

LANCE ASHDOWN

Anonymous Skeptics

Religion in Philosophy and Theology

3

Mohr Siebeck

Religion in Philosophy and Theology

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Lance Ashdown

Anonymous Skeptics

Swinburne, Hick, and Alston

Mohr Siebeck

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Preface

This book began as my doctoral dissertation, which I successfully defended in 1997 at the Claremont Graduate School. In 2000, Professor D. Z. Phillips wrote me that Professor Ingolf Dalferth was soliciting manuscripts for a series in philosophy of religion to be published by Mohr Siebeck. After reorganizing and editing the dissertation to make it suitable for publication as a book, I submitted it for review. To my delight, it was accepted.

First and foremost, I wish to acknowledge the guidance of Professor Phillips, who has assisted and encouraged me not only in writing the original dissertation but in submitting it for publication. His philosophical influence on the content, methodology, and style of this work is pervasive. Quite simply, he taught me how to do philosophy. He accepted nothing less than my best work and helped me to see how to produce it; I owe him an enormous debt. I also gratefully acknowledge Professors Al Louch and Stephen Davis for their comments on the original dissertation, and Professor Dalferth and Georg Siebeck for making my dream of publishing a book a reality. Finally, I wish to express deep gratitude and appreciation to my family and to Jennifer, who offered counsel and support whenever it was needed – as it usually was.

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Introduction

You are therefore by your principles forced to deny the reality of sensible things, since you made it to consist in an absolute existence exterior to the mind. That is to say, you are a downright skeptic. So I have gained my point, which was to show your principles led to skepticism.

—George Berkeley (1979, p. 42)

The most dangerous form of skepticism is always that which least looks like it.

—Soren Kierkegaard (1941, p. 275)

One of the traditional tasks of philosophy of religion since the Enlightenment has been to provide reasons or foundations for religious belief. In part, this foundationalist project has been a reaction to philosophers who questioned the reasonableness of belief in God. To these critics, religious belief is unwarranted or lacking sufficient evidence. The deepest skeptics, however, have questioned the very sense of religious language. To these critics, religious belief is not ill-advised or unwarranted, but nonsensical.

In response to such strong opposition, some philosophers and theologians have felt that standards of intellectual integrity required them to offer an apology or defense of faith, or else be, like Alyosha in Dostoyevski's novel, "embarrassed without proofs or without evidence" (Bouwisma, 1984, p. 5). They may even have thought that "in seeking for evidence they 'do God service,' helping along the cause of the Scripture by a straw or two straws here or there, helping in this way to move a mountain" (Bouwisma, 1984, p. 19). This anti-skeptical defense amounts in its strongest form to an argument or proof that belief in God is more reasonable than unbelief, and in its mildest form that belief in God is no more unreasonable than unbelief – and in both cases argues that regardless of how *reasonable* religious belief may be, religious language is clearly *meaningful*.¹

¹ For some contemporary examples of the former see Swinburne (1979), Craig (1979); for the latter see Penelhum (1983).

The epistemology of religion is seen, in large part, as an evaluation of the evidence put forward by apologists for the belief in God.

Hume's Religious Skepticism

Because the deepest challenge to religious belief comes from the radical skeptics, discussions about the success or failure of defenses of religious belief lead naturally into discussions of philosophical skepticism. The most elegant, historically significant, and deepest skeptical challenge is offered through the mouth of Philo in David Hume's classic *Dialogues Concerning Natural Religion*. Philo argues against Cleanthes that the attempt to argue from the nature or existence of the world to the existence of God, which is a classic weapon in the apologetic arsenal, is confused. In preparation for his audacious claim, Philo says:

"That all inferences, CLEANTHES, concerning fact, are founded on experience, and that all experimental reasonings are founded on the supposition, that similar causes prove similar effects, and similar effects similar causes; I shall not, at present, much dispute with you. But observe, I entreat you, with what extreme caution all just reasoners proceed in the transferring of experiments to similar cases. Unless the causes be exactly similar, they repose no perfect confidence in applying their past observation to any particular phenomenon" (1947, p. 147).

Assume that we have experience of, for example, houses and builders. We have seen builders building houses. When we come upon a house, we may suppose this house to have been constructed by builders, since we have always seen builders and houses conjoined in the past. But what happens when we have experience of a thing – say, a strange contraption – that we cannot associate with any cause in our experience? If the thing that we experience is similar to other things that we know to have a certain type of cause, then we may suppose this unknown thing to have similar causes. Philo cautions us, however, to use such analogical reasoning judiciously.

The question that Philo addresses is: is the traditional argument from world to God a judicious use of analogical reasoning? Is the world a member of a class of things or events that we have experienced, so that we are warranted in making the logical jump from world to God? In response to this type of analogical reasoning, Philo says:

"But can you think, CLEANTHES, that your usual phlegm and philosophy have been preserved in so wide a step as you have taken, when you compared to the universe houses, ships, furniture, machines; and from their similarity in some circumstances inferred a similarity in their causes?" (1947, p. 147).

