hume's critique of the design argument. The design argument infers more from features of the world than it is ever possibly justified in inferring.
- Hume argues that just because there are two similar effects does not mean they have the same causes. Just because both a watch and the world appear intricately designed by a designer, especially since human beings have no experience of world design, does not mean the world has a designer.
  - The apparent design in the world then does not necessarily point toward a designer. Hume argues it is best just thought of as some 'unknown cause' at best.
  - Hume contends also that the design argument commits the fallacy of composition. Just because the world exhibits design from just analysing various small parts it. It may be that the unobserved universe are chaotic and unordered.
  - The spatial order observed in small parts of the world, therefore, may be due to design rather than by some design or natural order. The parts of the universe do not necessarily reflect the order of the universe were truly random.
- Hume also claims that even if it is accepted there is a designer of the world, we know nothing about who or what this designer is. There may be multiple lesser designs, or the existence of suffering in the world.
  - Furthermore, traditional teleological arguments are guilty of anthropomorphism. They project a human concept of a designer to God. This is arguably projection; even if there is a God, would he have explicitly designed it? And is it possible at all to infer any attributes of God from the world?

## Evolution and Other Scientific Challenges

- The theory of evolution is often thought to be the nail in the coffin for traditional forms of the teleological argument, as the processes of genetic mutation and natural selection provide an account of how beings come to be adapted to their environment without the need to invoke the idea of design.
  - In the case of Paley's argument, a designer simply no longer becomes the explanation for how the natural world appears to display a functional complexity and order.
  - Changing the design argument also threatens to result in a 'God of the gaps' argument. For example, while some have contended that evolution might be the result of an intelligent principle born out of the interactions of various causal laws, others have argued that ascribing any sort of divine design or intelligence is just speculation.
- Beyond evolution, however, scientific enquiry arguably has helped reinforce the idea of a being fundamentally orderly, and constrained by natural laws that influence thought and behavior.
  - Some thinkers, such as FR Tennant and C. S. Lewis, for a version of the anthropic principle. The world is specifically designed so that human life could develop. There needs to be a world that is arranged in the way that it is.
  - The teleological argument, therefore, can potentially be built on top of a scientific foundation. If certain laws or constants were just adjusted ever so slightly from what they are today, and not capable of supporting human life.
  - For proponents, this is clear evidence of design. Even if one can explain the natural processes and laws, these natural processes and laws still require a designer to create functional order and complexity.

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## Modern Versions of the Teleological Argument

- A modern version of the teleological argument is presented by Richard Swinburne. He argues that the regularities of co-presence and regularities of succession. The former is order of things, such as parts or elements, while the latter is the order observed in time, conforming to natural laws.
  - Swinburne argues traditional forms of the design argument rely on the co-presence, and such arguments are always open to criticisms of the kind that the spatial order of things.
  - Swinburne argues instead that the regularities of succession that require scientific enquiry can't tell us what certain natural laws are, it can't explain themselves, and the regularity they underpin is pervasive throughout the universe.
  - If there is no scientific explanation for these regularities, then Swinburne offers a 'personal explanation', where the existence of the regularities is explained by an agent or being.
  - Swinburne, therefore, argues that the personal explanation for the regularities is the action of an intelligent designer or being, who is able to create the universe fundamentally ordered throughout.

## The Cosmological Argument

- The cosmological argument starts at a similar point to the teleological argument, but it is based on principles and patterns in the world. However, the cosmological argument is based on different principles than the teleological argument.
  - Causal versions of the cosmological argument take the causal principle as their starting point, contending that there cannot be an infinite regress of causes and effects, and that there must be a first cause.
  - Contingency versions of the cosmological argument contend that the existence of the universe cannot be explained purely by reference to other contingent beings. They argue that there must be something that explains the existence of contingent beings.
  - Both draw upon the idea that an infinite series, or an infinite regress, is not possible for the universe. However, the causal and contingency arguments have different strengths, and how they are justified, and how they reach their conclusions.

## Aquinas' Five Ways

- The first three of Aquinas's Five Ways all give variations of a cosmological argument for the existence of God.
  - The first way presents the argument of the unmoved mover. Aquinas argues that change and movement can be seen across the world, with each change in a thing being itself changed by something else. But this chain of change and movement cannot be infinite; there must be a source of the change and movement that does not change or move itself, God.
  - The second way presents the first cause argument. Aquinas puts forward the idea that one can observe that everything in the world is caused by something prior to it. It cannot be the cause of itself, as this would mean it exists prior to the time it was caused. An infinite regress of causes is not possible, however, so there must be a first uncaused cause, God.
  - The third way presents the argument from contingency. Aquinas argues that all things in the world are contingent, meaning that they can exist or not exist. If it is possible for everything to not exist at any one time, then nothing would exist as this possibility would be actualised. But since things do exist now, and so there must be a being that cannot go out of existence, God.
- Aquinas draws upon Aristotelian thinking for a lot of the Five Ways. The first way is based on Aristotle's theory of change and movement, while the second is based on Aristotle's theory of causation.
  - However, these arguments have been successively built upon, and adapted to modern thinking about causation and contingency.

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## Causal Arguments

- Aquinas's second way presents a classic version of the causal cosmological argument, a metaphysical principle that all objects must have a cause, and deriving the idea of the impossibility of an infinite series.
- A more modern version of the causal argument is the Kalam cosmological argument put forward by William Lane Craig, who uses the Big Bang theory as an additional argument for a first cause.
  - It can be summed up as follows: all things that begin to exist have a cause, and so must have a cause if the universe has a beginning. This cause of the universe must be an immaterial being, God.
  - Craig offers a number of things within this argument. The first is that all things that exist have a cause; a proposition he states is supported both philosophically and scientifically from investigation into the natural world.
  - The second is that the universe itself has a beginning; a proposition supported by scientific theories and laws, such as the second law of thermodynamics and the Big Bang theory. Similar to Aquinas, that actual infinities are impossible, but offers thought experiments like the Hilbert Hotel in support.
  - In the minimum, what Craig and other proponents seek to claim is that the universe has a beginning with the idea of a first uncaused cause, and that such a proposition might be the best but also the best considering various metaphysical constraints on the universe.

## The Causal Principle and Its Limits

- Both Aquinas and Craig in their causal versions of the cosmological argument rely on the causal principle. Yet while it seems intuitively right to think all things must have a cause, there are philosophical issues with applying this principle universally, and to the universe itself.
  - Bertrand Russell pointed out that the logic of the causal principle means the idea of an uncaused cause. If all things must have a cause, then God himself must have a cause, and so on. If it is possible for something not to have a cause, then anything could potentially be the cause of the universe.
  - Secondly, it is argued the causal principle isn't intuitive or self-evident. It is only applicable in localised areas of space and time, but this doesn't mean that it doesn't apply, especially when human beings do not have experience of the universe as a whole.
- David Hume's analysis of the causal principle supports such ideas. He contends that the causal principle is not known a priori, and instead is created by the mind out of habit when observing regular, repeatable events and occurrences. This means the causal principle is only grasped as a result of human experience.
  - If this is the case, then the causal principle cannot be extrapolated to events outside of human experience. It may not be a violation of any law to suppose that there are events that do not have causes.
  - There is one of the key difficulties at the heart of causal arguments. While the causal principle is supported by scientific evidence, and ordinary experience, it is unclear how it can be a guide to how one analyses the creation of the universe itself.
  - It may be, as Russell states, that the existence of a universe is a 'brute fact' and that it is not appropriate for human beings to ask what the cause of the universe is.
- One key issue many critics have raised is that even if it is accepted that the cosmological argument does not actually posit God as the first cause.
  - It may be the case that multiple personal agents were involved in creating the universe, or that the universe emerged out of a previous one.
  - Furthermore, Craig and others make the case that because time and matter began at the Big Bang singularity, then the universe was created 'ex nihilo', further bolstering the case that the cause was God.
  - However, it may be possible the universe is in an eternal state of cause and effect, or that it emerged from some prior material. What Craig's argument potentially rests on is the idea of cause and effects, or an 'actual infinity'.

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## Is an Actual Infinity Possible?

- An actual infinity is an infinity that exists within a space or series that has a start and end; it exists all at one time. It can be contrasted with a potential infinity, which is unbounded and does not exist all at one time.
  - Many philosophers have thought that actual infinities, such as an infinite universe, are impossible. One classic argument, given by Aquinas and others, is illustrated by the example of a universe spanning infinite time.
  - If such a universe existed, the past would be infinitely long. This means that an infinite number of events would have had to pass until one reached the present moment, and since it is impossible for an infinite number of events to pass, the universe cannot be infinitely old.
  - Another example is the Hilbert hotel thought experiment. This asks one to imagine a hotel with an infinite number of rooms, all of which are full. One would imagine that if all the rooms were occupied, but by simultaneously moving all guests down one room, one could accommodate any number of finite guests, and even an infinite amount.
  - Such examples are intended to show that actual infinities are not just hypotheticals, but are reconciled with the current state of the universe, which has a definite beginning and spatial limits and restrictions.
- Some philosophers make the case, however, that all such thought experiments, if they did exist, would have some odd properties. Such experiments arguably do not logically exist, but that if they did within the universe, one might say that the universe is described.
  - Russell makes this argument, contending that those who refute the idea of actual infinities are simply lacking imagination, rather than making a sound philosophical argument that infinities exist in nature in ways human beings aren't aware of.
  - This might be particularly true in light of modern theoretical proposals such as the multiverse, which would propose realities beyond our universe, and which might follow laws of physics very different from our observable universe.

