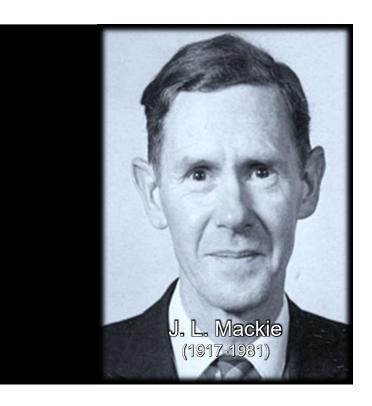
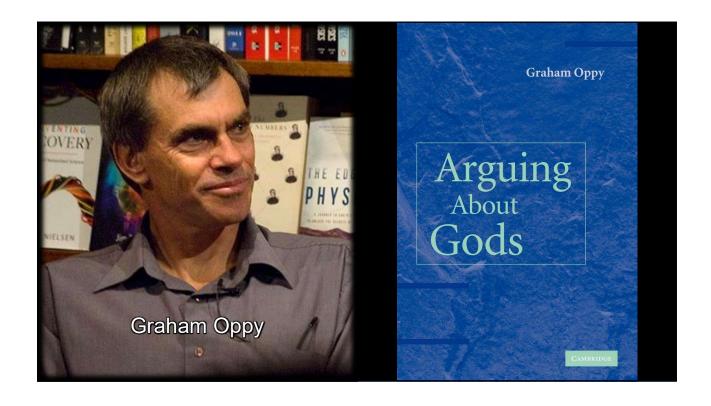


J.L.Mackie

THE
MIRACLE
OF
THEISM

Arguments for and against the
Existence of
God





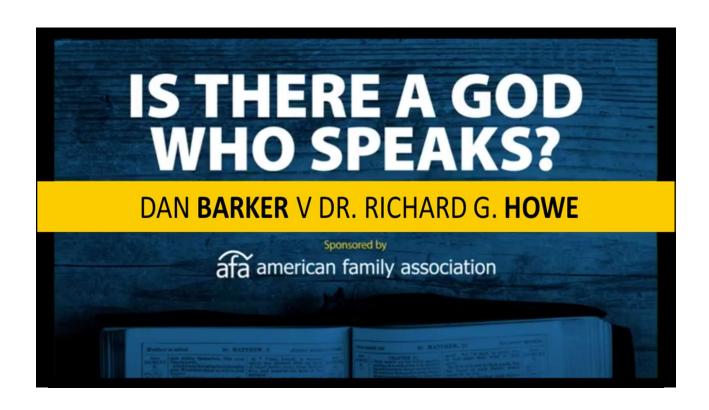


In my experience, many if not most contemporary Christian apologetic arguments for God's existence utilize scientific evidence.

As such, these arguments generally take the form of an abductive argument, commonly known as argument to the best explanation or best hypothesis.

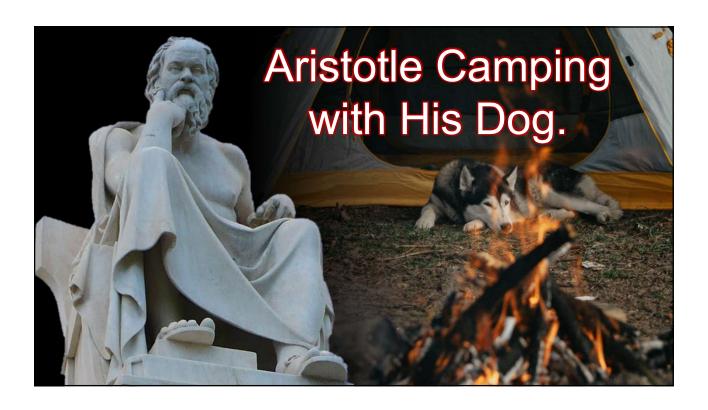
Undoubtedly these arguments carry greater weight not only because of the status that science has achieved in our day, but also because the categories of the natural sciences are more or less familiar with the general population.

In contrast, the arguments utilizing the relatively unfamiliar categories of philosophy in general and Classical Philosophy in particular very nearly render such arguments inaccessible to a general audience.

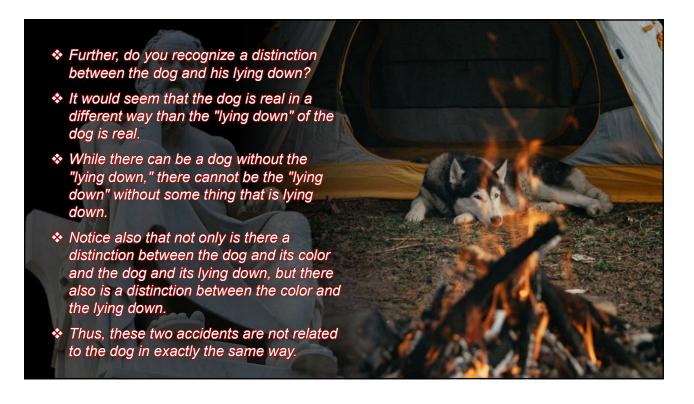


Their value remains, however, in as much as such arguments show how the existence of God (together with the classical attributes of God) follow inescapably from the basic tenets of classical metaphysics.

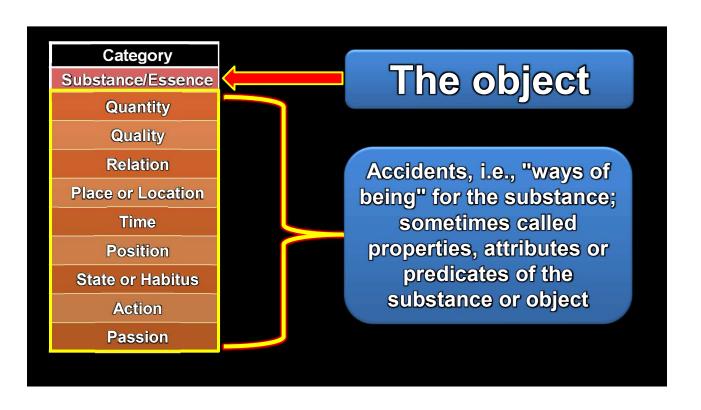
What is more, the classical understanding of knowledge arises from the metaphysics in as much as knowing has to do with the nature of the knower, the nature of the known, and the metaphysical interplay between the two.











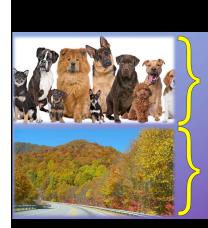
Category	Meaning	Greek	Example
Substance	What	ousia	dog, tree
Quantity	How much	poson	small, tall
Quality	What sort	poion	Great Dane, oak
Relation	in relation to something	pros ti	smaller, taller
Place or Location	Where	pou	in my yard
Time	When	pote	right now, last year
Position	Being situated	keisthai	lying, standing
State or Habitus	Having, possession	echein	is leashed, is covered
Action	Doing	poiein	bites, shades
Passion	Undergoing	paschein	is fed, is pruned

A three-foot Quantity husky Quality dog Substance, much taller than Relation her puppy, was lying Position in my yard Place yesterday Time on a leash State (Habitus), biting her paw Action, completely unaware that she was being fed Passion by me.









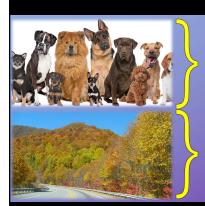
From individual dogs, one can derive the concept of dog.

From individual trees, one can derive the concept of tree.

- The relationship of the concept of 'dog' or 'tree' to the individual dogs or trees is the relationship of universals to particulars.
- One debate that has endured throughout the history of philosophy has been over what exactly is the nature of a universal.



- Are universals merely names we give to them (Nominalism / Hume)?
- Or are universals more than names but nothing more than concepts in our minds (Conceptualism / Ockham)?
- Or are universals "real" in some sense of the term 'real'? (Realism)



From individual dogs, one can derive the concept of dog.

From individual trees, one can derive the concept of tree.

- If universals are real in some sense of the term 'real', exactly what is the nature of their reality?
 - Are universals the fully real whereas individuals objects (dogs, trees) "participate in" or "imitate" the universals? (Extreme Realism / Platonism)
 - Do the universals "exist" as particular in the individual objects and only "exist" as universal in the human intellect? (Moderate Realism / Aristotelianism)
 - Do universals "exist" as particular in the individual objects, "exist" as universal in the human intellect, and are "ideas" in the mind of God as their Creator which are made real as particular in objects by creation? (Scholastic Realism / Thomism)



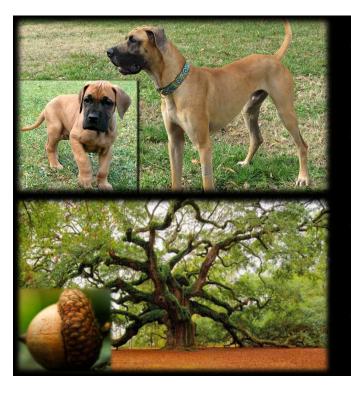
- Notice also that the universal is free of any specifying characteristics of the individual.
- The concept 'dog' does not specify German Shepherd or Chihuahua; young or old; brown or black; sitting or lying; eating or being washed ...
- The concept 'tree' is free of such individuating characteristics such as tall or short; deciduous or evergreen; fruit-bearing, flowerbearing or neither; in my backyard or in my neighbor's backyard ...







- Notice that, despite the changes in all the characteristics (accidents), you can know that it is the same dog throughout.
- Likewise with the tree. From acorn to flourishing oak, despite all the changes, you can know that it is the same tree throughout.



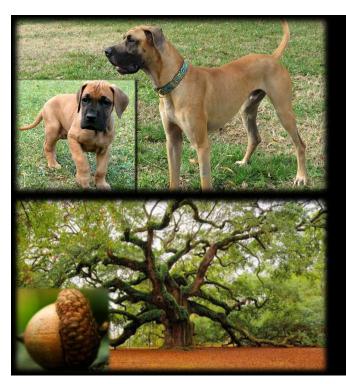
- That aspect of the thing that constitutes its "sameness" is its Form.
- That aspect of the thing that constitutes its "changing" is its Matter.
- 'Form' and 'Matter' are metaphysical aspects of any sensible thing.
- Neither exists apart from the sensible thing itself.



