



Course Companion

for A Level Year 2 OCR
Religious Studies

Component 3:
Developments in Christian Thought

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Teacher’s Introduction

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

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

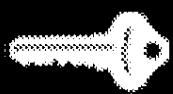
I hope you enjoy working through this resource and that it benefits both you and your students throughout the academic year.

Stretch and Challenge



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

March 2020



KEY TERMINOLOGY IN RELIGIOUS AND THEOLOGY

Exclusivism	The belief that only one religion is authoritative in teaching to salvation.
Inclusivism	The belief that while one religion is authoritative or true, it has some partial insight.
Pluralism	The belief that no religions have a claim to absolute truth and all have equally valid claims to truth.
Biblical Realism	The view that the Bible is an authentic source of true knowledge.
Total Replacement	A model of exclusivism where the beliefs of a particular faith are the only true ones, other religion being regarded as false.
Partial Replacement	A model of exclusivism or inclusivism which holds other religions have some truth about salvation, but not the complete truth.
Dominus Iesus	A theological declaration by the Catholic Church which affirmed its exclusive claim to the knowledge of salvation, while acknowledging truths in other religions.
Solus Christus	A Protestant belief meaning 'by Christ alone' that holds that only through Christ can one achieve salvation.
Christomonism	A charge levelled at theologians who put too much emphasis on Christ alone towards salvation, ignoring the work of the Holy Spirit.
The Real	The ultimate reality, truth or God that John Hick argues lies behind all religions. The term is primarily used to include other religions, such as Hinduism, which affirm the existence of a God or gods.
Kantian Epistemology	A field of epistemology developed by Kant that, among other things, divides between rationalism and empiricism, positing the distinction between phenomena and noumena to describe the external world.
The Mystery of Salvation	A Church of England report released in 1995 that sets out how the Church maintains that salvation is primarily obtainable through Christ.
Extra Ecclesiam Nulla Salus	A phrase meaning 'outside of the Church there is no salvation', emphasizing the importance of the Church in allowing humans to achieve salvation.
Noumena	A 'thing-in-itself' that exists behind knowledge obtainable through the senses.
Phenomena	The objects that appear to oneself through one's senses and are therefore knowable.
Global Theology	A branch of a theology that fairly discusses and weighs up the merits and demerits of the inherent bias towards Christianity or other religions.
Demythologising	The process of analysing the historical Christ and his teachings, stripping away the theology built up since his ministry and death.
Anonymous Christians	A term Rahner suggested for people who possibly share the Christian faith but do not directly affirm him as saviour or absolute path to salvation.
Historical Jesus	The figure of Jesus that can reasonably be historically verified, as opposed to the truths of faith later affirmed by the Christian Church.

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KEY TERMINOLOGY IN RELIGIOUS AND SOCIETY

Multifaith Societies	Societies that have people living within them of numerous different religions.
Interfaith Dialogue	Discussion, debate and engagement between different religions to understand the differences of their teachings.
Asylum Seekers	People fleeing their home for reasons of war, oppression or persecution and seeking refuge in other countries.
Nostra Aetate	An important 1965 declaration by the Catholic Church aimed at promoting understanding between Catholicism and other religions.
Redemptoris Missio	A 1984 encyclical by Pope John Paul II detailing how the Catholic Church should be sensitive to other people's beliefs during missionary work.
Sharing the Good News of Faith	A 2010 report by the Church of England focusing on the importance of sharing the good news while being aware of other people's beliefs.
Interfaith Network	A UK organisation set up to help facilitate interfaith dialogue and understanding between different religions.
Scriptural Reasoning	A practice of communal textual analysis used by theologians from different faiths to come to a greater understanding about their beliefs and the relationship between their respective beliefs.

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KEY TERMINOLOGY IN GENDER AND

Gender Roles	The view that there are separate natural or God-given roles for men and women.
Patriarchy	A system or systems within a state/society under which men hold power compared to women.
Misogyny	A held prejudice against, hatred of or contempt against women.
Liberal Feminism	Within theology, a field of feminism that aims to show Christianity as patriarchal or misogynistic and that within the Bible and Christianity is the potential for religious gender equality.
Reconstructionist Feminism	A field of feminism that argues granting women technical equality to erase patriarchal elements of religion or society. Rather than accept the patriarchal structures prevalent within society, it seeks change and true gender equality.
Radical Feminism	Within theology, radical feminism is a field that either expects gender equality within Christianity, or argues elements of Christianity are required to dismantle patriarchal structures within the Church.
Marginalisation	The treatment of a group of people, e.g. women, as insignificant or not worthy of attention.
Mulieris Dignitatem	An apostolic letter by Pope John Paul II, published in 1988, outlining the Church's views on the roles and dignity of women against the nature of gender within society.
Theotokos	A title given to Mary within some Christian denominations.
The Other	The term De Beauvoir uses to describe how women have been defined throughout history.
Naturalistic Feminism	A field of feminist thought that emphasises the differences between men and women, the importance of natural elements of women's experience and that childbearing and motherhood are vital in understanding how women experience the world.

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KEY TERMINOLOGY IN GENDER AND

Diachronic Exegesis	The study of the Bible as it developed over time and history as it exists in the present.
Sophia	The goddess of wisdom, often worshipped within esoteric Christianity. In traditional Christianity she is understood as an expression of God with some identifying her as synonymous with the second person of the Trinity. She features extensively in the wisdom literature of the Old Testament and Ecclesiastes, as well as apocryphal works such as the Gospel of Sophia.
Total Rape Victim	Daly's description of Mary as the person, devoid of agency, who is the part of the virgin birth.
Golden Thread	A theme or teaching of prophetic liberation that Ruether identifies as a Christian common thread underneath its various culturally conditioned expressions.
Accidental Male	The term Ruether uses to illustrate how Jesus's gender is understood and how it affects his teachings.
Unholy Trinity	Rape, war and genocide; the three practices that Daly argues are the result of patriarchal influences throughout history.
Phallogocentric Power	The term Daly uses to refer to the concentration of male power in the Christian Church.
Scapegoat Psychology	The mentality or attitude where women are made to adopt in Christianity, where they are blamed for society's ills and come to believe themselves to be the cause of their own suffering.
Pirate	The term Daly uses to describe how she takes back or recovers myths distorted by the patriarchal elements of Christianity.
Hermeneutic of Suspicion	A term used by Paul Ricoeur to describe the process of analyzing a text to understand the author's intentions or motives.

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KEY TERMINOLOGY IN THE CHALLENGE OF SECULARISM

Secularism	The belief that religion should be separated from political and social life, and that all religions are equal under law, with no special preferences given to any one.
Ego	The organised, rational part of the human mind that mediates between the id, superego and one's perceived reality.
Superego	The cultural, critical part of the human mind that reflects societal beliefs and ideals.
Id	The instincts and drives of the human mind towards basic desires and pleasures.
Wish-fulfilment	Freud's view that human religious beliefs (and dreams) are wish-fulfillments of desires repressed by ordinary thought (the ego and superego).
Guilt	For Freud, an emotive struggle between the ego, superego and id. It arises from ordinary actions and often results in anxiety. It is often prominent in Christianity.
Neurosis	An excessive, irrational obsession often resulting in depressive or odd behaviour.
Totemism	The process of worshipping or elevating a sacred object or animal.
Totem Feast	Ceremonies focused around the consumption (or other taboos) of the totem. Freud holds the totem-feast is symbolised in present-day religious rituals.
Memetics	A theory describing how units of culture (memes) can be passed from person to person via evolutionary mechanisms.
God Hypothesis	The term Dawkins uses to describe what he views as a scientific hypothesis about the existence or non-existence of God.
Genetic Fallacy	A fallacy where the truth or falsity of an argument is based on its origin or premises rather than on the merit of the argument itself.
Creationism	The belief that the world was caused by an act of divine creation, in contrast to scientific theories about the origins of life and the world.
Selective Bias	The selection of arguments or data for a proposition that ignores the full possible range of information or perspectives.
Psychic Determinism	The view that all human mental actions are determined by unconscious forces or beliefs.
Illusion	A false idea, perception or understanding of an ordinary situation.

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KEY TERMINOLOGY IN LIBERATION AND MARX

Liberation Theology	A Christian movement that developed primarily in Latin America which uses Marx and other political thinkers to develop the Church and a preferential option for the poor.
Ecclesial Base Communities	Semi-autonomous congregations or groups of Christians that, in addition to meeting for Bible study, work to improve the lives of their communities.
Evangelii Gaudium	A 2013 apostolic exhortation by Pope Francis that focuses on the social obligations the Church and ordinary Christians have in the modern missionary world.
Preferential Option for the Poor	A Catholic doctrine which emphasises the importance of caring for those who are marginalised and/or in poverty.
Alienation	A Marxist concept that described how people are separated from their work and the fruits of their labours.
Exploitation	The unfair treatment of someone so that one can benefit from their work.
False Consciousness	A term retroactively applied to Marx; it describes the state of mind about their exploitation by their employers.
Proletarian Revolution	The revolution by the proletariat (poor) against the bourgeoisie to end their exploitation.
Underside of History	A term used to describe how the poor have traditionally been treated throughout the history of the world.
Orthopraxis	An area of theology that focuses on the right kinds of actions in their lives.
Orthodoxy	An area of theology that focuses on the right kinds of beliefs that should focus on in their lives.
Capitalism	A system of governance and economics that puts forward private control major areas of trade and industry.
Socialism	A model of political and social organisation that argues that the industry should be state controlled, and there should be an equal wealth between the rich and the poor.
Communism	A model of political and social organisation that argues that the industry should be state controlled, with workers receiving only what they need from enterprises.
Latifundia	The traditional semi-feudal system of agriculture that existed in Latin America.
Structural Sin	The sin that is present in, and arises as a result of, unjust social structures.
Reversal	A Christian concept that details how in the coming or present age there will be a shift in wealth and fortune from the rich to the poor.
Lay Catechist	A non-ordained, baptised individual appointed to lead mass for Christians without a parish or local vicar/priest.

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4A: RELIGIOUS PLURALISM AND 1

What you will learn in this section:

- The different approaches to, and models of, Christianity, including:
- Christian exclusivism and the view that only Christian teaching grants true kn to salvation.
 - Inclusivism and the view that other religions can offer a partial insight into kn reference to the theology of Karl Rahner.
 - Pluralism and the view that no religion can offer exclusive access to knowledge to the theology of John Hick.
 - Discussion about whether pluralism can be reconciled with traditional Christi difficulties with each approach to religious belief.

Starter Activity:

Look back across your Year 1 studies. Do you think that Christians are justified in access to truth about salvation? Note down a few of your ideas and compare progress to this section.

Key Thinker	
Name	John Hick
Born	1922
Died	2012
Key texts	<i>God and the Universe of Faiths</i> (1995)
Why are they important?	Hick is perhaps simultaneously one of the most influential and of religion of the twentieth century. Although Protestant, he ar should be thought of as myth and other contentious ideas such and pluralism should be adopted by Christians.
Did you know?	Hick in the late 1950s accepted a place at Cornell University in becoming more liberal at that time and he faced severe critic academics, with many even accusing him of heresy for not ac virgin birth. This hostility eventually led to him coming back to Cambridge University in the early 1960s.

Introduction – What Authority does Christianity Possess?

The history of religion is filled with prophets and thinkers claiming that their faith knowledge or grants the only means to salvation. Moreover, there have been cou the inevitable arguments these claims bring about, and in the modern world, we a any individual who claims to have exclusive access to the truth. However, most re hold that they equally do not possess the access to knowledge or salvation. Consi faiths in the world, both major and minor, this creates a distinct philosophical issu individuals approach the claim their religion makes and how can these be reconc of other belief systems.

This section will look at these questions in depth, examining three models of relig **inclusivism** and **pluralism**. While the main focus of these models will be Christian applied to almost any other religion, so long as it maintains some position about t its claims. Similarly, while the issues analysed will seem quite abstract, they do ha As you will study in the next section, the ways in which religions portray their trut about converting others, communicating with other religions and interpreting the religions are able to reconcile with each other is often directly dependent upon th the validity or reasonability of competing claims. However, before we get into suc analyse the mentality that has dominated Christian thought throughout much of i

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Exclusivism

In the context of Christian thought, exclusivism holds that only faith in Jesus Christ (God) can grant the means to salvation and eternal life, a position sometimes called **salvation by faith alone**. A consequence of this mentality is that, for exclusivist Christians, other religions do not provide knowledge of salvation and may only lead an individual towards condemnation. Throughout the history of Christianity, this was the view that most theologians held. Over time, however, attitudes have shifted at various times. Many of the figures you studied in Year 1, such as Augustine, Calvin and Luther, adopted some variation of exclusivism, some more pointedly than others. For those who do not have faith in Christ will be punished, regardless of the lives they lead.

It is important to note that such exclusivist beliefs have not always been a common feature of religion, particularly for polytheistic religions. The emergence of Christianity and its subsequent dominance was partially because Roman-oriented paganism was decidedly more pluralist in its approach to gods and religious beliefs of other cultures in its own right. During the conquest of other cultures, the history of Christianity there were many heretical movements which combined Christianity with other religious beliefs. Whether it be Gnosticism or Manichaeism, the journey towards a more exclusive Christianity was paved by theologians explicitly rejecting some movements as heresy and maintaining others, even if they had developed out of important philosophical concerns.

Nevertheless, it is also important to note that there are potentially strong theoretical arguments based on the nature of Christian beliefs themselves. In fact, exclusivism as a whole can be seen as a natural conclusion of believing Christ to hold the truth or means to salvation. If the Christian faith is distinctiveness of Christian teaching means that no other religion can be equally true, then exclusivism is a belief. Furthermore, many other key Christian doctrines arguably tacitly support exclusivism, such as beliefs about predestination (single or double) and election, in positing that God predestines individuals to follow the 'right' path and some who will choose the 'wrong' path to salvation.

Accordingly, many thinkers who endorse exclusivism also hold the Bible to be an authentic source of true knowledge about God and salvation (**biblical realism**). If the Bible were thought to contain significant errors then it would equally affect the claim that only Christianity holds the means to salvation and it might be possible for other religions or belief systems to criticise the foundations of Christian thought. To deny exclusivism in Christianity is often seen by proponents as a denial of the veracity of scripture itself. Yet, it is also worth noting that exclusivist attitudes do not always follow from this principle. Karl Barth, whose thought is sometimes thought of as endorsing exclusivism, famously warned against upholding the Bible as infallible, holding such a view to be a form of bibliolatry. However, even Barth held that the Bible was still an authentic witness to God. If such, it would be wrong to categorise Barth as a critic of scripture-focused theology.

Overall, maintaining an exclusivist attitude towards Christian belief is arguably not a neutral position. For proponents it is justified by a prior belief in the truth of Christ and his teachings. However, there are also key theological difficulties in reconciling exclusivist thinking with traditional Christian teaching. For example, it has often been criticised for the explicit (or at least implicit) idea that those who do not have faith in Christ will be punished. This stands in contrast with many of Jesus's teachings in the Gospels, which seem to emphasise the importance of good ethical conduct over religious observance. In this context this issue is still debated. Some argue that under single predestination, exclusivism does not necessarily entail condemnation for those outside of the Christian faith. R C Sproul, for example, argued that only those who would willingly turn their backs on Jesus knowing he is the path to salvation are condemned, not those who are ignorant of Christian teaching or are innocent in their unbelief.

There are numerous other issues with exclusivism that will be exposed as we study the history of Christianity accordingly. What is important to remember is that even if exclusivism can be justified as a reasonable attitude to hold, it is still not necessarily reflective of biblical teaching overall, and there are significant disagreements as to what Jesus and other prophets envisioned in their discussion of the Kingdom of God. However, exclusivist beliefs are still common among many Christians today, lay and clergy alike. In part, we will discuss some different modern positions on the nature and authority of the Bible.

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Biblical Evidence for Exclusivism

The biblical evidence for exclusivism is often difficult to assess. Throughout the A Level course, we have studied many aspects of Christian teaching that quite easily align with exclusivist thinking. One who accepts Christian dogma to view the Bible as supporting it. For example, Christian belief in the prospect that human beings can only be saved specifically by God's redemptive work through Jesus Christ, and not by any other figure. Your studies into Augustine and Calvin certainly fit this picture and may also be seen as supporting original sin as supporting broadly exclusivist beliefs. Similarly, beliefs about the **atonement** are often detailed with the view in mind that Christ is the absolute saviour of humanity. Christianity itself as a religion is informed by a vast number of other religious and philosophical traditions.

Perhaps the greatest support for exclusivism, however, comes from key passages in the New Testament. Proponents often refer to John 14:6, which states 'I am the way, the truth, and the life. No one comes to the Father except through Me'. John 3:16 carries a similar sentiment, proclaiming that 'whoever believes in him should not perish but have eternal life'. At first glance both passages appear to support an exclusivist attitude as they clearly state that only Christ provides the means to salvation. However, a more complex story emerges when we examine the context of these passages and the historical accuracy of the text.

One common argument is that many of these exclusivist passages come from the Gospel of John, which is part of the **Synoptic Gospels**. John was probably written much later than the Synoptic Gospels, which provide a more detailed picture of Jesus's ministry. Some theologians argue this is due to the author drawing on earlier traditions, while others think that the author added in their own ideas that reflected the beliefs of the community they were part of. As we will see in the section on inclusivism, there are other biblical passages that suggest all non-Christians cannot be saved and these have to be taken into account when considering the kind of attitude to hold. In fact, St Paul himself discusses these issues in Romans 11, where he discusses the fates of those who cannot hear Jesus's teachings, reflecting that even in the early Church, the potentially exclusionary nature of the religion was not set in stone.

The Church and Exclusivism

When looking at the history of exclusivism it is also important to note the role of the Church – for instance, the Catholic Church – in adopting the principle of **extra ecclesiam nulla salus** ('outside the Church'). This means that it is not enough simply to follow the teachings of God. One has to be a member of the Christian community, who, in the eyes of many, is the Church. Salvation is through tradition and worship. However, the nature of the 'Church' also varies between denominations. For Catholics, it refers specifically to the Roman Catholic body of the clergy whose authority can be traced back to Jesus through apostolic succession. For other denominations, the 'Church' often has a looser definition, referring instead to the community of Christians around the world. Yet, regardless of the definition of Church, the principle of exclusivism is often seen as essential in order to give meaning to practices such as baptism or the Eucharist.

Note though that it is not essential to subscribe to such a view and be an exclusivist. Many Christians believe that salvation is mediated through Christ without referring to the Church but beliefs in exclusivism are a key part of denominational discourse throughout much of Christian history and they have been central to many declarations. In the declaration *Dominus Iesus* (2000), Pope John Paul II reiterates strongly that the Catholic Church is the only way to guarantee salvation through Christ. He also firmly rejects any form of religious pluralism or openness to other faiths, stating that 'what is true and holy in these religions' is not sufficient. Therefore, although the declaration contains inclusivist elements, it does contain many exclusivist attitudes, particularly in matters of salvation, where non-Christians are 'gravely deficient'.

One final important point is that although many denominations still maintain exclusivist views, they now regard each other as **heretical**. Instead they often talk of **schismatic** differences, meaning they generally avoid declaring any followers to be misguided about the means to salvation. While many might claim to be the true 'Church', in reality there is often much more agreement than is acknowledged about key issues.

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Modern Theology and Exclusivism

Before we look at the views of specific theologians, it is worth outlining the differences present in Christian thought. The theologian Paul Knitter, for example, divides exclusivism into three forms. The first he titles **total replacement**. This model holds that Christian faith completely replaces the knowledge and insights of other religions, in effect making them meaningless. This is the most exclusivism one can encounter as it completely negates the ideas and beliefs of other religions. It potentially presents the view that religion or spirituality itself provides no natural or spiritual truth, true or real. The total replacement model is perhaps most closely found in the theocentric view we will explore later in this section, believed that if Jesus was the only path to salvation, then all other human constructs and holds no inherent value.

However, the second model Paul Knitter identifies is that of **partial replacement**. religions might share partially in the truths offered by Christianity but does hold to no concrete path towards reconciliation with God and salvation. Partial replacement but stops short of claiming that those of other religions can be saved or possess in means to salvation. Therefore those adopting such a model can acknowledge the with other religions while still maintaining the primacy of the Christian faith as a model can be broadly located within the position of the Catholic Church. more inclusive position in recent years, still maintains that only the Christian Church

So which modern thinkers can be classified as exclusivist? One apologist for such a position has been Hendrik Kraemer, a lay theologian who worked extensively in mission work in Africa. The starting point for his exclusivism is not a wholesale belief in Christ as saviour, but the fundamental dissimilarities of world religions. He argues that regardless of whether (for example, Abrahamic faiths) share moral or spiritual beliefs, they all profess the need for a saviour, and accordingly there are key differences between religions that cannot be reconciled in terms of truth and salvation. Therefore, Kraemer does not approach the question of religious pluralism from a Christocentric position. His main point is that individuals cannot pick out beliefs and practices as points of contact or connection from a Christian perspective. This reduces other religions to fragments of teachings when they are whole belief systems and ways of life that have to be taken as a whole. To engage in trite inclusivism is to either misrepresent the nature of other religions or to ignore what they present.

Kraemer's exclusivist position holds a certain impartial appeal. As we will explore, pluralists, often struggle to identify similarities or connections between religions and their differences. However, there are other potential modern theological arguments for exclusivism that are Christocentric in nature. We've previously mentioned that Karl Barth has often been accused of an exclusivist mentality, due to his heavily Christological approach and scepticism of other religions, which posit that human beings can, of their own accord, observe or understand God without the aid of an innate sense of his existence. However, the extent to which Barth can be classified as an exclusivist is a matter of debate within theology, and some contend that his ideas about the free will of other religions are an inclusivist understanding of his work.

We can elaborate on this more. Barth argues that the revelation given by Jesus Christ, for Barth, presents the true path to salvation, and if this is accepted, accepted that the other religions can only mislead. From this idea, Barth develops that human wisdom is contrary to revelation, which comes from faith in Christ and that for Barth, is a dynamic event, sent from God through the Word that is mediated through the scripture as witness to Christ or **ecclesia**, the preaching of this witness. Religion, for Barth, which concerns itself with sanctification through various rituals and rites that are not based on the Word of God, do not help us understand God better. However, since revelation is freely given by God, there are no barriers between God and human beings. This means that religion itself inherently possesses no value. Christian religious practices possess value is because they engage with the revelation of God, whereas the practices of other religions, because they do not engage with this revelation, are to be meaningless.

This background is important to appreciate when evaluating whether Barth is exclusive. On the surface, it might appear that Barth is clearly endorsing exclusivism. If other religions have contact with God then surely this means that Barth is naturally presenting Christianity as the only path to other faiths? Yet the situation is not this clear-cut. Although Barth presents Christianity as the means to salvation, his theology also emphasises the freedom of God's grace and human intellect. For, acknowledging that religion is human work also means, for Barth, that we have no real knowledge about God's plan for salvation or the reasons why God chooses one way that he does. Therefore, human beings cannot make judgements about who is saved or such decisions or actions by God are ultimately unknowable. In practice, this means that it is not out of the question that those of other religions possess some path to salvation, even if it is not the one known to human beings.

Some of Barth's critics have suggested that his thought here slides into **universalism**, where all human beings will be saved. However, this is perhaps misconstruing Barth's thought. A better view is that Barth is somewhat **agnostic** about the nature and dimensions of salvation. For, while God has given by God through the revelations presented to human beings, it is equally not possible for human beings to judge themselves the reasons for which God acts. For some thinkers, this places Barth in the middle of the possibility of other religions sharing in some truths about God and salvation and the

Ultimately, what discussion of Kraemer and Barth reveals is that exclusivism can be seen from different perspectives and does not simply arise from dogmatic belief in one faith. It can be seen in the differences between various religions as well as the inability of human beings to understand the nature of salvation. Moreover, it may be that there is not a clear dividing line between exclusivism and inclusivism. The partial replacement model, for example, comes very close to acknowledging that other religions have some truth, while even Barth's naturally exclusivist presentation of religion does not completely deny other religious beliefs. However, this closeness, for some, is a more clear indication of an untenable position. Thus, in the next part of this section, we turn our gaze towards whether it can provide a better account of modern Christian belief.