## Arguments from Contingency

- The argument from contingency crosses over with causal versions of the cosmological argument, but also has its own set of philosophical issues.
  - Aquinas's third way is a classic version of an argument from contingency in its original form.
  - Later philosophers have clarified his argument, drawing a distinction between contingent beings, which can come into existence and cease to exist, and necessary beings, which they do exist, must have existed forever.
  - The main thrust of the argument comes from the idea that the existence of contingent beings is wholly explained by other contingent beings. Such an explanation would require an infinite series of contingent explanations (or an infinite regress), and so a necessary being must exist to explain the contingent beings.
- Instead of the causal principle, however, the argument from contingency builds upon the principle of sufficient reason.
  - This was developed greatly in the work of Gottfried Leibniz. The principle of sufficient reason claims 'no fact can be real or existing and no statement true without a sufficient reason, and not otherwise'. (*Monadology* §32)
  - This means that everything in the world requires an explanation for its existence, and this is a philosophical demand for intelligibility about the external world, and is not a scientific enquiry.
  - Leibniz takes issue with Aquinas about the universe. If one asks for the explanation of contingent facts, one might refer to other contingent facts. But this would require an infinite regress of explanations themselves, and as such there can never be a sufficient explanation for a contingent fact that draws upon other contingent facts.
  - Therefore, for Leibniz, when looking at contingent explanations for the existence of anything, one will always uncover an infinite series of contingent explanations. However, there is a necessary explanation underlying all contingent explanations, which is God.

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- A modern version of the cosmological argument was also put forward by Frederick Copleston in a famous radio debate with Bertrand Russell in 1948.
  - He too employs Leibniz's Principle of Sufficient Reason, claiming that all contingent objects require an explanation for their existence. Yet such explaining any contingent object by reference to other contingent objects only lead to an infinite regress of contingent explanations.
  - Copleston argues observation of the world reveals that the only contingent object that when thinking about the world, one is not imagining the sum total of these contingent objects; in effect, thinking the world contingent itself.
  - This means that the world in itself is an explanation for its existence, in the form of a being whose nature is the reason for its own existence; in short, a necessary being.
- All these arguments contain a number of distinct claims, many of which critics have identified.
  - One is that objects can be categorised as contingent, and necessary.
  - A second is that the universe itself is wholly composed of contingent objects.
  - A third is that contingent objects require a sufficient explanation for their existence.
  - A fourth is that an infinite regress of explanations is philosophically unsatisfactory.

### Does a 'Necessary' Being Make Sense?

- The argument from contingency relies on the idea that a metaphysical distinction can be made between 'contingent' and 'necessary' beings or objects. Yet this is a harder claim to make than it first glance.
  - Hume argued that the idea of a 'necessary being' was meaningless, as 'Nothing is conceivable, implies a contradiction. Whatever we conceive as existent, we can also conceive as non-existent.' (*Dialogues*)
  - Since it's always possible to conceive of the non-existence of a necessary being, isn't a logical contradiction, there is nothing meaningful added to the notion of a 'necessary' being.
  - Russell makes a similar point in his debate with Copleston. He argues that the same logic is applicable to statements or propositions such as 'all bachelors are unmarried'.
  - The problem is, for Russell, there is an unwarranted philosophical leap in the argument. The observation of contingent beings does not mean that necessary beings exist. It is attempting to move from an a posteriori cosmological proposition to a priori claim, which could only be derived a priori.
- Some philosophers, such as Norman Malcolm, have claimed the property necessary existence should be analysed differently from that of ordinary existence, and the use of 'necessity' is justified.
  - However, Hume and Russell's analysis does pose a difficulty for proponents of the argument, as critics (especially those who are empiricists) would claim that without empirical evidence of necessary beings, then their existence is just pure speculation.

### Is the Universe Contingent?

- One major criticism Russell makes of the argument from contingency, particularly in his debate with Copleston, is that it is guilty of the fallacy of composition. It claims that just because the universe needs an explanation, it is not contingent. If the universe itself is contingent, a proposition like 'the universe exists' is not empirically verifiable.
  - It is acceptable perhaps to contend that there are contingent individual objects, but to claim the universe itself is contingent, or that the totality of contingent objects is itself contingent.
  - This fallacy is illustrated by many cases where the whole displays different properties from the parts. Russell's example is the argument that because every person has a mother, the universe must have a mother.

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- The fallacy of composition here does not mean that the universe is strictly necessary, but that proponents of the cosmological argument cannot assume the universe is necessary if it has contingent parts.
  - It may be the case that the universe itself possesses necessary existence as a 'brute fact'.
  - It's not easy for the argument from contingency to escape this objection as the regress of explanation will lead to an explanation of contingent beings as the explanation for the universe itself.
  - However, it may be the case that there are sufficient reasons to suppose the universe is a contingent thing. Cosmologists often hypothesise about the laws of nature before the universe might have ever existed, or only existed for a brief second.
  - Such talk is on no grounds to contend that since it may be possible for the universe to have existed in a different manner, proponents of the argument from contingency are assuming the universe is a contingent thing.

### Do All Things Require a Sufficient Reason?

- The principle of sufficient reason is a good heuristic for everyday scientific practice, but whether it should be elevated to a metaphysical principle when discussing the existence of the universe is debated.
  - One basic issue is what counts as a sufficient explanation. In science, and in mathematics, statements that are basic and axiomatic. In many cases, what counts as a sufficient explanation does not refer to the existence of objects, but their nature (e.g. chemical reactions).
  - However, if the principle is strictly applied to existential questions, such as 'Why does the universe exist?', it is unclear whether the principle should or can be applied.
  - Russell, for example, argues that it is not a proper question to ask why the universe exists, as it is a question that can never have a truth-evaluable answer, and can only result in speculation. A sufficient reason in this case is a linguistically acceptable question, but not a metaphysical one.
  - Others, however, argue that it is justified to apply the principle of sufficient reason to the universe. If it is applied regularly to other objects, then surely it should be applied to the universe as well.

### The Argument from Contingency and Actual Infinities

- The argument from contingency, and its dismissal of the possibility of actual infinities, is based on the same grounds as the cosmological argument; that issues with an endless chain of explanations.
  - It is not simply that time is infinite in a way beyond the grasp of human understanding, but that there will always be an endless cycle of contingent explanations for objects.

## Key Figures

### Thomas Aquinas

St Thomas Aquinas is one of the most important Christian theologians to have lived in the medieval tradition, where his writings laid the groundwork for much of its modern theological issues. He was primarily influenced by Aristotle, and adapted many of his key metaphysical ideas into a Christian context, including God as the first cause, and the teleological view of the universe. His particular, laid the groundwork for modern philosophical discussion about a posteriori knowledge, and even the structure of modern formulations of these arguments can be traced back to his work outlined in many of his writings.

### William Paley

William Paley was an eighteenth-century British clergyman who wrote many apologetic works during a time when Enlightenment-era academic thought was challenging many long-held religious beliefs. In particular, he was an advocate of natural theology, and his thoughts on the design of the universe, even Charles Darwin being impressed by his writings. However, a controversial figure, especially as new scientific theories such as evolution emerged, he was seen as a defender of divine design, and the usefulness of analogies and metaphors in inferring God from nature. However, despite many of his ideas being challenged, his works are still considered influential, and a version of the design argument has gone on to inspire many more developed forms.

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## David Hume

Hume was an eighteenth-century Scottish philosopher who wrote about a vast array of topics, and is now as one of the foremost proponents of empiricism during the Enlightenment. He sought to give a completely naturalistic account of how human beings arrive at knowledge, and how they could explain how human beings act and arrive at certain ideas, with him famously arguing that passion is the driver behind human behaviour, not reason. However, he was also a famous sceptic, and he offered one of the most enduring critiques of the teleological argument prior to the theory of evolution. Although many scholars now consider him to be an agnostic, at the time he was an atheist, and his critiques of religion and its thought proved very controversial.

## Key Texts



### *Summa Theologiae* (Aquinas)

*Summa Theologiae* is Aquinas's best known work, and was intended as a guide for students (though Aquinas never finished it). It is a large text, and Aquinas intended it to include all of Christian theology, with each topic being part of a cycle which extends back from God and the origins of the modern Church. For non-theologians, however, the most well-known part of the work is the five ways, which detail his five arguments for the existence of God (even though the work is over 3,125 pages long). These form some of the most discussed problems in philosophy, and have been debated about the reasonability of religion since the time they were written.

### *Natural Theology* (Paley)

*Natural Theology* is Paley's most extensive contribution to the philosophy of religion, written in the decades after it was published in 1802. Within it Paley provides detailed arguments for a religious view on the world, building in particular off a mechanistic view of nature and the natural order. He engaged both in his works and letters with Hume's criticisms of teleology, and as the theory of evolution increasingly became established that *Natural Theology* was seen as a response to it.

### *Dialogues Concerning Natural Religion* (Hume)

*Dialogues Concerning Natural Religion* was a work edited over by Hume for over 25 years. He began writing it after his death, and it was posthumously published in 1779. The *Dialogues* were, however, unfinished for a number of years later as the theory of evolution began to become established, and arguments against the teleological argument were revisited. However, the *Dialogues* present different religious arguments for God beyond discussions of design, using its three characters, Cleanthes, to present various views on the nature of God. Many commentators believe that the work reflects Hume's agnosticism, with Philo being the character closest to his own view.

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## Year 2 – Advanced Considerations

### The Nature and Attributes of God

Many forms of the teleological and cosmological argument posit God as a designer of the universe, based on particular empirical features. In your studies in Year 2, you will explore how God can be interpreted in very different ways, and how these interpretations are often difficult to define, let alone comprehend. It is often questioned, therefore, whether the principles that govern beings on Earth can be used to arrive at a being fundamentally different from those laws. For example, could a timeless God envision a beginning of the universe as a first cause? Depending on how one interprets the attributes of God, it may be possible to observe that it is not a warranted assumption about the relationship between God and the universe.



### Student Checklist

What Do I Know?	No Idea ☹️
What is the teleological argument?	
How is Aquinas's fifth way an example of a teleological argument?	
Why does Paley draw an analogy between the universe and a watch?	
How does Paley's teleological argument contain elements of abductive reasoning?	
How does Hume criticise the teleological argument?	
Why has the theory of evolution proved to be a challenge for the teleological argument?	
What differences are there between traditional and modern versions of the teleological argument?	
What is the cosmological argument?	
How do Aquinas's first three ways propose different versions of the cosmological argument?	
What are the primary differences between causal arguments and arguments from contingency?	
What is the principle of sufficient reason?	
Why is there contentious debate about whether an infinite regress is possible or satisfactory?	
Why does Hume criticise the idea of a 'necessary' being?	
How does the argument of contingency potentially commit the fallacy of composition?	
How does Russell criticise the cosmological argument?	
Does the teleological argument or the cosmological argument provide a stronger case for the existence of God?	