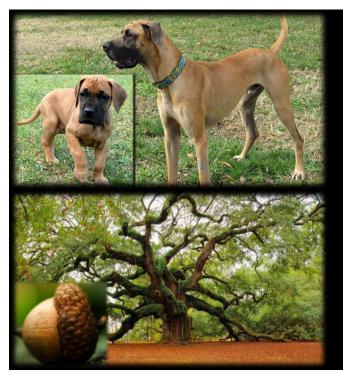
- The Form and Matter constitution of a sensible thing is known as hylomorphic dualism.
- This term comes from the Greek hule (ὑλή) which means 'matter' and morphe (μορφή) which means 'form'.
- They are metaphysical aspects of a single thing.



- Hylomorphic Dualism is to be distinguished from Substance Dualism.
- Substance Dualism was championed by René Descartes (1596-1650).
- Descartes regarded the material and immaterial components of a human to be two separate substances.



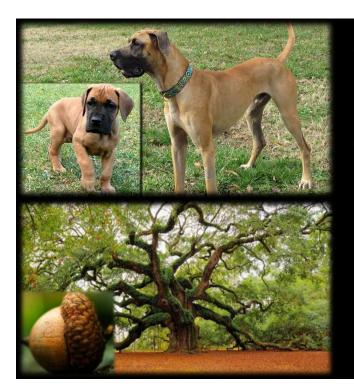
Note also that, unless something interferes (like injury, malnourishment, or disease), the Great Dane puppy will inevitably grow into an adult Great Dane and the acorn will inevitably grow into a mature oak tree.



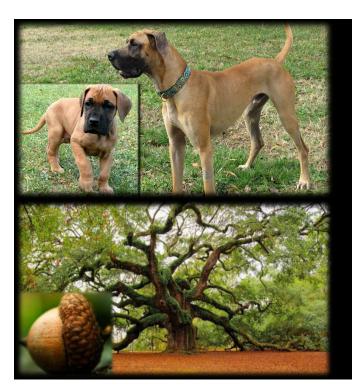
- The trajectory of each of these things is its teleology.
- The term comes for the Greek word 'telos' (τέλος), meaning 'end' or 'goal'.
- A thing's teleology is determined by its Form.
- A thing's Form is that which constitutes "what" it is.
- An acorn will never become a Great Dane.



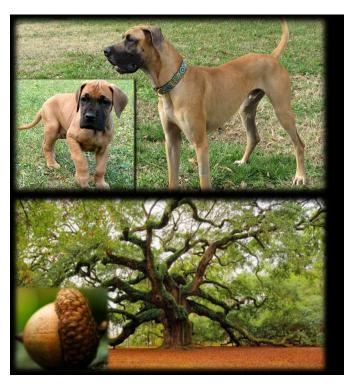
- These accidents of the thing that are not yet realized eventually will be realized if nothing interferes.
- These accidents that are yet to become real are know as potencies (or potentialities or capacities) that "exist" in the thing.



- Once they become real, they are actual (or actualities).
- Aristotle identifies this as the act and potency distinction.



- Aristotle called that which brings a potentiality into actuality the Efficient Cause.
- Aristotle identified three additional causes.



- The Efficient Cause is that by which a thing is.
- The Material Cause is that out of which a thing is.
- The Formal Cause is that which a thing is.
- The Final Cause is that for which a thing is.

Last, notice that you can think of a dog or tree or any number of sensible objects that used to exist but no longer exist.

What the dog "is" or what the tree "is" did not change.

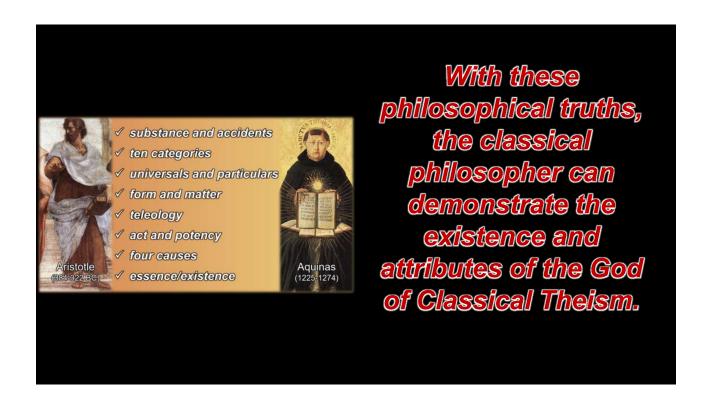
The only thing that is different is "that" it was and now no longer "is."

This is known as the essence / existence distinction.

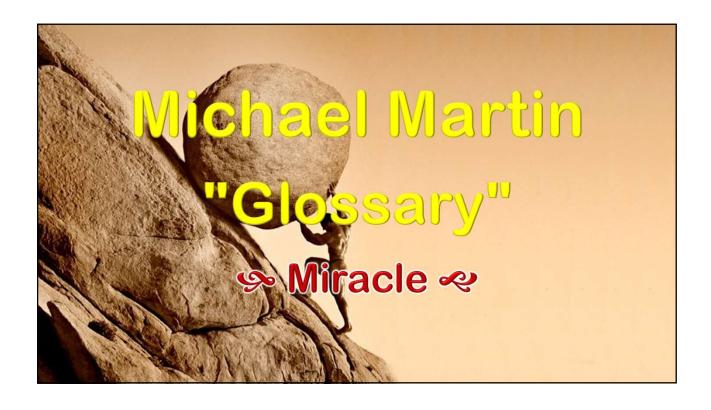
The essence is what something is.
The existence is that something is.
The essence / existence
distinction is a philosophical
augmentation of Aristotle's
metaphysics by Thomas Aquinas.

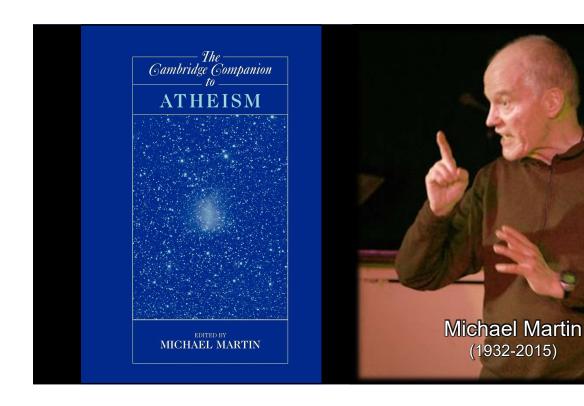


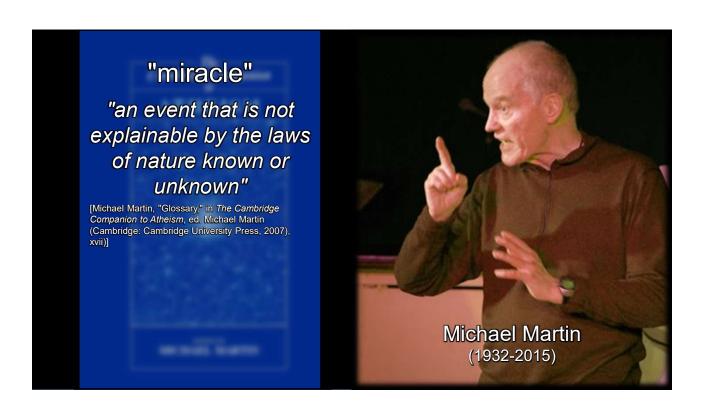




It remains to be seen the degree to which contemporary atheist philosophers engage any of the classical philosophical arguments for God's existence and attributes.







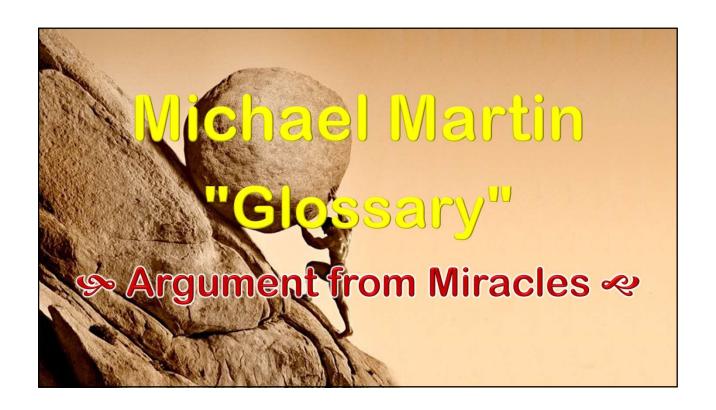
"miracle"

"an event that is not explainable by the laws of nature known or unknown"

[Michael Martin, "Glossary," in *The Cambridge Companion to Atheism*, ed. Michael Martin (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2007), xvii)]

Classical Apologetics defines a miracle as:

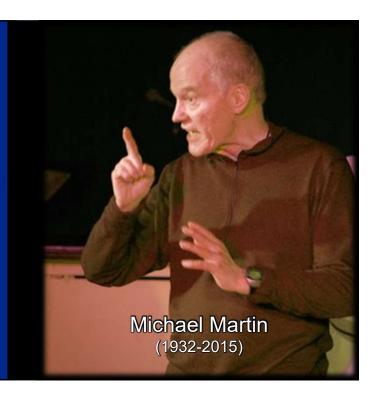
"an intervention of God into the natural world that interrupts the natural course of events for the purpose of vindicating His messenger and confirming the message."



"argument from miracles"

"an argument that purports to show that the existence of God is the most plausible explanation of miracles."

[Martin, "Glossary," in Cambridge Companion, xv)]



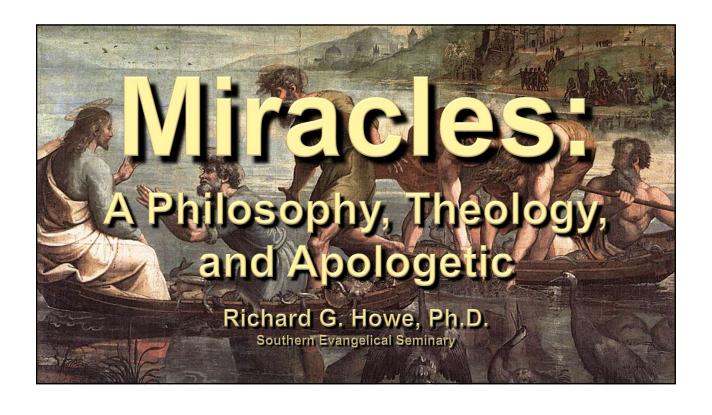
"argument from miracles"

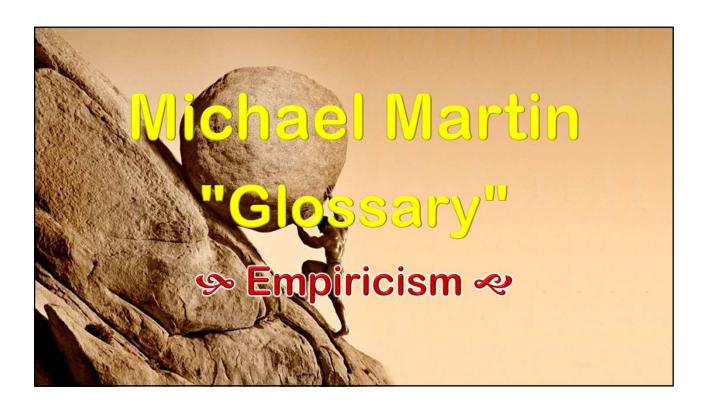
"an argument that purports to show that the existence of God is the most plausible explanation of miracles."