Discussion Activity:

Is exclusivism an outdated approach to Christianity? Discuss in pairs or small groups. What is right for Christians to hold that they have exclusive access to the truth or means of salvation?

Inclusivism

Inclusivism, in respect to Christian belief, refers to the view that although Christianity is the path to salvation, other religions can possess partial knowledge of this means. Typically, this view holds that it is possible for non-Christians to be saved, even if their respective religions cannot provide the full truth of their teachings alone. As such, in comparison to exclusivists, Christian inclusivists are more open to the idea of election, believing that Jesus died for all of humanity's sins, not just those who follow Christianity. Similarly, inclusivists may also have a more positive disposition towards other religions, believing that multiple religions can share in knowledge of God and salvation, this implies there is a common ground between God and human beings separate from revelation in Jesus Christ. Perhaps this can be seen as a broader attempt to reconcile the idea of a benevolent God with the exclusivist view of faith. For, if God is all-loving, it would be an unintuitive proposition to claim that the people of other religions are condemned, even if they led a good life. As such, many have attempted to provide accounts of how those living good moral lives might be saved despite the beliefs they hold.

However, Christian inclusivists may have a variety of different viewpoints, even if they agree that other religions possess important theological insights. Where inclusivism in particular is that it avoids some of the pitfalls of exclusivist attitudes while not sliding into pluralism, it maintains the significance of revelation through Jesus Christ. Furthermore, inclusivism is more of a healthy way of encouraging interfaith dialogue and communication between different religions, as it implies that, at the minimum, they might share some teachings or beliefs. In fact, many churches have been seen to move towards more inclusivist positions in the last century.

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many key theologians, such as Karl Rahner and Gavin D'Costa. Nevertheless, before we consider the ideas these thinkers present, it is worth considering how inclusivist attitudes may be justified by considering the history and nature of the Christian faith.

Inclusivism and the Development of Christianity

We noted in the section on exclusivism that there are some significant Bible passages that suggest that only Jesus Christ holds the keys to salvation. Yet, at the same time, it was also questioned whether this might be interpreted in light of not only the historical development of the Christian faith but also the intentions of the Gospel writers. This debate is particularly important for inclusivists as an exclusivist attitude towards Christian teachings is not coherent when one considers the relationship between Christianity and other religions. For a start, we can note that Jesus himself was Jewish. In his ministry it is likely that he saw himself as a Jew, leading a renewal of, or break in, Judaism. As such, Jesus often refers to Jewish law, the prophets of the Old Testament and the Scriptures in his teachings to help those listening understand their meaning and relevance to the Christian faith.

More transparently, it is possible to note that most Christians refer to the Old Testament as the Word of God, a theological insight into the nature of God. If this is the case, then how would it not be reasonable to suggest that those who share the same scripture and teachings with Christians, to possess some knowledge of God? Without an inclusivist position on the nature of the Christian faith, it may be impossible to justify why non-Christians and Christians are not misguided both in the use of the Old Testament and other scriptures. If Jesus is viewed as an important prophet, especially in studies of eschatology, and if the similarities between Christianity and other religions provide grounds to believe that they may do possess partial knowledge of God and salvation.

This idea is not just limited to religious thought. Christian theology throughout history has drawn on areas of philosophical thought to influence its ideas. Some historians, for example, have noted the influence of the Jewish philosopher Philo, who synthesised Jewish teaching and Greek philosophy, on the development of the concept of the Logos. Perhaps more significantly, Aquinas and other medieval theologians drew on Aristotle to help illuminate fields such as natural law, while Platonism provided a significant influence on many early Christian theologians. An exclusivist, as such, may well struggle to justify why other philosophies could not possess certain knowledge of God or salvation if they maintain a commitment to Christian teaching over all other religious thought.

Such issues were appreciated by many of the early church fathers. Although it was often the case that history has revolved around exclusivist attitudes, many early theologians considered a more inclusive stance to be appropriate. Justin Martyr, for example, argues that those who partake in the Christian faith, even if they are unaware of it, can arguably be considered to be on the path towards salvation. He puts forward that when a culture denies the influence of another on its thought, then it is a denial of the admission of its influence. For, in order to reject a school of thought, one has to first acknowledge that one's own ideas have evolved either separately or away from such a school. Tertullian argued that religions do not arise in a vacuum and, as such, it is not possible for Christianity to claim to possess the truth about God and salvation when it has been so deeply influenced by Greek philosophy.

Although such views might not have enjoyed extensive popularity with later theologians, they have been once again raised in recent years. In particular, they are explored in the writings of one of the most important Catholic theologians of the 20th century: Karl Rahner. It is to his ideas we shall turn next.

Karl Rahner and 'Anonymous Christians'

Karl Rahner's inclusivist theology primarily aims to reconcile two different principles of Christian thought. The first is **Christus**, the idea that it is only through the atonement of Jesus on the cross that we can receive grace. Without this action of Jesus, Rahner argues that people would not be able to receive grace. The second principle is that any religion can mediate this grace, even if it necessarily requires a different understanding of God. Through reconciling these two ideas, Rahner ultimately seeks to provide a theological framework in which God is the ultimate source of knowledge about God and salvation while acknowledging that people from different religions separately arrive at a partial understanding of this knowledge. However, as you may

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surface can prove to be a tricky goal. Many religions do not hold Jesus even to be ultimately is sent through Jesus, then it is difficult perhaps to judge how they would view such an idea in their thought.

Rahner's solution is not to suggest that all religion must incorporate Christian ideas. Those of other religions may in fact live their lives as **anonymous Christians**. This is the virtues embodied by Jesus in the Gospels and so has implicitly accepted God's grace, unaware of it themselves. What's interesting here is that in endorsing this idea of anonymous Christians, Rahner explicitly denies a principle that the Catholic Church continues to hold today: that the idea that salvation can only be found in the Church. Instead, Rahner argues for **open Catholicism**, a central tenet of which is that Catholics should not be wholly closed to the idea that those of other religions might find truth and salvation through their faith. Then, is not simply the community of individuals who practise Christianity through their faith, but encompasses all who follow its teachings in their lives. This does not demean the role of the Church, Rahner. The natural depravity of fallen human beings means that other religions might not teach the right kind of behaviour, and the visible Church still has a duty to proselytise to those who are not Christians. Yet through denying the essential role of the Church, Rahner allows for the possibility that those who are not Christians might be saved, regardless of whether they adhere to the visible signs of the Christian faith.

The philosophical support Rahner gives for his inclusivism is much the same as the support he gives for the idea of anonymous Christians at in this section. Rahner argues that God is revealed not just in the historical moment of Jesus, but in the whole of creation. One example is St Paul's sermon in Acts 17 at the Areopagus, where he refers to the Athenians' 'unknown God'. Similarly, Rahner acknowledges the importance of Christianity before Jesus when individuals were still aware of God's presence but unable to be saved. Therefore, although the Christian faith was an essential part of God's plan, it is not the only way that God reveals himself to human beings, and there are a variety of ways that individuals might understand his being and work outside of Christianity.

Rahner's ideas might initially seem attractive. They preserve the role of Jesus Christ in salvation, while at the same time acknowledging how people of other religions might share in this salvation. However, the implications about anonymous Christians were, and still are, highly controversial. Among Catholics, they are seen as undermining the role of the Church in mediating salvation. The Catholic Church, by its very nature, upholds the authority of its teachings and traditions by referring to **apostolic succession**; that is, the idea that it is not just Jesus who mediates salvation but the Church as a whole, supporting the work of Jesus. Rahner's **nulla salus** in the process. Yet Rahner's rejection of this doctrine severely diminishes the role of the Church and effectively contends they are far from essential in matters of salvation. Similarly, if sacraments such as the Eucharist (communion) are also seen as non-essential, then Rahner's theology is that sacraments such as the Eucharist (communion) are also non-essential. If so, then, if found outside the Church, what role should be accorded to any Christian practice?

The criticisms of Rahner's thought always carry another difficult implication. The implication is that Christianity is not just a matter of faith but also a matter of ethics. This was an objection put forward by a contemporary of Rahner. He argued that if individuals can be saved without practising any visible signs of Christianity, then Christianity itself is nothing more than a code to acting virtuously. Rahner disagreed with this, arguing that such criticisms undermined his emphasis on anonymous Christians 'implying' that God is present in all things. But these kind of objections still pose an issue for Christianity. If God is present in all things, then the Christian faith, encompassing both worship and ethics, is not essential for salvation.

A final issue concerns whether Rahner's inclusivism is conversely insulting or 'patronising'. Critics such as Hans Kung have argued that defining those of other faiths as anonymous Christians is presumptuous about their understanding of their religious beliefs but also reduces them to mere extensions or versions of Christian thought. It can, therefore, be reasonably argued that other religions would resist such a characterisation of their views if they hold a sincere belief in the importance of their faith. Rahner's theology doesn't really 'include' other religions on their own terms, but rather to a form palatable to Christians. For, while it can be contended that Rahner is sympathetic towards other faiths, it can also be thought that his adherence to the principle of anonymous Christians is a tacit endorsement of an exclusivist attitude that implicitly denies the wisdom and value of other faiths.

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D’Costa and Trinitarianism

So what is the way forward if neither Christians nor those of other faiths are happy with exclusivism? Gavin D’Costa presents an alternative conception of inclusivism that is worth considering. D’Costa’s central contention is that focusing on Christ as the only path to salvation for both Christians and those of other religions, for it ignores the important role of the Holy Spirit, therefore, suggests is that matters of salvation should be approached from a Trinitarian perspective. The Holy Spirit a deeper role in the mediation of the grace of God opens up the possibility that other religions can access and develop knowledge of God and salvation in their own way.

D’Costa contends that this focus on the action of the Trinity gives deeper grounds for revelation. There is the possibility that the Holy Spirit, although acting primarily through Jesus, acted elsewhere throughout history. Jesus, although providing an authentic point of contact for human beings, does not necessarily provide knowledge of God and salvation beyond himself. Any religious figure, as the action of the Holy Spirit might offer similar revelation for others. It is possible to observe D’Costa drifting slightly towards pluralism rather than exclusivism, and this is what Christians might oppose. Yet at the same time, it can be argued that by reframing inclusivism, D’Costa also avoids some of the criticisms levelled against Rahner’s idea of anonymous Christians. It threatens to neither deny or demean the beliefs of other religions. However, there is a danger that it potentially surpasses D’Costa in acknowledging the validity of other faiths: pluralism. We will turn in the next section.

The Church of England and Inclusivism

Although the Catholic Church has made steady inroads into promoting more inclusivism, the Church of England that has fully embraced a more inclusivist perspective. In its 1995 report by the Doctrine Commission of the Church of England, the Church reaffirms its beliefs about the afterlife and salvation yet also affirms at the same time the unity of God in Christ and his potential acceptance of those of other religious beliefs. Therefore, the Church adheres to belief in the existence of heaven and hell, as well as the absolute truth of the Christian faith. It acknowledges (similarly to Rahner) that the free grace of God may be extended to those of other faiths and at least be implicitly accepted by those of other religions living good moral lives.

Discussion Activity:

Is Rahner’s idea of ‘anonymous Christians’ patronising to other religions? Discuss whether inclusivism can ever successfully accommodate the beliefs of other religions.

Pluralism

Religious pluralism, in contrast to exclusivism and inclusivism, holds that no religion has a monopoly on truth or knowledge of, God and salvation. This equally means that, for pluralists, there are many ways to salvation and multiple religions might possess equally valid claims to know the truth. They present competing beliefs or principles. Yet, with these basic ideas in mind, there are two ways of interpreting pluralism. On the one hand, religious pluralism might arise simply from the fallibility of human intellect and the varieties of thought in the world. It may be seen as a way of being equipped to deal with what is and what is not the right religion and so, by virtue of this, pluralists may acknowledge that each religion may have a valid claim to knowledge about God and salvation. On the other hand, some pluralists hold that if one analyses the competing claims of religions, they observe how they are all simply different forms of underlying universal or spiritual enterprise. Such ideas are often based on the concept of **philosophia perennis** (perennial philosophy) which is a single metaphysical truth from which all spiritual or religious knowledge has arisen. These are themselves ‘Perennialists’ or, more commonly, ‘Traditionalists’.

Throughout the history of Christianity, pluralism has been a rare proposal from theologians. The unique nature of Jesus Christ and the theology that arises from that belief has typically been seen as the only path to salvation.

inclusivist attitudes. Yet one modern theologian, John Hick (who will be the focus of our discussion) opened up the discussion in Christian circles to consider pluralism as a viable model. In his work *God and the Universe of Faiths*, he presents a detailed outline of how Christianity can be a justifiable position, but a justifiable one to take with respect to other religions, and much of this has been helped flesh out this vision through discussion of a myriad of theological and philosophical issues.

Hick's central contention is that when one considers the various dimensions and ends of various religions, it is a more viable solution to search for theologies that emphasise their differences. Moreover, despite the claims of critics, he also argues that religious pluralism does not reduce down to relativism. For Hick, holding that all religions are equally valid claims to knowledge of salvation is not the same as arguing that truth is relative. Rather, if one recognises that all religions are not 'final' – that is, they are still in a process of evolution – it is possible to reconcile their different claims through respecting their different common goals. Moreover, Hick contends this is not a radical proposal. Even the most conservative would recognise that theological disagreement and conflicts have contributed to the re-examining these disagreements lead to pluralism itself? This we shall cover in the next section.

The Evidence for Pluralism

We analysed the section on exclusivism the argument that acknowledging religion with competing claims can easily lead to exclusive mentalities. Yet in the introduction, we saw how these competing claims may potentially not be real disagreements but reflections of different religions undergoing various forms of growth. But how is it possible to do this? Hick does not present one avenue towards choosing one presentation over another, but rather characterised as a complete overhaul of the assumptions behind the Christian faith. Therefore, proceed by analysing its parts, and it is necessary to appreciate the various theological reasons Hick has for presenting a very different world view to that of Christianity.

The first, and most basic, reason Hick gives for pluralism is his belief in a benevolent God. Hick contends that an all-loving God would never condemn anyone to eternal punishment, regardless of their actions or their faith. This leads him in turn to endorse **universalism**, the idea that all human beings will eventually be saved. We won't delve into this aspect of Hick's thought too deeply but he holds a number of beliefs unusual for a Protestant theologian. One is that he argues for the existence of purgatory, contending that an intermediary state between life and the afterlife is reasonable in the context of universalism, as it means individuals can come to understand the moral nature of their actions before they are saved. Another is that Hick is ultimately a materialist. He does not ascribe to a separate spiritual aspect to human beings; such a belief is anathema to modern science. Instead, he proposes that in the afterlife God creates a sort of 'replica' of each person, complete with all their memories and experiences.

You don't need to know these aspects of Hick's thought in depth when evaluating his argument. To note that Hick is far from orthodox in his beliefs and that these help inform his pluralism. If individuals are eventually saved, the exclusivity of Christianity is automatically torn down. If all will eventually reach salvation due to God's benevolence and it may be that Christ is just one of many paths that help human beings understand this process.

The second, perhaps equally important, reason is the limitations of the human mind. Hick reflected in the immaturity of religion itself. We've explored this partially in the last section. Religion is not based simply on philosophical rumination of God but on how individuals construct their beliefs and the potential causes of these beliefs. Importantly, Hick asks whether we can rationally justify one religion's claims over another, ultimately concluding that the answer is no. From our own beliefs, it is possible to observe an incredibly wide range of spiritual experiences in the world, yet each is largely based upon experiences of ineffable, transcendental experiences that cannot be using conventional empirical methods. In the case of Christianity, Judaism or Islam, the nature of God are largely unknowable while in other religions, such as Buddhism, higher states of consciousness are indescribable using conventional language.

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What Hick argues is that natural theology, or any other 'rational' religious endeavour, cannot establish the truth of one religion over another. In any argument for a particular conception of God or salvation, there is always contradictory evidence to dispute its claims. Each religion may have good reasons for its beliefs, but these are by and large not based on independently analysable evidence but the words and actions of its founders. Yet at the same time, Hick notes that nearly all religions have some conception of a reality or way or path human beings can take to engage with that reality and transform one's life. One of the key indicators for Hick is that the most coherent position to take is not to arbitrarily favour one religion over another as preaching the truth about God and salvation but to view each religion as potentially revealing a different reality or level of existence that is imperfectly understood by fallible human beings. Hick acknowledges that all religions may have some partial knowledge of God and salvation, but none has exclusive access to this knowledge.

However, this is ultimately only an outline of Hick's work. Before we assess whether his pluralist view of religion is a viable alternative to Christian faith, it is worth exploring the more philosophical side of Hick's work and how it has influenced and had for theology in the future.

Religious Experience and the Real

In the last paragraph, we noted that, for Hick, there was no rational way to justify belief in God. So what are the grounds for religious belief? Hick contends that it is primarily religious experience. When we follow their heart, he claims, are based on the different experiences individuals have had of the divine. These experiences are naturally **private**, **incommunicable** and often **ineffable**, there is a difficulty in relating them to others, let alone understand their overall implications for the world as a whole. In fact, religious experience may itself only be communicated through metaphor, which can perhaps more readily capture its often strange and mystical dimensions.

More importantly, if religious experience is the foundation for religious beliefs then it is not the actual truth claims about *experiences* of God. What this means is that no religion is immune to the influences and constraints upon human experience. These include the very categories we use to understand experience, the cultural influences upon the way we experience things, and the circumstances of this experience. For Hick, this does not mean that religious experience is not knowledge. Rather he holds that all religious experiences originate from the same source, **the Real** (this is to avoid the often loaded term 'God'). While the Real ultimately causes all religious experiences, we term as religious, these experiences are affected by the subjective elements of human experience and history which result in the differences in religious belief we can observe today.

By detailing the grounds for religion in this way, Hick seeks to avoid charges of **relativism** and separate himself from philosophers and theologians such as Don Cupitt, who held that religion is a **non-realist** interpretation of God and religion. He employs categories developed by the philosopher Immanuel Kant in order to further illustrate how a realist, pluralist position is possible. Kant distinguished between what he termed the **noumena** (the things as they are in themselves) and the **phenomena** (the things that appear). The phenomenal world is therefore, the world as experienced by human beings, whereas the noumenal world is the real world behind this experience. Kant held that the noumenal world was fundamentally inaccessible to human beings, who could only engage with the phenomenal world through their experience. In a similar fashion, Hick argues that the Real exists in this noumenal world, occurring in the phenomenal world. Whatever the Real is, it is inaccessible to human beings through the structures of their experience.

So Hick, along with his initial evidence for pluralism, gives a deeper philosophical account of the competing truth claims of religion. However, if this account is true, it stands in tension with the truth claims of most religions, who generally hold that they alone have exclusive knowledge of the divine. So how does Hick resolve these tensions between his world view and that of the religions? This aspect of Hick's thought we shall analyse next.

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Demythologisation and Global Theology

Although Hick himself was a Christian, it would be unfair to characterise his theology. Much of his work on pluralism was aimed at not just Christians but people of all religions. He encourage the development of a **global theology**, an approach to God and salvation that takes account of religious claims and sought to build bridges between those of different faiths. Compare his perspective on religion and the **Copernican Revolution**, the shift in astronomy from a belief in the geocentric model of the solar system to the heliocentric model. He compares the older **Ptolemaic** model and the planets revolved around the Earth, to orthodox Christianity. The Christocentric model analyses all things as if they are centred around Christianity as the only source of truth and God, when a more fruitful attitude would be to view Christianity as one of many religions centred on the Real. Yet this view requires accepting the ideas of other religions and not automatically comparing them to Christian belief.

However, Hick also argues for reanalysing and redefining many key Christian concepts. The Bible, the source of Christian belief about the world, is far from reflective of the current state of the scientific knowledge and consensus about the nature and form of the universe. It is expected under modern scientific proposals, since the experiences of the Gospel authors and the language, culture and historical circumstances under which it is written. This means that the truths are contained within the Bible are buried within layers of myth and story that are not accessible to modern audiences. Simply put, the Bible, for Hick, is not a timeless document but a document that experiences historical individuals had of the Real.

Therefore, Hick holds that in order to reach the core teachings and truths of the Gospel, we must **demythologise** the stories around Jesus and attempt to discover the historical beliefs. The concept of demythologisation was first prominently espoused by Rudolf Bultmann, an early 20th-century biblical studies scholar, who argued scholars should attempt to find the **historical Jesus** without the embellishments and imaginings of the Gospel writers. For Hick, if this task is undertaken, then evaluating many of the core concepts accepted as orthodoxy by the Christian Church, such as the Trinity or Incarnation, that the historical Jesus did not teach his followers about the **Trinity** or **Incarnation** are seen as primarily formed by theologians extrapolating different ideas from the myths surrounding Jesus. The most important aspect of Jesus, for Hick, is his humanity. Recognising the mortal message of Jesus to transform the lives of ordinary human beings is arguably more inspiring than the Jesus painted by the Christian Church. More importantly, however, it means that, for Hick, the unique nature or relationship with God and so the assertions within traditional Christianity that evidence of his exclusive access to the means of salvation are ultimately unwarranted.

Throughout this section it should be possible to see how Hick's pluralism is based not on the entire overturning of the assumptions made by many religions, including Christianity, but is more benevolent, if the claims of religion should be judged against various different forms of evidence. If no religion can rationally justify its claims over another, then there are good grounds to think that a pluralist approach might provide the most coherent attitude to various religions. In this section, we will look at the various criticisms of Hick's world view.

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Activity:

There are many questions about whether Hick's pluralism overstates the similarities between different religions. Pick three different religions and research their beliefs about God and the afterlife. In what ways you think they might be reconciled or not.



Evaluating Pluralism

It was noted earlier in this section that Hick’s pluralism is quite contentious, and it does deny Christianity exclusive access to the means to salvation but it also denies a number of teachings that are often perceived to be central to the Christian faith. Many conservative Christians therefore, argued that pluralism simply strays too far from conventional Christianity. Some have argued that demythologisation itself or the dismissal of key aspects of the Gospels such as the resurrection, argued that Hick’s pluralism makes Christianity itself meaningless. Jesus simply becomes a teacher with any other secular figure, and there is little to inspire faith in God when Jesus is seen as a mere man. However, such a view is perhaps also misleading. The reason Hick proposes his pluralism is to deal with the philosophical issues at the heart of Christian dogma as it is to do with his belief that Christianity should maintain an exclusive claim to the truth about God. It may be that Christian beliefs are still to still be reasonable and meaningful when considering the nature and extent of moral responsibility.

Moreover, there are good reasons to believe that Hick may be right about his theory. Much work has gone into developing plausible accounts of election in order to explain why some human beings to be condemned while saving others. Is it not just simpler and more benevolent if God would eventually save all human beings, regardless of their actions? It is true that this process of salvation is longer and more painful for those who do commit themselves to evil, but it is overlooked that philosophically Hick’s ideas may be fundamentally sound.

Yet it is also possible to criticise Hick from the other end of the spectrum. Hick presents the noumenal as representing an actual being or thing that exists outside of our perceptions. But what is the noumenal world? Non-realists might contend that Hick is assuming too much. If he accepts ideas such as demythologisation, he should extend this to his beliefs about religion. If there is not one underlying cause but simply a myriad of different physical causes, then there are different ways depending on a person’s background, culture and psychological state. Hick does not provide propositions about religious experience in detail here but it can be questioned whether his theory is realistic. It may be that his commitment to a realistic portrayal of Christian belief ends up being unrealistic.