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# Arguments Based on Reason

## Overview

Throughout history, many have considered the existence of God. This belief was not readily formalised until Anselm put forward his version of what is known as the ontological argument, which contended that the existence of God could be proved through reason. This argument was highly controversial, even in the time it was written, and since Anselm put forward his argument, it has been challenged from religious and secular perspectives alike. It was not until the 19th century, however, that the argument was put to paper, it seemed. The ontological argument was looking for evidence for God's existence. Nonetheless, in recent years Kant's philosophy has challenged, and a number of modern theologians have put forward new versions that potentially avoid the criticisms of its traditional form.

## Key Points

### Background

- Ontology is a term referring to the 'being' of something. In philosophy, there are metaphysics questioning the nature of 'being', what it means to be or to exist, and something to be or to exist.
  - It can be contrasted with epistemology, which questions what it is to know, with what humans understand, but what existence or being things have in reality.
  - The ontological argument is, therefore, named as such because it focuses on the being of things. It attempts to derive the necessary existence of God from its relation to the world.
  - It is a priori, as it does not rely on observations about the universe, and if one accepts the premises of the ontological argument, then proponents must exist.

### Anselm and the Ontological Argument

- The ontological argument has existed in many guises. One of the most famous versions was put forward by Anselm of Canterbury in his 1078 work *Proslogion*.
  - He presents his ontological argument in two different ways, but both rely on the 'reductio ad absurdum' style arguments. The target of his arguments is 'the fool'; the person who can conceive of the non-existence of God, but does not understand the nature of God prevents his non-existence.
  - Yet Anselm also did not envision the ontological argument as a solitary proof to the existence of God. Instead he was concerned with 'faith seeking understanding'; a reasonable justification of belief in God.
- The first version of Anselm's ontological argument is in Chapter 2 of the *Proslogion*. It defines God as a being than which nothing greater can be conceived. As such, God possesses existence in the mind, and possesses it to the utmost level conceivable.
  - From this definition, Anselm asks whether it would be greater to exist in the mind only, or to exist in reality (he contends it would be greater to exist in reality, and so God must exist in reality).
  - Therefore, Anselm concludes that God must exist.
- The second version of Anselm's ontological argument is in Chapter 3 of the *Proslogion*. It asks whether it is greater that God should be conceived not to exist, or whether it is greater that God should exist.
  - Anselm argues the latter is greater, but such an idea can only apply to God's being. Everything else can be conceived not to exist as it does not possess necessary existence.
  - Here, although Anselm does not use these terms, a distinction is made between necessary existence (which God possesses), and contingent existence.
  - God is the sole being for which existence is necessarily part of his nature. Therefore, it is possible to determine his existence.

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## Gaunilo and the 'Perfect Island' Objection

- Anselm's ontological argument wasn't wholly accepted on the publication of Marmoutier in France, criticised his reasoning, arguing it leads to absurd conclusions.
  - He famously presented the example of an island, arguing that if one imagines an island, it can be argued that being the greatest conceivable island, it is greater than in the mind.
  - The logic of Anselm's argument can be applied to any object, and so any object can move from mere thought into existence. This indicates that existence itself is not an ordinary property but to be part of the essence of something, through reason alone.
  - Gaunilo instead argued that in the case of a perfect or excellent island, it is the hypothetical existence of this island exists as a real and indubitable object, 'for one whose existence is uncertain, in my understanding'. (*On Being and Essence*)
  - He argued that Gaunilo can be interpreted as contending that empirical proof is not a maximally great God (e.g. revelation, religious experience, natural theology).
- Anselm responded to Gaunilo's argument, claiming that Gaunilo did not fully understand necessary and contingent existence. God is the only being capable of possessing the most maximally great being possible.
  - However, the concept of necessary existence is contentious. Hume criticised the concept as meaningless, since any being, even those with necessary existence, can be destroyed. There is no logical contradiction in claiming a necessary being does not exist.
  - This means that while it is possible that a necessary being could exist, it is not necessary that it not exist!
  - Empiricists in particular would argue that existence is not a property in itself. Colour may be properties of objects. The only way to affirm something's existence is through evidence, not a priori reasoning.

## Kant's Objection to the Ontological Argument

- Kant put forward a now famous objection to the ontological argument, contending that it falsely treats existence as a predicate.
  - A predicate is the part of a sentence that provides information about the subject. It generally states something important about the properties or nature of the subject.
  - For example, in the sentence 'zebras have black and white stripes', the 'have black and white stripes' is the predicate.
  - What Kant is, therefore, arguing is that 'existence' cannot be predicated of an object; it does not grant any further information or understanding of the object (as a predicate would).
  - In the example of zebras, while it might be contradictory to conceive of something that is not a zebra, nothing is added or taken away from the idea of zebras by claiming they exist.
- The same applies in the case of the ontological argument. While it might be possible to conceive of the greatest conceivable being (if that is the understanding of the idea of God), nothing is added to the idea of God by claiming he does or does not exist.
  - One could predicate every good property to the maximal end of God, but not predicate existence also of God.
  - As Kant states: 'If I cogitate a being as the highest reality, without defect still remains – whether this being exists or not.' (*The Critique of Pure Reason*)
  - This ultimately means that if Kant is correct, God cannot be proved through reason alone. Nothing that can be part of something's essence. Since the ontological argument claims necessary existence as part of God's essence, Kant's criticism is valid.

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## Necessary Existence, and Modern Formulations of the Ontological Argument

- As analysed so far, the ontological argument depends on whether one can argue for precisely necessary existence, as something that can be predicated as part of a being's essence. If not, then it is not possible to argue that simply due to the maximal greatness of a being, it must exist.
  - While many philosophers do not suggest Anselm's version is valid, many arguments have been put forward in recent years.
  - The key to many of these arguments is the idea that necessary existence cannot be predicated of a being's essence. In particular, many modern interpretations of the ontological argument distinguish between ordinary existence, which is not a predicate, and necessary existence, which is. If God is truly understood to be limitless then in dealing with necessary existence, it cannot be thought of in the same way as existence for contingent beings.
  - Necessary existence as such is an idea derived analytically from an unlimited being, predicated of God, in contrast to ordinary existence, which cannot be predicated of God.
- Malcolm's ontological argument, therefore, proceeds differently from Anselm's. It is similar to the argument that something similar to the being of which nothing greater can be conceived.
  - If God is unlimited though, he cannot come into existence nor cease to exist like limited beings. If God does exist, then he exists necessarily. If God does not exist, it is impossible, as God cannot come in or out of existence.
  - Malcolm then claims that the existence of a being is impossible if, and only if, it is self-contradictory. Since for Malcolm God is not a self-contradictory being, then God's existence is not impossible.
  - Malcolm's argument makes clearer the hidden premises in Anselm's version. For one, many critics do argue that the idea of an unlimited God is self-contradictory, leading to the paradox of omnipotence.
  - Furthermore, it arguably mistakes logical impossibility for existential impossibility. The question of whether something is impossible in his nature or being, not whether it is impossible to come into existence.
  - This means, ultimately, that Malcolm's argument doesn't show that if God exists, he must exist necessarily. The best his argument states if so is 'If God exists, he exists necessarily'.
- Modern versions of the ontological argument, such as Malcolm's, employ which is constructed around the relations between words that 'qualify' statements, such as 'possibility' and 'necessity'.
  - Plantinga, similarly to Malcolm, employs modal logic in his ontological argument differently. He begins with the idea of God possessing 'maximal greatness'. If God does possess maximal greatness, then it must be maximally great across all possible worlds.
  - He then states the premise that it is possible that there is a maximally great being. If this is true then a maximally great being must exist in all worlds, including the actual world. If a maximally great being exists in the actual world, then it de facto exists.
  - However, Plantinga's argument suffers the same difficulty as Malcolm's. The idea of a logically impossible being does not mean he is metaphysically possible. The argument is reduced to 'If a maximally great being exists, it exists in all possible worlds'.
  - Plantinga accepts that his argument does not prove God outright. But he argues that as it is rational to accept that God possibly exists, and if God does exist it logically follows that he exists in all worlds, including our own.
  - This is still a controversial claim, and many critics argue Plantinga has provoked deeper issues about whether the existence of a being can be deduced from other philosophical problems.

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## Key Figures

### Anselm

Anselm of Canterbury was an Italian monk and theologian who wrote about a wide ontological argument and the nature of God's eternity. Although much of his work in life, he later became credited as one of the first scholastic thinkers, blending the rationalist perspectives to develop a more systematic approach to defending church. This approach was his belief that although faith comes before reason, reason can still be used to understand the importance of the ontological argument. Despite many elements of his work now being seen as an important groundwork for many philosophers of religion looking at the existence of God, his writings anticipate a number of future debates about God, free will and eternity.

### Gaunilo

Gaunilo was a French Benedictine monk, primarily known for his criticism of Anselm's ontological argument and for advancing the view that human knowledge, including that of God, is based on the senses. However, beyond this little is known about him, with no other works by him surviving.

### Immanuel Kant

Kant is perhaps the most influential philosopher of all time, whose writings have shaped many philosophical traditions in the Western world. He proposed and defended a view of 'transcendental realism', which held that certain features such as space, time or causation necessarily exist in our experience, but do not reveal 'things-in-themselves'. This was an attempt to reconcile the ideals of rationalism and empiricism. However, this thought extended outwards to the time, and in the *Critique of Pure Reason* Kant applies his philosophy to the ontological argument, showing how they rely on invalid reasoning.

## Key Texts

### *Proslogion* (Anselm)

The *Proslogion* is one of Anselm's best known works. Written between 1078 and 1085, it is one of his other ontological works, and consists of one lengthy address to God himself, in which he argues for his existence, and the nature of his existence. Included in this is the ontological argument, which, proving controversial at the time, became one of Anselm's best known pieces of work. It was by theologians referring to it as 'Anselm's argument' until Kant reframed the discussion.

### *On Behalf of the Fool* (Gaunilo)

*On Behalf of the Fool* is the only surviving work by Gaunilo and provides most of the criticism of Anselm's ontological argument. Written as a reply to Anselm, it primarily focuses on a criticism of his ontological argument. Portions of the work praise Anselm's other work in the *Proslogion*. Since its publication, it has been a central part of the debate around the ontological argument as much as Anselm's writings, with Anselm's *Responsio*, and many modern thinkers criticising his reasoning in more modern versions.