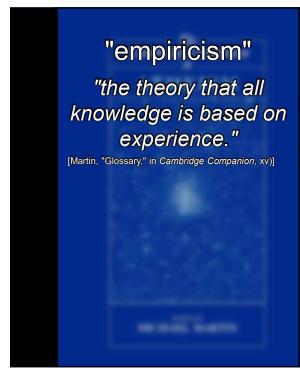
[Martin, "Glossary," in Cambridge Companion, xv)]

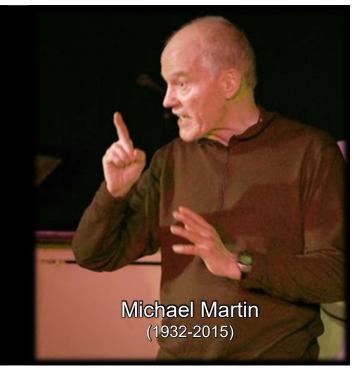
In the Classical Apologetics tradition of SES co-founder Norman L. Geisler, there is no "argument from miracles."

- Miracles by definition presuppose the existence of God.
- As such, they themselves cannot be evidence for God.









"empiricism"

"the theory that all knowledge is based on experience."

[Martin, "Glossary," in Cambridge Companion, xv)]

As we shall see, often terms and concepts differ in important ways between how they are used in contemporary analytic philosophy and the classical tradition of Aristotle and Aquinas.

"empiricism"

"the theory that all knowledge is based on experience."

[Martin, "Glossary," in Cambridge Companion, xv)]

Before one seeks to argue that one usage over the other is better or correct, it is critical at least that the differences are recognized.

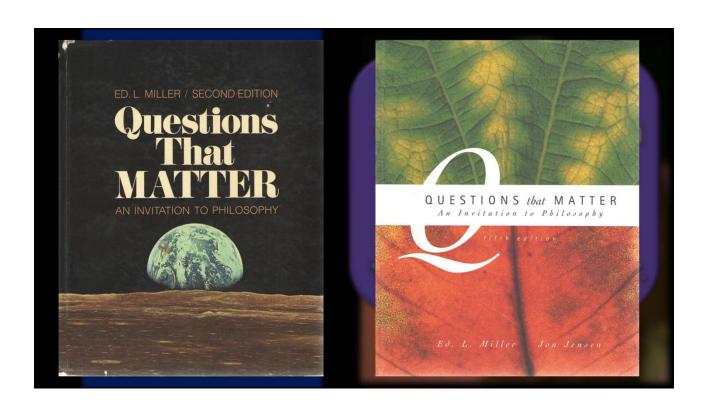
"empiricism"

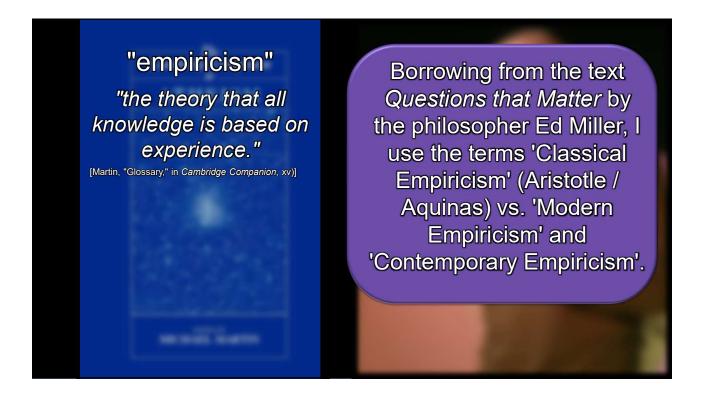
"the theory that all knowledge is based on experience."

[Martin, "Glossary," in Cambridge Companion, xv)]

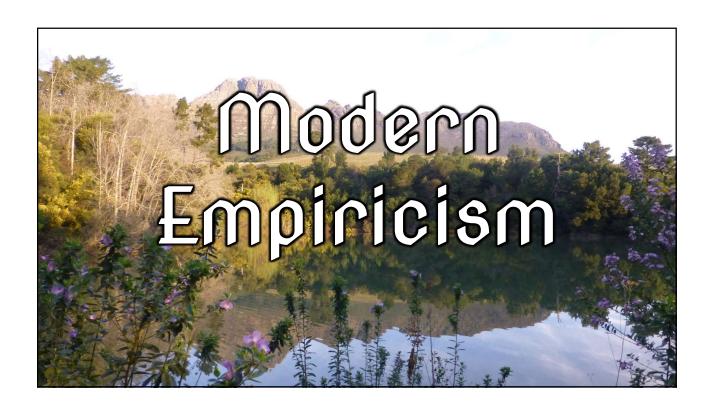
Borrowing from the text

Questions that Matter by
the philosopher Ed Miller, I
use the terms 'Classical
Empiricism' (Aristotle /
Aquinas) vs. 'Modern
Empiricism' and
'Contemporary Empiricism'.







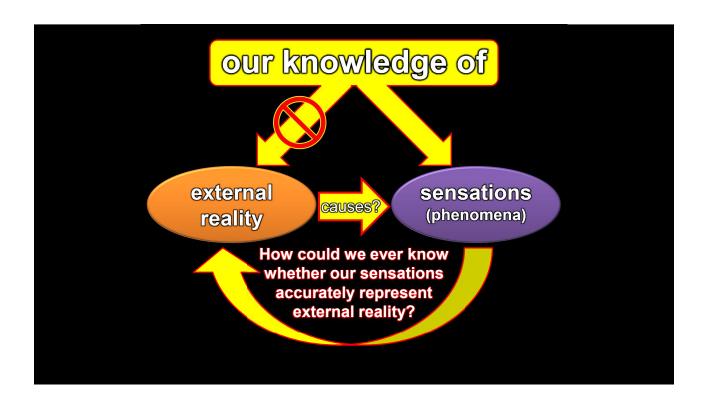




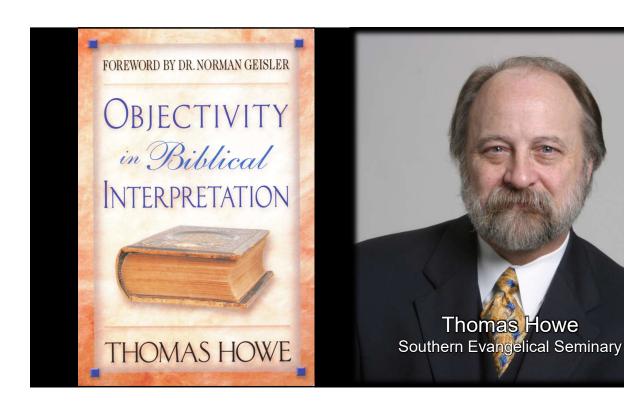
Modern empiricism concerned itself largely with the knowing of: > "qualities" or "properties" (Locke), or > "ideas" and "perceiving" (Berkeley), or > "sensations" or "phenomena" (Hume).

Early on, modern empiricism was committed to the notion that such sensations were "caused" by external objects or by "substances," though such objects or substances were themselves ultimately inexplicable or unaccounted for by the wider philosophy of these Modern Empiricists.

Later, Modern Empiricists such as Hume began to realize the implications of such a divorce between knowing sensations (also called "phenomena") on the one hand and knowing reality antecedent to (and supposedly the "cause of") these sensations on the other.

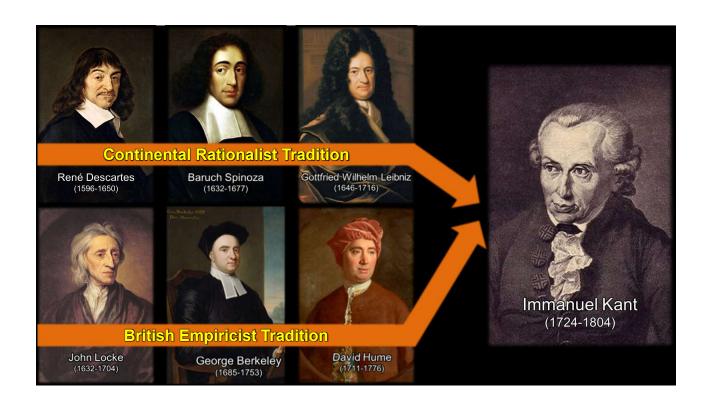






Hume's challenge gave rise to his formidable skepticism about making philosophical conclusions about this external reality that supposedly causes our sensations.

This in turn led to a profound but failed attempt by Immanuel Kant to rebuild the bridge between empirical experience and certainty.





Modern Empiricism has continued to influence Western philosophy and has developed into what can be called

Modern Empiricism has continued to influence Western philosophy and has developed into what can be called Contemporary Empiricism.

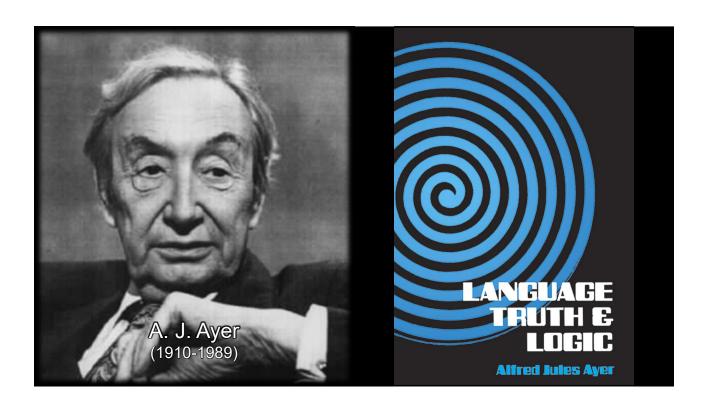
With the transition from Modern
Empiricism to Contemporary
Empiricism, philosophers have less
and less sought to understand
human knowing along the
categories of Classical
metaphysics.