Alister McGrath makes a similar point here, contending that Hick provides no valid connection between the ‘Real’ in the noumenal world and religious experience in the phenomenal world. It only leads to questions about whether there is a Real but also makes it impossible to verify if one had a genuine religious experience in the first place. Similarly, it can be questioned whether there is a genuine religion with meaningful access to truths about salvation. For example, if all religions should be considered to possess the same privileges as Christianity does? Mark Hick would argue that Hick is still closer to inclusivism as his authentic religious experiences would not exist for all faiths which do not possess reasonable or valid spiritual beliefs.

Therefore, even if Hick’s pluralism does possess some theoretical advantages, he still needs to fleshing out the exact dimensions of the ‘global theology’ he proposes. Yet, with the development of interfaith dialogue, it may be that his vision is unwittingly realistic. In these phenomena we turn in our next section, where we analyse how religious pluralism is being developed.

Quick Quiz	
1.	What is the main difference between exclusivism, inclusivism and pluralism?
2.	What is universalism?
3.	Who is one prominent exclusivist thinker?
4.	What are anonymous Christians?
5.	What is Solus Christus?
6.	What is the Real in Hick’s thought?
7.	What is a global theology in Hick’s thought?

4B: RELIGIOUS PLURALISM AND

What you will learn in this section:

The discussion around the ways interfaith dialogue and communication are conducted between different religions, including:

- How multifaith societies develop in the modern world and the influences upon them
- The importance of interfaith dialogue and how different Christian denominations interact with those of other religions.
- The scriptural reasoning movement, its methods and aims and how it looks to challenge traditional understanding of the truth claims of different religions.

Starter Activity:

What actions would you take to improve communication and dialogue between different religions in the Kingdom? Note down three actions and compare them to the ideas studied through this section.

Introduction to the Development of Multifaith Societies

The existence of multifaith societies isn't a new phenomenon. Throughout the history of the world, there have been many different documented societies or cultures that have possessed individuals of different faiths, especially in landlocked states which have possessed fluid borders. In this respect, multifaith societies are also not new. Discussions of inclusivism and pluralism have emerged in the modern world, aiming to reconcile the conflicting views of different religions, and it is erroneous to suggest that the world has always been constantly racked with religious conflict. For many throughout history, a state of religious pluralism has been inconceivable and, although there have been an uncountable number of attempts to create a state over religion, rarely has a state been able to religiously isolate itself from the influence of other faiths.

Yet, with the increasing ease of travel and communication in the modern world, religious pluralism is more prevalent than ever and individuals regularly come into contact with people from different faiths and cultures. While this presents challenges in everyday life, it has also put increasing pressure on religious leaders to issue guidance to followers on interfaith dialogue and develop more balanced approaches to mission work. This is particularly true for the UK. Although Christianity is still the dominant religion in the country, there have been growing numbers of Muslims, Hindus, Sikhs and Jews, all bringing with them their own moral and spiritual ideas from many Christians. This means that all Christian denominations, including the Catholic Church and Church of England, have been pushed to engage in more interfaith dialogue and address how conflicts arise between individuals of different religions in order to ensure a peaceful coexistence. These various efforts will be the subject of this section, as we explore how representatives of different faiths have worked with those of other religions and even adjusted Christian doctrine and practice to accommodate preaching and conversion.

What Factors Contribute to the Development of Multifaith Societies?

Multifaith societies are largely developed through the movement of people. While individuals often cluster around those of their own culture or faith, there are a number of influences that can lead to the development of multifaith societies. These influences necessitate them moving to another location containing those of other cultures and faiths. Some people aren't isolated by choice; a person might in some senses choose to move to a certain place due to economic pressures or social constraints while others might be wholly forced to move without any choice of location. Religions often face difficulties in evaluating and judging these different influences, as there are external perceptions of individuals of different faiths that influence how they are treated by those of the native faith or culture. For example, many people judge migrants based on their appearance and opportunities without understanding how inbuilt economic structures may have affected their situation without their say. Unpicking the myriad of different factors that affected the movement of people is a bit of a minefield. Rarely does someone have a full understanding not only of the factors surrounding such movements but also the individual psychological reasons individuals move. However, there are a number of key aspects we can note:

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1. Voluntary Migration

This is often the most transparent factor in the development of multifaith societies and is often misunderstood. As travel and communication have become easier with technology, the barriers people have faced when moving to other places have diminished. As a result, people move to other countries for a change in lifestyle and environment. A classic example is the migration of people from colder climates to warmer ones. Such voluntary movement can be short-term or long-term but, on the whole, it provides opportunities for people to explore other cultures and religions has led many to migrate from their birthplace. Such migration might be spurred on by a multitude of personal reasons, but more so than ever, individuals voluntarily choose to engage with those of other religions. This has led to the development of communities without a single unifying faith.

2. Economic Necessity – Labour, Development and the Free Market

Increasingly, the effects of **globalisation** can be felt among individual communities. Influences placed upon international trade, markets and economic growth across borders mean that economic influences can inform people's movements. Even in impoverished areas, there is a need for work for people to survive, and this might spur movement in both skilled and unskilled labour. In particular, companies that engage in a larger number of international projects often employ workers, especially in labour-intensive fields such as construction or resource gathering. This has led to people of different faiths having to migrate. However, there is of course debate as to whether this is a necessity and what counts as simply economic desire. What might appear necessary to one person may be a desirable choice to another.

3. Involuntary Migration – Refugees and Asylum Seekers

Following on from economic necessity, there is arguably an even greater influence on migration due to conflict and war. This is perhaps the most visible aspect of the mixing of individuals from different faiths in light of modern conflicts such as the civil war in Syria. Simply put, the continued conflict around the world means that people are displaced from their native countries due to war, placing them alongside those of different faiths. Yet, even though such migrants have often fled their homes with will, tensions can easily arise between them and native populations due to conflict and cultural differences. Moreover, many often conflate such forms of involuntary migration with both voluntary migration and economic necessity, meaning interfaith dialogue may be even more necessary to ensure the persistence of the process we turn to in the next section.

The Role of Interfaith Dialogue

More so than ever, the last 50 years have seen many Christian denominations and churches encourage interfaith dialogue, often through changes to Church doctrine. However, interfaith dialogue arguably has both a scriptural and historical precedent. Many Christians, including the Catholic Church, see dialogue as a vital element of Jesus's call for reconciliation and a natural consequence of love, understanding and compassion. Whether it be the parable of the Good Samaritan or simply the general teaching of Jesus, it is pressed to find Jesus ever encouraging conflict with those of other faiths, even if, in some cases, he has often been at odds with religions such as Islam and Judaism.

Yet, even to conservative Christians, it is not always concerned with maintaining the status quo or other roles. Many see it as a vital part of evangelism. Regardless of the mission, working with people of different religions in order to convert them requires endearing potential converts. Such a process would be hard to carry out if the evangelical arm of the Church was hostile to the beliefs of other faiths. Whether one is focused on ensuring a harmonious relationship or simply aiming to present a good face to the Church, it is arguably necessary to holistically engage with other communities using well-thought-out methods of interfaith dialogue. In fact, modern churches often have a mix of these two aims. Most Christians do not wish to invoke religious conflict, but many wish to encourage new converts.

To this end there are even dedicated organisations set up to mediate communication between different faiths. For example, the Inter Faith Network is an organisation set up in the UK to specifically facilitate dialogue between different religions in the UK through advocacy, events and information. In the next section, the Catholic Church and Church of England we shall focus on next.

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Dialogue in the Catholic Church

In the Catholic Church, the importance of inter-dialogue has been increasingly appreciated in the last half a century. While it is an institution held in esteem by many, it has often been the seat of historical controversy, particularly in its treatment of non-Christian religions. However, a number of important declarations have been made in recent years that have shifted the Church's stance. One key document is the *Nostra Aetate*, published in 1965 by Pope John VI, which affirmed the shared elements of God's work within humanity across different religions. Perhaps most importantly, it focused on reconciliation between the Catholic Church and the Jewish population, with many regarding it as a turning point in relations between these two faiths.

A more recent document is the *Redemptoris Missio*, an encyclical published by Pope John Paul II in 1990. In contrast to the *Nostra Aetate*, it focuses on how the Catholic Church can more meaningfully engage in missionary work in the modern world. Here three elements are identified as key: the conversion of the non-religious and the promotion of different faiths, the strengthening of commitments within disinterested Christians, and a greater emphasis on pastoral work within the Christian community. However, the *Redemptoris Missio* equally attempts to acknowledge the difficulties in missionary work and the need for good interfaith dialogue. For example, in Chapter 2 (verses 31–40), the Pope details the importance of missionary work to non-Christians. He asserts that the Church is required to address people 'with respect for their freedom'. Key especially is verse 39, which declares 'The Church respects individuals and cultures, and she honours the sanctuary of conscience'. There is a clear call for mission workers to engage with other religions as equals and not simply as objects of conversion.

These ideas are repeated in verses 55–57, where the Pope directly addresses the role of dialogue. He argues that ultimately, if understood as a means of knowledge and not opposed to missionary work, and is, in fact, 'one of its expressions'. Such an understanding represents the Church's more **inclusivist** position. The Pope directly notes that the Church gladly recognises truths in other religions, even if such truths should divert from its mission to proclaim truth. Therefore, the Pope argues that interfaith dialogue stimulates Christians to discover new truths about their own religion, particularly the way God works in the world and challenges their understanding of Christian religion. Moreover, the use of interfaith dialogue allows a 'dialogue of life' between religions which can potentially help form a more 'just and fraternal' society.

Dialogue in the Church of England

In 2010 the Church of England published a report titled *Sharing the Gospel of Faith* which was written to clarify how the Church should approach preaching the good news while at the same time being aware of the changing religious landscape. The report is concerned with how Christians can ethically engage in mission and conversion work in a world where it holds there is more of a level playing field in the country as fewer and fewer people identify as Christian. For example, it discusses interfaith dialogue in verse 96, holding similarly to the Catholic Church's stance on the conflict between "dialogue" and "evangelism" since both are part of proclamation. The report identifies four different kinds of dialogue that Christians might engage in:

1. The dialogue of daily life – common forms of discussion or conversation engaged in by people of different faiths.
2. The dialogue of the common good – conversation generated when engaging with issues of shared concern.
3. The dialogue of mutual understanding – non-formal theological conversation.
4. The dialogue of spiritual life – conversations or engagement during prayer and worship.

All of these may raise the question of mission work, and the Church of England offers various case studies and examples of how evangelism can be undertaken in a suitably unobtrusive fashion. However, you might have noticed that despite both the Catholic Church and the Church of England emphasising the importance of respect for other religions, they are still ultimately focused on conversion. For many, this is still emblematic of exclusive (or, at best, inclusive) attitudes; were these Christian denominations then one might well expect a reduced emphasis on missionary work. Nevertheless, it is possible to see how even with a strong focus on the necessity of respect for other religions, it is equally possible to reconcile a need for interfaith dialogue.

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Discussion Activity:

Do you think the efforts to promote interfaith dialogue from Christian denominations have been enough in recent years? Or should more effort go into developing positive relationships with other religions? Discuss in pairs or small groups.

The Scriptural Reasoning Movement

In the last section, you might have raised your eyebrows at the third form of dialogue, *Gospel of Salvation*. Within it, the Church of England directly mentions the **scriptural reasoning** movement. Although initially contained only to academic groups, this is a set of religious practices that has spread to many different groups aiming to come to a greater understanding of each other's beliefs. Scriptural reasoning is often credited with helping develop better responses from religious groups to social issues.

But what does scriptural reasoning involve? Primarily, it requires a small group of people from different faiths regularly meeting to discuss their religious texts on a specific topic. The aim, however, is not to find agreement with each other but to develop a deeper knowledge of different perspectives and their own religious assumptions. Through this process of critical analysis, people from different faith communities can begin the groundwork towards working together on social issues.

Naturally, for such an approach there are basic guidelines put in place. For one, the topics for scriptural reasoning are encouraged to focus on topics which are not widely agreed upon, to encourage discussion. Furthermore, meetings are required to take place in a neutral space, thus promoting a balanced discussion and no person will be removed from places of religious observance. Although the process of scriptural reasoning can vary from group to group, often there is a basic process as follows:

1. Participants identify an issue, theme or narrative arising from their lives or work.
2. Each individual of their respective faith selects a scriptural passage relating to the issue.
3. In small groups, the individuals read aloud their passage, often giving it an introduction to give it context.
4. Participants then begin to ask questions about the passage or share their own thoughts, opening up further discussion.

Ultimately, scriptural reasoning is perhaps best conceived of as a tool. There is no set agenda, and participants develop greater knowledge about other faiths, exploring the differences and similarities and making new friends. Yet the potential for scriptural reasoning in breaking down barriers between religions and encouraging interfaith dialogue is a greater sense of a global religious community and potential hostilities between conflicting faiths. However, some have criticised the movement, and we will turn to their objections next.

Criticisms of Scriptural Reasoning

Some have viewed scriptural reasoning as emblematic of 'post-liberal' theology. This approach is thought to less focus on religions as describing conflicting truths or ideas but instead to look at the historical and cultural contexts of different faiths, looking at how they developed and changed over time. For post-liberal theologians, what is true or false is, therefore, much less of a concern than developing knowledge of the religion itself and its followers. Through shifting the focus, a more holistic view of religious belief can be formed which is not limited to an individual's beliefs but encompasses all manner of ideas, even if there is a central faith behind one's beliefs. While potentially an important part of such an approach, for listening and gathering knowledge from different perspectives from members of the religion themselves may lead to a greater understanding of religious communities and the way it views the world.

However, some theologians have argued that such a post-liberal approach to theology is **flattening** Christian beliefs. For scriptural reasoning and other such tools arguably represent a more partisan approach to scripture that, on the face of it, is in conflict with the reverence held by ordinary Christians. The rooting of Christian belief in its historical or social context is seen as in tension with the idea that the Bible presents universal truths. This means that critical analysis and scriptural reasoning is an erroneous approach to Christian holy works if they are taken to be universal truths. If the Bible is thought to be reflective of God's will, then comparing it to other religions from an objective or neutral perspective is a pointless or misleading exercise.

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Therefore, an interesting debate emerges around the purpose and use of scripture. Is it a tool for theological exercise necessary not only to promote good relations and interfaith dialogue between different religions? Or is it reflective of an over-liberalisation of theology, unsuitable for Christians committed to the authentic Word of God? Whatever your thoughts, to a certain extent one's position on the importance of scriptural reasoning depends on the nature of one's attitudes towards the possibility of exclusive access to the truth about salvation.

Activity:
How do other religions view the resurrection event of Jesus? Do some independent research into the views of other religions and write out your own ideas about how the scriptural reasoning movement might be received by people of different religions to discuss this event.

Quick Quiz

1.

What is interfaith dialogue?

2.

What factors contribute to the development of multifaith societies?

3.

What key document sets out the position on interfaith dialogue for the Catholic Church?

4.

What document sets out the position on interfaith dialogue for the Church of England?

5.

What is the scriptural reasoning movement?

6.

What criticisms have been made of the scriptural reasoning movement?

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5A: GENDER AND SOCIETY

What you will learn in this section:

The way changing views and philosophies about gender have influenced Christianity

- Traditional Christian teaching on the roles and responsibilities of men and women
- The different ways Christian thinkers and denominations have responded to gender roles, including discussion around parenthood and family.
- The debate around the extent to which Christian teaching should adapt to contemporary society about gender.
- Whether contemporary secular philosophies of gender have successfully undermined traditional teaching on gender roles.

Starter Activity:

Research and write down three aspects of the modern Christian Church where you think change is to be present. Compare these examples to your studies throughout this section.

Introduction: The History of Gender in the Christian Church

It is fair to say that women throughout the history of Christianity have not always been treated as their male counterparts (and this is putting it lightly). While women played key roles in the Christian Church has largely been dominated by male influences such that much of its history has undeniably conferred greater status and power to men, whether in the church or household. Yet, with the rise of feminism in the twentieth century, the Church has been challenged by potentially **sexist** or **misogynistic** teachings. Moreover, feminist critics as a whole argue that the Church as an institution is thoroughly **patriarchal**, with women regularly being denied the same status and influence. Sometimes these patriarchal influences are obvious, such as the Catholic Church's teaching on the role of women, sometimes they are much more subtle, with their ramifications less easily detected.

What is perhaps most difficult for theologians and critics to reconcile is the insistence on the divinity of Jesus alongside the traditionally gendered language used to describe him. Throughout the history of the Church, whether biblical language should be re-examined, but it is easy to note at first glance that terms like Father and Son, King and Lord reflect the notion that male roles are emblematic of divinity. It is often little attention given in the Bible to the historic oppression of women and how this might potentially only serve to reinforce this oppression. Also many theologians, mostly men, have questioned the treatment of women within scripture and perhaps even furthered sexist views within the Church. Whether it be early church fathers such as Augustine or later theologians, they have put forward doctrines that claim women are second in status to men and should defer to their decisions. Ultimately, it may be that literal interpretations of the Bible itself as theological truth and built into the foundations of Christian belief, whether in action or doctrine.

There is no easy solution to these issues of gender. Some more conservative or more traditionalists have argued that while it is important to discover the sexist structures of the Christian Church, it should not be removed from sexist or misogynistic itself. With a proper historical analysis, it may be possible to develop a Christianity free from patriarchal influences and mirrors the spiritual teachings of the Church. Yet if such a project sounds simple, complications easily arise. Should the Church be abandoned? Should the words of potentially sexist authors in scripture be discarded? The search for a gender-neutral form of Christianity has led other, more radical critics to argue that the Church itself is irredeemably misogynistic and that any future feminist religion has to come from the foundations of Christian thought.

These debates will be examined in greater detail in section 5B. However, we can not ignore the position about Christianity, there are good arguments for a feminist reinterpretation. Candy Stanton, for example, suggests that so long as Christianity is part of the cultural fabric, feminists cannot overlook critiquing its ideas. Therefore, we shall first turn to an essential theological minefield: the traditional Christian teachings on gender and how they are interpreted.

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Traditional Christian Teaching on Gender

There is no easy way to outline Christian teaching on gender throughout history but it has viewed women as equal in principle but possessing different roles from men. Viewed as egalitarian to a degree at first glance, in reality it has often meant that women have less status than men. Women, in the eyes of many Christian individuals, were created to exist simply by facilitating procreation and taking care of the household. In contrast, men were to be the head of the household and created by God to fulfil intellectual and working roles. From a modern perspective, this naturally appears quite backwards. What reasons are there to support this? To fulfil specific roles? If women are equal in principle why can they not also be equal in political and spiritual working lives? We can begin our analysis with the roles of women in the Bible and how both Jesus treated women in his ministry and how this treatment might compare to modern views.

Gender Roles in the Bible

One important consideration when studying the Bible from modern perspectives is that it creeps into the interpretation of its text. On the one hand, it is easy to be informed and fail to acknowledge the fact that the Church itself might have erroneously elevated certain roles above others. On the other hand, it may be that modern values or wishes mean that certain roles are to be characterised as marginal. Women might have played marginal roles in Jesus's ministry. For example, some have speculated that women such as Mary Magdalene might have played a much greater role than the writers of the Gospels intentionally or unintentionally marginalising her role. However, one speculation is that the perspectives of the reader might influence their reading of the text and their conclusions beyond what can be historically determined from the text itself.

At the same time, it is important to note that even with these difficulties, the male-dominated nature of the Bible can be easily noted. Despite there being some stronger female influences, such as the prophet Deborah, the majority of the women in the Bible are generally portrayed as being victims, dangers, or virtuous, meek and submissive as a result. If we take the prior questions posed above into account, we are then left with an interesting question. Is the lack of women in the Gospel narrative a result of a male-centred life, or were they written about by sexist or misogynistic Gospel authors? Regardless of the answer, patriarchal attitudes throughout history and their respective interpretations of the Bible have often simply been accepted at face value and built into the teachings of Christianity itself. This means that gender roles have been assigned to women without critical reflection such that these roles may not reflect the will of God. This means that such roles may simply be misleading from the perspective of modern secular critics but also from the perspective of modern Christians.

One important method that has been employed to counter this historically male-centred view of the Bible is **feminist hermeneutics**. This involves reanalysing small parts of the Bible while also considering the overall historical, cultural and philosophical context. Thus, those employing such hermeneutics seek to discern what exactly might be the inadvertent misogyny or sexism of the authors of the Bible. Through employing this process, a wide number of views have emerged on gender roles in scripture. Some have argued that Jesus himself displays very little misogyny. Although Jesus was embedded in a patriarchal society, some feminists have argued that he held prominently progressive views for the time. Others, however, have held that Jesus was a critic of the patriarchal system, with other figures such as St Paul only embellishing the patriarchal elements of the Bible.

Taking the more positive view of Jesus first, it can be noted that he speaks very little about gender roles between men and women. Furthermore, even though the 12 disciples are all men, there are numerous times that Jesus had female followers. One key example is in Luke 10:38–42, where Jesus visits the home of Mary and Martha. There Martha is criticised for having been spending too much time in prayer and worship, neglecting her household duties. Jesus tells her that Mary's spiritual life is of equal importance and to let her follow her desire. This supports the belief that Jesus did view women as possessing equal roles to men and that women should not be relegated to mere household duties. At the same time, despite this, it can be noted still that these are few in number and dwarfed by the parts of the Gospels where Jesus interacts with and teaches men.

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Where the difficulty lies here is drawing Jesus's true teachings outside of the circle of male disciples. Women did not enjoy anywhere near the same luxuries and power as men across the Mediterranean. In the case of Judaic tradition, it is naturally likely that many of Jesus's public conversations have been primarily towards men and that the Gospel authors were simply recording his teaching as well as being selective of certain male-centred conversations they viewed as important. It may be that even the most careful readings of the Gospel texts may not be able to disclose the true perspectives of women in the ministry of Jesus may not have been fully considered, is for the lack of women featured in the narratives. What is apparent, nonetheless, is that the perspectives of women in the ministry of Jesus may not have been fully considered.

Another great influence on Church teaching on gender roles has been St Paul. Yet progressive in his views on gender roles, Paul is often viewed as much more regressive. Problematic teachings within Paul's letters which do put forward as Christian doctrine gender roles, and even gender hierarchies. For example, Ephesians 5:22–23 states husbands as you are to the Lord', strongly implying that men occupy a position of authority. Similarly, in Corinthians 11:7, in dealing with church services, Paul argues that women should declare that 'woman is the reflection of man'. Such passages pose a problem for feminism as it is held that women are in fact equal to man, they have helped contribute to the development of the world. If secondary order in the Church of God to man, justifying their oppression in Christian society.

Despite the problematic nature of many of Paul's writings, there are also other passages that suggest a broader equality between men and women. Galatians 3:28, for example, declares 'there is neither Jew nor Greek, slave and free, male and female; for all of you are one in Jesus Christ', which indicates that underneath the patriarchal writings, there is possibly evidence within the New Testament to suggest that Christianity is based on the idea that there is true equality between men and women. Much of the discussion for the next section will come down to reconciling the promise of Genesis 1:27, which states that God created humankind in his own **imago dei**, and whether this equality can accommodate the possibility of different roles. We shall look at next, although there have been overtures made towards the equality of men and women. Most denominations and theologians have favoured an 'equal but different' approach to

The Catholic Church on Gender Roles

The Catholic Church sets out its position on the roles of women in an apostolic letter **Mulieris Dignitatem**, written by Pope John Paul II in 1988. It covers a number of different issues, but is primarily concerned with outlining the Church's position on gender roles in light of Christian and secular values. As such, it takes a broad look at the women in the Bible, analysing them in the context of Catholic tradition and drawing on the example of Jesus as a supporter of women's equality and their importance. One particularly important concept analysed is that of **Theotokos** (God-bearer), a reference to Mary. The *Mulieris Dignitatem* uses Mary as a key exemplar of the kind of woman and roles women are supposed to embody since she is viewed to be one of the people who have been most intimately connected with God in human history. Moreover, she possesses qualities that the Church, only a woman could have, and symbolises the relationship with God that humans are called to have.