### *Critique of Pure Reason* (Kant)

The *Critique of Pure Reason* was first published in 1781, and was one of the first systematic attempts to address major questions about metaphysics and epistemology. In it he builds upon the ideas of rationalism and empiricism to outline his theory of the key philosophical distinctions of a priori / a posteriori and analytic / synthetic. The central problem of the *Critique* is to determine the limits of human knowledge and what metaphysical conclusions can be made from them. The book is addressed to different ways, and Kant applies his thinking to many philosophical questions, including the ontological argument.

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## Year 2 – Advanced Considerations

### The Nature and Attributes of God

In studying the ontological argument, you will have noticed that both older and the idea that God is logically possible; the greatest conceivable being contains no as you will study in Year 2, this is quite a controversial proposition. Attributes such as example, generate their own paradoxes, while others such as omniscience or be conflicts between God's other attributes. At such, it may be possible to challenge in the ontological argument. Consider what kind of God is being posited for truly does not contain any logical contradictions.



### Student Checklist

What Do I Know?	No Idea 😞	Some Idea 😊	Good Idea 😄	
What is the ontological argument?				
Why is the ontological argument a priori?				
What is the purpose of Anselm's ontological argument in his view?				
How does Anselm propose two versions of the ontological argument?				
What is Gaunilo's 'perfect island' objection to Anselm's ontological argument?				
Why did Kant argue that existence is not a predicate?				
How does Kant's objection argument impact the ontological argument?				
Why does Malcolm argue that there is a difference between ordinary existence and necessary existence?				
How does this distinction inform Malcolm's modern version of the ontological argument?				
What does Plantinga propose as his version of the ontological argument?				
Are arguments for God based on reason stronger than arguments based on observation?				

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## Practice Exam-style Question

2. To what extent is it possible to infer the existence of God from the appearance of design in the universe?

### HINTS

In your answer you should:

- show a consistent knowledge and understanding of the teleological argument
- how functional complexity in the universe can be interpreted as evidence of design
- the strengths and weaknesses of inferring the existence of a designer from the evidence
- philosophical and scientific challenges to the teleological argument

Analyse and evaluate different approaches to the questions surrounding the existence of God, the evidence for design, and whether there is a strong empirical case for the existence of God.

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# God and the World

G<sub>2</sub> L<sub>1</sub> O<sub>1</sub>

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<b>Authenticity</b>	A measure of how genuine or real something is.
<b>Conversion</b>	The process of a person significantly changing their person
<b>Corporate</b>	Relating to a sizeable or large group of people.
<b>Credulity</b>	The willingness to believe in things or events without reason
<b>Free Will</b>	The ability to choose between different courses of action v
<b>Ineffable</b>	Refers to ideas or experiences that cannot adequately be e
<b>Mystical</b>	A form of religious experience centred around a non-senso
<b>Neurophysiology</b>	The study of the brain and the nervous system.
<b>Noetic</b>	The element of religious experience that points towards kn
<b>Numinous</b>	A term used to capture the distinctive emotional properties
<b>Religious Experience</b>	An experience or encounter that involves God or another s
<b>Soul-making</b>	Theodicies which emphasise the importance of moral and s
<b>Testimony</b>	The statements given by a person who has undergone an e
<b>The Fall</b>	The event in which human beings transformed
<b>Theodicy</b>	Defence of theism against the problem of evil.
<b>Transient</b>	Refers to an experience or event being short-lived or brief.

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# Religious Experience

## Overview

Religious experience has been a feature of human lives stretching far into the past, and for many people has been an important part of defining what it means to be human. The nature and form of religious experience has proved more tricky. While religious experience is only during the last 100 years that secular perspectives have truly emerged, and while religious experiences are authentic contact with God or another spiritual dimension, a plethora of neurophysiological, psychological and philosophical explanations for religious experience have potentially weakened its prevalence as a valid argument for the existence of God. However, far from conclusive, and many modern thinkers put forward that scientific explanations do not impact their authenticity for theists, and they can still form a valid and meaningful part of a person's life.

## Key Points

### Background

- Religious experience generally refers to an experience, encounter or occurrence that is perceived to be of a spiritual dimension. However, the nature, content and form of religious experience is highly varied, and it is not often clear, even to those who have had religious experiences, how to describe it.
  - Religious experience can be direct, involving communication and contact with God or another spiritual dimension, and involves an internal sense or feeling of something beyond the material world, such as a sense of wonder or awe at creation.
  - Beyond its prevalence in society, there are wider questions about whether religious experience is reliable evidence for God, especially for those who have themselves not had such an experience.
  - While it is not in question that religious experience privately convinces people of the existence of God, it is unclear whether the properties or nature of religious experience underpin a valid objective argument for his existence.
- Aside from philosophical musings, religious experience has contributed immensely to the development of new religions, and the theology within them.
  - Furthermore, people often credit their religious experience as the reason for their faith. A person's impact of religious experience cannot be understated when considering the reasonability of, or evidence for, religious beliefs.
  - Moreover, the changes that religious experience often encourages in individuals are often seen as evidence that most religious experiences are authentic, genuine or real. Properly understood, religious experience is simply dismissed as being illusory or transitory, when the effects are often permanent.

### The Nature of Religious Experience

- Religious experience is generally thought to be very difficult to define, as individuals often lack the language or vocabulary to express what they have experienced, and even go so far as to claim that religious experience is essentially ineffable.
  - Friedrich Schleiermacher conceived of religious experience as rooted in a sense of the 'infinite', where one recognises one's own life and activity is inseparable from the eternal.
  - In this way, Schleiermacher claimed that religious experience is 'self-authenticating', and no further test is needed for the person experiencing it.
- Later thinkers, however, have moved away from these kinds of theologically-influenced definitions of religious experience, and instead examined it from a natural perspective, trying to outline the nature of religious experience from people's testimony and reports, two essential and distinct aspects of religious experience.
  - William James argued that there were four main characteristics of religious experience:
    - (Essential) Ineffability – No adequate report can be given of the religious experience, and the feelings it produces in an individual.
    - (Essential) Noetic Quality – Religious experiences provide insight or knowledge that is not available in the normal realms of human intellect.
    - (Subsidiary) Transience – The experience does not last long.
    - (Subsidiary) Passivity – The experience makes the individual feel as if they are being acted upon or being willed by, another power or influence.

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- Rudolph Otto put forward a slightly different definition from James, looking at 'experience' religious experiences, rather than simply outlining the qualities of religious experiences.
  - He viewed religious experience as 'mysterium tremendum et fascinans'; this encompasses mystery, fascination and awe in the face of the divine.
  - Translated, there can be seen to be three parts:
    - *Mystery* – Otto argued that while a religious experience would reveal something about the divine, it would also show that the being of God cannot be fully understood by human beings.
    - *Ultimate Significance/Tremendousness* – Otto argued religious experience has the greatest importance, and a person feels a sense of dependence and awe in the face of the divine.
    - *Fascinating Attraction* – Otto argued during religious experience the divine is so attractive that one may feel witnessing him. One also gets a sense of the power and control of God.
  - Otto further described religious experience as 'numinous', which he used to describe the qualities of religious experience that reach beyond normal comprehension. The ultimate ineffability of religious experience as a phenomenon.
  - Since religious experiences possess this numinous quality, they are beyond language, which can only refer to instinctively grasped normal sense experiences. It can potentially partially capture the nature and depth of religious experience.

## The Different Forms of Religious Experience

- Beyond general descriptions of religious experience, some have distinguished various varieties of religious experience. One key type is thought to be mystical experience. Mysticism as a whole, is oriented on direct awareness or experience of union with the divine.
  - Typically, a mystical experience is thought to be one where an individual experiences the presence of, God beyond the realms of ordinary sense experience. It encompasses otherworldly, conscious insights into spiritual realities, or truths not accessible to ordinary experience.
  - Famous examples include Saint John of the Cross and his visions of the divine in the 16th century and 1577; Mother Julian of Norwich and her 16 visions of Christ while suffering from illness in Ávila and her periods of religious ecstasy, and later visions of Christ in 15th century England.
- F C Havens analysed the nature of mystical experience in depth, looking at it from different traditions and religions from a culturally neutral perspective. He argued that there are several features to mystical experiences, and those undergoing a mystical experience.
  - the physical world does not constitute all dimensions of reality, and that there is a 'ground' to reality
  - reason is not the only important part of human intellect; what is divine is beyond rationality
  - there are particular forms of experience that are not rational
  - there are two sides to an individual; the normal, rational, aware self, and the deeper, truer self
  - The important part to life is realising this spiritual self, and understanding its nature
- Another variety of religious experience is often referred to as 'conversion' experiences. These are experiences that cause an individual to change their beliefs, ideas and practices. They are often witnessed. Generally it also involves the individual committing to a new way of life.
  - William James argued that the fundamental change of a conversion experience is that something which previously may not have been important to a person, become a central part of their life and activity.
  - Furthermore, he argued that a conversion experience could be meaningful if it leads to a person becoming more positive, less selfish and focused on others. These are good grounds to suggest that the conversion experience is meaningful.
  - A classic example of a conversion experience is the conversion of Saul of Tarsus. His religious experience led him to become St Paul, and influence the rise of Christianity in the 1st century AD.

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## William James and the Authenticity of Religious Experience

- Beyond whether religious experiences are evidence for God, there is great debate about how one can determine whether religious experiences are authentic; whether there is any way to tell whether a person had a genuine religious experience, or simply mistaken, or even lying for personal gain.
  - On the surface the ineffability of religious experience, and its private nature means that simply from testimony alone, it is hard to determine what a person experienced, let alone whether this experience should be considered a meaningful event.
  - Furthermore, many have noticed that religious experience often seems to be determined by the pre-existing beliefs of a particular society or culture; this would suggest that religious experiences are simply cultural phenomena, and not objective.
- William James went a step further with his analysis of religious experience. In *The Varieties of Religious Experience*, he approaches questions about whether religious experience should be taken as evidence for God.
  - James argued that the best test of authenticity or genuineness for a religious experience is whether it effected a genuine change in the experient. He believed that a genuine religious experience did not simply just happen to a person, but also resulted in long-term effects on the character and outlook of an individual.
  - Furthermore, it is expected that a religious experience would be filtered through the conceptual framework of the person experiencing it, just as all experiences are. This means that religious experiences as supporting a particular religion might be misguided, and it is not necessarily a reflection on whether the experiences themselves are genuine.
  - Altogether, James concludes that for the people who have religious experiences, it is reasonable for them to hold the belief that there is a personal God invested in the lives of individuals.
  - At the same time, however, he argues that religious experiences cannot be taken as evidence for God's existence; at best they are a hypothesis or a proposition that seems to be supported by received religious experiences.