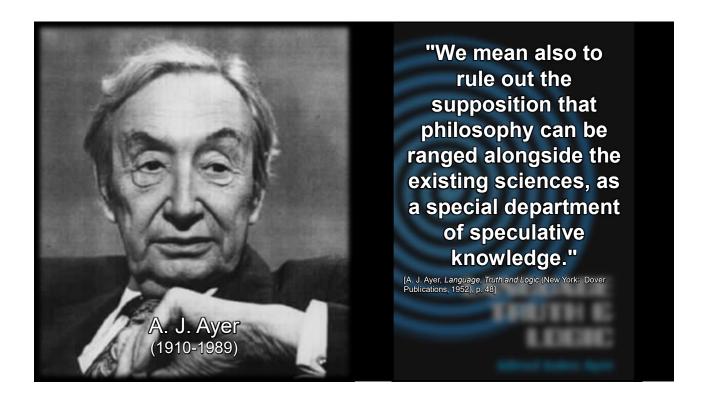
Contemporary empiricism became absorbed into epistemology more broadly considered.

It concerned itself with issues related to the strict definition of terms and the rigors of formal logic (Analytic philosophy).

It attempted to eliminate the philosophical challenge of accounting for any antecedent realities like substances by restricting itself as a second-order discipline which should only be concerned with aiding the endeavors of the natural sciences.

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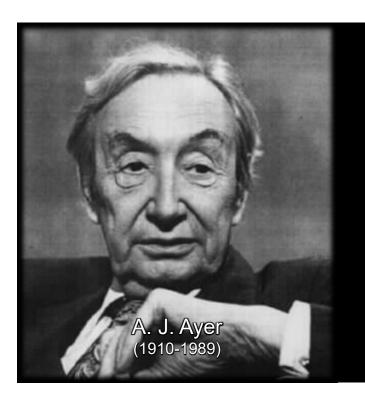






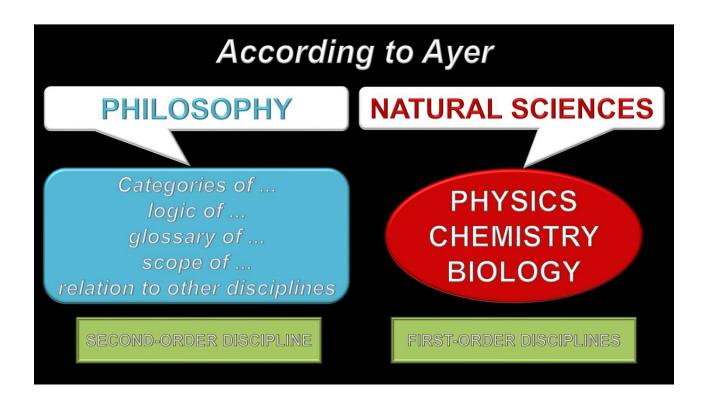
"There is no field of experience which cannot, in principle, be brought under some form of scientific law, and no type of speculative knowledge about the world which it is, in principle, beyond the power of science to give."

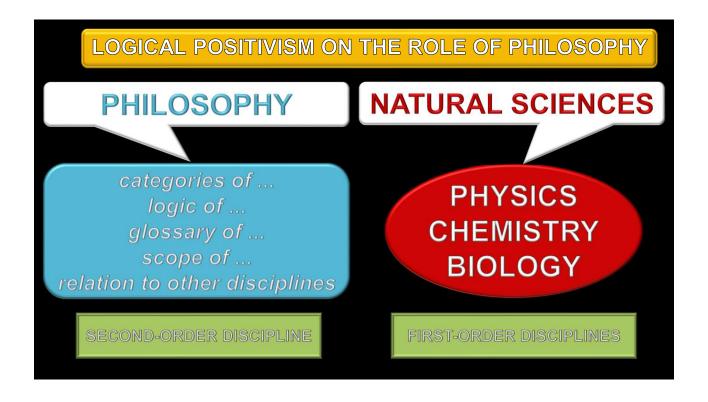
[Ayer, Language, p. 48]

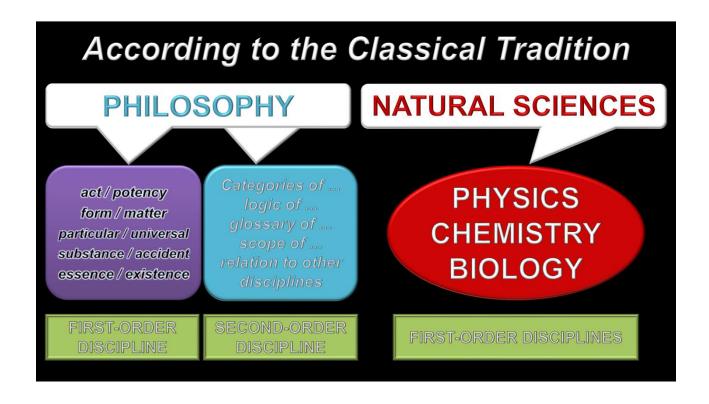


"But, actually, the validity of the analytic method is not dependent on any empirical, much less any metaphysical, presupposition about the nature of things. For the philosopher, as an analyst, is not directly concerned with the physical properties of things. He is concerned only with the way in which we speak about them. In other words, the propositions of philosophy are not factual, but linguistic in character."

[Ayer, Language, p. 57]

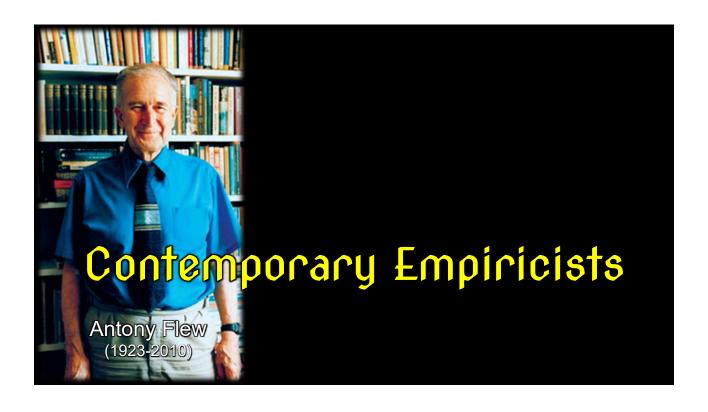


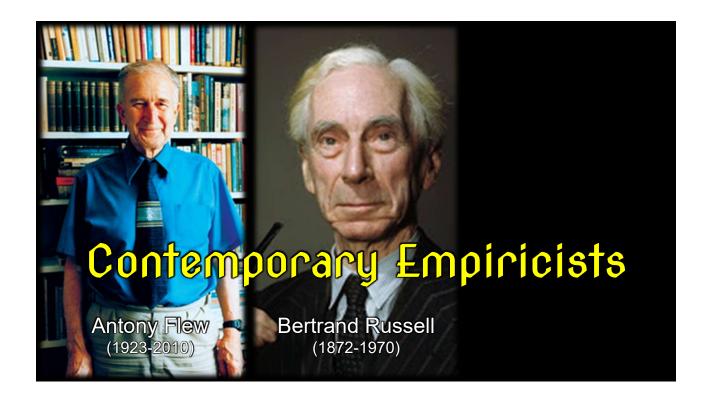


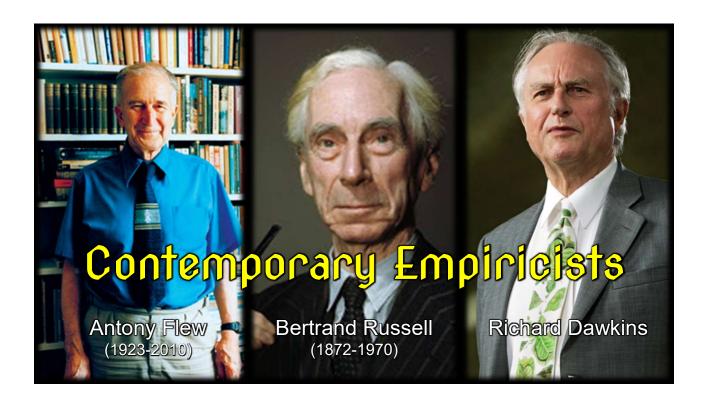


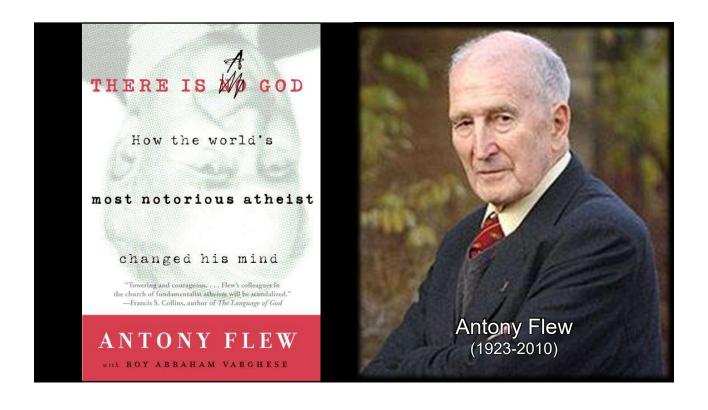
Most recently, certain aspects of contemporary epistemology have challenged the assumptions of the justification discussion and have sought instead to talk in terms of "warrant." (Alvin Plantinga)