The Mulieris Dignitatem, therefore, analyses the person of Mary in light of Genesis. The creation of Eve from Adam's rib in Gen 2:21-22 may still allow for the possibility of separate roles. In contrast to many other Catholic teachings, it holds that Eve's creation out of Adam in Gen 2:22 was simply out of suitability, not inferiority. Hence, men and women are equal in status and there are no contradictions between the Mulieris Dignitatem and the more controversial passages, especially the importance of Mary's role as 'Mother' for Adam and stresses the virtues of motherhood and virginity against the 'masculinisation' of women and the 'emasculinisation' of men in response to criticisms of these roles, arguing that the Church should not be unduly swayed by secular thought. Critics, as we shall see, have contended that such passages still perpetuate the idea that the Catholic Church is in principle committed to gender equality under God.

Activity:

Read the *Mulieris Dignitatem* passages 18–19. Write down three ways you believe promotes true gender equality and three ways it might still promote sexist attitudes. Do you believe the Church still perpetuates unequal gender roles?

Is Misogyny Prevalent in Theology?

Before we take a look at some contemporary secular views on gender roles, it is worth noting how our view on gender has evolved from the writing of the Bible to the modern Catholic position. We will take a broad look at the ideas of three key theologians: Augustine, Aquinas and Luther. While they all have a significant number of similarities, their thought also reflects the evolution of views on women throughout the history of the Church.

Augustine

Historical discussion around Augustine's views on gender and the roles of women, such as Rosemary Radford Ruether, have argued that he developed a strongly patriarchal view. He explicitly and implicitly laid the foundations for misogyny to proliferate in the Christian Church. Others have argued that Augustine was more progressive than many of his peers and that his views on gender equality were unusual for the time. The main difficulties in assessing his views often occur when we remember studying Augustine's account of the Fall in Year 1 but we can go a little deeper. His views are potentially complicit in the corruption of humanity.

Augustine's view on the Fall rests on a literal interpretation of Genesis 2 and agrees with the Bible's presentation of Eve as a 'helper' for Adam, made as part of God's plan for humanity to procreate and spread across the world. The ideal virtues for a helper, for Augustine, are loving obedience and subordination, which were fully present in woman pre-Fall in contrast to man, who Augustine argued was created a deliberate creature. After the Fall, however, Augustine argues man becomes 'master' over woman and subordination is no longer through love but rather through the body. The perfect pre-Fall relationship is only partially represented in marriage.

It is easy to see how such a view can be construed as misogynistic. Why should women be obedient and subordinate? Ruether argues here that Augustine holds that women are secondary in the image of God compared to men, who are the primary image. There is no evidence to support such an interpretation. For example, Augustine states in the *City of God* that 'woman, together with her own husband, is in the image of God' implying that women are part of the image of God. For Ruether this subordination is a classical expression of the patriarchy that pervades Christianity as a whole.

However, other feminist theologians have argued that Augustine isn't as pervasive. Genevieve Lloyd, for instance, contends that Augustine actually puts forward that women are equal to men, only bodily inferior, in contrast to much of traditional Greek philosophy and the early Christian Church. In particular, we can note that Augustine does not place blame on women for the Fall, a common view at the time, and did, at the minimum, envision a sort of equality in the relationship between men and women. For although some might argue there is no equality if men are the primary image of God, held to be ideal for women, Augustine views pre-Fall relationships as bound by a mutual love and respect, not domination of women by men.

Thomas Aquinas

Aquinas in many ways builds upon Augustine's views of gender and the roles of women. He agrees with the Bible's presentation of Eve as a helper. Yet Aquinas also potentially can be construed as misogynistic in many of his views. For example, Aquinas argues that it was appropriate for God to create woman as a 'first principle'. As such Aquinas also contends that women being created as a 'first principle' is adapting to their role by tying them closer to, and complementing, man's role as head of the household. Furthermore, in contrast to Augustine, Aquinas holds that women are subordinate to men. He argues, however, that women were created for a greater spiritual and intellectual purpose that means they have authority over women by their greater powers of reason.

One particularly problematic view of Aquinas' is his views surrounding how man and woman are created in the image of God. While he argues the *imago dei* subsists in the intellectual natures of both, he holds it exists in a secondary way in man beyond that of woman. For example, he

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'man is the beginning and end of woman; as God is the beginning and end of everything'. A contentious saying in the same work is his well-known remark 'Woman is defective'. Ruether argues this commits Aquinas to a false account of woman's biological inferiority and exposes his deep-held misogyny. However, others have argued this quote has to be seen in the context of medieval biology, when it is imagined that a man's 'seed' in perfect condition creates a new being. Regardless, it can easily be argued that Aquinas echoed the cultural misogyny of his time and did little to promote gender equality in Christian theology.

Martin Luther

Luther is sometimes held up to be more progressive than his peers, partly because of the reforms he sought to make to the Christian sacraments. Luther, for example, did not uphold celibacy as a sacrament and argued against it, saying it simply made a person liable to indulgence. However, there are still a number of problematic teachings and advocates which have been subject to modern feminist criticism. Luther, like Augustine and Aquinas, still argues that the man is the head of the household, helping, marriage and procreation are his duties, and that they do not have 'mastery' of them. Luther argues that once women are married they have a duty to have sex and procreate, and the idea of a completely celibate woman was disparaged. Instead, motherhood was seen as a woman's primary duty. In this sense, Luther does not radically deviate from his contemporaries. In other areas of theology Luther proposed quite radical changes. In some ways Luther was more progressive for he subscribed to the view that it was Eve that bore the brunt of the responsibility for the Fall, it was she who deceived Adam, and this is the reason why women are subordinate to men.

Yet in examining these three theologians, it is possible to raise a number of difficult questions. Should much older thinkers should be judged by modern ethical standards. Some research suggests that the views of theologians have to be understood only in the historical context in which they lived. If this is simply reflects the prevailing social attitudes of their time, then it is possible to argue that some were more egalitarian or progressive than appears at first glance. For instance, as we have seen, Luther showed greater respect towards women as a whole than other theologians of the time, such as Augustine and Philo, who placed great blame and guilt upon Eve for the Fall. At the same time, as Ruether and Daly, contend that historical theologians did not simply reflect the prevailing attitudes, but endorsed them, creating doctrine that actively furthered the oppression of women. If this is the case, they are absolved of responsibility for perpetuating misogynistic attitudes in the Church.

Furthermore, Ruether and Daly's arguments can be supported by reference to the New Testament. If Jesus was broadly egalitarian, as reported in the Gospels, much of the Christian tradition should reflect this attitude. Instead, they draw much more on other aspects of scripture, particularly the letters of St Paul. If there was a feminist message within the Gospels, it may be that the Church ignored it or actively ignored it, even if many agree that in principle man and woman are created in the image of God. To what degree individual thinkers can also be held responsible for the patriarchal tradition of the Christian Church is also a matter of debate. Having been built up over hundreds of years, the Church is undoubtedly larger forces that led to their formation. Nevertheless, in the next section we will look at contemporary secular views on gender roles and how they might influence Christian thought.

3. Contemporary Secular Views on Gender

Over the last century, the traditional roles that women have been assigned have been challenged in many different ways. The beginning of the twentieth century saw the birth of feminism, as women began to demand equal legal rights, including the right to vote and the right to work. Women eventually began to occupy a more prominent space in work and politics, and the more systematic, psychological sexism that pervaded societies across the world. This was argued, was not solvable simply through legal equality and instead required a more fundamental change in patriarchal structures. One example is in the various cultural attitudes surrounding marriage and procreation. Many people, particularly those with religious inclinations, saw one of the major purposes of marriage as to procreate and have children. Such views were supported not just by traditional religious beliefs, but also by various other naturalistic arguments about women's biological functions and oppression.

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Yet at the same time, such arguments were seen to potentially rest on shaky foundations. Is it the case that just because women possess the capacity to be mothers they are required to fulfil such a role? **Radical feminists** in particular argued that motherhood was a role used as a method of control by patriarchal elements of society, and true equality could only be achieved by eliminating the cultural importance of motherhood and family altogether. However, other more **naturalistic feminists** have criticised this idea, arguing that motherhood and reproduction are essential aspects of womanhood that have been manipulated and controlled by male elements of society. For this kind of feminism, breaking free of such forms of manipulation that they can reach true fulfilment of their roles as mothers.

Regardless of one's position, most strands of secular feminist thinking oppose the role of women featured in historical Christian thought. The idea of women as primarily 'helpers' to men is dismissed, even if some seek to preserve the importance of motherhood. However, in light of these feminist criticisms, it is worth noting that the major fields of feminist thought are still in development. Thus, we turn first to naturalistic feminism.

Naturalistic feminism

Much of feminist thought is concerned with how women can achieve and retain their autonomy in patriarchal environments. Autonomy is a difficult concept to capture sometimes, but it is one in which a group of people possess legal autonomy but under cultural pressures are not free to pursue their occupations. In fact, many would argue such a world is reflected in the one we live in, where the thought is that understanding how women may be oppressed or pressured into certain roles is more important than granting certain rights into law but of changing the psychological and cultural structures that enforce these laws. It is both the nature of these structures and the process of changing which is the focus of much of the philosophical discussion we shall encounter in this section.

Simone D'Beauvoir provided much inspiration for second-generation feminists, especially in her 1949 book *The Second Sex*. She explored both historically and philosophically how patriarchy manifested and became so pervasive in society. Famously, she identified how women's roles were shaped by male influences. This meant they were perceived as fundamentally different or inferior to men, leading to the mystification of their thoughts and ideas, which in turn further spurred a denial of their individuality in societies. D'Beauvoir also had much to say about motherhood and family, arguing that women were 'riveted to her body' and allowed her to be dominated by men who wished to confine her. Although she conceded that there may one day be a world where women could have their own roles and be supported in equal measure by men, in the present day motherhood is a role that women are often expected to fulfil and which they succumb to under this pressure rather than through their own choice. D'Beauvoir argued that women do not have an innate instinct towards being mothers. Rather, it is a choice made to a woman if it is of her own autonomous, rational choice.

You might already sense the direction in which this section is going. D'Beauvoir's arguments challenge different thoughts about the roles women should occupy in society. While some have argued for women's views, seeking in turn to further dismiss the idea that motherhood is an essential aspect of womanhood, others contended that D'Beauvoir ignores the greater joys of reproduction and the creative potential of motherhood.

Such a line of thinking leads to a field that is broadly known as **naturalistic feminism**, which is based on the notion that there are some essential human differences between men and women. While some see such differences as evidence for the belief that this means both sexes have varying capacities, for naturalistic feminists, the aim of critical analysis of gender is to find what the essence of womanhood is, then explore how women can embrace this essence free of patriarchal influences. D'Beauvoir was right in identifying how motherhood can be constraining under patriarchy, but there is room for women to define this role for themselves by exploring different female experiences and their relationship to the wider world.

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Many naturalistic feminists as such have identified motherhood and reproduction. Simply put, men cannot know or understand the experiences women have as mothers. Biology potentially helps inform the freedoms and limitations of this role. Mary O'Brien's theories on motherhood, arguing they fail to account for how children are raised by mothers, whether it be through the values mothers can grant them or the power of reproduction. Therefore, rather than the focus of motherhood being the ways women role, O'Brien points out the ways children can be an essential and fulfilling part of the role. In this way, naturalistic feminists perhaps can find some level of agreement with the role. Although they might reject the idea of women as helpers to men, they still recognize motherhood in a similar fashion to that of the Catholic Church in the *Mulieris Dignitas*. It is to be noted that the vision of motherhood many naturalistic feminists uphold may be different from Christians, either due to its much more secular approach or the diminished role of women.

It is also necessary to note that there have been numerous critiques of naturalistic feminism relation to the way they champion motherhood. Ann Oakley, for example, argues that motherhood is a myth based upon the ideas that all women need to be mothers and that women need each other. While naturalistic feminists might seek to understand motherhood, it is wrong to think that this process will find some essential role of mothers divorced from the rest of life. As such, many feminists have criticised O'Brien's arguments, contending that drawing a line between women and motherhood is misguided, as the idea of motherhood is patriarchal and needs to be reformed. Acknowledging these issues, we can turn to a very different field of critique.

Radical Feminism

In contrast to naturalistic feminists, radical feminists have often sought to 'liberate' women from what they perceive as the oppressive and patriarchal ideas of motherhood and family. For women, motherhood was much more prominent throughout the twentieth century, with more and more women working outside the home. Yet there was still a significant pressure for women to bear children. Yet at the same time, women who became mothers were often penalised in other areas of life, whether it be career advancement or social endeavours. This meant that many critics, especially in the 1970s and 1980s, began to question motherhood itself and whether it was still used to limit and constrain the powers of women. Simply put, just because women possess the ability to be mothers does not necessarily mean they should be occupying this role, especially if throughout history motherhood has been a way for women to be confined in other areas of life.

For example, Shulamith Firestone argues that the fundamental origins of women's oppression lie in their biology. Being less physically strong as well as being the individuals biologically capable of reproduction, women are ignored when it comes to studying the patriarchal structures of society. Firestone argues that the women's struggle for emancipation can be compared to Marxist class struggle. Just as the proletariat must seize the means of production to liberate themselves, women should seize their own means of reproduction, control of the process of childbirth. For Firestone, this means using reproductive technology that enable babies to be grown artificially, removing the burden upon mothers and the biological power that they naturally fail to possess.

Such ideas are radical indeed. In the next section will see you study another radical feminist in detail: Mary Daly. But for the moment we can concentrate on Firestone's ideas, as they provide many further implications for how we understand not only motherhood but the role of women in society. We shall look at these in the next part of this section.

Alternative Views of Parenthood and Family

If Firestone is correct, then how do we envision parenthood and family in a world where reproduction is removed from natural means in any society is likely to cause a complete breakdown of familial structures and, while many might balk at such a suggestion, Firestone entertains the possibility of such changes. She argues in particular that the idea of the nuclear family is not a natural structure but a **construct** developed through patriarchal demands in society. It facilitates the father's role in the household while the mother engage in a variety of pursuits while the jobs of maintaining the household and raising children are left to the mother. Firestone, therefore, puts forward that there are other healthy

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One suggestion she makes is that raising children communally would avoid many of the problems of the nuclear family, as well as ensure children are not over-parented. Furthermore, she argues that the raising of children would eliminate inherited privilege as many people would have a single child, not just their mother and father. Overall, Firestone holds that changes in the family would aim to remove ingrained cultural ideas about gender in the minds of people, in which there are fewer or no expectations attached to being male or female.

Firestone's ideas raise the prospect that the idea of family is altogether **culturally determined**. This means it is not a model or idea set forth by God or nature but simply given by the cultural norms of a particular society. For Christians this is not an attractive prospect as the family is presented in the Bible to be the nuclear family, with a mother and a father, each fulfilling separate roles. But if Firestone is correct, there may be better ways to raise children, whether it be communally or through alternative models of family. One is simply not bound to what is given by scripture or the prevailing norms of one's culture.

However, it is important to note that many feminists disagree with Firestone's view of the family. Andrea Dworkin, for example, argues that technology is more likely to lead to a society where gender imbalance as men would no longer need to rely on extended interaction with women to have children. Instead women would simply become 'prostitutes' as the functions they would have for men would be sexual in nature. If this is true, then technology would not liberate women as Firestone envisioned. Nevertheless, we can also ask whether Firestone's own ideas really apply. Firestone's change in the idea of family may naturally be intended as a response to changes to the patriarchal structures of society that ensure other marginalised individuals are not powers associated or not associated with reproduction. Being able to use technology to create children in many other familial models to proliferate, whether it be same-sex couples or those who are arguably marginalised in current society.

Vitally, Firestone did not see her arguments as final. Her radical proposals were as a means for discussion about gender and family norms as they were to destabilise them. As such, she does not explicitly advocate reclaiming the means of reproduction at any particular time but rather to question whether structures such as the nuclear family are the only way of effectively raising children or whether they reinforce patriarchal structures that are overdue for being dismantled. Naturally, this is a topic of great interest for Christians and in the next section we will look at some of the responses that various denominations have given to secular gender theory.

Discussion Activity:

To what extent do you think traditional Christian teaching on gender roles is still relevant today? Are there reasons to believe its ideas about motherhood or family are outdated? Discuss in groups.

Christian Responses to Secular Gender Theory

For the most part, although modern feminist criticism has forced Christians slightly to re-examine their thought has held firm to its beliefs about gender roles. While many thinkers recognise that perspectives about gender and family have shifted greatly over the last 100 years, the traditional ideals of motherhood and fatherhood are still upheld as important to the Christian family and as a reflection of God's image. Yet at the same time, some have also contended that there are significant differences between Christian beliefs and some strains of feminist thought. As we briefly explored in the previous section, there are some key similarities between naturalistic feminism's endorsement of motherhood and Christian scriptural ideals. Both also emphasise the importance of the biological differences between men and women and how these may be reflected in values or responsibilities they may hold.

Nevertheless, any similarities are largely absent between Christian thought and naturalistic feminism. Christianity largely encourages an upheaval of prevailing attitudes about motherhood, family and gender roles. Moreover, we can also question to what extent Christian thought and naturalistic feminism are in agreement. Even if naturalistic feminist theories still value motherhood, they also

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of family and child-rearing as well as disagree with any portrayal of woman as a 'holy' figure. Christians, at the minimum, may view Genesis as symbolically highlighting the importance of relationships between men and women as a response to God's command to 'go forth and multiply'. However, feminists are likely to view such a command as reflective of patriarchal ideals and separate from religion's influence. They may even go so far as to argue that the subordination of women to any divine command is reflective of a certain kind of sexism or misogyny, especially if God is defined in male terms.

These issues arose in particular when we looked at the *Mulieris Dignitatem*. In this document, Pope John Paul II presents an archetype of the ideal woman. As the Theotokos, she encompasses motherhood and spirituality, and so possesses a union with God unlike any other. What is ideally feminine, therefore, exemplified in Mary. However, he also argues that in reproduction the woman is the primary agent; that although women are physically and psychologically predisposed to motherhood, this is not always taken for granted. For Catholics, this is likely to increase the value of motherhood, but it also perpetuates the oppression of women so long as men do not value the importance of motherhood.

Yet at the same time, the Catholic Church still prevents women from being ordained. This means that although supposed care is given by the Church to value women as mothers, only the role of motherhood, the Church arbitrarily limits their intellectual and spiritual growth, and so meaningfully reduces their status within society. Whether the Church likes it or not, it still implicitly makes the claim that women are of different rational or spiritual significance to men.

The difficulties don't end here, however. Pope John Paul II in the *Mulieris Dignitatem* also highlights the value of virginity and criticises what he calls the 'masculinisation' of modern teaching. In the former case, the emphasis on the value of virginity can still be seen as a way of exerting control over women's sexuality, while in the second case, the fears over differing views on sexuality may be an instance of a largely male organisation imposing its own ideals about the female body, regardless of whether it correlates to actual women's experiences. Mary Daly, who emphasises this criticism strongly. She argues that women's ideas of sexuality have been shaped by patriarchal elements, such that the free woman has to separate herself from all traditional values and thought to journey beyond any world view that prioritises male interpretation.

Overall, one can easily observe wider tensions between modern Christian thought and feminist criticism. Although Christians have largely resisted the upheaval in thought and attitudes as a result of feminism, one can still see how modern Christian thinkers and denominations have sought to reconcile the two, while still positing different roles for men and women. Moreover, it is possible to argue that the *Mulieris Dignitatem* already looks dated in light of such feminist criticism. Is it really still possible to value the importance of roles such as motherhood while denying women intellectual and spiritual growth? This potential dissonance in thought has led to some critics asking whether feminist criticism has ultimately undermined Christian thought on gender.

Has Secular Feminism Undermined Christian Teaching on Gender?

This is a difficult question to answer conclusively. Many Christians would be reluctant to admit that secular theories have impacted Christian doctrine, which is supposed to contain eternal truths. However, it is more apparent that in recent years many Christian thinkers and denominations have sought to address feminist criticisms and have attempted to outline the ways Christian thought can be gender inclusive. In the context of modern political discussion, much more attention has been given to secular beliefs and values, such that, at least within wider society, Christian teaching on gender has lost its position of importance.

One of the key difficulties potentially comes within reconciling the various strands of Christian thought. While traditional Christian teaching draws extensively on Genesis for its perspective on gender, many modern Christians argue that Jesus's message of inclusivity in the Gospels should be prioritised above the Old Testament. Such a view might be supported by more thorough historical analysis of the Bible, or by seeking the historical Jesus or those engaged in feminist hermeneutics. These forms of interpretation of traditional Christian teaching may be more a reflection of patriarchal cultural attitudes than a genuine attempt to reconcile the two.


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rather than a true representation of the will of God, especially if the prevailing mo-
historical cultures match the views put forward in the Bible.

Therefore, traditional Christian teaching faces not only demands from external se-
also from internal revisionism of Christian sources of authority. This two-pronged
is asked whether Christianity can ultimately be a religion that can outgrow its old
one hand, there are the **reconstructionist** theologians, who argue that underneath
the message Jesus gives during his ministry is very egalitarian. This means that so-
structures of the Christian religion are accurately dismantled and deconstructed, t-
truly become a gender-inclusive religion. However, there are also still many radical
Christianity is beyond saving. If this is the case then feminism and Christian thought
with the former thoroughly undermining the latter.

This is the debate we shall turn to in the next section. When we turn to the ideas of
Rosemary Radford Ruether and Mary Daly. But, as we shall see, envision a very different
Christian religion.

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Discussion Activity:
Do you believe secular feminist theory has undermined Christian teaching on gender? Or has it helped it become more progressive? Discuss in small groups or pairs.

Quick Quiz	
1.	What is a patriarchy?
2.	What is feminism?
3.	Which document sets out the Catholic Church’s views on gender roles?
4.	What is the importance of the title of Theotokos for Catholics?
5.	What is the main difference between naturalistic and radical feminism?
6.	What is the nuclear family?
7.	What does it mean to say the idea of the nuclear family is a cultural construction?

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5B: GENDER AND THEOLOGY

What you will learn in this section:

- How feminist theologians have analysed and reinterpreted the Christian God, including:
- Rosemary Radford Ruether’s reconstructionist theology, including discussion of the role of Sophia (wisdom) and the androgynous nature of God.
 - Mary Daly’s radical theology, including discussion around the historical misogyny of the ‘trinity’ and new conceptions of spirituality.
 - The debate around whether Christianity is essentially sexist and whether this is compatible with feminist thought.

Starter Activity:
Read through Chapter 9 of Ruether’s text *Sexism and God-Talk* and Chapter 4 of *Father*. Make notes on both and evaluate which you believe presents the stronger nature of misogyny in Christianity.

Key Thinker	
Name	Rosemary Radford Ruether
Born	1936
Died	N/A
Key text	<i>Sexism and God-Talk</i> (1983)
Why are they important?	Ruether is one of the most important feminist theologians of the 20th century, not only contributing extensively to reconstructionist theology but also campaigning for many different social issues as part of the Catholic Women’s Liberation Movement.
Did you know?	Ruether has been a longstanding board member of the pro-choice National Abortion Federation and has been an outspoken supporter for gender equality throughout her life.

Key Thinker	
Name	Mary Daly
Born	1928
Died	2010
Key text	<i>Beyond God the Father</i> (1973)
Why are they important?	Daly is perhaps one of the most radical and uncompromising feminist theologians, delivering some of the most pointed critiques of sexism and patriarchy throughout her academic life.
Did you know?	Daly was forced to retire from academia in 1999 for refusing to teach advanced women’s studies classes.

Introduction – Modern Feminist Theology

Throughout the last section, we took a broad look at both Christian and secular views of gender. In this section, we will look at how Christian theology has faced difficulties in light of modern feminist criticism. However, there isn’t necessarily a strict divide between the two fields. Many modern theologians, both men and women, have worked extensively to reconcile Christianity with feminist ideas, attempting to create a religion that emphasises gender equality in the process. This is naturally to some extent a contradiction, as many traditional Christians, both individuals and denominations, are reluctant to do so. In recent years, many churches have attempted to offer women the same opportunities as men in the clergy.