## Religious Experience as an Argument for God

- Religious experience is commonly used as an argument for the existence of God. Both inductive and deductive forms of the argument have been used.
  - The inductive form of arguments from religious experience is that experiences of God have unique characteristics that could not be produced by natural phenomena.
  - Therefore, occurrences of religious experience are best explained by the existence of God, rather than by other features of the world.
  - Some versions, due to the widespread occurrence of religious experience, argue that the best explanation for so many individuals having religious experiences is that there is a God.
- The argument from religious experience possesses certain key strengths. First, it is a very basic and important method by which human beings credibly gain knowledge. It is shown why religious experiences should be discounted as evidence, rather than taken as evidence.
  - Furthermore, religious experience is not something that is localised within a particular culture. Most, if not all, religions have stories or concepts about religious experiences in human life.
- However, there are also key weaknesses. Although experience on the whole is a source of knowledge, religious experience, being ineffable and private, is difficult to communicate. There is no agreement on the nature of religious experience, and what is experienced by different people.
  - Furthermore, even if God exists, this does not necessarily mean that people can experience God. It assumes that God is for some reason personally investing or communicating with individuals.
  - Lastly, the rise of scientific enquiry means that there are now many other explanations for religious experience. It may be the case that religious experiences have a neurophysiological cause, and are simply special kinds of hallucinations or dreams.

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## The Difficulties of Testimony

- If religious experiences are to be evidence for the existence of God, then there are not enough grounds for a valid argument. Rather, it becomes necessary to rely on those who have undergone religious experiences.
  - This raises a number of issues. Testimony is rarely perfect; those testifying may not have accurate experiences in accurate language, and often are not reliable sources of knowledge about their own minds.
  - Furthermore, it can be possible not only that the person testifying is mistaken, but also that there are reasons why people pretend to have religious experiences, and that they do so for their own ends.
- Richard Swinburne argues that the doubts held against those who have had religious experiences are too extreme. He contends that in all other spheres of human experience, if something is taken as evidence that it does exist, and there are no other dimensions to it that can be investigated and explored.
  - Religious experience is arguably as commonplace as many other ordinary experiences and, therefore, should not be treated differently just because of its unique nature. As such he proposes two principles:
    - The 'Principle of Credulity' states that if someone has experienced something, it should be accepted that it is likely that the person has genuinely experienced it unless there are convincing reasons to suggest otherwise.
    - The 'Principle of Testimony' states that it should generally be the case that descriptions of an event should be taken as probably being true, unless there are genuine reasons to believe someone might be lying or mistaken.
  - These principles together suggest that when a person has a religious experience, it is generally that the experience was authentic and the person in question is honest with their testimony.
  - While there may be cases where experience can be disputed, on a large scale, for people who have religious experiences, collectively they can be regarded as a source of evidence for God.
- Swinburne can be criticised for going further with these principles, and putting religious experience on a 'basic' level for knowledge, and is not subject to the same critical scrutiny as other claims. In the same way one would not check to see whether one's perception of the world is true.
  - However, it is possible to question whether these principles are appropriate for religious experience. As explored previously, religious experience has a number of unique properties that potentially make it less credible than ordinary experience.
  - Peter Vardy, for example, questions Swinburne's thought here, arguing that it is difficult to question the evidence for their experiences, religious or not, and it would be to question the authenticity of religious experience by referring to other publicly verifiable experiences.
  - There are difficulties in assessing the balance of evidence in any case of religious experience. On the one hand, it can't be dismissed simply because of its unique properties, yet it is difficult to verify in the same manner as ordinary experience.

## Individual and Corporate Religious Experience

- One possible route to verification of religious experience is in shared testimony. That is, corporate religious experience, where a religious experience happens simultaneously to a group of people, may be better evidence for the existence of God as a single originating source.
  - Corporate religious experiences are not as common, but they have been documented. For example, the Toronto Blessing (1990s) where many people claimed to have had a shared religious experience.
  - However, it is difficult to verify corporate religious experiences; it may be that the group is under a subconscious suggestion to believe they had the same experience, or that they are all religious (as in the Toronto Blessing).
  - Corporate religious experience may even have a more direct explanation in mass hysteria, especially if occurring in a situation that is naturally emotionally charged.
  - Furthermore, it is difficult to link corporate religious experiences to the existence of God. If corporate miracles are more common, there is less biblical evidence for the existence of God, especially those experiences which induce hysterical behaviours (see 1 Cor 14:22-25).

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## Psychological Explanations for Religious Experience

- One way critics have undermined the authenticity of religious experience is to offer psychological explanations for its occurrence. These suggest on the whole that it is not God but instead certain forms of neuroses or unfulfilled desires.
  - Freud, for example, suggests that religious experiences are simply the repressed wishes of human beings desire a creator God to make sense of a seemingly chaotic natural world in the face of it.
  - This desire for a personally involved creator God leads human beings to misinterpreting experience of the world as experience of God and fulfilling his existence.
  - Donald Winnicott put forward a similar argument. He contends that religious beliefs are born out of a human desire for comfort and safety in the adult years, seen as a child's desire for a mother.
  - Aspects of God may reflect this desire; for example, calling God 'Father' in the Christian tradition. For Freud and Winnicott this signifies that religious belief and practice are a subconscious desire.
- However, theists have questioned whether such psychological explanations are valid. If Freud's ideas might be plausible, they are difficult to test. How can one prove that a particular experience is caused by a subconscious desire and don't simply coexist?
  - Even if one does possess a wish for the existence of a creator God, this wish is in fact a God who created, and is personally invested in, the world. It is not a wish for a religious experience as authentic if it didn't result in emotional and spiritual experiences.
  - Psychological explanations, therefore, don't necessarily show that religious experiences are caused by God; other evidence would be needed to show that it cannot possibly have any other cause.

## Neuroscience, Physiology and Religious Experience

- In recent years, advances in a scientific understanding of the brain have led some to suggest that there may be a neurophysiological explanation for religious experience. In particular, they suggest that certain triggers, whether they be genetic or physiological, which can be shown to cause religious experiences, undermine it as evidence for God.
  - Numerous different hypotheses have been proposed, including hormonal imbalances and specific physical mechanisms behind religious experience. However, it is difficult, simply because religious experience does not occur in one way, but many different ways, as people's own introspection, which can be unreliable.
  - It has been noted that drugs or mental illness can cause religious experiences, such as the body being near death. This suggests there are neurophysiological causes for religious experience, even if they haven't been fully identified.
  - Experiments, on the other hand, have proved inconclusive. Michael Persinger's studies on people using a device called the 'God Helmet', which he claimed could induce religious experience symptoms in those wearing it. However, these experiments were not rigorous, and failing to exclude other reasons behind participant symptoms.
- Similarly to psychological explanations, neurophysiological explanations for religious experiences potentially fall short of refuting it as evidence for God.
  - For even though there are these kind of explanations, it would be reasonable to say that if God would create biological mechanisms in an individual undergoing religious experiences, then religious experiences would be inconsistent with an ordered, logical world.
  - However, what psychological and neurophysiological explanations do provide is a partial understanding of religious experience. As such, while they might not completely refute the existence of God based on religious experience, they demonstrate that it can't be assumed that these experiences indicate them being caused by God altogether.

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## Key Figures

### William James

James was an American psychologist and philosopher who wrote about a wide variety of topics. He is best known for his work within the philosophy of religion and epistemology. Yet his influence extends far beyond these fields; many hold him as one of the most important figures in psychology, and in the independent field of pragmatism. These interests helped him in his investigation of religious experience. His pragmatist view, helped form a well-rounded analysis of the nature of religious experience. Independent conclusions could be drawn from his work. However, James's interest in religion went beyond simply methodology or observations; he looked into mystical experiences and experimented with various drugs in order to understand them.

### Rudolph Otto

Otto was a German theologian who wrote extensively about a wide variety of topics. While his works were often apologetic, he did proactively detail new conceptualizations of the numinous; the unique emotional forms of experience that underlie all religious beliefs like Schleiermacher, one of his primary influences, that non-rational elements are central to religious belief. Rather individuals should come to understand the rational reasons for their beliefs by investigating more thoroughly more irrational elements such as religious experience.

## Key Texts

### The Varieties of Religious Experience (James)

*The Varieties* is one of the best known texts by James on the philosophy of religion. It is based on lectures given between 1901 and 1902 that look at the nature of religion as a whole and the elements that underlie it. Within the text, James contends that scientific inquiry can be revealing about religion, and that the fields are not necessarily separate in their subject matter. The methods used to investigate the natural world can also be used by individuals studying religious phenomena as natural also. For James, religious experiences were just another form of human experience. Authenticity stems from the fact that they influence human ideals and behavior.

### The Idea of the Holy (Otto)

*The Idea of the Holy* is Otto's most famous work, and his first major piece of writing. It concerns the elements of religion that go beyond rational explanation. Despite this, Otto argues that individuals should seek to understand first the general philosophical thought behind religion before exploring its more mystical characteristics. Within *The Idea* Otto develops his concept of the numinous; the non-rational and non-sensory experiences that lie at the core of human religious experience. For Otto it is something that exists purely on its own and cannot be related or explained in rational terms. Instead it is only discoverable by a person experiencing it themselves and it has proved very influential, and many discussions of religious experience, particularly those drawn upon Otto's work for inspiration.

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Throughout this section the difficulties of describing religious experience are stated. It also draws upon the debate around religious language, particularly when it comes to falsification. The private nature and ineffability of religious experience means that it is not verifiable; individuals could lie about an experience and it would be difficult to tell. A neurophysiological state for religious experience cannot be identified. This means that the idea of logical positivism or falsification with religious experience cannot be evidenced. It is said to meaningfully exist or not exist, or others may argue that religious experience is just the symbolic language of a particular religion, and it may be the case that it is just a language game, such that the meaning of a religious experience is only meaningful to those involved in the relevant form of life. Talking about religious experience is just one of the elements of the discussion about religious language.