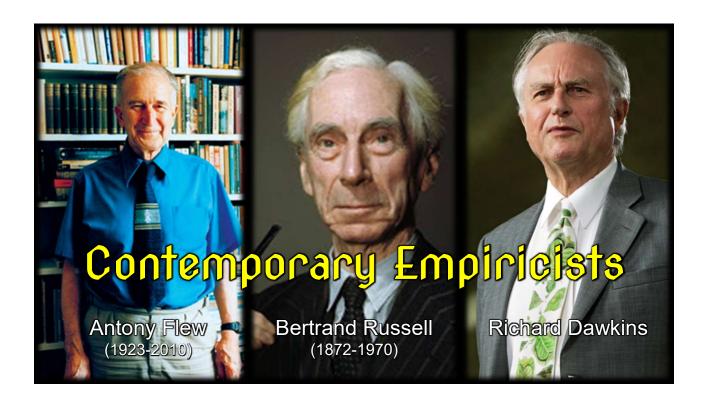
Contemporary Empiricists

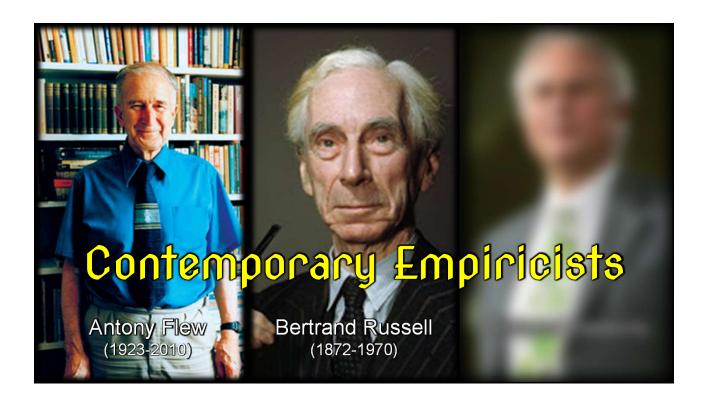


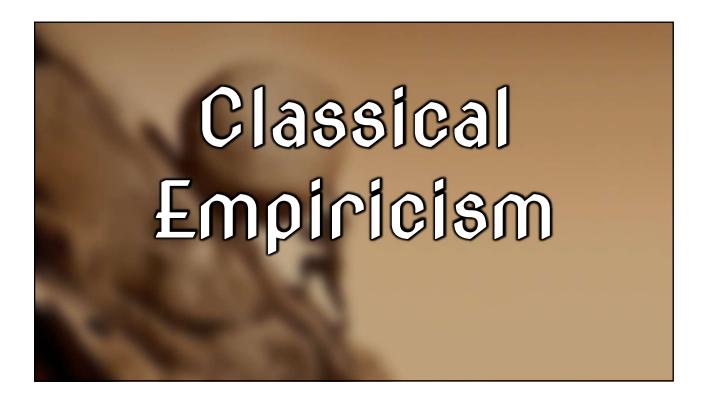


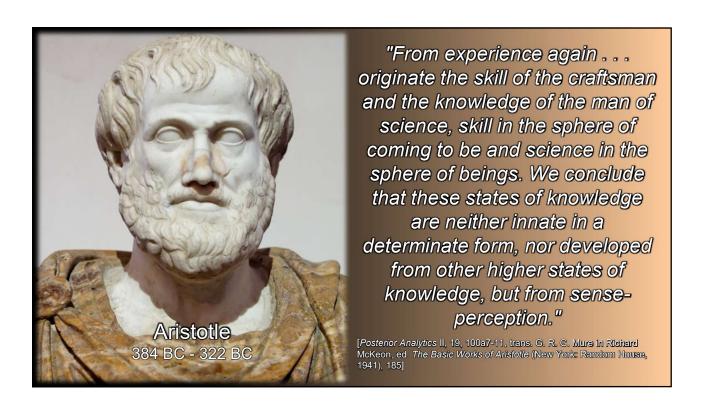


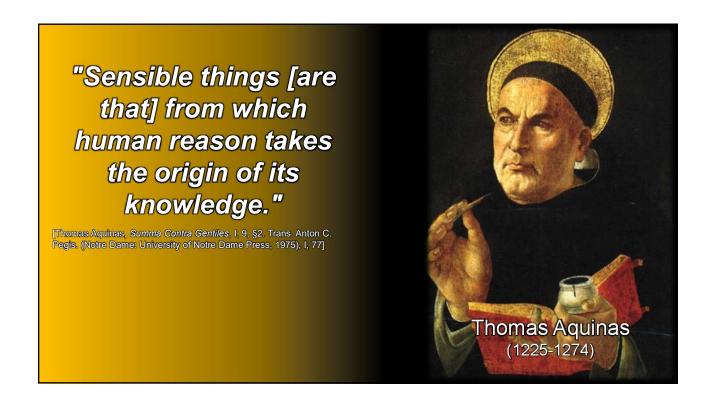


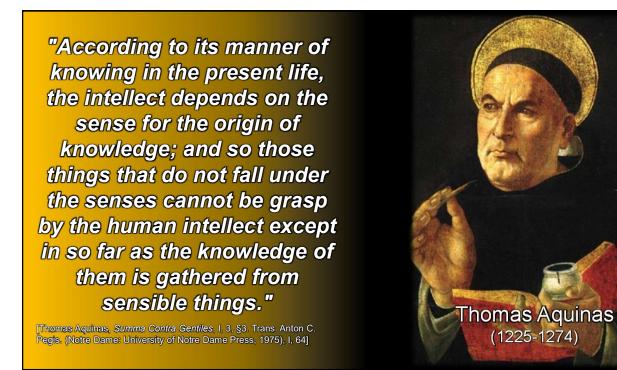


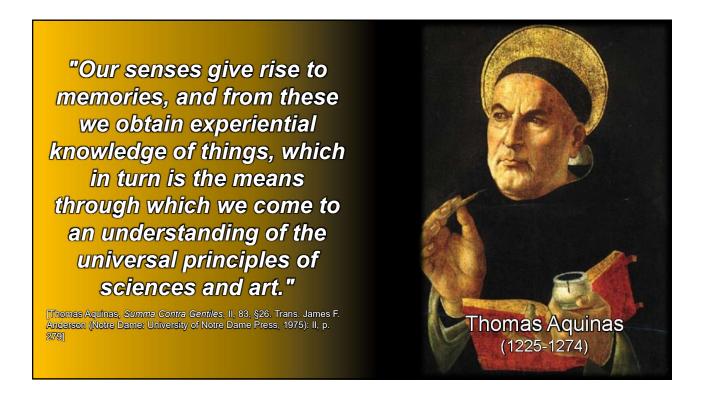


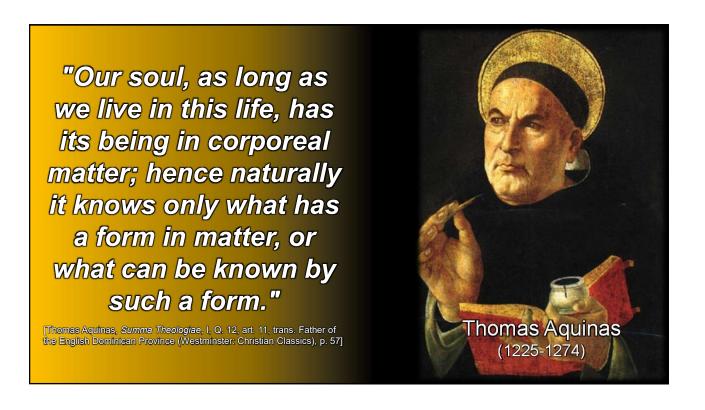


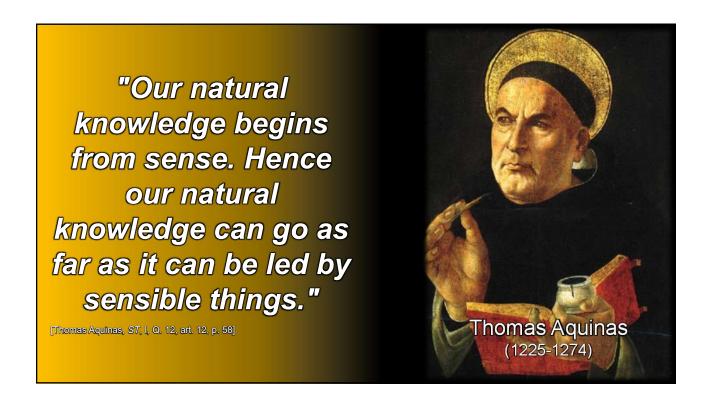


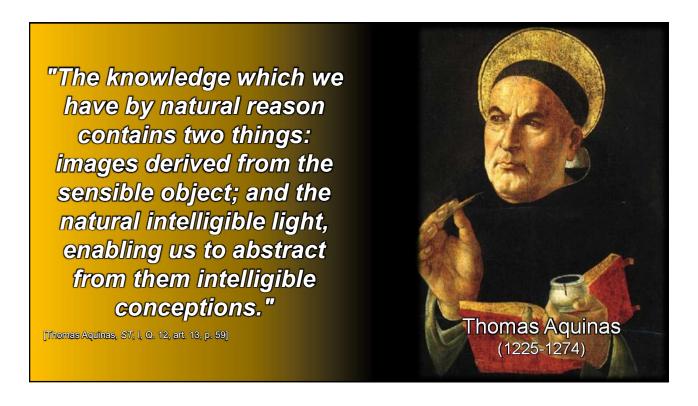


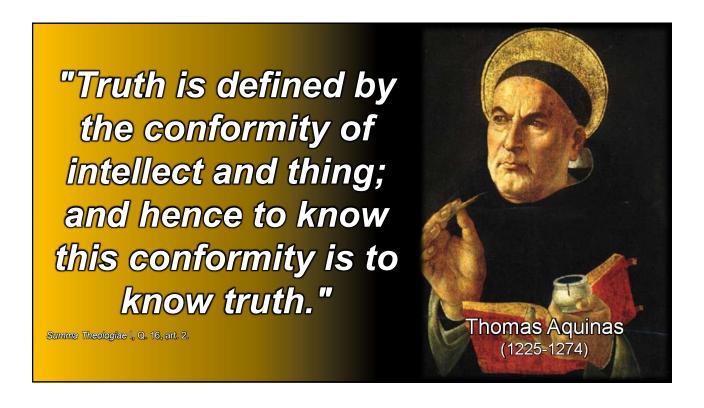


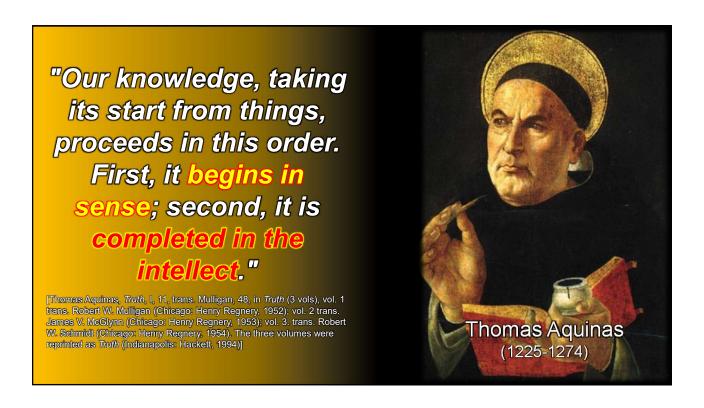


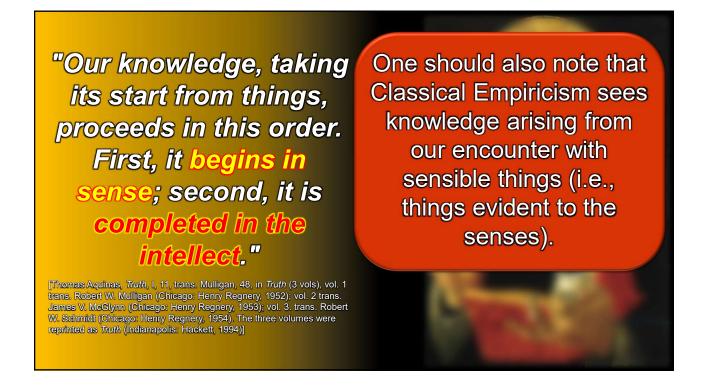


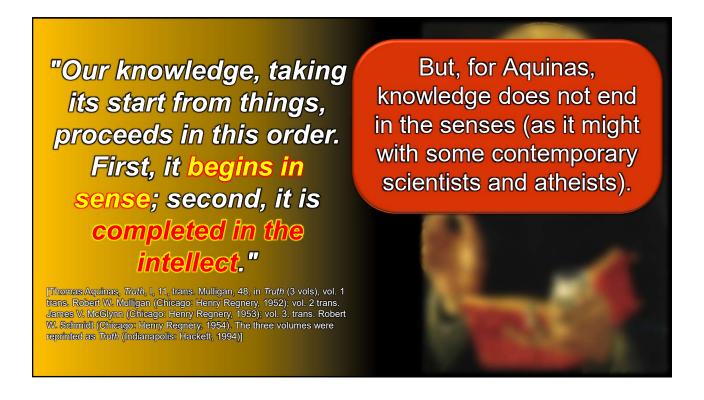


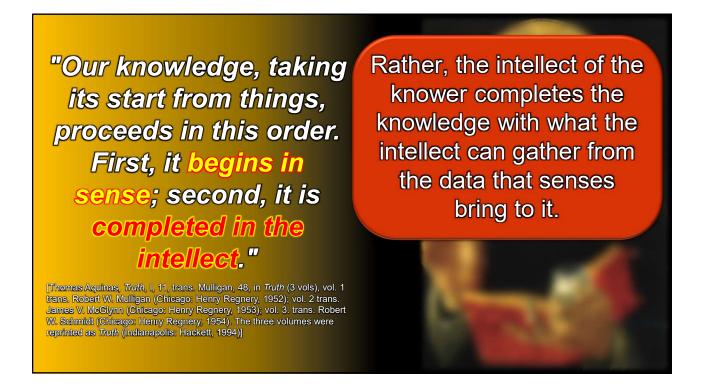












"Our knowledge, taking its start from things, proceeds in this order. First, it begins in sense; second, it is completed in the intellect."

[Thomas Aquinas, Truth, I, 11, trans. Mulligan, 48, in Truth (3 vols), vol. 1 trans. Robert W. Mulligan (Chicago: Henry Regnery, 1952); vol. 2 trans. James V. McGlynn (Chicago: Henry Regnery, 1953); vol. 3. trans. Robert W. Schmidt (Chicago: Henry Regnery, 1954). The three volumes were reprinted as Truth (Indianapolis: Hackett, 1994)]

Further, a proper account of knowledge will be a function of the metaphysics of what it is to be a knower and what it is to be a known.

"Our knowledge, taking its start from things, proceeds in this order. First, it begins in sense; second, it is completed in the intellect."

[Thomas Aquinas, *Truth*, I, 11, trans. Mulligan, 48, in *Truth* (3 vols), vol. 1 trans. Robert W. Mulligan (Chicago: Henry Regnery, 1952); vol. 2 trans. James V. McGlynn (Chicago: Henry Regnery, 1953); vol. 3. trans. Robert W. Schmidt (Chicago: Henry Regnery, 1954). The three volumes were reprinted as *Truth* (Indianapolis: Hackett, 1994)]

All this stands in contrast to Modern Empiricism's concern with knowledge of:

- > "qualities" or "properties" (Locke), or
- > "ideas" and "perceiving" (Berkeley), or
- > "sensations" or "phenomena" (Hume).

"Our knowledge, taking its start from things, proceeds in this order. First, it begins in sense; second, it is completed in the intellect."