Nevertheless, the main issue encountered by those seeking to reform or re-evaluate Christianity is the extent to which ‘maleness’ is embedded in the religion itself. From gender-specific references to Jesus, unpicking the patriarchal elements of Christian thought is a deep and difficult task. Some critics have contended it is ultimately impossible. Moreover, it is hard to discern whether this is a necessary or desirable goal.

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Christianity can accommodate such changes. Many believers hold fast to the idea of the Word of God such that altering any key aspect of Christian thought is akin to reinterpreting the Word of God. Despite such reservations, it may be that a fatalistic attitude to the process of reconstructionist thought is misleading; the loftiness of its aims may simply be indicative that a shift in perspective and the patriarchal influences on Christian thought run far deeper than expected. This section introduces the reconstructionist theologian Rosemary Radford Ruether.

Rosemary Radford Ruether

Rosemary Radford Ruether is a well-known American feminist theologian who was responsible for helping to greatly develop critical analysis into the various patriarchal elements of Christianity theology in the 1960s (and onwards). While her early work drew upon liberal feminist traditions, she later became more radical in her views, embodying what is now often referred to as **reconstructionist** thought. She criticises the various ways misogyny and patriarchy creep into religious thought and practice, and by which Christianity can become truly equal. Therefore, while it focuses extensively on the history of Christian thought, it does not endorse a wholesale rejection of the religion. Instead, it argues that Christianity needs to be reconstructed in a way that avoids patriarchal attitudes and ideas influencing its core beliefs. This accordingly means redeveloping ideas about Christ and God which do not include male dominance and eliminate any presence of 'maleness' in statements or propositions.

In pursuing these ends, Ruether helped pioneer the use of feminist hermeneutics, discussed in the previous section. She held that this process was essential in reclaiming true Christianity from the cultural attitudes that influenced scripture at the time of its writing. However, the methodology of this form of criticism, adopting from Paul Ricoeur the 'hermeneutic of suspicion' way of analysing texts by considering how people might have previously interpreted them, rather than how they have personally gained from interpreting them a certain way. In the case of the Bible, the interpretation throughout history has been primarily from a male perspective and has evolved in line with what benefits men the most in a typically patriarchal environment. This is arguably justified considering the long lineage of male theologians, such as Augustine, whose interpretation on the whole deviated little from a potentially very misogynistic interpretation of the Bible.

The hermeneutic of suspicion, however, requires more than mere scepticism; it also requires a view of the Bible as a historical document, not the absolute Word of God. This means any interpretation is inherently subjective to a significant degree, and the legacy of patriarchal thought is testament to this. What they wish to see into the Bible rather than critically engaging with it as any other historical text. The minimum required at the minimum is a conscientious attempt to understand the Bible from its historical context. The lack of this form of interpretation in the past means Ruether argues that previous interpretations have led to a false symbolic hierarchy of 'God-male-female' in Christianity. In principle, it is held by Christian thinkers that both genders are equal.

One final important element of feminist hermeneutics worth noting is **diachronic** exegesis. When encountered the word 'exegesis' before the 19th century, it means 'reading out' and is the process of trying to discover the roughly objective meaning of any text. But 'diachronic' in this context refers to the process of understanding a text through the different ways it has been understood over time. Diachronic exegesis, therefore, is the process of 'reading out' a text with an eye to how the language of the text would have been understood at the time it was written, which differs from the understanding now. Through this process, Ruether aims to uncover how scripture would have been understood by those absorbed in the cultural attitudes of the time, and how they are understood now. What may appear normal or radical to us now may have been understood differently by earlier audiences, and examining these differences is key to reconstructing Christian theology within Christian thought. This is especially the case for Ruether, who is concerned with how the 'male-female' hierarchy emerged over time and how a gender-neutral or female-oriented Christianity might exist beneath embedded cultural attitudes.

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The Historical Jesus and Messianic Expectation

With Ruether's methodology outlined, we can turn to deeper questions about her male-focused elements of Christian thought; namely Jesus and God. In contrast to Ruether analyses the figure of Jesus not through present-day dogma but through the Messiah, which would have been the most prevalent comparison levelled at Jesus. By analysing Jesus through this lens, Ruether exemplifies the use of diachronic exegesis. While we would have been seen by his peers with how he is interpreted now. This is useful, to accurately assess the views Jesus himself possessed on gender, it is important to ask whether he would have been progressive or regressive in relation to his environment. Simply put, did he challenge the status quo during his ministry, or did he endorse them?

What Ruether ultimately argues is that in contrast to the male warrior-type Messiah for or expected by the Jewish population to liberate them from Roman occupation, Jesus was a female and progressive figure. He led in what Ruether refers to as a prophetic liberating tradition, with moral commands such as the golden rule as well as criticism of legalistic practices and egalitarian social norms. The fact that Jesus embodied these characteristics means that his teachings clashed with both religious and political authorities. These ideas may well have been revolutionary in a patriarchal culture at the time and key observations can be made about the way Jesus gave his female followers and his encouragement that they seek fulfilment in their own lives.

Ruether holds in particular that these teachings are the underlying authentic moral core of the Word of God within the Bible. However, with the biblical authors themselves being more enlightened than Jesus himself, this liberating morality ended up being dressed in the language of various Jewish cultures at the time of writing. Nevertheless, Ruether's important contribution is to show someone who fulfilled male expectations but rather was someone who sought to challenge the social order that also promoted the equality of women. The fact that Jesus was thought of as male means also that his maleness is **accidental** rather than **essential**. As such, his male identity is not central to understanding his teaching. The fact that Jesus was born a man ultimately cannot be taken as endorsing patriarchal hierarchies as endorsing the superiority of men as such a conclusion stems from an earthly teaching.

The same, Ruether argues, is true of God. Most Christians will hold God to be gendered exclusively male terms such as Father, Lord or King when describing him. While to a certain extent, Ruether argues that the use of these male terms has contributed to the marginalisation of feminine perspectives in theology since power, wisdom and goodness are symbols of masculine ideals. Furthermore, Ruether contends that the sole use of male language for God is a cultural phenomenon than might be expected. Going back further in history, there are other deities that were employed, one of which we will take a closer look at in the next part.

The Role of Wisdom

At the start of this section it was broadly asserted that many of the terms used to describe God are male. However, Ruether argues that this is a convention without precedent in early forms of monotheism. This means that female terms may have been historically used to describe God but were marginalised or lost through patriarchal influence. One particularly important term often thought of as representing wisdom. Ruether argues that Sophia was used as a metaphor for the maleness of God. This is due to the preference for male terms among scholars when describing God. Ruether contends that Jesus may have originally been a prophet of Wisdom in the tradition of Proverbs and Solomon, mediating Sophia through his ministry until rival interpretations emerged among his followers after his death. Such an idea may also carry weight if Jesus's maleness is seen as accidental rather than essential.

You might well see the focus of Ruether's thought coming together at this point. She argues that there is a **golden thread**, or a consistent set of themes running throughout Christianity. One of these is the importance of **liberation**. Whether it be the emphasis upon wisdom or the egalitarian teaching, this golden thread raises up both men and women and, as such, any interpretation that overemphasises maleness fails to do justice to the role of liberation in scriptural texts.

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naturally implied to be less perfect or vital to the spiritual life than men. As such, that certain elements of scripture are irrefutably patriarchal, there is much to be liberating theme is held in mind when reading it. More importantly, this critical lens be reconstructed with an eye upon gender neutrality.

Reconstructing God

So what is the way forward for modern Christianity? Ruether herself acknowledges this move is unconvincing to traditional Christians; it involves the selection of certain passages over others, while discarding aspects thought to be overly patriarchal or misogynist. However, it leads to the natural conclusion that aspects of modern theology should be adjusted to include liberating themes within scripture. The most obvious starting point is to start with God. The reconstructionist theologian typically argues that gender-neutral terms for referring to God, while if gendered terms are used, they should be an equal mix of male and just male. To some this seems radical, but theologians such as Ruether typically note that God is genderless in principle, so the precedent for using male terms is not one that necessarily holds in theological discourse, especially if it is fundamentally inaccurate. Moreover, the move towards gender-neutral or female-leaning terminology can only have the upshot of encouraging religious experiences for the Christian Church.

Similarly, over-references to Jesus’s maleness should be downplayed if his maleness is less than essential. One is simply being more theologically accurate when one excludes narratives of his life that do not encompass his egalitarian and liberation-focused aspects. This proposal are perhaps more significant. Catholic ideas such as apostolic succession and adopting such a reconstructionist feminist perspective towards scripture naturally lead to the conclusion that there should be an equal balance of genders in all Church positions. One who is not to be ordained is contrary to the golden thread of liberation Ruether identifies in the Bible.

Despite these changes being significant, it should always be noted that, for reconstructionists, that Christianity can be repaired and purged of at least a significant amount of its patriarchal section, we shall look at a thinker who, contrary to such a line of thinking, argues that Christianity is fundamentally irredeemably misogynistic. In fact, she holds that in order for women to be envisioned by Ruether, women have to construct their own religion which prioritises women’s experiences.

Janet Sosskice and the Trinity

Ruether’s reconstructionism has been influential. One supporting argument comes from looking at the Trinity and the way it may be interpreted without gender bias. She notes that in the concept of the incarnation, there has always been the belief that while Jesus is female, he can be thought of as Jesus alone in a similar fashion. Simply put, there is something about the divine that is not fulfilled by Jesus’s male form. Jesus is fundamentally human, not essentially divine. His earthly body misses essential aspects which God possesses.

Sosskice notes, however, that, contrary to this observation, the Trinity has always been based on male dynamics, e.g. the Father/Son relationship. Yet if these male terms are not essential characteristics, then it is important that they are recontextualised to include female structures. This is a process which has its own risks. One doesn’t want to eliminate the relationship between God and Jesus by using neutral terms, but equally one doesn’t want to retain the Father/Son relationship, which relegates women’s essence to that of motherhood.

Therefore, Sosskice argues one should seek to supplement male language with a female language so that God is represented by both genders. This means the grammar and terminology of the Bible is not limited by aspects of male cultural interpretation but can include all human experiences.

Discussion Activity:

Do you believe Ruether’s reconstructionist perspective does enough to eliminate patriarchal elements of Christian theology? Discuss in pairs or small groups.

Mary Daly

Mary Daly was an American feminist philosopher and theologian who, in her own words, described herself as a 'radical lesbian feminist'. While her work initially began in a much more liberal or reconstructionist vein, her later writing, beginning with *Beyond God the Father* in 1973, became increasingly radical, expressing severe doubt as to whether the liberation of women could ever occur within the Christian religion.

This transformation of thought, however, didn't come out of nowhere. From the very beginning, her work encompassed many different radical themes. In *The Church and the Second Sex* (1969), she argued that Christianity presents only an illusion of gender equality, when in actuality women were excluded from theological discourse and denied participation in the spiritual fulfilment the religion offered. One of the main difficulties she identifies, and which continues to play a key role in her work, is the male dominance of Jesus. She ultimately contends that both God and Jesus's maleness are highly problematic. In her work these aspects will always be interpreted as representing the superiority of men over women. One of hers that became particularly well known was her claim that 'if God is male then the world is male'.

So what does this mean? Well, for Daly, it signifies that the reconstructionist project is not simply about to change the language we use to describe God, or identify liberation. The foundations of Christian thought simply prioritise man over woman and such a project is recontextualising or adjusting the way we study this fact. This might sound very positive, but she would not believe that if women are to achieve liberation in any spiritual pursuits, this cannot be achieved within religion. In fact, she argued for the metaphorical 'castration' of God. This meant castrating the term, since it was loaded with patriarchal connotations. Instead, God should be reimagined as a verb instead of a noun. For Daly, this represented the importance of women not only surviving oppression (both theological and secular) but also embracing the possibility of being liberated and realising how they can achieve self-fulfilment and self-imagination.

This might sound quite abstract, but for Daly modern theological discourse was largely shaped by male influences. Simply put, the only way forward was to abandon both the thought and the language of the discussion. Yet because this thought and language is so prevalent, it requires more than usual to work out how women can be truly liberated from its use. Christianity is not a step backwards. Its endorsement of Jesus as a unique male saviour only supports the male's superiority in theology, regardless of whether the historical Jesus was egalitarian or not. In fact, of all. All Christian thought has done for women, in Daly's view, is encourage a self-doubt that women are a source of temptation and that meekness for them is an ideal virtue.

Therefore, we can already see how Daly significantly diverges in thought from mainstream Christianity. The summary above does not do justice to her critiques of the Christian religion. For a more detailed look at her examination of the history of Christianity and what she terms the **unholy trinity**, see the next section.

The Unholy Trinity

In contrast to the view of most traditional theologians, Daly argues that our moral values are not become known through study of scripture or through specific forms of revelation. Rather, she argues that Christian ethics is a male construct; a consequence of patriarchal influences shaped to suit men's needs. For women, this means their morals and virtues are focused around the idea that women are naturally submissive or victims and they should act accordingly. Women are not to ask for the same powers or wishes as men, whose morality is focused around entitlement to physical and psychological freedom to engage with the world as they see fit.

Daly argues that this gendered separation of morality results in an overt concentration of **phallogocentric power**. This means that the prevailing structures of society are naturally geared towards giving men an advantage in their ends while women are restricted from pursuing their own fulfilment or liberation. The fact that this male power is entrenched in conflict with Christianity as far as Daly sees it. Rather both are intertwined with each other, as through this concentration of phallogocentric power Christianity naturally gives rise to the

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she terms the **unholy trinity** of rape, genocide and war, phenomena that have accented Christian thought across the world. Simply put, although many Christians view the peaceful one, the natural power imbalance that lies at the heart of the religion and these evil acts have been both overtly and surreptitiously endorsed throughout history.

Ultimately, Daly argues that whatever female perspective there might be in Christianity is conspicuously absent from Christianity's own religious history, and institutionalised patriarchy provide support or emancipation for women. So why are the reconstructionists so keen on liberating themes in a religion that has never cared for them? Daly here primarily argues that it may well be a false aim to try to save a religion that throughout its history has only provided justification to the evil acts of men across the world. If this is the case, might it not be better to create a new religion with real egalitarian or female-focused principles? Well, this is precisely what we shall explore in the next part.

Christianity and Myth

In her 1978 book *Gyn/Ecology*, Daly presents the fullest realisation of her radical critique of Christianity. Christianity is not only a construct of male power but it also consists of pre-existing elements that have subverted and altered from pre-Christian beliefs in other ancient religions. In particular, she shows that Christianity as a whole is based upon older goddess myths and stories of female power. For example, she identifies the Trinity as having been formulated prior to Christianity in Hellenistic, Celtic and African cultures. Similarly to Ruether, therefore, Daly looks to the history of religious history to find pre-existing themes and ideas that justify looking at the world through a female lens.

However, Daly's conclusions are far different, for she advocates 'stealing' back the personhood and divinity that have been taken from women by patriarchal Christianity. In doing so, Daly effectively reclaims the myths that were the precursor to Christianity and a more fitting basis for a religion that prioritises women. For in *Gyn/Ecology*, Daly perhaps makes some of her strongest criticisms of Christianity and Christian thought. One often cited passage is where she describes Mary as the **Tool** of the Father, that in the virgin birth, Mary is made to be subordinate. She is stripped of her age and identity, Jesus and spiritually invaded by God while giving little resistance. This makes her a passive eyes, a hollow vessel exploited by Christian tradition who comes to represent the ideal woman under the Christian faith.

Thus Daly seeks to cast herself as a **pirate**, taking back the personhood and divinity that have been taken from women. Yet, she also holds that, for the liberated woman, a new spirituality cannot be built from pre-existing elements of Christian thought. Instead, Daly held that women should create their own spirituality in their religious pursuits. Through this pursuit women as a whole can grow closer to themselves and free themselves of the malignant influences of patriarchal religions such as Christianity. Christianity is simply left behind. It is not a religion that can be saved in meaningful ways, but rather for the full and complete liberation of women.

So, overall, we can see a few key elements of Daly's position. The first is that a genuine spirituality cannot be created by a messiah or God-like figure. Such an idea, as Daly holds, is ultimately patriarchal; it is a system of power as devised by men and forces women to submit to a male-type authority figure. A true spirituality requires understanding God as Be-ing and experiencing God through one's own life and everyday actions. The second element, connected to this idea, is that women's spirituality should not rely on a male saviour or idol. Any such relationship naturally devalues women and forces them to deny their importance in favour of worship coined or wished by patriarchal religion. An important aspect of Daly's thought here, which underpins this idea, is that men as a whole are not suited to developing a proper spiritual life in accordance with Daly's ideals. The male, for Daly, is inherently predisposed towards violence, power and conflict – the very forces that stand in conflict with her vision. As such, the future of women's spirituality lies in a significant degree of separation from men.

However, such a view is not only very controversial, but wholly conflicts with Ruether's views. Ruether has often pointed out that Daly here commits to a kind of essentialist thinking that contradicts her egalitarian principles. For Daly, men and women are not equal. Women are the ground of being, and men are the

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through unjust means are forced to submit to male wills, whether it be in politics or in the domestic sphere. Such a view is undeniably radical, but Daly would argue that her point is not to make observations. Countless wars, conflicts and abuses of power have been committed in the name of religion; why should one believe that traditional religion can be an effective restraint on this? If one cannot find genuine spirituality in a religion which seems to prioritise these worst traits, why should one?

Such questions raise the prospect that Christianity itself may not be worth saving. This is the final part of this section.

Activity:

Look back across your notes on the previous part of the specification (5A Gender and Sexuality). Do both Ruether and Daly do you think there is a golden thread running through some of their previous work and judge whether there is more evidence for Ruether's or Daly's perspective.

Can Christianity be Reconciled with Feminism?

Throughout this section we explored two competing perspectives: Ruether's reconstructionist and Daly's radical feminist theology. The former holds that Christianity can be saved; the elements of Christian thought are dismantled and the religion reconstructed alongside the accompanying scripture. The latter holds that Christianity cannot be saved; it is irredeemably misogynistic to its core, and, regardless of the efforts reconstructionists might put in, if it has a male saviour it will never achieve the liberation of women.

This issue is perhaps the crux of the debate. Much of the difference between Ruether and Daly is based upon the prominence given to the 'maleness' of Jesus. While Ruether holds that this is accidental, such that a genderless interpretation of his ministry is possible, Daly argues that it can never be separated from the male supremacy it justifies among many Christians. This is a difficult issue to solve. One might argue that Daly is being unduly pessimistic. How does she know that Christianity will fail when it hasn't even been tried? However, one might also hold that Daly is justified in her pessimism. Whether one promoted women's liberation or not has little bearing for those traditional theologians who uphold the hierarchy of genders. Moreover, why should one support a project to reconstruct a religion? Why not simply leave it behind and seek a new truly liberating form of spirituality? It simply stands to reason that self-liberation cannot occur while one bows to a figurehead.

There are also difficulties faced in interpreting the Bible for Ruether that are perhaps more apparent to the reconstructionist camp. While Jesus might have promoted equality between men and women, the Bible is still largely a document devoid of female experience. To that end, it is questionable whether the liberating tradition she desires. Furthermore, it might even be contended that her interpretation is highly speculative and subjective. How can one know if one has truly hit upon a new interpretation or if one is simply reading what one desires into biblical narratives? A final, perhaps more practical, question is whether it is even possible to adequately replace the male Christian vocabulary with a female-oriented terms without losing aspects of traditional theological meaning. The reconstructionist risks picking up losing important levels of insight into the nature of God or human beings by seeking to replace traditional language without considering the full range of connotations traditional terms might carry.

Yet Daly herself also faces many similar criticisms. By her own admission, she is extremely critical of the methodology in theology, for it has typically been used by theologians to rationalise and justify the status quo throughout history. But such an approach also leaves her open to the objection that her new 'gospel' of God is far from comprehensive or meaningful. Why should we accept Daly's claim that a new spirituality can be found outside Christianity, and should we reject the idea that there is nothing new to be said about God? In particular, there have been many issues raised around her rejection of the existing mythology behind Christian thought. Many would argue that if one extends the history of conceptions of God can be traced back to another mythological origin. Yet, the belief in the ministry of Jesus is within a Jewish context, not from a pre-Christian mythological one.

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Here Ruether may have the clear advantage as her aim is in part to recover the his depiction of his ministry is greatly different from that of traditional Christian doctrine claim that morality is ultimately constructed by men. Many would disagree with her religious and tend to believe that there are moral principles that are universal and Ruether’s methodology makes a lot more sense. The golden thread she identifies truths that God has offered to humankind throughout history, but which have been fallibility and cultural context. Regardless, both Ruether and Daly have much to write both may have pertinent points to make about the future of Christianity as a whole

Quick Quiz	
1.	What is reconstructionist feminist theology?
2.	What is the hermeneutic of suspicion?
3.	What is the difference between accidental and essential maleness?
4.	What is Ruether’s golden thread?
5.	What is the unholy trinity in Daly’s thought?
6.	Why is Mary the Total Woman Victim for Daly?
7.	Why does Daly describe herself as a pirate?

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6A: THE CHALLENGE OF SECULARISM

What you will learn in this section:

- The challenges facing Christianity from the rise of secularism and secularisation, including:
- The view that God is an illusion and belief in his existence is a form of wish-fulfilment.
 - The ideas of Sigmund Freud and Richard Dawkins and their criticisms of Christianity.
 - The belief that Christianity and other religions should not be present in public life and have no role in education and government.
 - The criticisms that Christianity is a major cause of social and personal conflict and that whether secularism and secularisation present opportunities for the religion or a net harm to the general good.

Starter Activity:
What issues in society can you identify as arising from religious conflict? Note down your ideas and relate them to the ideas studied throughout this section.

Key Thinker	
Name	Sigmund Freud
Born	1856
Died	1939
Key text	<i>The Future of an Illusion</i>
Why are they important?	Freud is the most famous and perhaps the most influential figure in psychology of all of history, even though many of his ideas are now thought of as outdated. From dreams to neuroses and aberrant behaviours, Freud was the first to use psychoanalysis to understand and treat a wide array of mental health issues.
Did you know?	Freud in his early years advocated for cocaine as a treatment for various illnesses. This position he was naturally later forced to abandon.

Key Thinker	
Name	Richard Dawkins
Born	1941
Died	N/A
Key text	<i>The God Delusion</i> (2006)
Why are they important?	Dawkins is an incredibly important figure in evolutionary biology. His book <i>The Selfish Gene</i> popularising a gene-centred perspective on natural selection. In recent years, his atheism has taken centre stage, with Dawkins becoming one of the most prominent critics of religion in the public sphere.
Did you know?	Dawkins is responsible for introducing the term 'meme' into popular culture. The Internet might hold the record for his most important achievement.

Introduction – The Rise of Secularism

It is often a common observation that, at least in the Western world, it is increasingly common to find a society that is either atheistic or agnostic, a historical process that is often referred to as **secularisation**. Religion has played much less of a role in public life than it once did. In the UK, for example, there is a clear separation between **church and state**, meaning that the Christian Church does not play an active role in government decision-making. Yet even a cursory look back across the last few thousand years shows the importance of religion as a phenomenon. For the most part, religious thought and politics have been deeply intertwined. To a large extent this is still the case across many different states and countries. However, over the last century or so, secularisation has taken place. On the one hand, the rise of modern scientific enquiry and the way in which religion was once relied upon to answer are now solved by secular means. On the other hand, the sidelining of religious thought have been increased criticisms of many major faiths. It is often granted, for instance, that the Christian Church is a beacon of moral guidance, and that its teachings have been a source of inspiration for many of the world's greatest leaders.

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have often claimed that religion itself is a social malaise, responsible not only for a lack of progress but also for much of the conflict, violence and oppression around the world.