He further asks: "Does not the great disproportion bar all comparison and inference?" (1947, p. 147). The "great disproportion" that Philo speaks of is of

grammar, not degree. Philo argues that if God is represented as a causal hypothesis explaining the existence or character of the world, then we must admit that a test for God's existence is logically excluded. We cannot provide an independent test for God's existence because while we have experience of classes of causes and classes of effects that occur *in* the world, we can necessarily have no experience of causes *beyond* the world. Since the world is not and cannot be spoken of as a "something" that we can pick out within our experience, there can be no similarities between it and some class of causes, which implies that we have no more reason to say that one thing is the cause of the universe than another. Because there can be no test for the truth or falsity of religious claims, and since the concepts of truth and falsity cannot apply to statements about God, what sense is there in talking about God?²

Philosophy of religion has never really recovered from Hume's devastating logical criticism.³ The ghost of Hume, though often ignored, dismissed, or explained away, still haunts the academy, often in unrecognized ways. D. Z. Phillips writes:

"Hume's criticisms constitute a powerful attack on the notion of two worlds, an earthly

² Hume scholars debate about where Philo ends up on the logical status of religious statements. At one point in the *Dialogues* he assents to what is sometimes called the "bare claim": "that the cause or causes of order in the universe probably bear some remote analogy to human intelligence" (1947, p. 227). How can Hume raise such devastating logical objections to talk of God as a hypothesis and then turn around and advance this "bare claim"?

Simon Blackburn argues that Hume is here assenting to what he calls an "inert proposition," i.e., a proposition for which it "makes no difference intellectually or rationally that we make the assent" (1999). "For [Hume's] polemical purposes," Blackburn says, "he does not need to remove even the quantificational reference to the supersensible as meaningless. Something about which nothing can be said is as good as nothing" (1999). On this reading, Hume knows full well the logical implications of his argument, but offers the bare claim since it says nothing and so can make no difference (leaving open the question of why he would even bother saying it if it were not worth saying).

Yet Philo appears inconsistent when he speaks of the possibility of "new and unknown principles [that] would actuate [nature] in so new and unknown a situation as that of the formation of a universe," a remark that suggests that Philo thinks it makes sense to speak of a cause of the universe. How does this remark square with his earlier logical objection? Ben Tilghman argues: "From our point of view I think we should say that Philo does not understand the full implications of the demolition job he has done on Cleanthes' argument. He thinks that nothing can be concluded about the causes of the world. In the passage just quoted, however, he sees clearly that causal investigations are used in particular contexts within the world and then mistakenly concludes that we are in no position to draw conclusions about the world as a whole. What I suggest he should have realized is that since our notions of causality together with our practices of making causal inferences have applications only within particular contexts, to rip them out of any such context in which we understand them is to talk nonsense and to make empty gestures" (1999). In contrast to Blackburn's reading of Hume as the demolition man who destroys the possibility of sense in religion but offers the innocuous "bare claim," Tilghman depicts Hume as not fully recognizing the skeptical implications of his own logical objections.

one and a heavenly one, the latter being the explanation of the former. He is, I believe, an advocate of belief in one world, the world we know: a world in which we find no evidence of the existence of God, and from which we have neither reason nor need to infer a divine reality" (1976, p. 22).

In calling us back to the "one world, the world we know," Hume placed a formidable obstacle in the path of the apologetic machine. Unarguably, philosophy of religion has been troubled and continues to be troubled by Philo's anti-apologetic arguments. The question is whether it has been troubled enough. It is possible that philosophy of religion has not only failed to be sufficiently troubled by Hume's logical attack, but failed to be sufficiently troubled by the other types of skeptical arguments are relevant to apologetics?

As we shall see, the challenge to the traditional task of philosophy of religion by no means stops with Philo: other forms of skepticism are, if anything, even deeper problems. Skepticism at its deepest questions the sense of a language or, to put it differently, argues for the impossibility of speaking in a certain way given that independent tests for the truth of assertions are logically excluded. Skepticism always leaves us, in short, with senseless language. Since philosophers of religion make use of many different sorts of concepts in their epistemological theories, skepticism provides a threat for the philosopher of religion that goes beyond the consideration of merely religious concepts.