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Having moved on from the modern empiricism of Locke,
Berkeley, and Hume,
contemporary philosophers
(empiricist or not) often seek
to account for human
knowledge as fundamentally
a function of "beliefs" and
their "justification."

"Our knowledge, taking its start from things, proceeds in this order. First, it begins in sense; second, it is completed in the intellect."

[Thomas Aquinas, *Truth*, I, 11, trans. Mulligan, 48, in *Truth* (3 vols), vol. 1 trans. Robert W. Mulligan (Chicago: Henry Regnery, 1952); vol. 2 trans. James V. McGlynn (Chicago: Henry Regnery, 1953); vol. 3. trans. Robert W. Schmidt (Chicago: Henry Regnery, 1954). The three volumes were reprinted as *Truth* (Indianapolis: Hackett, 1994)]

While certain contemporary philosophers are not shy about engaging the metaphysics regarding knowledge questions, such metaphysics will be far removed from the classical metaphysics of Thomas Aquinas.

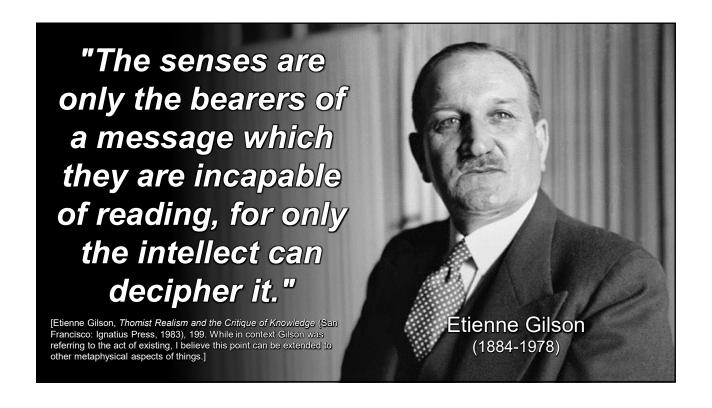
Surrendering the Epistemological Turf to the Modernists and Postmodernists

Too many Christians have more or less surrendered the territory of empirical knowledge to the Logical Positivists and to "scientism" (e.g., Richard Dawkins).

They have erroneously let contemporary scientists set the agenda when these scientists claim that all knowledge is constrained to the boundaries of the physical world.

These Christians have lost sight of the fact that, while all knowledge begins in experience, that is not the end of the matter.

According to classical empiricism, all knowledge begins in experience and is completed in the intellect.

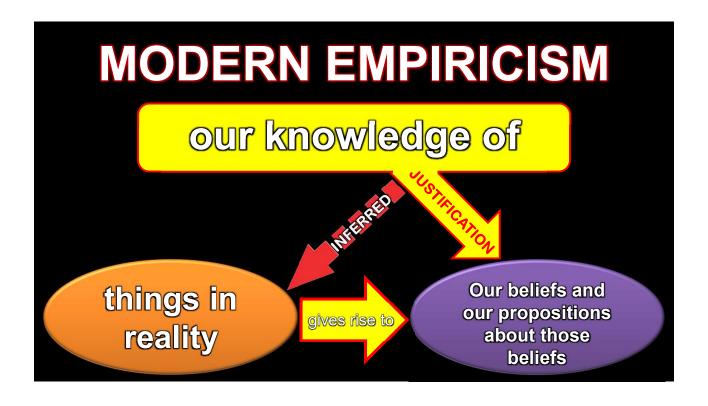


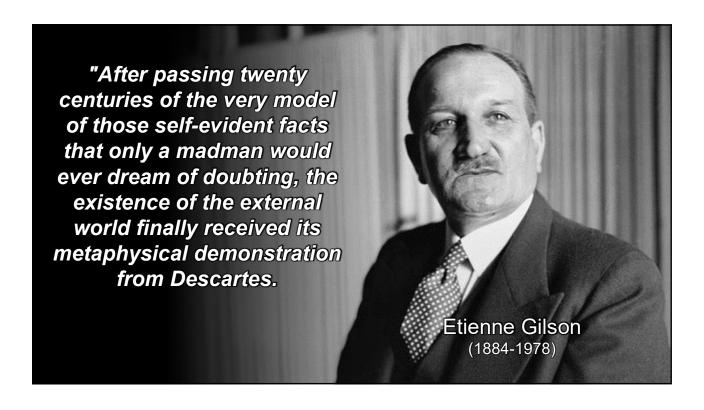
The Methodology of Classical Realism

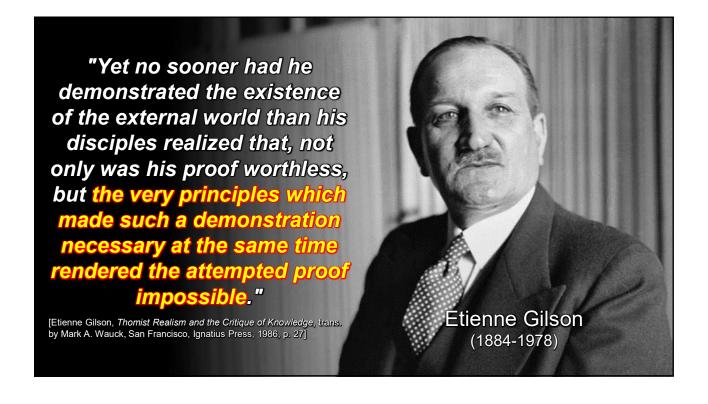
Our knowledge of external, sensible objects is the first apprehension of the intellect.

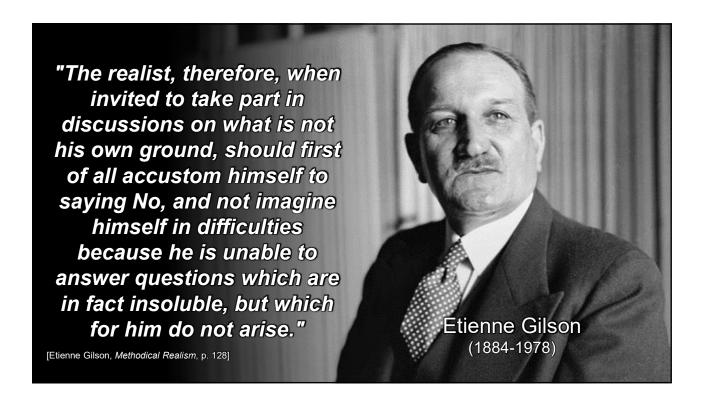
The existence of the external, sensible world is the starting point for a realist methodology.