Throughout this section, we will break these claims down, seeking to understand them from **secularism**; the view that individuals have the right to be free from the influence of religion in their private and public lives. Despite this broad definition, secularism can encompass many different views. Some may advocate an atheistic or materialistic view of the world, rejecting religious practices and beliefs on a philosophically reasonable basis. Furthermore, they also typically support leaving all decisions to individual choice. This means that governments cannot be allowed to be influenced by religious beliefs. For example, such as education should not uncritically teach religious thought. Such ideas are often seen as a threat to present an existential threat to religion itself. For example, many conservative Christians argue that political decision-making is so deeply separated from the teachings of the Bible that secular criticisms of Christianity may present an unexpected opportunity for the religion to grow and remain meaningful for individuals in the modern world. Before we explore this further, however, it is worth exploring another system of thought closely tied to the process of secularism.

What is Humanism?

When we consider the decline of religion in the world, we're not just pointing towards the decline of religious ideas but the adoption of a new, secularly oriented system of thought. Most commonly, humanists or areligious often support a broad set of ideas known as **humanism**. Humanists typically reject what they perceive to be dogma, superstition and faith-based thinking, preferring what they see as rational, critical thinking and scientific discovery. In practice, this means humanists are often critical of religion and its impact upon the world. However, philosophically humanism also presents a range of arguments. Central to adherents is often the belief that meaningful ethical systems should not rely on God as a justification or reason for their adoption. Furthermore, humanists value the importance of individual freedoms and the need for scientific progress. This means that in the event of a conflict with scientific theory, humanists side with the latter over the former.

Why, though, is humanism important when considering the place of religion in the modern world? To consider the rise of humanistic and/or scientific thought to be one of the major reasons for the decline of religion occurred across many different countries. Moreover, many thinkers sympathetic to humanism have presented many of the key criticisms of religious thought that have arguably inspired the rise of atheism or atheist. Therefore, in the next part of this section, we shall look at two key thinkers who argue that Christianity and other religions are not only fundamentally irrational but have contributed to oppression across the world.

Is Belief in God Rational?

One part of assessing the place of Christianity in the modern world is to assess whether religious beliefs are rational. As noted before, humanistic thinking often values rationality, such that irrational beliefs are ones which should not be promoted in public life. Crucially, as we shall see, critics of religion often see irrational thought or belief as the basis for conflict, which to some degree can be argued to be true.

Yet at the same time, even Christians acknowledge that a significant part of the reason for the decline of religion is secular criticism which often claims the religion with irrationality? Well, one important aspect of this criticism has been to see the psychological basis for belief in God. This line of thinking wishes to argue that religious beliefs are nothing more than neuroses or delusions arising out of natural human wishes, fears, or illusions or projection, arising out of human ignorance about the underlying laws and forces that govern events to happen. In an 'enlightened' world, in which human beings possess a significant amount of scientific knowledge, critics often claim that religion is effectively obsolete. It neither presents a true picture of the natural world nor is it needed to make sense of events that at first glance seem foolish or inexplicable.

This might seem an unusual line of criticism to press. The majority of Christian thought, however, would argue that religious thought, just like any other kind of belief, has a psychological basis. Rather than being irrational, the validity of beliefs cannot be reduced down to their psychological form. Yet, it is precisely these critiques of religious thought do effectively cast doubt on the idea that religious beliefs are rational.

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to communication with God. Furthermore, they potentially present a naturalistic religious belief arose that does not rely on the existence of a divine being. As such if even such critiques cannot disprove God, they do justify scepticism about whether rational. Simply put, if there is a simpler, natural explanation for human belief in God.

Freud and Wish-fulfilment

The first important figure we can look at who sets out a psychological critique of religion is Sigmund Freud. Freud was a strict atheist and viewed religion as a series of psychological processes that humans develop as a response to the natural world. It is an illusion, not in the sense of a false idea, but as a form of wish-fulfilment that humans subconsciously want the world to be. The religious wish, therefore, for Freud is a response to the history of human thought but also in the basic experiences and psychology of each individual. Throughout his work he switches between analysing religion as a general human response to individual anxieties and neuroses that form the basis for its adoption.

Much of Freud's thoughts on religion are detailed in *The Future of an Illusion*. Within this work he argues that religion is simply a natural psychological response to the apparent chaos and unpredictability of the natural world. Whether it be volcanoes, earthquakes, droughts, there are many natural events that to the naked eye seem random and uncontrollable. This means for the everyday person, who is generally concerned with survival and preventing harm to themselves, there is a natural anxiety in dealing with the forces of nature. What Freud argues is that this anxiety subconsciously creates a desire within human beings not only to understand these natural forces but to control them. This desire which leads to the idea of divine beings. By believing in the power of gods who are capable of transforming the natural world, human beings can then develop ways to align themselves with their will. Through acts such as prayer or sacrifice, human beings can appeal to gods to intervene on their behalf and save them from the chaotic powers of nature. In this way, human beings establish control over the natural world in the face of their anxieties about their own survival.

Freud's ideas here are simple but persuasive. He points towards many different examples of how societies hold to be important. For instance, a society reliant upon harvesting crops might worship a god, as currying favour with this god might ensure bountiful harvests. Examples of this can be found in Greek paganism, where many different gods are thought to represent different aspects of the natural world. However, we might also ask how Freud's theorising leads to the God of Christianity. The attributes of God aren't easily connected to specific elements of nature nor are they limited to the natural world.

Well, here Freud looks at how the wish for God manifests itself on an individual level. He contends one is intensely exposed to the various dangers of the world and, as such, needs to rely on others for one's survival. Parents are the most obvious caregivers here, but children also rely on adults in different ways. Yet when one looks at the Christian God, one can begin to see how the wish for God takes its form and one's wishes or experiences as a child. For example, within the Judaism of Freud's time, it was asserted that God is the Father of humankind. Moreover, God is thought to be perfect and to offer human beings salvation despite their suffering on Earth. Freud, therefore, argues that the wish for God is the same sense as one wishes for a parent to take care of us. If human beings grow older and lose the safety of their parental upbringing, they continue to seek the security of their caregivers.

Therefore, for Freud, the Christian God is still just another example of wish-fulfilment in an unforgiving world. Each person has a powerful psychological need or incentive for religion, whether he does in reality. Freud, therefore, argues that psychological experiences are relied upon to demonstrate this existence. They are fundamentally irrational wish-fulfilments. The only way believing in the existence of God could be rational is if he were the result of scientific enquiry, something Freud thought to be an impossible task.

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Assessing Freud's Ideas

Freud's arguments do have an intuitive appeal. Whether or not one believes God to be an important psychological niche in human life and, taken at face value, it can easily conjure up the concept as a crutch in their everyday lives. Yet despite Freud's ideas being also faced numerous criticisms from both the theological and psychological communities, theories often provide useful explanations for human behaviour, they also often fail to be a marker of what makes a good scientific theory. In the case of religious belief, although Freud explains how the idea of God arises, he cannot necessarily say how religious concepts might differ between particular religions diverge from each other in thought.

Many religious critics, as such, have pointed out that just because Freud provides a psychological explanation for belief in God, this explanation does not prove there is no God altogether. In fact, if a person believes in the realms of possibility that he would create within human beings the capacity to understand and wish to connect with him. What Freud might perceive as wish-fulfilment is in fact actually a desire to reconcile with their creator. Therefore, it is not strictly the case that Freud's argument proves the non-existence of God altogether. Freud in particular can be viewed as a strong advocate for **psychoanalysis**, where mental processes and behaviour are determined by pre-existing mental structures or ideas held by the individual. One of the early psychoanalysts, but one of the main issues they faced was the lack of an obvious logical connection between certain mental events and their deeper complex meanings. If belief in God is caused by deeper anxieties in the human psyche, this is not evidence of God being irrational. Such anxieties may well have been placed by God himself.

While Freud's models of the mind might be less impactful than previously thought, they have provided Christians and secularists might learn from his arguments. Perhaps the greatest is that many different emotions and ideas might come into play when thinking about God to what God might be himself. This possibility will be explored more when we look at the history of religious belief, but for the moment we shall turn to our second thinker: Richard Dawkins. He seeks to paint religious belief as fundamentally irrational.

Dawkins and the Irrationality of Religious Belief

Dawkins famously argued against the rationality of belief in God in his aptly named 2006 book *The God Delusion*. In it he not only argues that religion is a delusion compared to healthy atheistic attitudes, but that religious thinking can take its place. This means that fundamental moral principles can be understood and lived without reference to God or religion. In particular, he argues that religious beliefs need to be justified by any other argument. This leads to an evaluation of that he calls the 'God hypothesis', where belief in God is weighed against conflicting views of the universe.

Many of his criticisms against religious belief focus on the various arguments for God throughout history. For example, Dawkins strongly argues that it is not possible to infer the existence of God from the world itself and that natural selection and other scientific theories are superior to any religious explanation of the cause of the world. Simply put, the idea of God served as a useful explanation through ignorance, but now that scientific enquiry offers a more reliable insight into the causal structure of the world, the idea of God serves no explanatory purpose. As a result, theists can only offer 'God of the gaps', where they seek to infer the existence of God through gaps in current scientific knowledge. Dawkins argues that such a use of scientific enquiry in the past is only evidence that gaps in knowledge are closed and the concept of God rendered even more meaningless.

Beyond such criticisms, however, one of Dawkins' most important proposals is that religion is an 'accidental by-product' of how the mind intentionally considers the world around it. He argues that in the absence of explanation for a particular natural phenomenon, human beings tend to create explanations for events that might seem meaningless or causeless, even if such answers are wrong. A multitude of ideas or beliefs might form about the world which aren't connected to any real processes. These ideas accordingly spread between humans through a process known as 'memes'. A biological idea proposed by Dawkins about how genes replicate and spread across populations, but in a more general sense to explain how abstract ideas propagate throughout human culture.

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Most importantly, memetics puts forward that the fittest ideas within a human culture propagate the most. However, the ability for an idea to survive is not necessarily reflective of the nature of the world itself. Rather, its propagation is often due to how it reflects certain desires of humans about how they wish the world was ordered. In the case of Christianity, that at its core it presents a series of very attractive ideas. It gives a simple message centred around one God, making it easy to understand and replicate among humans. Faith also makes it difficult to reject, as belief in the Christian God does not have to be based on empirical evidence. In fact, Dawkins contends that followers of Christianity are often weak and trust in powers beyond their control.

Therefore, Christianity as a religion is well suited to spreading among human beings, even if it is not a set of ideas which best explain the world around us. If belief were judged on the basis of a hypothesis, the God hypothesis would be ruled out. Moreover, if Dawkins is correct, the reliance upon the importance of faith and submitting oneself to a higher power makes it difficult to assess Christianity objectively. They are fundamentally committed to an irrational belief in the fulfilling nature of Christian belief over its actual truth.

Assessing Dawkins' Critique

Dawkins has become a bit of a magnet for controversy over the last 25 years for his views on religion. His thought shares a lot of similarities with that of Freud in identifying religious belief as a form of irrational or delusional thinking, his explanation for why Christian belief is so prominent is a better understanding of the intuitive appeal of its message. As such, it potentially avoids some of the criticisms at Freud. For Dawkins, the psychological origins of religious belief are less important than the message which it presents easy-to-understand explanations for mysterious phenomena. Yet, even if it is superseded by more accurate scientific knowledge, it can be equally understood and accepted in countries with higher levels of literacy and education.

However, just as in the case of Freud, it can also be pointed out that noting the 'flaws' is not really an argument against them. Moreover, theologians such as Alister McGrath have pointed out the ways in which Dawkins himself possesses a limited understanding of Christian thought. He presents dated critiques of religion and oversimplifies the arguments of theologians such as C.S. Lewis. Importantly, McGrath also argues Dawkins ignores the ways in which modern theologians have accommodated many of his critiques. Contrary to the 'God hypothesis' being a rival to scientific enquiry, the two may in fact complement each other, with theology providing answers to questions outside of the remit of scientific knowledge.

Noting these points is important because the way Dawkins frames religious belief as a world view that conflicts with the rational knowledge given by scientific enquiry is flawed. If complementary, then this argument has much less force. Moreover, the memetic theory reflects the way they answer questions that scientific enquiry is not poised to answer. Religion as a whole simply reflects the success it has where science does not. Such fields may be seen as questions of meaning that, although being answerable from a humanistic perspective, are of importance to those who are spiritually minded. Therefore, it is important to note that even if it makes a good case for elements of religious thought being irrational, such a case is based on an oversimplified understanding of religions such as Christianity.

But even if there are grounds for rationally accepting a place for religious thought as a part of public life? For example, does it have a role in education or politics? The question of whether it forms a valid perspective on the world is arguably still a separate question from religious belief. Both Freud and Dawkins, as we shall see in the next section, go further with their argument that it is the cause of much strife and conflict around the world, and that it should be confined to the private sphere of any society.

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Discussion Activity:

Do you think that religious belief is fundamentally irrational? In pairs or small groups, discuss the ideas of Freud and Dawkins before presenting your own views to the others.

Should Christianity be Part of Public Life

Many critics of religion have claimed that despite many variations promoting peace, the history of religious thought has often accompanied violent, destructive behaviour. The power of religion claims exclusive access to the truth of salvation, its followers are often willing to use force in the face of disagreement, especially when many religions favour adherence to their own teachings. This is quite a strong claim but perhaps one that is supported by evidence. In the course of history, there have been a vast number of conflicts, both internal and external, stretching back throughout the centuries, often rooted in theological disagreement. One prominent example is the Crusades, where multiple European powers fought in the Middle Eastern lands in search of conflict and war.

Yet at the same time, one common reply to these kinds of criticism is that they overplay the role of religion. In many cases of religious conflict, different political and social motives often play a significant role in the conflict despite the Bible's message of peace. As such, it is equally easy to claim that the violence in the name of religion is more often than not due to personal ambitions or motivated by other factors rather than specific religious principles. However, this response equally might underplay the role of religion. It is true that religious psychologically formed reasons for the violent or destructive acts they commit. The religious beliefs of a section may predispose an individual to certain acts they would avoid if they were not religious or if they were not motivated, regardless of whether their respective religion promotes peace.

It is, therefore, easy to observe the complex nature of the debate around the goods and evils of religion, regardless of the occasional goods religion might provide, when part of public life is dominated by conflict rather than peace. Furthermore, whatever goods religion can provide can be met by other means. On the other hand, for ordinary Christians, the moral principles in the Bible may not be the only source of moral guidance. Denying Christianity a role in public life is, therefore, not only denying the religious beliefs of a section of the population but also excluding important insights into human behaviour upon public affairs. Furthermore, for many Christians, evangelism is an important part of their faith. If salvation is only achievable through Jesus Christ, then at least basic teaching of the faith by the government is important to ensure any person can be saved if they wish.

Nevertheless, before we take a deeper look at whether religion should be a part of public life, it is worth coming back to the views of Freud and Dawkins, in order to see how their beliefs about the irrationality of religion tie in with their perception of it as damaging to society. This will not only become easier to understand their respective criticisms of religion as a part of public life but also possible to potentially gain a deeper psychological appreciation of how a peaceful society might be achieved. Christianity can stoke violence or conflict on a broader level.

Freud and the Neurosis of Religion

Freud focuses less in his work on whether religion was responsible for social ills and more on the nature of religious belief. However, he does come to address somewhat how religious beliefs can lead to violence and conflict. Freud's picture of humankind as essentially men, views it as being driven by two main forces. Under the surface of our good behaviour lie numerous instincts and impulses that lead to destructive behaviour. The main influence restraining such behaviour are the social norms and conventions acting in a way that preserves the overall future of a particular culture or society. Freud is well informed these social conventions such that religious thought has been a way of satisfying the human natural desire to control the instincts of humankind. So why does religion often lead to conflict?

Well, Freud notes that the human mind's need for security in the face of the chaotic world often leads to faith and religion being exclusionary. If there are multiple competing religions that each claim to be the only true faith, it casts doubt and anxiety on any individual human being able to control the forces of the world. This attitude to other religions can easily foster aggressive and hostile attitudes to those who do not share the same faith. war and conflict. Simply put, while religion can encourage seemingly good behaviour within its own culture, it also encourages aggressive behaviour by those outside of it, regardless of whether the religion promote peace. The need to quell human psychological anxieties by providing a sense of security and aggressive urges and pushes away the good behaviour encouraged by the practice of religion.

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This is quite a broad picture but is a potentially intuitive explanation for religious communities there is rarely internal violence, but large-scale violence has often occurred between different religions. However, Freud also goes deeper into the individual psychology of Christianity in particular. He notes that many Christians are encouraged to view themselves as fundamentally sinful, whether it be impulses towards sexual activity or towards violence. These impulses, others will often shame them into feeling guilty. Now, while these feelings of **guilt** might be useful in stabilising human aggression in societies, Freud argues that this leads to **neurosis** in human populations. Individuals, rather than understanding the difference between right and wrong, are constantly torn between acting upon their impulses and feeling guilty for doing so, with anxiety and irrational fears in equal measure.

Freud often focuses on guilt within his wider work, identifying many ways in which human beings experience it in response to wider moral forces, whether it be religion, the governance of one's parents or the principles of a particular society. He argues that guilt often drives human actions subconsciously in a myriad of ways, even if unwarranted. In the case of Christianity, human beings are encouraged to feel guilty about actions that aren't even a part of, such as the death and atonement of Jesus Christ. While undoubtedly this would have been a source of guilt for his immediate followers, especially if his death led to their redemption, it meant future Christian thinkers became obsessed around being guilty for Jesus's sacrifice and to redeem oneself in the eyes of God. One example is communion, a form of worship that is a revival of the ancient **totem feast**, where primitive societies absolved their guilt by sharing in its consumption. Whereas in primitive societies, this would have been a sacrifice to a totem, Christianity introduces Christ as the object of shared sacrifice for its followers. The blood represents shared participation in the guilt around his death.

However, Freud contends that even if this kind of guilt encourages good behaviour, with it in Christian thought is ultimately damaging, especially when it is repressed into subconscious behaviour. It leads to various neuroses in human beings that become conscious level. People might become depressed or anxious in ways that seem to have no reason. Combined with the exclusionary attitudes of many religions, Freud seems to argue that not only an irrational psychological wish but also a detriment to human fulfilment. A more humanistic perspective is one that sheds the guilt and neurosis associated with religion.

However, at the same time, many religious individuals take umbrage with Freud's arguments. They often argued that Freud's examples of guilt are highly selective and fail to take account of Christian beliefs. The ritual of communion, for example, is just a manifestation of atonement rather than a reflection of deep-seated guilt. Similarly, many might say that people find their faith and do not possess the kinds of neuroses Freud identifies. As such, it is difficult to assess. Many atheists who were brought up in religious environments might say that their experiences caused negative psychological effects or obsessions, but a large number of theists who would claim the opposite. Regardless of whether Freud is right or wrong, there are likely to be innumerable competing accounts about the happiness that religion brings. However, such responses don't address perhaps the more important claim that religion is a source of exclusionary violence brought on by religion. For greater insight on this phenomenon, see the work of Richard Dawkins.

Dawkins and the Harmfulness of Religious Thought

In the second half of *The God Delusion*, Dawkins argues that religion is responsible for many of the immoral attitudes still present in modern society. Not only does religious thought lead to attitudes towards those of other faiths or those who are areligious but it also still leads to attitudes towards LGBTQI+ individuals and those with alternative lifestyle choices. Simply put, religious thought is a perspective which in turn results in violent, fanatical behaviour and bigotry towards those who are different.

This is quite an extreme claim in many ways, but Dawkins holds there is plenty of evidence to support his claim. Chapters 9 and 10 in particular document a significant number of examples of the harm caused by religion.

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the mental abuse of children by evangelical preachers, female circumcision, the criminalisation of homosexuality, abortion and euthanasia, and apostasy. For Dawkins, while individual cases of these practices might be excusable on the basis of singular immorality, for the most part religion has fostered prejudiced attitudes on these issues. Moreover, the elements of religious thought which encourage accepting irrational ways of thinking mean these prejudiced attitudes have not been radically challenged by individuals within their specific religions. It is only the growth of humanistic thought and the consideration of these ethical cases by secular individuals, that has led to their increasing acceptance in the modern world (an acceptance that Dawkins argues many religious thinkers continue to challenge).

So although religion seems to promote peace in name, Dawkins presents evidence that in reality it endorses all kinds of subtle harms. The difficulty seems to lie as much with the religious person genuinely believing certain practices or principles are fundamentally immoral and deserving of persecution, even if not committing any specific harm to human beings as a whole. In the case of abortion, for example, many conservative Christians find it unacceptable except when there is severe risk of the mother's death. They would consider an embryo as a human being and so worthy of significant opposition. From a liberal perspective, they may not view embryos in the same way, this position may seem to chalk up this conflict to a mere disagreement of opinion, Dawkins traces a clear line between a discussion of beliefs but a failure for the religious individual to study evidence objectively. Humanist proportions his views to the evidence, accepting reasonable limits on actions of individuals, while the conservative Christian is unrelenting in their opposition.

The answer, for Dawkins, is simple. Religious thought has to be removed from public life to prevent it corrupting reasonable debate about pressing social and political issues. This means potentially removing more uncritical forms of religious education and severely limiting the role of religion in government. However, it is first worth noting how religious thinkers have responded to these criticisms. Perhaps one of the most common criticisms levelled against his ideas is that they present a misleading portrayal of religious thought throughout history. For all the harms that religion has caused, equally point out the significant contributions Christianity has made to moral thinking, art, science, charity and even scientific enquiry. Furthermore, although religious individuals may have caused harm in the past, so have the areligious or atheistic. Whatever instances of evil are selected, they often conflict with the Christian ideals of compassion and sacrifice, ideals that are supported by the teachings of Jesus, which arguably benefit society at large. Where bad actions have occurred, they can be seen as human vice or selfishness taking precedence over the teachings of Jesus.

In fact, the critic might simply argue that what Dawkins is arguing against is not religion but the pernicious elements of human psychology. Exclusionary attitudes or irrational thinking are not just the religious, and if one were to reduce Dawkins' criticisms in line with this, the difficulties of religious immorality might well be concluded to be the result of more general patterns of behaviour. Such a conclusion is much more fitting with Freudian-type criticism, which suggests that Dawkins is not critiquing religion but a more fundamental aspect of human nature. Religious exclusivism is just one manifestation. Such a conclusion is also to some degree supported by many modern theologians. Barth, for instance, argued that faith in Christ is separate from human psychology, which is a biological urge possessed by human beings. Similarly, Bonhoeffer expressed severe doubt about the moral legitimacy of religious practice when it does not adhere to the teachings in the Gospels. To this extent, even theologians themselves may agree with Dawkins' critique of religious practice, when they don't represent the important moral teachings presented by Jesus.

Yet even this line of thinking is unlikely to satisfy Dawkins, who has argued that despite the good elements being present in the Gospels, Christianity as a whole also endorses just as much evil. He identifies many stories in the Old Testament that display an unhealthy fixation on punishment, such as Noah and Abraham, and contends that beyond their 'true' religious value, they are broadly quite horrible and sadistic narratives. Furthermore, he notes that there are many stories in the New Testament which are held to be rightly punishable by violent retribution or death.

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eye' as given in Isaiah and other books is not only one that many people would find at the heart of Old Testament morality. Similarly, he holds that the New Testament of Jesus as atonement, encourages a collective guilt within Christians that manifests sacrifice, cruelty and suffering. In fact, Dawkins argues there is little difference between the exclusionary attitudes of Christians mean that each compassionate teaching has been distorted to only apply to other Christians and not to other religions or communities.

Therefore, Dawkins quite resolutely rejects the idea of historical evils being due to actions were committed by those already predisposed to evil, religious thought produces actions. In contrast, Dawkins argues that ethics can be rationally worked out and justified. He holds that human beings have a natural moral sense originating in their genetic inheritance. He identifies Darwinian origins for altruistic behaviour without holding a God or spiritual source. In fact, he claims such an attitude only encourages good actions, as people wish to be moral rather than out of fear of divine punishment. If this is the case, there is no need for religious thought to be removed from public life. While naturally it would be absent from people's private lives, there may be equally be good reasons for limiting its influence on government. This discussion will be our focus in the next part of this section.