What Do I Know?	No Idea ☹
What is religious experience?	
What is the difference between direct and indirect religious experience?	
Why is it thought to be difficult to outline the nature of religious experience?	
What did James propose were the main characteristics of religious experience?	
How does Gifford outline religious experience?	
How can different varieties of religious experience be identified?	
What are mystical religious experiences?	
What are conversion experiences?	
Why are there questions over the authenticity or genuineness of religious experience?	
What reasons are there to believe religious experience is a union with a higher power?	
How can religious experience potentially form an argument for the existence of God?	
What philosophical objections can be made to such an argument?	
What are Swinburne's 'principle of credulity' and 'principle of testimony'?	
How might corporate religious experience be a more reliable evidence for the existence of God?	
Why do psychological explanations for religious experience challenge its authenticity?	
Why do neurological explanations for religious experience challenge its authenticity?	
How might scientific explanations for religious experience impact it as an argument for the existence of God?	





# The Problem of Evil

## Overview

The problem of evil is perhaps one of the oldest challenges to the existence of an omnipotent, benevolent being, and has informed religious discourse in Christian religion. Numerous different theodicies have been proposed in response, often for the existence of some greater good as a result of its presence, such as free will or have simply changed their conception of God in light of the issues it presents, and today as to whether the problem of evil is an effective challenge to traditional religion. It provides a philosophically meaningful exploration for the suffering people encounter.

## Key Points

### The Nature of Evil

- There is often a distinction made between moral and natural (non-moral) evil.
  - Moral evil is suffering caused as a result of human actions, whereas natural evil is phenomena in the natural world. An example of moral evil might be murder, whereas natural evil might be an earthquake.
  - This distinction is often seen as important, as moral evil encompasses some choice. Any solutions to the problem of moral evil that rely on recognising free will may not be solutions to the problem of natural evil.
  - However, not all philosophers and theologians have made this distinction. Some argue that human beings have very limited free will. In this case, since human beings are determined, evil committed by human beings is closer to natural evil than moral evil.

### The Logical Problem of Evil

- The logical problem of evil is a variation which argues that there is a logical contradiction between the existence of evil and an omnipotent, benevolent God. If one exists, then it is logically impossible for the other to exist.
  - The logical problem of evil can be put forward as an inconsistent triad:
    - God is benevolent/all-loving
    - God is omnipotent/all-powerful
    - Evil exists.
  - However, all three premises can be true without contradiction, and at least one of them must be false.
  - The logical problem was presented strongly by J L Mackie, who contended that the existence of evil as a distinct entity and accepted that a benevolent God and evil possible, traditional theism struggled to find a satisfactory solution to the problem.
  - The strength of this approach is that, if correct, the problem of evil necessitates that we evaluate our conception of God. The downside is that to effectively resolve the problem that is needed is a possible (though preferably plausible) scenario where evil exists alongside evil.

### The Evidential Problem of Evil

- The evidential problem of evil takes a different approach. Rather than using logic to argue that a benevolent, omnipotent God cannot exist alongside evil, it analyses the evidence of evil in the world.
  - This means that although the existence of evil doesn't necessarily disprove theistic God, it makes it highly unlikely.
  - The evidential problem of evil, therefore, builds more on the characteristics of evil. In particular, the fact that evil seems to serve little purpose and is gratuitous (perhaps does not exist).
  - For example, it is hard to reconcile extreme natural disasters, or infant mortality, with a benevolent God, since such forms of evil only seem to exist to cause suffering. It is difficult to see how they help the moral or spiritual growth of human beings (especially those who are innocent).
  - Therefore, such cases strengthen the idea that on the balance of evidence, it is not reasonable to believe that God is either not benevolent or not omnipotent. It is more reasonable to believe that there is a higher good or purpose behind the evil in the world.

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## Theodicies and Responding to the Problem of Evil

- Theodicies are arguments that seek to defend a traditional theistic conception of evil. They are typically presented from a religious perspective and aim to show that an omnipotent God is consistent with the existence of moral and natural suffering.
  - Theodicies vary in scope and application according to the problem they address. Plantinga's 'free will defence' focus primarily on the logical problem of evil, while 'making' theodicies, focus also on the evidential problem of evil.
  - Most, however, attempt to show that despite evil causing pain and suffering, a greater good achieved by its existence that could not be present if evil did not exist.
  - Others, however, take a more theological position, viewing evil as something necessary even if they are ultimately unaware of it. A key example of this kind of theodicy is the 'free will' defence, which sees the ordinary philosophical perspective on evil as a distortion of the true nature of evil.

## Augustine and the Fall

- Augustine, contrary to many people's natural intuitions, argued that evil was a real phenomenon, rather it was simply a privation or absence of good (in his view, a 'privatio boni'). However, even if this is the case, it can still be asked why a benevolent, omnipotent God would create a world that is not perfect, and contains a great absence of good.
  - Augustine in his response draws primarily on biblical evidence, particularly Genesis 1–3. He contended that since God was perfect, any evil in the world could not have originated by his hand.
  - Instead evil arose as a result of the Fall. This was an event where Adam and Eve misused their free will by disobeying God and eating from the tree of knowledge.
  - This disobedience caused human beings to become corrupted; ceasing to be perfect and inheriting original sin. All evil, both natural and moral, is, therefore, the result of free will, whether it be by ordinary human beings or angels.
  - Therefore, God is still omnipotent and benevolent, but human beings themselves and the actions of humankind are responsible for the evil observed in the world.
- The obvious strength of Augustine's theodicy is that it preserves a traditional conception of an omnipotent and benevolent God. However, there are a number of premises in his theodicy that are problematic.
  - The first is that for non-religious individuals, the theodicy is lacking. It relies on a specific event of the Fall, which can't be proven, but that other beings, such as human beings possess original sin.
  - Many would also disagree with the idea of evil being a privation. The natural world, as we experience and intuition, and it can be contended that evil is just as much a part of the world as good.
  - Furthermore, it is not clear that God is removed from the creation of evil. It is a logical contradiction to say that a perfect world could become corrupted without being caused.
  - Similarly, he notes that any corruption of the world must have been willing, as omnipotence is compromised as he could have chosen to not let it occur. If he had, then human beings would not have freely chosen to commit evil acts.
  - Therefore, the Augustinian theodicy faces difficulties in not aligning with the natural world, and internally being incoherent. However, it did lead to more emphasis on the importance of free will as a response to the problem of evil.

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## The Irenaean Theodicy

- Irenaeus puts forward a more holistic idea about the existence of evil, arguing it is necessary in order for human beings to morally and spiritually grow.
  - The central idea then is that God created human beings in his image, but at an immature level. Through their free will in the face of suffering and hardship, they then mature and become more perfect by recognising what is good and in the process, they are able to experience evil.
  - God in this way could not have created human beings as perfect straight away as the experience of evil is necessary to really understand what goodness is, similar to how one cannot know happiness unless they have already experienced sadness.
  - The key aspect to the Irenaean theodicy is that freely attained goodness and perfection is a greater good than if it were simply given. However, to freely attain perfection, it is not simply possible to only experience good; it is necessary to experience evil. Therefore, the existence of evil is necessary for human beings to achieve their chosen perfection.

## Hick and the 'Vale of Soul-Making'

- Hick, a modern philosopher, expanded upon Irenaeus's proposals. He argues that life is not simple pleasure, but the realisation of the greater virtues and character of a person's personality. In this way, human beings are not pets whose lives should be made easy, but complex individuals who require a challenging environment in order to grow.
  - Free will is important, therefore, for a number of reasons. The first is that if humans did not have free will, they would be choosing good over evil due to one's power and capacities, not because of a genuine choice. The second is that, for Hick, human beings cannot have a truly loving relationship with God if it is predetermined by God himself; it has to be entered willingly and freely by both parties.
  - Hick argues there are a number of implications of this idea. One is the concept of soul-making, the belief that God created a distance between human beings and himself, in order for them to choose a relationship with him.
  - However, this distance can't be too great, so that human beings cease to grow and their relationship with God altogether.
  - The second is that there is no afterlife, such as purgatory, which human beings can continue to grow in. Otherwise, human beings who die early without achieving their potential are lost.
  - Hick eventually goes further, though, and puts forward an idea called 'universal salvation', where all will eventually be saved and achieve perfection, if not in this life, then in the next.
- Hick's version of the Irenaean theodicy is more developed, and is influenced by the idea that God is largely non-interventionist, since if God constantly intervened human beings would cease to try to grow of their own accord, and only turn to God for help. Similarly, an interventionist God, for Hick, would seem unnecessarily cruel, since he would have to arbitrarily reward some people, and punish others.
  - These ideas are consistent with the way people experience evil on an everyday basis. While some suffering seems cruel and unnecessary, there are plenty of examples of pain being useful or important.
  - For example, having a tooth pulled might hurt in the moment, but it prevents decay and ensures one has a better quality of life and happiness in the future. What is potentially important is that even evil which seems to be purposeless, may reveal itself to be necessary in the future, either in this life or the next.
  - The strength of Hick's argument or thinking is that there is a clear explanation for natural events such as earthquakes, or religious ideas such as original sin, in order to make sense of soul-making.
  - Furthermore, Hick's ideas are potentially compatible with modern scientific theories. A largely non-interventionist God means that natural laws are upheld as opposed to supernatural events such as the Fall required to make sense of soul-making.

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- There are deeper issues with soul-making theodicies despite its strengths. One is that it leaves a lot unexplained; why is evil and suffering created in the way to serve no purpose and, if God is omnipotent, is it not possible to allow for less evil and suffering?
  - It can be argued that although soul-making theodicies answer the logical with the evidential problem of evil, since plenty of suffering involves no constrains people's freedom. In many cases evil involves individuals to be individuals; how is this fair to those aiming for moral growth?
  - D Z Phillips puts forward the strong criticism that soul-making theodicies rather than 'intrinsic' Theism, that the evil in the world is justified because of the good it produces.
  - The trouble is that this view promotes the attitude that evil is acceptable and that people's lives down to mere instruments or means. Phillips finds this a morally and potentially abhorrent view, since any evil can be justified when evil itself should be viewed as essentially or intrinsically bad.
  - As such, Phillips decries what he argues is an inherited kind of intellectual of evil, and contends that too often theodicies are centred around addressing the evidential problem of evil, without addressing the core issues in framing such as 'God is all-powerful' or 'God is benevolent'.