Notice, therefore, that in the Classical Realism of Thomas Aquinas, our knowledge is of things and not merely of propositions or beliefs.

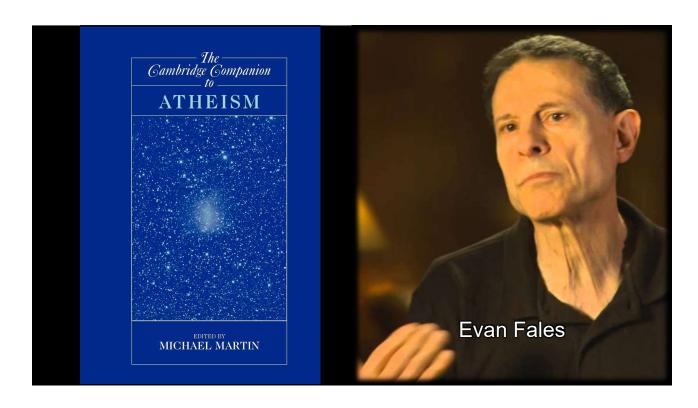


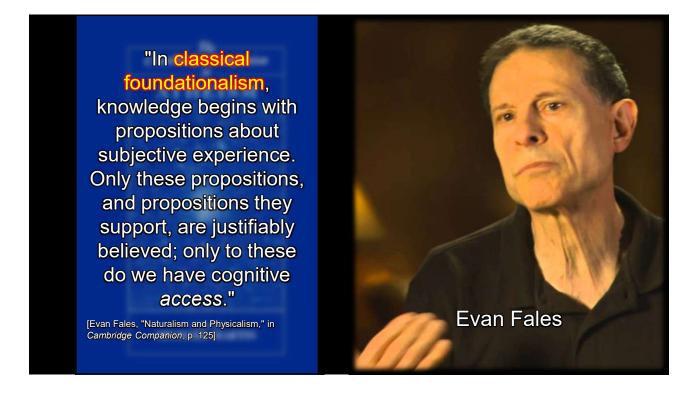


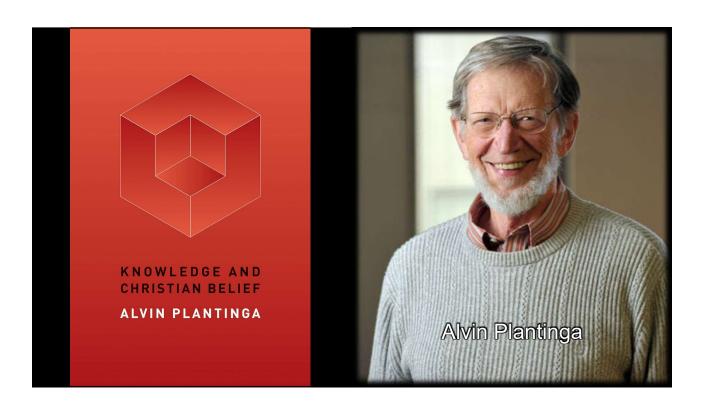


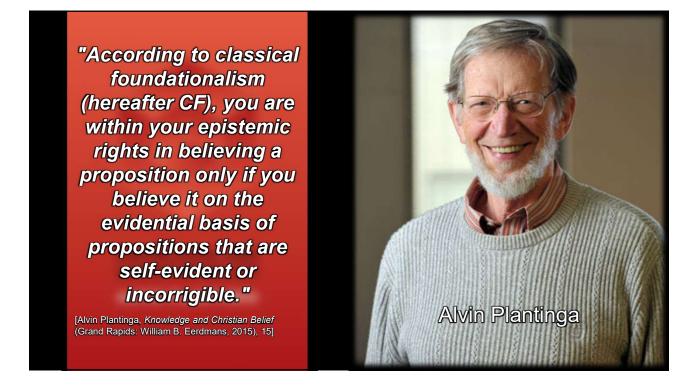


Classical Empiricism vs. Classical Foundationalism







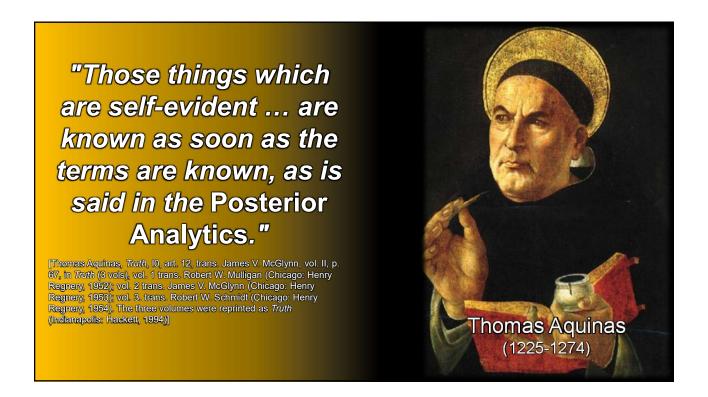


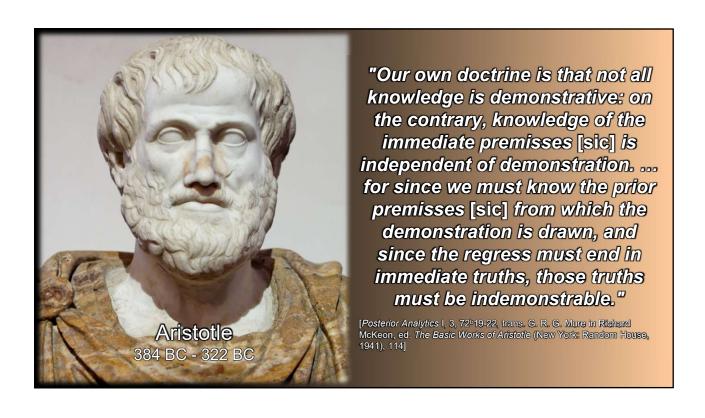
"According to classical foundationalism (hereafter CF), you are within your epistemic rights in believing a proposition only if you believe it on the evidential basis of propositions that are self-evident or incorrigible."

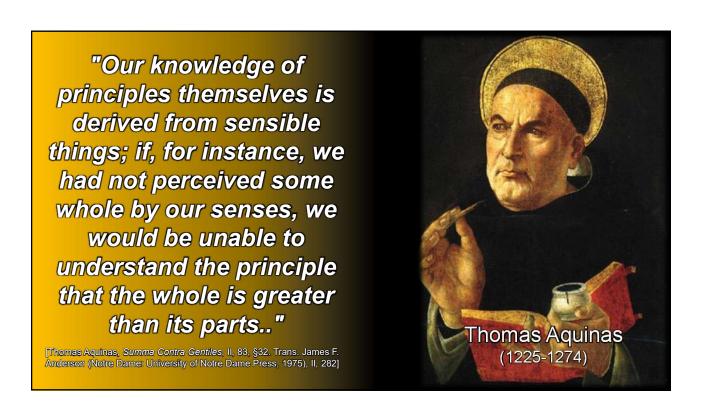
Self-evident propositions are those that are seen to be true by virtue of understanding the meanings of the terms in the proposition.

For example, it is self-evident to anyone who knows what 'whole' means that the whole is greater than its parts.

[Alvin Plantinga, Knowledge and Christian Belief (Grand Rapids: William B. Eerdmans, 2015), 15]







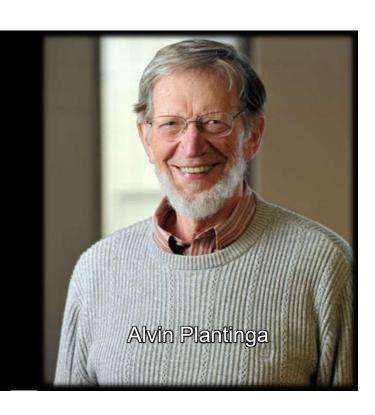
"According to classical foundationalism (hereafter CF), you are within your epistemic rights in believing a proposition only if you believe it on the evidential basis of propositions that are self-evident or incorrigible."

Incorrigible literally means
"incapable of being corrected"
(as, for example, an
incorrigible child).

In logic, an incorrigible belief or proposition is one about which you cannot be wrong, as, for example, that belief that you have a headache.

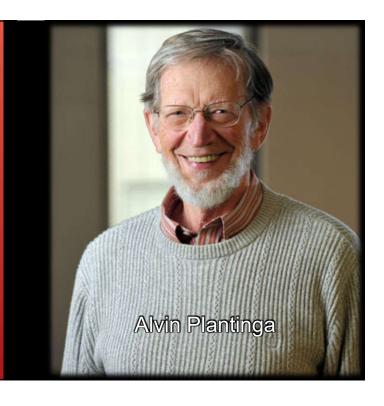
[Alvin Plantinga, Knowledge and Christian Belief (Grand Rapids: William B. Eerdmans, 2015), 15]

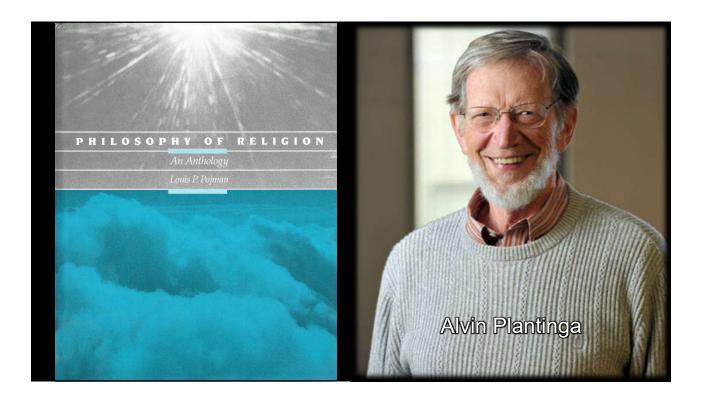
"If you believe a proposition for which there isn't any evidence from self-evident or incorrigible propositions, then you are unjustified and violating you epistemic duties.



"But here's the problem: there don't seem to be any incorrigible or self-evident propositions that support CF itself."