Christianity and Education

If one accepts the arguments of Dawkins, and to a lesser extent Freud, it is easy to see why religion should be kept out of education. However, many secularists disagree about this. Religious studies, as you will naturally know studying this very specification, is still a significant part of the landscape of the UK. Although optional in most schools, there are still some faith schools that undertake compulsory GCSEs in religious studies and, to some degree, many schools have churches, religious buildings or denominations in their local community. This is understandable considering the roots of Christianity and other religions in everyday life in the UK, yet there is still too close a relationship between religion and education. Yet, considering the impact on many people's lives, many contend that an educational curriculum which ignores religion in the UK would be both misleading and uncomprehensive. So how should religion be taught?

On the one hand, there are the secularists, who argue that religion can be studied as a subject, voluntary for students and it has to be from a critical perspective. This means that religion is not taught as valid where they meaningfully conflict with scientific evidence or rational thought. For example, common evangelical Christian belief in intelligent design would have to be discussed as a fringe view without merit. It simply should not be the case that such beliefs are on a footing with evolution. On the other hand, there are secularists who simply contend that religion should be banished from educational curriculums completely. They hold that even teaching about religion takes up much space, when there are more useful and important topics for students to learn. However, those who contend that religion is not only harmful as a whole but is also categorically incapable of explaining the world.

Nevertheless, both positions take the broad view that uncritical teaching of religion is harmful and leads to indoctrination. Dawkins in particular has been very vocal about students being exposed to creationism without effective explanation that they are in direct conflict with current scientific understanding. What Dawkins ultimately contends is that this kind of uncritical teaching fosters social inequalities. He argues that students who do not have the resources to critically analyse statements or propositions, meaning later in life they may hold views that are irrational or mistaken. Furthermore, he notes there are still many efforts to force fundamentalist religious views upon children and this contributes to the modern problems we can lead to, including violence and war.

However, it is important to also consider religious perspectives on the matter. Dawkins argues that religious thought is fundamentally irrational and dangerous, whereas many theists argue that it helps them to be a better individual. As such, it is not hard for Christian thinkers to argue that religious education can add much to a child's life, including an awareness of spirituality and ethical dilemmas. In fact, some religious critics have claimed that Dawkins' view is overly simplistic. Teaching children only about scientific knowledge leaves them unprepared to deal with the complexities of life.

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oriented issues in their life, and so a balanced and comprehensive education must consider whether religion has a place in education, it is worth considering not only whether it is irrational, but also what the aim of religious education is in the first place. Is it to inform people of different beliefs people hold throughout the world, or is it to teach them an alternative to materialism, humanism and its focus on scientific enquiry?

Government and Religion

The debate around the place of religion in government is similar in nature to that around whether religion as a whole contributes to social ills when given too much of a free rein in decision-making, either through neglecting the wider interests of those who are areligious or through being considered to be immoral or unscientific. Many Western societies have, in principle, a separation of **church and state**, and such a separation is often considered to be foundational to a democratic society. However, in reality, the situation is a little more complicated. In the UK, for example, the Supreme Court and Lords, which scrutinises all key pieces of legislation, is made up of both secular and religious members. Political parties are regularly given donations by religious groups, and commentators such as the 'evangelical right' who can, in key states, strongly influence who is elected. So religion still plays a significant, if more removed, role in government and policymaking.

Naturally, this attracts the ire of individuals such as Dawkins, who often laments the influence of religion on politics. Many conservative Christians oppose more progressive legislation on issues such as abortion and stem cell medicine. This opposition, from his perspective, is not only scientifically unfounded but also immoral from any reasonable ethical perspective. Letting religious individuals have too much influence is letting irrational dogma take precedence over reasonable critical thinking. The separation of church and state is therefore, not just a matter of preventing religious groups offering up elected officials, but also of reducing the influence of religious thinking on political decision-making.

While naturally a difficult idea to implement, it is also perhaps more controversial than the separation of church and state, and to a certain extent politics itself, is often described by thinkers as 'applied ethics'. If political decision-making one is making in the end draws on one's own (or others') values, and if religious values are also their ethical values, should these not be taken into account? If other partisan groups get to influence political decision-making, why not religious groups? The rejection of religion is simply due to it being irrational, but this of course is an argument not shared by religious people themselves.

At the same time, it is easy to observe cases where religious influences may have helped bring about progress on key issues. From legislation on same-sex relationships to women's rights, religious groups have sought to interfere or prevent important laws on issues that are now taken for granted. The religious argument may well have a historical precedent, and banning religion from politics could be a negative outcome for many societies. Where difficulties emerge is preserving the freedom of religion for many theistically inclined people would support and not excluding religious perspectives altogether where they may reflect the democratic will of a significant group of people. It is therefore, more difficult than it appears. Even if one supports Dawkins' argument, it is not easy to be fairly implemented in a society where many still consider religion to be important.

Activity:

How would you go about legislating the rights and freedoms of religious individuals? Write down five different laws you would craft about the roles you would allow (or not allow) for religion in both education and government. What issues could you foresee with these laws?

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Is the Rise of Secularism and Secularisation an Opportunity for Christianity?

This is perhaps the broadest and most difficult to answer question that emerges from the rise of secularism and secularisation in the West. As we have noted throughout this section, the issues levelled at the rise of secularism with its promotion of irrational thought and the social harms it potentially inflicts on society, suggest that this is not simply a call for Christians to be more mindful of the effects of their faith on the world, but also simply indicate that it is unsatisfactory for ordinary Christians to still believe in the value of their faith when scientific knowledge is ever-growing. In fact, it might even suggest that the future of Christianity is to do more to criticise ideas such as creationism and work to deny them a place in the public sphere. The future that emerge is a more secularised Christianity but, despite the protestations of more conservative Christians, it might ultimately be the direction that Christianity has to grow to retain its relevance in the modern world.

Similarly, the criticisms raised by individuals such as Dawkins might highlight how Christians might assume their religion is a force for social good. Even if it promotes good virtues, it might also suggest that the psychological effect of dogmatic belief is a tendency towards conflict and violence. This might encourage a greater awareness of how religion can cause social harm even if in practice it is not. As such, it might also suggest that Christians should adopt a more critical perspective on their faith, and effectively challenge themselves to be more critical of how the Church itself is structured and operates.

In this sense, secular criticism may simply be an opportunity for Christianity to improve itself by re-examining the virtuous moral principles at the core of its teaching. While many conservative Christians might see this as suggesting it is not right for the religion to adjust itself at the whim of atheistic perspectives, there is a greater sense that Christian churches and groups have a duty to monitor themselves and ensure their activities are reflective of the moral principles at the heart of the faith. This might be a response to a universal call all along that has not been truly answered, or a response to secularism and its challenges, but, at the minimum, secular criticism may be a catalyst for positive change at the heart of the faith.

Discussion Activity:

Do you believe that secular criticism is an opportunity for Christianity? Or does it pose a greater challenge? Discuss in pairs or small groups.

Quick Quiz

- 1. What is secularism?
- 2. What is secularisation?
- 3. What is humanism?
- 4. What is wish-fulfilment?
- 5. What is memetics?
- 6. What is the separation of church and state?
- 7. What are some of the examples of social harms caused by Christianity in the modern world?

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6B: LIBERATION THEOLOGY AND

What you will learn in this section:

- The relationship between liberation theology and the thought of Karl Marx, including:
- Marx’s teachings on alienation and exploitation and how they were adopted
 - The ways in which liberation theology used Marxist methodologies to criticise including critiques of capitalism and its institutions.
 - Liberation theology’s teachings on the ‘preferential option for the poor’ and orthopraxis over orthodoxy.
 - Questions about whether Christianity should be influenced by secular ideology and liberation theology’s use of Marxist political theory.

Starter Activity:

What do you know about Marxism? The term is often used in political media but Write down three examples of how you have heard it being used and compare to progress throughout this section.

Key Thinker	
Name	Karl Marx
Born	1818
Died	1883
Key text	<i>The Communist Manifesto (1848), Das Kapital (1867, 1885, 1894)</i>
Why are they important?	Karl Marx is perhaps the most influential political theorist and contributing immensely to the understanding of how societies also helping to bring about political revolutions around the world twentieth-century historical events.
Did you know?	Marx lived most of his later life in England and you can still visit his Cemetery, London!

Introduction – Who is Marx and What is Marxism?

It would be an understatement to say that Karl Marx is perhaps the most influential modern history. No other figure has encompassed such extreme praise and criticism. His political leanings, his economic ideas laid the foundation for how we understand the world today. But who exactly was Marx? Although born in Germany, he eventually spent his life, living out many years in exile in London with his wife Jenny von Westphalen. He published the first volume of his most important work *Das Kapital*, with volumes 2 and 3 published in 1885 and 1894 respectively. This sets out an overarching view of human politics and economics often known as historical materialism. At its simplest, this holds that the material conditions of production produces goods and how it organises that production is what governs its formation. This includes what social classes a society possesses, the kinds of political thinking between human beings and different forms of work and life. Therefore, Marx’s theory He wished to not only explain how societies came to be the way they are but also how they might change through labour and produce goods might predict how they will change in the future.

One well-known example of the historical materialist approach is Marx’s discussion of societies. Marx himself drew great inspiration from Georg Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel’s progression of stages that grew towards a more spiritually complete form of society. However, as a materialist, viewed such a progression through an economic perspective. He argued that the world had moved through different political and economic stages as a result of changing standards of living and political struggles by ordinary people. For Marx, societies are not static, oriented systems, before moving towards feudalism and finally capitalism.

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Yet Marx argued that capitalism itself was also naturally flawed, relying upon the (proletariat) by a ruling, wealthy class (bourgeoisie). This imbalance in relations (a thinking throughout *Das Kapital*) meant that capitalism was fundamentally unstable. As capitalist societies suffered from increasingly instability, the oppressed workers would experience oppression and eventually revolt, beginning a new form of society where all share and exploitation was eliminated from all economic interactions. This political system, as was termed **communism**.

So if those were Marx's philosophical aims and thoughts, then what is Marxism now? The political ideas and discussion that have grown out of his works are beyond simply the use of Marx's core ideas to explore different aspects of politics, economics. The broadness of Marx's original writings has meant that his theories have been applied in ways originally envisioned, and many thinkers contend that his approach is still an important tool to understand the structures of society in the modern world. There are many different forms of Marxism that we will cover here. However, we will take a particularly close look at one form that has emerged in religious communities over the past 80 years; that commonly called **liberation theology**.

Liberation Theology and Marx

Liberation theology is a Christian movement that emerged primarily out of Latin America as a response to the economic and social oppression many poorer people suffered in the region. In many ways, it sought to distinguish itself from Christian orthodoxy with its emphasis on the importance of **orthopraxis** and the **preferential option for the poor**. We will explore throughout this section, but we can initially say that liberation theology grew out of the application and practice of Christian teaching rather than discussion around doctrine. The belief of many who defined themselves as liberation theologians that the Church was not doing enough to help those who needed it the most and, as a whole, was failing to implement the social vision Jesus presented throughout his ministry.

Perhaps the most distinctive element of liberation theology, however, was its blend of religious teaching with political theory. The most important figure thinkers drew upon as a model was Karl Marx. Not only did Marx offer a theoretical structure from which to understand the various economic reasons for the impoverishment of human beings, but for many his work illuminated Jesus's struggle to liberate his followers, suffering under the oppression of religious authorities at the time of his ministry. As such, Marx's work provided liberation theology with a basis for understanding how Jesus's teachings can be applied in modern political contexts and how the Church can work to overcome the oppression and impoverishment of people around the world.

Liberation theology's use of Marx was controversial at the time (and is still controversial today). Many Christian thinkers, including the Pope himself, criticised the introduction of secular political theory into theology, arguing it risked distorting the moral teachings derived from scripture. Some were motivated by liberation theology's thinly veiled disagreement with the work and teachings of the Church itself. Liberation theology primarily grew in regions that were typically Catholic, where they argued that traditional Catholic doctrine had purposefully diminished the political implications of the Gospels. This meant that the Church as a whole had also ignored the important social teachings and overlooked his call to the liberation of the poor and marginalised. As a whole, the Church and theologians of the Catholic Church had at its core become part of the very social structures that led to the marginalisation and oppression of the poor in Latin America. Only forcing a radical re-evaluation of how the Church operates could ever help those who were truly suffering under unjust political systems. The Church becoming complicit in the activities of those benefiting from the impoverishment of the poor.

The heyday of liberation theology has arguably passed, but its influence has been significant. Many theologians still operate under its principles today. Throughout this section we shall explore the work of liberation theologians, how they exemplified the application of Marxist thought to Christianity, and highlight the ways Christian thought can work with secular political theories. First, we will explore the two most important Marxist concepts: **alienation** and **exploitation**.

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Alienation and Exploitation

An important first thing to note is that liberation theology does not advocate supplanting Christian concepts to displace Christian theology. Rather, Marx's work is used as a tool to describe how poverty and oppression have developed in a society and the way Christian teaching addresses these issues. The Bible thus remains the ultimate source of truth and moral guidance, but its teachings can be relevant within a modern-day political context. Nevertheless, many liberation theologians view a Marxist society as one that is closer to the ideal Christian society than a capitalist society. A Marxist society has a much greater focus on community, justice, sharing and equality compared to a capitalist society which holds an obsession with the growth of material wealth, and, through this obsession, the exploitation of other human beings.

But how does this exploitation occur on a basic level? We'll understand that, with some fundamental insights into how capitalist economic systems lead to individuals being exploited.

How are Human Beings Exploited?

Of particular interest to liberation theologians is how Marx explores the nature of production in a capitalist economy might naturally lead to oppression and inequality. That is defined by the way human beings transfer wealth through various means, and more often than not don't consider how our wealth is divided. Although inequality is a pressing political issue in the last decade, we typically still search for jobs that are available, and we don't question the system which structures and delivers those wages. Marxist liberation theologians analyse these structures, the full extent to which capitalist societies engage in exploitation is revealed. For at their heart, capitalist societies, for Marx, thrive on taking advantage of individuals who are paid less than they truly deserve.

Let's break this down a bit further, though, for typically the ordinary person might be slightly at the suggestion they are being exploited. Many people enjoy their work and believe they are being paid a fair wage, if not a wage which supports the life they want to live. But Marx's concept of exploitation is a bit more fundamental than this idea. It simply holds that in a just society, people would be paid for the total economic value of their work. Simply put, whatever work I do in an ideal society, I should reap the rewards of that work. Yet Marx notes that in capitalist societies, this does not happen. One has employees who do not take a share of the value of the work for themselves, even though they did not create it. Whatever work one does, one is probably also paying for a vast array of employer's costs, the fact that they own the place of work or production.

As an example, imagine you work in a pizza takeaway. Each pizza costs £10 and you can make 10 pizzas every hour, meaning the total amount of money that can be earned is £100 per hour. Now, let's imagine there's an additional £20 per hour used in the cost of running the business, the cost of ingredients, operation of facilities, etc. So overall, the total value of employment is £28 per hour. However, you're creating £100 per hour of value. So where is the rest of the value? Well, this is of course a grossly simplified example, but Marx notes that it goes to the owner of the takeaway, who takes the total value produced by selling pizzas but only gives a small portion to the employees themselves. Therefore, regardless of whether one believes one's wage is fair, capitalist societies are always exploitative because they thrive on paying individuals less than the economic value of the goods they are tasked to produce. Exploitation as such is inherent in capitalism.

This exploitation, however, only occurs because capitalist societies divide between those who do and those who do not. Capitalists, therefore, are really those who own what Marx calls the 'means of production'. These are the machines, instruments or entities that govern the extent to which work is done. In the case of the pizza takeaway, a person could not make pizzas without the oven, the ingredients, etc. Yet this ownership we can see is manifestly unfair. Simply because a person who owns the means of production means they can extract wealth from others despite not doing any of the work. More often than not this ownership is not even justified. A cursory glance across the world shows individuals who have inherited the wealth they possess. Even for those who are the product of their own labor, Marx would note that their wealth inevitably trades on the increasing exploitation of others.

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What is important to note, however, is that although Marx opposed capitalism, he was not against all capitalists (specific cabal of capitalists who propped up the system. In fact he argued that both capitalists and the **proletariat** (working class) suffered from not being able to understand the exploitation behind capitalist societies (although the proletariat inevitably suffered more). The whole was simply a system that had emerged from the way human beings produce goods. Marx argued that it could be replaced to the benefit of all by another system which erased the exploitation. This was **communism**. Much is said about what communism is or isn't, but Marx argued that the key was the idea that workers themselves should *own the means of production*. Simply put, everyone should communally own the machines, instruments or entities that produce goods and share the profits with everyone else.

For liberation theologians, this Marxist analysis of exploitation was not just theory. In Latin America, the tradition of **latifundia** and **hacienda** – large plantations and workhouses owned by a few individuals – mirrored Marx's criticisms of capitalism. Much of the land and means of production were owned by a few hands of wealthy individuals who took much of the value generated by their workers' labour without return. Moreover, the workers often had no choice but to accept these small wages because if they did not, they would starve. To a certain extent, this is still the case in the world, and this is in large part why Marx's ideas are still thought to be relevant in the 21st century.

How do Human Beings Become Alienated?

Another concept Marx puts forward which is readily picked up by liberation theologians is the concept of **alienation**. At its core this is a state workers find themselves in when producing goods in a capitalist society. It occurs because ordinary workers are separated from the means of production and the fruits of their labour. A good example that can be given of this concept is assembly line workers. These individuals spend the entire workday performing repetitive tasks with little to no creative engagement. The work is often boring, typically, for those who do find some fulfilment in varied and interesting work, the lack of creativity is shocking or saddening. One might wonder whether people in such jobs feel any alienation, but Marx argues that whether they feel disconnected. Yet Marx holds this same kind of feeling persists in all jobs in a capitalist environment for a number of reasons, and, in any job, one is likely to find people who feel alienated.

The first reason is that most modern workers in the world do not produce goods to use themselves. Whatever we create is typically sold back into the market without the buyer having any say in the process. Whether it be physically manufactured goods or more abstract services, the industry is driven by the fact that workers now do not see the completion of their work from beginning to end. In a capitalist society, capitalism means that people are forced to compete with others. Increased production is the goal of a capitalist society, and growth is typically used as the measure of its success. This leads to a constant race to be overtaken by competition to produce it more quickly and more efficiently than others. As a result, individuals under capitalist societies are typically denied autonomy in their work. They are forced to turn up to work at a particular time and produce their work to specific deadlines, and they must leave when their employer dictates.

What this all adds up to is any ordinary worker being treated as if they were a machine. They are to produce goods as if they only impassion themselves about the value of the work rather than about the work itself. If they care, they are separated from the fruits of their work in the end. This treatment eventually (and perhaps very quickly) being alienated from the work they do, and the impact of this is a negative effect upon their mental health. It creates feelings of worthlessness and detachment from others, and a lack of empathy towards others. These are the kinds of feeling that anyone who has worked in a capitalist society has probably experienced, but what Marx argues is that such feelings are expected. This is not an individual deficit but in the way society and work are structured. Moreover, they argue that since our working lives were changed, such that we no longer owned the means of production and we were separated from the fruits of our labour.

Liberation theologians argued that this concept of alienation could easily be identified in the lives of many people who are marginalised. Many have to work menial jobs with little reward or satisfaction. In their spare time, they have little time for one's religious life. Either belief in God becomes a crutch to get through life, or they become fundamentally disillusioned with the idea that God is looking out for human beings.

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argued that the Church as a whole needs to avoid the former. It cannot simply be a means of encouraging alienated workers through their everyday lives, but it should be actively intervening and ending structural oppression, alienation and exploitation. This goes beyond the next section, in which we explore liberation theology's discussion of capitalism and

Discussion Activity:

Can you observe exploitation and alienation in today's world? In small groups or pairs, discuss your views on these two Marxist concepts and whether you believe they are still present in the modern world.

Liberation Theology and Social Sin

Throughout your studies into Christian thought, you might have noticed a common theme with individual actions. In any case, when a person commits an evil act, the blame is often placed on the individual's lack of self-control or the failure to exemplify a particular virtue. Yet, as you might well know, this is often a very archaic in the modern age as we become increasingly aware of how particular political and social structures can instil certain attitudes or beliefs. Liberation theologians, in contrast with orthodox Christians, see sin in a similar way. Marx's analysis of the flaws in capitalism easily give way to an understanding of sin as being conditioned by the very political and social forces around them. Individuals don't choose to sin by free volition; they are governed by the structures of the society and culture they find themselves in. There are deeper reasons for sin than just a person's own inherent vice.

Thus we can turn to the idea of **social sin**. At its simplest level, social sin can be thought of as the cumulative of personal sins that form a class of sin in themselves. Common examples include racism, homophobia. Each of those is not defined by individual instances of actions but by the structures that reveal collective attitudes. Yet if these kinds of social sin can't be reduced to individual actions, then they can't typically be combated by commanding individuals to act better. Social sin has to be, in some way, analysed at a societal level as the product of a wider system.

This is especially true when we consider how social sin manifests itself. While it may be triggered by large-scale events that trigger certain attitudes to arise, more often than not it manifests itself through everyday practice. For example, racial segregation in US history is an example of where the structures of society led to individuals being taught that black people should not mix with white people and denied equal treatment throughout society. A similar case might be apartheid in South Africa. In both cases, there was little opposition (at least at the beginning) from Christian churches, who in many cases were complicit in the system.

What does this mean? Well, in short, it means that Christian teaching which simply focuses on individual responsibility to act well is perhaps not equipped to deal with cases of social and structural sin. If structural sin exists, individuals may not even be aware that they are committing a sin, as they are licensed by the state or culture they live in. What would be needed to challenge such sin is the dismantling of the societal structures and laws that enable such sin to occur, which means dismantling the system of racism, for instance. In the case of the examples we just analysed, it would mean ending segregation and apartheid.

However, cases of structural and social sin are not always so clear-cut. In the case of capitalism, we've noted how the very structures of capitalism may give rise to attitudes that lead to the exploitation and oppression of everyday workers. Their welfare and fulfilment are sacrificed to ensure economic growth and the fruit of their labour may be taken from them unfairly. Here, liberation theologians argued that capitalist societies exhibited both social and structural sin towards the poor and oppressed that could not be solved simply by arguing for individuals to act better. Rather, the very structures that encouraged the exploitation, marginalisation and oppression of the poor had to be dismantled through political action. For example, Leonardo Boff, a well-known liberation theologian stated:

... unjust structures or oppressors are objectively an evil. For this reason, they are not sins in the strict sense. These unjust structures are, to society, what lust is to the individual: they call for a radical change.

Therefore, we shall take a look next at some of the key targets liberation theologians have identified, discussing structural sin and look at whether there are potentially religious grounds for its destruction or dismantling.

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Liberation Theology and Capitalism

We've explored in many ways already how capitalism might end up in the exploitation of a number of angles. But how can this idea be understood within a Christian context? It focuses upon individual sin and not social sin? Much of Christian thought is generalised. Jesus atones for the personal sins of human beings. This means that any analysis of sin's nature and does not consider what social or political contexts this sin is found with. As you might remember from your Year 1 studies, this interpretation of scripture has been challenged.

For one, Jesus himself might have been much more of a political and social liberator than traditional Christian thought. You might recall the mission statement at Luke 4:16-18 where he had come to 'bring good news to the poor' and to 'set the captives free'. In particular, he has often seized upon the idea of **reversal** in the Gospels – the overturning of the social order such that the poor will prosper and the rich suffer. One key example of this is when Jesus preaches that 'the first shall be last and the last shall be first'. However, while this might be taken to indicate the way the downtrodden might be rewarded in the afterlife, liberation theologians interpret it as evidence for Jesus' intention to instigate a revolution on Earth that will overthrow the oppression of the poor.