## Reinterpreting God

- The problem of evil has been a thorn in the side of theists since it was first possible to present solutions to it as a logical problem, critics contend that the implausible ideas about the nature of evil, and the reasons behind it.
  - Part of the reason why the problem has stuck is that evil as a phenomenon but an embedded reality. The evidential problem as such is forceful not large amounts, but because evil readily affects human beings on a core level.
  - Even if there are logical solutions, such solutions do not necessarily fully why evil happens to the deserving and luck to the undeserving. In many problem of evil is philosophically deeper, the evidential problem of evil.
- In light of the problem of evil, it may simply be the case that the nature of God, evil, has been reinterpreted, with either the premise of God's omnipotence or being.
  - Protestant theologians, for example, argue that God is more restricted in power puts forward, with matter having its own power to resist God's influence to that of persuasion. If this is the case then God simply cannot overcome.
  - Others, especially those who are more agnostic, have put forward a deist is an all-powerful being but one who is not personally invested in the world.
  - Such a God, therefore, might create evil as part of a functioning universe persistence or effects upon its inhabitants.
  - While these kinds of solutions are unsatisfactory to many theists, especially traditions, they do provide potentially stronger responses to both the logical evil, even if they are of little comfort to those affected by evil and suffering.

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## Key Figures

### Augustine

St Augustine of Hippo is perhaps the most influential of the early Christian theologians. Not only was he responsible for developing many key teachings surrounding Christ and creation, but he also wrote extensively about a number of philosophical questions and epistemology. In particular, his doctrine of original sin paved the way for the variety of issues, including that of the problem of evil. However, his ideas also had scholars still debating to what extent Augustine held strong views about predestination contradict his belief that humans possessed genuine free will.

### John Hick

Hick was one of the most prominent theologians and philosophers of religion of the 20th century. However, he is also potentially one of the most radical within the tradition. His strong beliefs about the importance of religious pluralism and rejecting many core Christian dogma. Such radicalism also extends to his views on the problem of evil, with Hick developing a theodicy within a universalist context and claiming that suffering exists in order that humans can spiritually grow, eventually achieving union with God in the afterlife.

## Key Texts

### *The City of God* (Augustine)

*The City of God* is one of Augustine's most important works, and was written in response to the sack of Rome in 410, an event many at the time saw as a punishment for Rome converting to Christianity. The work, consisting of 22 books that present the history of humanity as an ongoing conflict between the City of Man (or City of Man) and the City of God. Augustine's *Confessions* were often written with a focus on the individual and Part II (particularly books XI–XIV) where the theodicy is covered, is written with a focus on the universal. Christian monotheism in the face of both philosophical and historical challenges. Remember that for Augustine, the problem of evil was not just an intellectual puzzle but a theological challenge to Christianity itself.

### *Evil and the God of Love* (Hick)

*Evil* is Hick's key work on the problem of evil and contains the most extensive description of his 'soul-making' theodicy. Importantly, he frames this theodicy as not being an attempt to justify evil which implies God has specific obligations to humanity. Rather he views soul-making as a process which explains conceptually and empirically why evil coexists alongside good in the world, and how this can be explained with reference to a God who is characteristically benevolent. The influence of this work should not be understated; while many theologians disagree with the overall structure of Hick's theodicy, many elements of his work and identify spiritual and moral growth as an important consequence of the existence of evil.

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## Year 2 – Advanced Considerations

### The Nature and Attributes of God

The problem of evil partially hinges on how the omnipotence and benevolence of God are understood. As part of your studies in Year 2, you will examine the attributes of God in greater detail. It is as important as it may be that a fuller description of omnipotence might provide clarity on the problem of evil. For example, if omnipotence is taken to mean that God cannot do the logically impossible, then it may simply be that a universe containing natural evil is a logically impossible reality. If, however, God can do the logically impossible, then a universe containing the best possible balance of good and evil. Similarly, if omnipotence is understood as God is unsurpassable in power, then this may mean that evil has its own power greater than any created being.



### Student Checklist

What Do I Know?	No Idea 😞	Some Idea 😊	Good Idea 😄	
What is the difference between moral and natural evil?				
Why does the existence of evil present a potential challenge to traditional monotheism?				
What is the difference between the logical and the evidential problem of evil?				
How do theistic responses attempt to respond to the problem of evil?				
Why is there disagreement about the nature or extent of evil in the world?				
How does the Augustinian theodicy respond to the problem of evil?				
What issues are there with the Augustinian theodicy?				
How does the Irenaean theodicy respond to the problem of evil?				
Why does Hick believe that moral and natural evil are important for spiritual growth?				
Does the logical problem of evil pose a potential challenge to traditional monotheism?				
Should the nature of God be reinterpreted in light of the problem of evil?				

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## Practice Exam-style Question

3. Assess whether soul-making theodicies satisfactorily defend traditional theism from the problem of evil.

### HINTS

In your answer you should:

show a consistent knowledge and understanding of the problem of evil and soul-making theodicies, including:

- the extent of the problem of evil for moral and spiritual growth
- difficulties in assessing the purpose and necessity of evil as part of soul-making
- whether soul-making theodicies can be reconciled with wider religious teaching

Analyse and evaluate different approaches to the religious issues surrounding the problem of evil and whether soul-making theodicies provide a satisfactory explanation of evil and suffering.

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# Mark Schemes

## Levels of Response (AS)

Level	Levels of Response (AO1)
<b>5</b> (13–15 marks)	The student's answer will display very good knowledge and understanding. It will address the question, and will contain a great amount of applicable content applied with a very good understanding of the relevant issues with very good breadth or depth. There will be a precise use of technical language and a good number of references to appropriate scholars, academic opinions or sources of wisdom.
<b>4</b> (10–12 marks)	The student's answer will display good knowledge and understanding. It will address the question, and will contain a good amount of applicable content generally applied with a solid understanding of the relevant issues with moderate depth. There will be a precise use of technical language and a good number of references to appropriate scholars, academic opinions or sources of wisdom.
<b>3</b> (7–9 marks)	The student's answer will display adequate knowledge and understanding. It will address the question, and will contain a fair amount of applicable content and show a general understanding of the relevant issues, though without depth or breadth. There will be some technical language and a few references to appropriate scholars, academic opinions or sources of wisdom.
<b>2</b> (4–6 marks)	The student's answer will display a rudimentary knowledge and understanding of the question, and will contain some applicable content and show a limited understanding of the relevant issues. There will be some technical language and a few references to appropriate scholars, academic opinions or sources of wisdom.
<b>1</b> (1–3 marks)	The student's answer will display a poor knowledge and understanding. It will disregard the question, and will contain little applicable content and show a limited understanding of the relevant issues. There will be minimal technical language and very few references to appropriate scholars, academic opinions or sources of wisdom.

Level	Levels of Response (AO2)
<b>5</b> (13–15 marks)	The student's answer will give a very good analysis and evaluation. It will have a persuasive and coherent argument, with well-developed justification and evidence for the views presented, and will fully and skilfully answer the question. There will be a precise use of technical language and a good number of references to appropriate scholars, academic opinions or sources of wisdom.
<b>4</b> (10–12 marks)	The student's answer will give a good analysis and evaluation. It will have a coherent argument, with some well-developed justification and evidence for the views presented, and will pertinently address the question. There will be a mainly precise use of technical language and a number of references to appropriate scholars, academic opinions or sources of wisdom.
<b>3</b> (7–9 marks)	The student's answer will give an adequate analysis and evaluation. It will have a coherent argument, though it will lack full justification and evidence for the views presented, and will generally address the question. There will be some well-used technical language and partly effective references to appropriate scholars, academic opinions or sources of wisdom.
<b>2</b> (4–6 marks)	The student's answer will give a rudimentary analysis and evaluation. It will have some successful efforts to give a coherent argument, but with minimal justification and evidence for the views presented, and will only partly address the question. There will be some technical language and ineffective references to appropriate scholars, academic opinions or sources of wisdom.
<b>1</b> (1–3 marks)	The student's answer will give a poor analysis and evaluation. It will have a limited argument, and will lack justification and evidence for the views presented, and will only partly address the question. There will be minimal technical language and very few, if any, references to appropriate scholars, academic opinions or sources of wisdom.

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## Levels of Response (A Level)

Level	Levels of Response (AO1)
<b>6</b> (14–16 marks)	The student's answer will display excellent knowledge and understanding. It will show a clear and nuanced focus on the question, and will contain a pertinent and wide-ranging analysis of the issues applied with flair. It will show a very detailed understanding of the relevant issues with very good breadth or depth. There will be a rigorous use of technical language and significant and substantial references to appropriate scholars, academic opinions or sources of wisdom.
<b>5</b> (11–13 marks)	The student's answer will display good knowledge and understanding. It will show a clear focus on the question, and will contain a good amount of applicable content applied appropriately to the relevant issues with very good breadth or depth. There will be a precise use of technical language and a good number of references to appropriate scholars, academic opinions or sources of wisdom.
<b>4</b> (8–10 marks)	The student's answer will display adequate knowledge and understanding. It will show a clear focus on the question, and will contain a fair amount of applicable content and show a general understanding of the relevant issues, though without depth or breadth. There will be some technical language and a few references to appropriate scholars, academic opinions or sources of wisdom.
<b>3</b> (5–7 marks)	The student's answer will display a rudimentary knowledge and understanding of the question, and will contain some applicable content and show a limited understanding of the relevant issues. There will be some technical language and a few references to appropriate scholars, academic opinions or sources of wisdom.
<b>2</b> (3–4 marks)	The student's answer will display a poor knowledge and understanding. It will disregard the question, and will contain little applicable content and show a limited understanding of the relevant issues. There will be minimal technical language and very few references to appropriate scholars, academic opinions or sources of wisdom.
<b>1</b> (1–2 marks)	The student's answer will display a poor knowledge and understanding. It will disregard the question, and will contain little applicable content and show a limited understanding of the relevant issues. There will be minimal technical language and very few references to appropriate scholars, academic opinions or sources of wisdom.