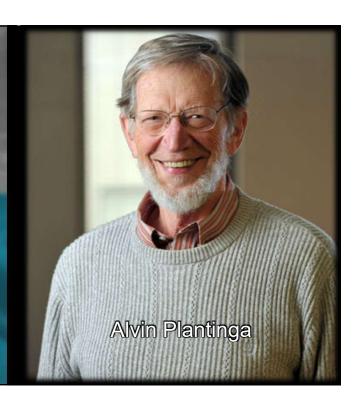
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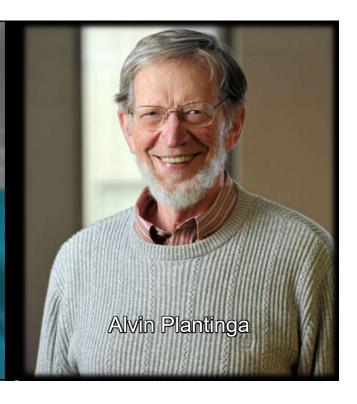
"[Both] Aquinas and the evidentialist objector [to theism] concur in holding that belief in God is rationally acceptable only if there is evidence for it. ...

We get a better understanding ... if we see them as accepting some version of classical foundationalism. ...



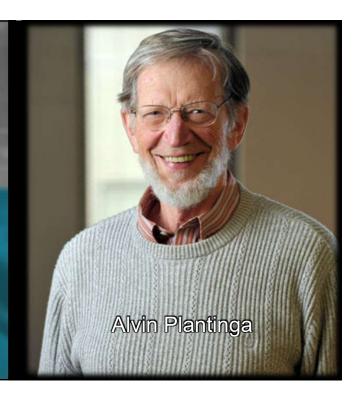
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"According to the foundationalist some propositions are properly basic and some are not; those that are not are rationally accepted only on the basis of evidence, where the evidence must trace back, ultimately, to what is properly basic."

[Alvin Plantinga, "Religious Belief without Evidence," in Louis P. Pojman *Philosophy of Religion: An Anthology* (Belmont: Wadsworth, 1987), 457]



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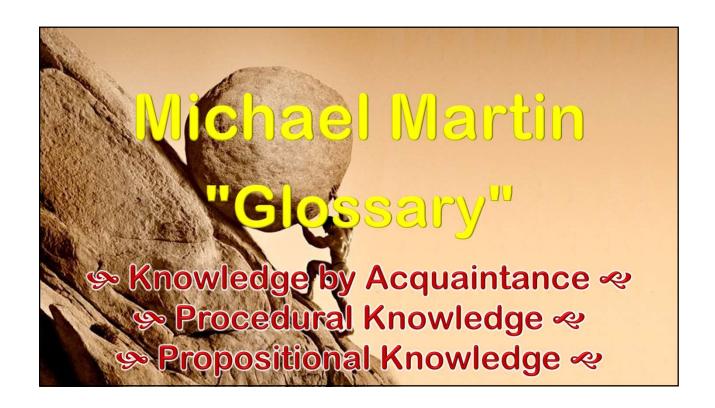
For the most part,
Plantinga will opt out of
what he calls "classical
foundationalism" for a
more nuanced
epistemology which he
calls "warrant."

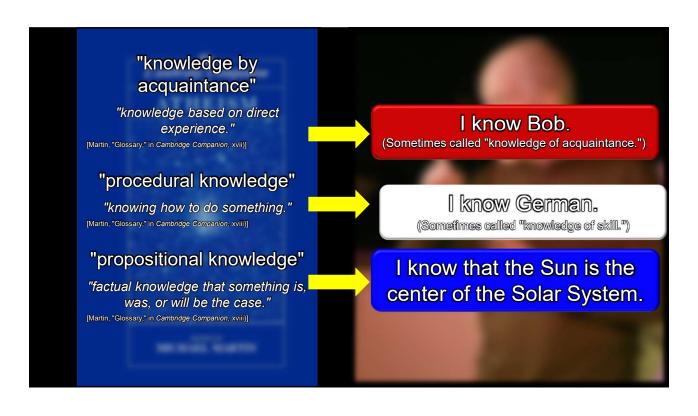
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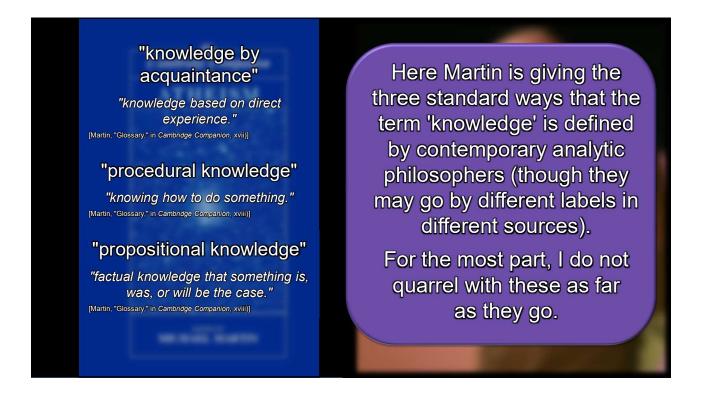
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Setting aside any critique of "warrant," one should notice the difference between the "classical foundationalism"

Plantinga ascribes to Aquinas and Aquinas's own accounting of knowledge.







"knowledge by acquaintance"

"knowledge based on direct experience."

[Martin, "Glossary," in Cambridge Companion, xvii)]

"procedural knowledge"

"knowing how to do something."

[Martin, "Glossary," in Cambridge Companion, xviii)]

"propositional knowledge"

"factual knowledge that something is, was, or will be the case."

[Martin, "Glossary," in Cambridge Companion, xviii)]

The problem lies in the fact that these are regarded as exhausting the options of how the term 'knowledge' is used.

Further, "propositional knowledge" is regarded as the sole concern of the philosopher.

"knowledge by acquaintance"

"knowledge based on direct experience."

[Martin, "Glossary," in Cambridge Companion, xvii)]

"procedural knowledge"

"knowing how to do something."

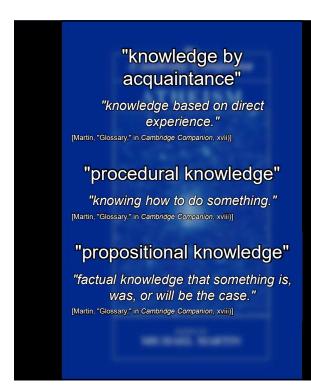
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"propositional knowledge"

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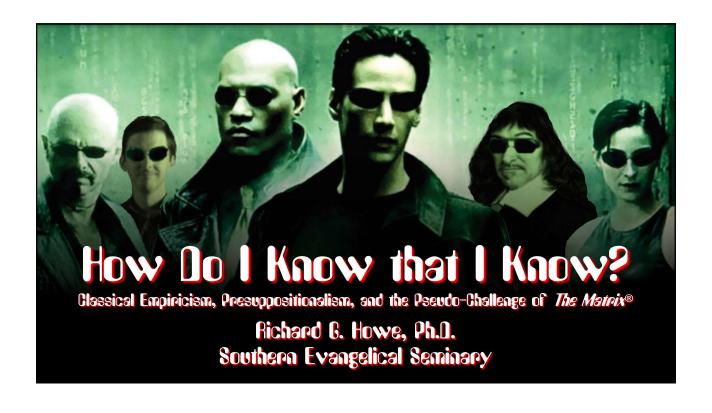
Thus, the understanding of what knowledge is in the classical tradition of Aristotle and Aquinas is excluded by definition at the outset.

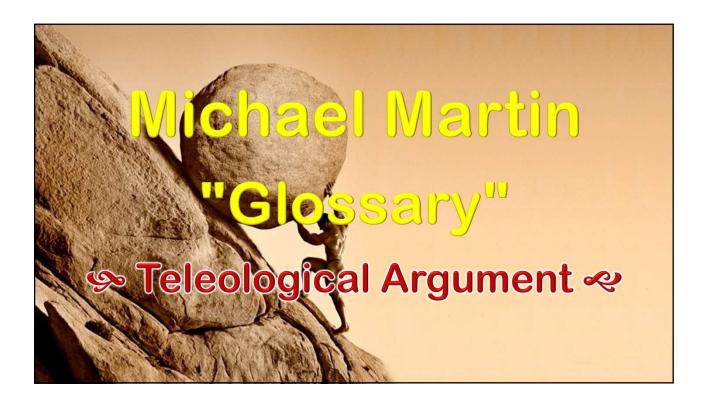


Taking knowledge to be "of propositions" rather than "of sensible objects" (at least at the start), gives rise to analytic philosophy's placing the priority on "justification" or "warrant."

It is very common today to say that one does not have knowledge until certain other criteria are met.



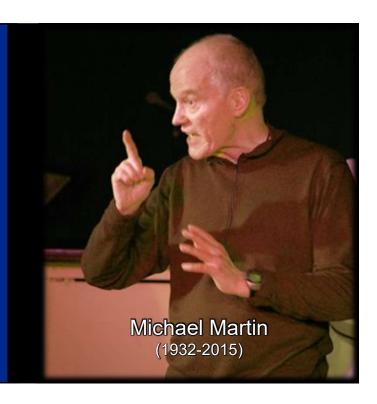




"teleological argument"

"an argument for the existence of God based on the apparent design and order in the universe. Also called the argument from design."

 $[Martin, "Glossary," \ in \ {\it Cambridge \ Companion}, \ xviii)]$



"teleological argument"

"an argument for the existence of God based on the apparent design and order in the universe. Also called the argument from design."

[Martin, "Glossary," in Cambridge Companion, xviii)]

The terms 'teleological argument' and 'design argument' are often used interchangeably (as in Martin's definition here; cf. s.v. "fine-tuning argument").

"fine-tuning argument"

"a teleological
argument based on the
alleged improbability
that the fundamental
physical constants in
the universe are
compatible with life."

[Martin, "Glossary," in Cambridge Companion, xvi)]

The terms 'teleological argument' and 'design argument' are often used interchangeably (as in Martin's definition here; cf. s.v. "fine-tuning argument").

"teleological argument"

"an argument for the existence of God based on the apparent design and order in the universe. Also called the argument from design."

[Martin, "Glossary," in Cambridge Companion, xviii)]

However, keeping the terms separate provides the opportunity to carefully distinguish the classical teleological argument from contemporary design arguments.

"teleological argument"

"an argument for the existence of God based on the apparent design and order in the universe. Also called the argument from design."

[Martin, "Glossary," in Cambridge Companion, xviii)]

The classical teleological argument employes the metaphysical categories of act/potency and teleology whereas the contemporary design arguments do not.