Moreover, to the extent there is the idea of corporate responsibility present in the Bible, the Old Testament is regularly depicted as holding the Israelites responsible for the sins of the whole population. Similarly, God is often portrayed as punishing entire cities or civilisations for their sins. Taking this into account, it can be argued that the revolution from a capitalist society to a socialist or communist society is one that is potentially supported by scripture. At the heart rests on the possibility of a classless society, but where liberation theologians often struggle to reconcile this idea with Marx's more radical ideas about the struggle to reach socialism. The bourgeoisie would not be interested in giving up their wealth voluntarily. Therefore, if this is the case is through violent resistance to the capitalist order, such that the wealth is taken away from the capitalist class and given to the workers.

Whether such violent revolution is equivalent to the religious idea of reversal forms a strong debate. Most liberation theologians keenly advocate for structural change, such as the limiting of capitalist enterprise. However, at the same time, most are keen to emphasise the moral aspect of necessary change. For example, one key figure in the movement, Gustavo Gutierrez, offers two different and equally important kinds of liberation. The first is **political and social liberation**, the ending of structures and laws that entrap the poor. This form of liberation necessarily involves engagement with political issues. The second is **human liberation**, which aims to involve focusing one's charitable engagements on the poor and ensuring society is more caring. The third is **liberation from sin**, the traditional kind of liberation focused on by the Church, the relationships with God and human beings. Thus Gutierrez does not abandon the traditional kind of liberation, instead argues it has to be integrated with wider political and social concerns.

This is important to understanding the liberation theologians' criticisms of capitalism, moving from sin to matters of structure or the existence of poverty to the existence of capitalism. It is important to note that capitalism contributed to the development of structures that dispossess and marginalise the poor. In order for human beings to properly reconcile their sins, all three kinds of liberation have to be addressed.

Liberation Theology and Institutions

When looking at the dismantling of structural and social sins it is important to consider not just the political system but also the institutions inside of it and how they individually might contribute to sin. As we've noted before, liberation theologians in Latin America were quite critical of the Church. First, they considered it to value **orthodoxy** (right thought) much more than **orthopraxis** (right action). Considering the context and teachings of Jesus's ministry, the latter is arguably more important. Out of poverty and oppression. Moreover, considering the corruption and violence in Latin America, it was clear to many liberation theologians that the Catholic Church, by its own moral principles, if it was not complicit altogether in these nefarious activities, the very institutions of government and Church were responsible for enforcing structures that led to the marginalisation of many poor workers.

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The key takeaway from this for liberation theologians is that the Christian Church restructure itself to help those in need. Moreover, it had to address the concerns of them how Christianity works for them in the present, not just in the speculated afterlife. At an early conference at Medellin, the Latin American bishops agreed that priests in the Americas should be *'awakened in individuals and communities... a living awareness of justice... [and] a sense of solidarity'*. Without such principles, the Church risked becoming irrelevant to those facing such difficulties. But still, all this is still just theory; how did liberation theologians convince the Church?

One key response was the development of **Ecclesial Base Communities** (EBCs). These were small groups of Christians who meet outside of a church context to study the Bible and discuss its teachings within their local communities. EBCs originally began in Latin America in the 1970s when many **lay catechists** took over the duties of overseeing communion and other activities in different parishes. Over time, however, they started to develop their own identity and vision of the Catholic Church as a whole. In particular, they focused on an egalitarian model of Christianity that would not simply be preached to the congregation; rather groups would form and members would (reading in rather than out) where individuals would use their own experiences to interpret the Gospels. Therefore, the search for the 'objective meaning' of scripture was jettisoned in favour of Christians participating to find their own meaning in the Bible.

As a result, within EBCs there was often a greater emphasis on the social and political implications of faith and a broader understanding of how his ministry related to the modern world. Over time, EBCs meant that, over time, ordinary Christians became more directly involved in discussing moral principles together with their perspectives on poverty and oppression in their own communities. The advantage of encouraging **praxis** on behalf of ordinary Christians and, for many, provided a sense of alienation that came with simply being an invisible member of a traditional, hierarchical Church. For liberation theologians, EBCs were an important example of how Christian practice could lead to the empowerment of ordinary workers, and demonstrated the natural structural flaw of the Church to an extent, was largely inaccessible and unrelatable to ordinary suffering Christians.

Naturally, some Christian thinkers argued that EBCs were not authentic reflections of the Church. While they might be empowering to some, they also risked distorting the message of the Bible by allowing anyone to read their own meaning into the Bible. However, liberation theologians argued that this was a minor concern in comparison to the strengthening of faith and community that resulted from EBCs. In fact, such criticisms highlight traditional Christianity's blinkered focus on doctrine over practice. What the Christian Church should be designed to do rather was to focus on the concrete needs of the poor, especially those poor, marginalised and oppressed. If the Church fails to accommodate the needs of the poor, then, for liberation theologians, it is just another part of the structural problem.

There is an important principle, nonetheless, running through these concerns; one known as the **preferential option for the poor**. While a longstanding idea in the Christian Church, it was given new life by liberation theologians and became the centre of their ethical teaching. This principle is commonly known as the **preferential option for the poor**.

The Preferential Option for the Poor

Liberation theology, more than any other Christian movement, puts the poor at the front centre of its thought. At heart, this principle dictates that Christians should first care for those who are marginalised or powerless in society before those who are not. Liberation theologians often go a bit further, specifically claiming that God blesses the poor and not the rich. The basic idea behind this is that if one is significantly materially rich, one is to some degree complicit in their poverty, as it is likely that one is exploiting others in some way or failing to give one's wealth away to those who need it.

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The doctrine of the preferential option for the poor can be seen to have its roots in the Bible itself. There are many narratives and passages where Jesus notably sided with those who were sick, poor or marginalised instead of the prevailing religious authorities. We've already noted the importance of the mission statement in Luke 4:16–21, where Jesus seems to make a direct declaration of his preference for those who are impoverished and oppressed. Yet there are plenty of other supportive passages. For example, the parable of the sheep and goats in Matthew also reinforces Jesus's commitment to the poor. In particular, in Matthew 25:35–36, Jesus affirms the goodness of those who help those in need, and he throughout emphasises the importance of righteousness on behalf of those who are dispossessed. Similarly, in the Old Testament, the prophet Amos regularly called out the hypocrisy of the religious establishment in a similar vein to Jesus's criticism of the Pharisees. In Amos 9:10, he even affirms that those who have oppressed the poor, and throughout the book of Amos criticises the inequality of the poor in Israel present during his life. A final example might be found in Exodus 13:1–16, where God's assistance, frees the Hebrews from slavery and leads them out of Egypt.

So, on a core level, the preferential option can be seen as a vital part of Christianity's commitment to justice and equality. Many liberation theologians, however, also approach the preferential option from a different perspective. Those who are privileged have the time, space and money to find fulfilment in their lives. Those who are struggling inevitably through unfair treatment or marginalisation cannot find the same fulfilment. Religion or faith as a part of their daily lives may be difficult. This is perhaps more so in a capitalist system, which Marx held attempts to squeeze every ounce of productivity out of its workers. The pressure might feel as a result prevents them from finding spiritual satisfaction in their lives. The call to end structural sin ties in with the preferential option for the poor.

When liberation theology first declared its support for a strong version of this preferential option, it caused controversy. Should Christianity, with its emphasis on universal morality, not focus on helping all people, arguing they are more blessed than another? In fact, it seems perfectly viable to help those who are poorer without affirming they are somehow greater in the eyes of God. Liberation theology seems to require the prioritisation of one group above another, even though Christianity emphasises God's universal love for humanity. This is a tricky question, for in many ways, it is unclear whether liberation theologians are making an affirmation about the nature of God or about the nature of the world.

In fact, such a criticism may be misplaced when one considers the wider theoretical context. As discussed before, most liberation theologians hold that orthopraxis should take precedence over orthodoxy. Within this context, the preferential option for the poor is much clearer in its aims. It is not enough to simply be good to those around you. One has to direct one's Christian engagements to the poor and marginalised. This idea is far less controversial and is a central theme of liberation theologians' focus. It has even been reaffirmed in recent years by the Catholic Church. Pope Francis, in his 2013 apostolic exhortation *Evangelii Gaudium*, stresses the need to care for the poor, arguing that is an essential vocation for any Christian. He argues that those who are poor need greater time for their spiritual lives, since they will be more preoccupied with day-to-day survival.

Orthopraxis and Orthodoxy

We've explored numerous ways so far how liberation theologians have argued for the preferential option for the poor. One key concept is **orthopraxis** (right action) than **orthodoxy** (right thought), especially in the context of the Christian Church. Such an idea has potentially broad support throughout so-called Christianity. It can be felt especially in Jesus's ministry, where he not only heals the sick, but calls for the rich to give up their wealth and feeds those who are hungry. In contrast, the depictions in the Gospels of the religious authorities are often of religious authorities too concerned with ritual, purity and observance. This is often interpreted as an overestimation of the importance of orthodoxy. Many different interpretations have been taken the various miracles and healings to be evidence of Jesus's divinity, and many have been held over the correct minutia and terminology to be used when describing Jesus.

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But liberation theologians argue that such debates overlook the broader point of Jesus's work during his ministry. Simply put, his helping of the poor and oppressed represented a call for individuals to do the same in their communities, not a call to discuss the theological meaning of such actions. This is the impetus for liberation theologians criticising elements of the Catholic Church, which they contend has been too concerned with orthodoxy, to the extent where it has failed to act to help the poor around the world, and even tacitly maintained the socio-economic order that keeps them oppressed and impoverished. The Christian Church as a whole cannot be an apolitical entity; it has to get involved in ending structural sin. Simply reinforcing hierarchy in the Church that mirrors the hierarchies of capitalism will leave ordinary Christians alienated and unable to seek help from the Christian Church itself.

But how can Christianity as a whole be reoriented towards orthopraxis? The liberation theologian Gustavo Gutierrez envisioned it happening in two acts, or stages. The first act was living and experiencing life from their perspective and standing alongside them during difficult times. The second act then involved drawing on these experiences in developing theology, such that it was based from an understanding of a solidarity with the poor as the **underside of history**. Gutierrez to describe how the poor have typically had a lack of representation through the Bible and the words of the Christian, especially those in positions of spiritual or political poverty around the world and not seek to live richer lifestyles than the people they are helping.

However, even these two stages can be thought to be a bit vague. They are a basic principle to consider good **praxis** in any Christian life, but we can go into more detail. One theologian who has done this is Leonardo Boff, who argues for what he terms the **three mediations**. This would enable liberation theologians to approach what Boff called 'a new spirit' and approach theology in a radical way, not chained to the traditional Christianity developed in the academic world. The first mediation is known as the **social mediation**. This focuses on using the social sciences, particularly philosophy, political theory and economics to analyse why ordinary people experience poverty and oppression, focusing particularly on the causes of these phenomena. The second is the **hermeneutic mediation**, which argues for using the resources, in particular the Bible, to understand the experiences of the poor as they relate to parallels in biblical accounts to see how theology can also give insight into the causes of oppression. Third is the **practical mediation**, which focuses on action, particularly through the work of Communities and groups dedicated to building and developing society. Here the combination of the socio-analytic and the hermeneutical mediations helps liberation theologians to understand the positive action to take and enact social change to help those suffering in lives of oppression.

Thus, through Boff's thought we can see that liberation theologians do not wholly reject orthodoxy. Theory is important but it must always be used to guide right action. In the light of the kind of radical praxis Jesus pointed towards in his ministry. However, this approach is controversial, especially due to liberation theologians drawing on secular theory to guide what is seen as right action. In the final parts of this section, we shall look at whether liberation theology works with Marx and whether religion should work with secular ideologies at all.

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Activity:

What Christian principles might you develop to guide orthopraxis? Write down your own three mediations and note where your thoughts might differ from Boff's.

What Issues are there with Liberation Theology?

Liberation theology on the surface seems like quite an attractive approach. Why should Christians engage with the political situation and work towards helping the poor and oppressed? One of the appeals there have been questions about whether liberation theologians have fully presented a coherent vision behind their movement. It is well known, for example, that Karl Marx called religion, calling it the 'the opium of the people' and holding that it contributed to the suffering of the poor and oppressed. This meant that they developed mental attitudes that justified their situation and failed to direct their anger or disappointment at the ruling capitalist class. So, liberation theology has as if a significant hurdle to overcome. How can a theology that focuses on the afterlife fully motivate people towards reversal and revolution in this life?



In fact, we can start with the concept of reversal itself. As we explored, both liberation theologians and Marx agree on the need for widespread revolution and social change as a permanent way of freeing the oppressed can be free of the economic and social constraints that capitalism brings. They disagree on the physical methods involved in this revolution, even if in principle they agree that it requires ordinary people to realise their economic and social circumstances through their own efforts and fortune. Taking the agreements first, liberation theologians have often criticised the development often promoted by the Catholic Church and other charities. In particular, they argue that development only temporarily helps those who are poor and suffering. This means that it only helps people for as long as it lasts, with the structures of capitalism ensuring that there is no permanent way of improving their own situation, or realising their own self-fulfilment. Furthermore, in the case of certain forms of development, such as loans to poorer countries, they argue that poorer countries into long-term debt to wealthier countries, which can at times be a burden that may even simply trap the receiving country into long cycles of debt they cannot handle.

However, how do liberation theologians propose to dismantle structural sins and overcome capitalism? This is less clear. For while Marx endorsed violent struggle, such an idea is not always in line with peace and to turn the other cheek. Thus, liberation theologians are often necessitated to find a principle of non-violence instead of Marx's full-fledged revolution, leaving the approach to poverty and oppression. In fact, some have charged liberation theology with being critical of conventional charitable efforts, without promoting a genuine alternative. It can also be argued the revolution Marx seeks is an economic one, not a moral one. The approach proposed may ultimately be an atheist one, and the liberation theologian may have to leave the faith of religion once certain structural sins are dismantled.

Yet we can go even further here and question liberation theology's ideas about structural sin. The Catholic Church has criticised the movement's use of Marx here, arguing that while it identifies the circumstances the poor might unfairly find themselves in, identifying, or attempting to change, them is a wrong approach. This is because in the view of the Catholic Church this allows individuals to excuse their actions. The idea of structural sins implies tacitly that it is not individuals who sin, rather the structures. For many, therefore, acknowledging structural sin atones for sin. One particularly strong critic of liberation theology in this vein was Cardinal Ratzinger. He argued that the movement of uncritically appropriating Marx and ignoring his thoughts on religion and morality over ordinary people. Furthermore, Ratzinger argues Marxism directly puts forward a counter structural sin, which is inherently un-Christian. Instead, Christianity focuses on sin as a response to sin, not encouraging further conflict.

While one might be inclined to consider Ratzinger's criticisms here as somewhat narrow, given the range of political systems in the world, he does potentially highlight how Christianity might struggle with a universal set of moral principles that naturally clash with any contextual call to action. Liberation theology, in some senses, was simply putting forward a notion of how all human beings might find themselves in a situation they find themselves in. If this is true, then Christianity is naturally in tension with Marxism, which judges moral requirements based on the political system at hand. There is some evidence that the Catholic Church has in part adopted some of the tenets of liberation theology. Pope Francis himself, in the *Evangelii Gaudium*, criticises the 'crony capitalism' that prevents people from achieving fulfilment and autonomy in their lives. Nevertheless, liberation theology is not advocate revolution, and falls short of identifying capitalism as a sin.

This raises a broader issue, about whether Christianity should engage with secularism, feminism or political theory, there is the growing argument that Christianity is isolated from the wider academic progress made in the modern world. This discussion is beyond the scope of this section and of this companion.

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Discussion Activity:

What issues do you think trouble liberation theology the most? Discuss in pairs or groups.

Should Christianity Engage with Secular Ideologies?

Much of your Year 2 work has dealt with how Christianity responds to secular ideologies, one of the most keenly studied areas of modern theology. While many denominations have remained conservative since their formation, academic theology has arguably progressed in the opposite direction. Critical theory, liberation theology or religious pluralism, more than ever theologians have engaged with secular theories can add to the understanding of Christian thought. On the one hand, if Christianity presents universal truths; why should secular theories have any say? Theologians have mirrored such thoughts and those predisposed to distrust natural theology of the Bible, who presents revelations that are timeless and immutable then secular ideologies cannot.

On the other hand, there is the argument that secular ideologies may be in some ways more relevant alternative viewpoints on the world that may still be inspired by divinely given revelation. In this context of Christian thought can only add balance and insight to traditional theological perspectives. Theology movements may well have exposed hidden assumptions in the structure of the Christian faith. Theology may have shown the need for Christian belief to accommodate certain particularities. The fact that denominations such as the Catholic Church have felt the need to respond to new developments in the world, may be testament to the fact that in order to keep up with the world, Christianity must engage with the forms of thought that define it. Moreover, it is a new phenomenon. Throughout its history Christianity has worked with, and changed, new kinds of thought, and different perspectives have only improved our understanding of the world.

Nevertheless, there may be limits. In the case of Marx, adopting his ideas wholesale would naturally stand in conflict with Christian teaching. As such, liberation theology may be a useful tool. The use of Marx by liberation theologians might prove useful in understanding how Marxism might be applied effectively in modern societies, but this very application might prove to undermine the principles themselves! These kinds of issue once again bring up the difficulties experienced by feminism; whether the rise of secular ideologies undermines Christian thought or not. What may initially appear to be a boon for theology may inevitably show that in its current state, it is unequipped to deal with the theoretical problems of the modern world, and at least its application to thought may be of very limited usefulness in dealing with political and social crises.

Quick Quiz	
1.	What is the difference between orthopraxis and orthodoxy?
2.	What is exploitation in Marx's thought?
3.	What is alienation in Marx's thought?
4.	What is social sin?
5.	What is structural sin?
6.	What are Ecclesial Base Communities?
7.	What is the preferential option for the poor?

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ANSWERS TO ACTIVITIES

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4A Activity:

There are lots of questions about whether Hick’s pluralism overstates the similarities between religions. Pick three different religions and research their beliefs about God and salvation, then write down whether they might be reconciled or not.

There are many potential answers to this question and many potential differences between religions. It is worth getting students to look at a non-Abrahamic religion such as Hinduism or Buddhism. Jainism, an atheistic religion, is an interesting case for Hick (and partly spurs his use of the term ‘theistic pluralism’). If its beliefs are so fundamentally different from a religion such as Christianity, it is impossible to see an outlook which acknowledges the potential truth of both.

4B Activity:

How do other religions view the resurrection of Jesus? Do some independent research and write down your own ideas about how the scriptural reasoning movement might tackle bringing together different views to discuss this event.

There are many different answers to this question. One starting point for students might be to look at how Jesus is a key prophetic figure in eschatological matters and much of the traditional Islamic view of Jesus as a prophetic character. It is, therefore, a good way to look at how Christian ideas about the resurrection can be compared against those of another religion.

5A Activity:

Read the Mulieris Dignitatem passages 18–19. Write down three ways you believe the Church promotes gender equality and three ways it might still promote sexist attitudes. On the whole, does the Church perpetuates unequal gender roles?

This passage is quite wordy, and occasionally difficult to get through. Students should highlight key points concerning gender roles. Why is the Catholic Church so keen to emphasise the importance of women, largely glossed over by Genesis, with the pain of childbirth even being a punishment? Why is Mary a key figure in the Bible and not one who seemed to live a spiritually fulfilling life? These questions raise issues about female ordination, contraception, sex before marriage, etc.

5B Activity:

Look back across your notes on the previous part of the specification (5A Gender and Sexuality). Do you think there is a golden thread running through scripture? Annotate your notes with whether there is more evidence for Ruether’s or Daly’s position.

Students should revisit their work on scriptural evidence for gender equality. In particular, the writings of St Paul, which present many sexist attitudes. Some might come to the conclusion that egalitarian attitudes, undermining the idea of a golden thread throughout the entirety of scripture, there is foreshadowing of Jesus’s ideas in various parts of the Old Testament.

6A Activity:

How would you go about legislating the rights and freedoms of religious individuals in the UK? Write down different laws you would craft about the roles you would allow (or not allow) religion to play in society and government. What issues could you foresee with these laws?

This is quite an open task and can be made into a group activity. Discussions might include: Should we have blasphemy laws? How might slander and libel laws impact on religious groups? Should we allow religious beliefs in public through wearing items of faith? If a student suggests a potentially discriminatory or inflammatory law, make sure they address the ramifications of such a law on freedom, peace, prosperity, etc.

6B Activity:

What Christian principles might you develop to guide orthopraxis? Write down your own version of the principles and note where your thoughts might differ from Boff’s.

Students might draw on their Year 1 work in order to inform this exercise, and it is a useful way to apply liberation theology. If their principles are too broad then they might fail to engage with specific issues, yet if they are too specific or narrow they might fail to capture the universal moral message of the Gospels.

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ANSWERS TO QUICK QUIZZ

Religious Pluralism and Theology

1. Exclusivism holds that only one religion has exclusive access to the truth about salvation; religion has access to the truth about salvation but other religions may have a partial access to it. Pluralism holds that no one religion has exclusive or guaranteed access to the truth about salvation.
2. The view that all human beings will eventually be saved.
3. Hendrik Kraemer
4. Individuals who unwittingly participate in a Christian moral life and so can be saved.
5. The view that salvation can only come through Jesus Christ alone.
6. The thing or truth at the heart of all religious experience and enquiry, which exists independently of any particular religion.
7. A theology that draws upon all religious beliefs in order to form its understanding of the divine.

Religious Pluralism and Society

1. The communication and interaction between individuals of different faiths.
2. Numerous – migration, conflict, war, economic pressure, etc.
3. Redemptive Mission
4. Sharing the Gospel of Salvation
5. A textual studies movement which encourages those of different faiths to sit together and discuss issues by comparing scripture.
6. It relativises and flattens Christian belief; it does not reflect the right Christological understanding.

Gender and Society

1. A system or systems within a state/society in which men hold an imbalanced level of power over women.
2. The study of women's issues and the advocacy of women's rights and equality.
3. Mulieris Dignitatem
4. It means God-bearer and reflects the importance of motherhood in the Christian faith.
5. Naturalistic feminism holds there are some essential differences between men and women. Radical feminism holds that gender is a cultural construct and there are no essential differences between men and women.
6. The nuclear family is a traditional archetype that supposes the ideal family is a husband, a wife and their children.
7. It means that it is not a natural form of family; it is a form imposed by the cultural norms of society.

Gender and Theology

1. A form of theology that aims to dismantle sexist elements of the Christian Church and promote gender equality in an equal fashion.
2. A term used by Paul Ricoeur to describe the process of analysing a text from an unconscious perspective, looking for hidden intentions or motives.
3. Accidental maleness refers to how Jesus's gender is not important to consider when discussing his divinity. Essential maleness holds that his gender is of vital importance when considering his identity as the Son of God.
4. A theme of prophetic liberation that runs through scripture.
5. Rape, war and genocide; three phenomena that challenge the patriarchal elements of Christianity.
6. As she is used by God without her input or consent in order to produce a male saviour.
7. As Dalziel is used to give us back the pre-existing myths that Christianity distorted in the process of its development.

The Challenge of Secularism

1. The view that religion is harmful and irrational, and has no place in public life.
2. The process by which societies or cultures gradually become more areligious and a secular society.
3. The view that religion is not needed to justify ethical systems and that a scientific approach is sufficient when investigating the world.
4. The process by which people come to believe things about the world based upon unconscious desires they are unaware of in their daily lives.
5. The study of how ideas are transferred between individuals based upon their 'fitness' to survive.
6. The idea that religion should be separated from matters of government and politics.
7. Sexism, homophobia, war, etc.

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Liberation Theology and Marx

1. Orthopraxis concerns right action, orthodoxy concerns right thought.
2. The idea that capitalism intrinsically requires workers to receive less than the total they produce.
3. The idea that capitalism, through separating workers from the fruits of their labour, affects people's working lives.
4. Cases where sin is understood on a collective level.
5. Cases where social sins are embedded in political structures or laws.
6. Groups of individuals who study the Bible under the guidance of a lay catechist with scripture can help them engage in political and social action within their community.
7. The view that God inherently favours those who are poor and that Christians should primarily minister to those who are impoverished and marginalised.



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