Level	Levels of Response (AO2)
<b>6</b> (21–24 marks)	The student's answer will give an excellent analysis and evaluation. It will have a clear and coherent argument, with clear, well-developed and in-depth justification and evidence presented, and will thoroughly and skilfully answer the question. There will be a precise use of technical language and significant and substantial references to appropriate scholars, academic opinions or sources of wisdom which enhance the answer.
<b>5</b> (17–20 marks)	The student's answer will give a very good analysis and evaluation. It will have a persuasive and coherent argument, with well-developed justification and evidence presented, and will fully and skilfully answer the question. There will be a precise use of technical language and a good number of references to appropriate scholars, academic opinions or sources of wisdom.
<b>4</b> (13–16 marks)	The student's answer will give a good analysis and evaluation. It will have a clear and coherent argument, with some well-developed justification and evidence presented, and will pertinently address the question. There will be a mainly precise use of technical language and a good number of references to appropriate scholars, academic opinions or sources of wisdom.
<b>3</b> (9–12 marks)	The student's answer will give an adequate analysis and evaluation. It will have a clear and coherent argument, though it will lack justification and evidence for the views presented, and will generally address the question. There will be a mainly precise use of technical language and a good number of references to appropriate scholars, academic opinions or sources of wisdom.
<b>2</b> (5–8 marks)	The student's answer will give a rudimentary analysis and evaluation. It will have a clear and coherent argument, but with minimal justification and evidence for the views presented, and will only partly address the question. There will be some technical language and a few references to appropriate scholars, academic opinions or sources of wisdom.
<b>1</b> (1–4 marks)	The student's answer will give a poor analysis and evaluation. It will have a clear and coherent argument, and will lack justification and evidence for the views presented, and will only partly address the question. There will be minimal technical language and very few, if any, references to appropriate scholars, academic opinions or sources of wisdom.

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# Indicative Content

## 1. 'Belief in the soul as a spiritual substance is nothing more than a category error'

**(AO1) Students may describe and explain the ideas below:**

- The soul within traditional religious thought has often been interpreted to be the immaterial and immortal aspect of a human being.
- This means that if souls do exist, they are both material and spiritual substances.
- This philosophical idea of the mind may be partially equivalent to religious ideas about the soul.
- This form of substance dualism helps explain how human beings can persist beyond physical death in order for religious ideas about the afterlife to be meaningful.
- It also helps explain consciousness as a phenomenon; the soul may result in the unity of human experience.
- Descartes' arguments for the conceivability and indivisibility of the mind reinforce the idea that there is a separate aspect of the human self that is immaterial and persistent.
- However, the existence of the soul is challenged by materialism, the idea that everything is made of a kind of substance; the material of physical.
- This position is supported by empirical investigation; the soul has not been located as a physical substance, and it is possible that it is impossible to verify or prove.
- Furthermore, increasingly the action of the mind is explained by scientific theories of the brain.
- It is possible, therefore, as Ryle claims, that substance dualism is the result of a category error: the way one can talk about the soul or mind as a separate substance may mislead one into thinking that this could be possible in reality.

**(AO2) Students may analyse and evaluate the question through the arguments below:**

**Belief in the soul as a spiritual substance is a category error:**

- There is no empirical evidence for the existence of the soul, whereas there is evidence for the brain being responsible for human behaviour, thought and identity.
- Descartes' conceivability and indivisibility arguments are flawed; just because we can conceive of the soul does not mean it exists.
- It is difficult to explain how the soul and body interact; how can an immaterial substance interact with a material one? Where does this interaction take place in the human person?
- The soul is more appropriate when it is metaphorical, describing the big ideas and values that guide the actions and abilities of a person.
- Phenomena such as consciousness may just be the result of complex interactions between the physical parts of the brain and do not necessarily require a soul for their explanation.

**Belief in the soul as a spiritual substance is not a category error:**

- There are other forms of religious evidence for the soul, and it forms an important part of our understanding how human beings might persist in the afterlife and be joined with loved ones.
- Ryle does not necessarily establish that there isn't a soul; just it is not possible to prove its existence from philosophical speculation alone. It may be that a spiritual substance fills important gaps in explanations for religious phenomena.
- While it might be difficult to explain interaction, it is not necessarily impossible. Perhaps God, or another medium, plays a role in controlling interactions between the material and the immaterial.
- Scientific and materialist explanations for phenomena such as consciousness are incomplete. It is uncertain whether it is possible to reduce such phenomena into material terms. It may be that a spiritual substance provides the simplest and best explanation.

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2. To what extent is it possible to infer the existence of God from the appearance of design in the universe?

**(AO1) Students may describe and explain the ideas below:**

- It is often thought the world displays evidence of design: a functional order and complexity that could not have arisen by chance.
- Paley uses the analogy of a watch to illustrate his idea; if one came across a watch on a stone, one would clearly infer that the watch was created by an intelligent being rather than the latter.
- If the world does display evidence of design, then it is possible to infer that it is the result of a designer.
- If it is the case, it can be contended that the designer must possess properties that allow it to design and create the functional order and complexity in the universe. If it is the case, then it may be possible to infer the designer is omnipotent, benevolent, etc.
- Different parts of the world may show design; for some it is spatial order, while for others, as Swinburne, it is lawlike regularities in nature.
- Others have criticised this inference; Hume, for example, questions whether it is reasonable to infer the existence of a designer when human beings have no experience of world design.
- It could be possible there are multiple designers, and it is difficult to conclude that the designer must have specific properties such that it could be identified with the God of traditional monotheism.
- Furthermore, there are scientific challenges to the appearance of design; in modern science, for example, the theory of evolution explains why beings are adapted to their environment.
- It may be that the appearance of design is the result of human projection, rather than an objective feature of the world.

**(AO2) Students may analyse and evaluate the question through the arguments below:**

**It is possible to infer the existence of God from the appearance of design:**

- The inference to a designer does not have to be based on simple arguments from probability, but rather abductive reasoning from the functional order and complexity in the world.
- Design is not simply a matter of spatial order, but, as Swinburne notes, the laws of the universe which scientific enquiry cannot offer an explanation for.
- The inference to God is a strong explanation for design, even if other explanations are possible, especially when considered alongside other religious evidence.
- Plenty of theories, including scientific ones, are constructed about the beginning of the world, even if human beings have not experienced it. Hume is wrong in supposing his causal principle invalidates the teleological argument.
- Evolution refutes simple versions of the teleological argument, but it may be that evolution is also an intelligent principle designed by God to ensure organisms are adapted to their environments.

**It is not possible to infer the existence of God from the appearance of design:**

- It is not clear that God is the best explanation for the appearance of design when compared to theories such as evolution provide simpler and better explanations for why the world has the functional order and complexity.
- It may be that scientific enquiry can provide an explanation for the laws of nature, and thus Swinburne's argument is premature and potentially guilty of the gaps style problem.
- Assigning properties to a potential designer is anthropomorphic; there is no reason to think the designer should fit human expectations about power, simplicity or goodness.
- Hume's analysis of the causal principle does not invalidate speculation about the existence of God, but shows that there must be relevant empirical evidence for a theory. In the case of the teleological argument, the empirical evidence for design is lacking.

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3. Assess whether soul-making theodicies satisfactorily defend tradition the problem of evil.

(AO1) Students may describe and explain the ideas below:

- Soul-making theodicies put forward an explanation for the existence of evil based on the potential contribution to a greater good for human beings.
- Often called the Irenaean theodicy, it argues that evil exists in order that human beings grow morally and spiritually.
- It posits, therefore, that human beings were created in the image of God, but not in the full state. Experience of both good and evil is necessary in order for them to achieve growth and spiritual union with God.
- It is often seen as a form of the soul-making theodicy, claiming that human beings need to be in a challenging environment in order for their decisions to be meaningful.
- For Hick, God maintains an epistemic distance and is largely non-interventionist. Human beings have to choose to grow and be united with him.
- This growth takes place both in this life and the afterlife, with all human beings eventually achieving salvation. This ensures that suffering and evil have a purpose, and can be justified with an omnipotent and benevolent God.
- In particular, it provides an explanation for natural evil, which many traditional theodicies successfully account for.
- However, critics argue that soul-making theodicies still fail to explain why some evils appear to be unnecessary and often too extreme for the purpose it might serve.
- Similarly, it can be questioned whether God is benevolent if he is willing to use evil instrumentally to achieve certain aims. Usually benevolence is characterised by a willingness to eliminate evil as an intrinsic reality.
- Therefore, there are broader questions about whether soul-making theodicies respond to both the logical and evidential problems of evil.

(AO2) Students may analyse and evaluate the strength of the arguments by considering:

**Soul-making theodicies are successful:**

- Soul-making theodicies offer a convincing explanation to the logical problem of evil by plausibly arguing that evil is a necessary condition for human beings to achieve perfection by their own free will, rather than simply being created perfect.
- It provides everyday explanations for why natural evils occur, and with epistemic distance, why God cannot necessarily intervene or provide a clear purpose for all the different evils human beings encounter.
- Soul-making theodicies aren't obliged to answer why certain specific forms of evil are necessary; the creation of a lawlike world has to accommodate different kinds of evils and moral evils which aren't easily given specific purposes or explanations.
- Soul-making theodicies have to be understood within a universalist context; salvation is only achieved eventually, more so for those who make the right choices in the face of evil throughout their lives.

**Soul-making theodicies are unsuccessful:**

- It is unclear whether a benevolent God would endorse instrumental evil in order to achieve a moral end, especially when this kind of view of good is often rejected by many people. Rather, a benevolent God would seek to eliminate suffering due to it being an intrinsic evil.
- Soul-making theodicies are not a convincing explanation for all natural evils, especially when so much natural evil is purposeless, and God has a direct hand in creating it.
- Soul-making theodicies might offer a general account, but the evidential problem remains from aggregating instances of senseless evil. It is perfectly reasonable to ask how theodicies might account for an event such as the Holocaust, which many regard as a senseless evil.
- Universalism potentially raises more issues; if everyone achieves salvation eventually, do we then require experience of evil?

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