³ At one point Philo makes an apparent quasi-religious confession that does not square with his fierce skeptical attacks. When reflecting on Philo's admission that "a purpose, an intention or design strikes everywhere the most careless, the most stupid thinker" (1947, p. 202), Phillips asks: "Shouldn't we be puzzled by this strange contradiction?" (1976, p. 23). Phillips agrees with Norman Kemp Smith that "something is evidently wrong in [Hume's and Kant's] statement of the situation" (1976, p. 24). Phillips suggests that "if someone's philosophical outlook is dominated by certain possibilities, even when he is impressed by nature in various ways, he will give a philosophical account of these impressions in terms of the only intellectual possibilities he sees open to him" (1976, p. 25). That is, a philosopher's account of what it is to be religious may not do justice to religious sentiments that the philosopher actually has, however weak they may be. This explanation of Philo's confession is perhaps the best we can have.

Whether or not this explanation is accepted, our concern is with the skepticism in Hume's work: Philo's apparent proclivity toward religious sentiments and his inconsistent language about the causes of the universe need not concern us. We can draw out the full force of Hume's skeptical implications for ourselves regardless of whether he acknowledges them. Henceforth, when we speak of "Hume's logical objection," we speak of the objection that is implied in what Philo says, putting aside any of Philo's comments that appear to weaken or contradict this objection.

Cartesian External World Skepticism

By far the most influential and discussed type of modern skepticism has been Cartesian or “external world” skepticism.⁴ It is deeper than Humean skepticism about God for it questions whether we can know anything “outside of our minds,” a class that is said to include physical objects, people, and religious realities.⁵ It should constitute a severe problem for religious apologists, since if our knowledge of the world is called into doubt, then so is any argument that infers the existence of God based on knowledge of the world.

In his *Meditations on First Philosophy*, Descartes famously seeks to discover a firm and certain foundation for his beliefs. He argues that the most effective way to provide this foundation is to doubt the very foundations on which his beliefs are based, a procedure whose “greatest benefit lies in freeing us from all our preconceived opinions, and providing the easiest route by which the mind may be led away from the senses. The eventual result of this doubt is to make it impossible for us to have any further doubts about what we subsequently discover to be true” (1986, p. 12).⁶ Descartes decides to doubt the information provided by his sensory experience, since “whatever I have up till now accepted as most true I have acquired either from the senses or through the senses” (1986, p. 18).

In a famous passage, written while sitting in his study before the fire, Descartes concludes that he cannot know that he is not dreaming since “there are never any sure signs by means of which being awake can be distinguished from being asleep” (1986, p. 19). This lack of a test must then throw all of his knowledge into question, for how can he claim to know something if he cannot rule out the possibility that he dreams it? He considers the possibility of whether mathematical truths remain true even in dreams, and whether the content of dreams is necessarily dependent on information received in waking consciousness.⁷

⁴ It would be a mistake, however, to think that skepticism began with Descartes. Richard Popkin traces the development of skepticism in its Pyrrhonian form through its resurgence in the Renaissance, showing the ways in which various Christian and Humanist groups made use of skeptical arguments to discredit their opponents (1979). When Descartes raised his famous skeptical doubt in the Seventeenth Century, he did so against the backdrop of this long-standing debate. Terence Penelhum draws upon Popkin in examining the various ways that skepticism has been brought to bear on the rationality of religious belief (1983).

⁵ G. E. Moore does us a philosophical service by showing that philosophers are often unclear on what exactly is to stand inside and what outside our minds, using the expressions “as if they needed no explanation” (1959, p. 128). He attempts to make the division clearer by arguing for a distinction between things “presented in space” and things “that are to be met with in space,” where the former class includes things such as “after-images, double images, bodily pains” that should not be considered “external things” (1959, pp. 134–5).

⁶ All page numbers in Descartes quotes refer to those in Volume VII of the standard Latin edition of the *Ouvres de Descartes* (1641). These page numbers appear in the margins of the Cottingham translation from which all Descartes quotes are taken (1986).

To take his methodological doubt to its furthest extreme, Descartes imagines that “some malicious demon of the utmost power and cunning has employed all his energies in order to deceive me” (1986, p. 22). Since all of our knowledge relies in some way on our sense-experience, Descartes concludes we can never be sure that the demon is not deceiving us on any particular matter: no matter what test or check we use to determine whether we are being deceived, skepticism can always rejoin that the test is itself a deception.

It is a mistake to downplay the seriousness of Descartes’ radical skeptical challenge. The challenge is not that we cannot be certain of how the world is, in the sense that we can be 99% certain but not 100% certain, but that we are logically prevented from determining how the world is.⁸ We are logically prevented from knowing whether the world is anything like our perception of it or even whether it exists.

The radical thesis of the skeptical challenge is that our ordinary factual statements are senseless. Why? We have no way of checking whether any particular claim about reality is true or false (and as will become apparent later, the notion that our ordinary statements can be philosophically construed as “claims” is a crucial assumption).⁹ We cannot even say that the world *probably* is as we think it is, since whatever evidence we appeal to is open to the same skeptical doubt. For example, it makes sense to say that it will probably rain only if it makes sense to determine that it has in fact rained on a number of occasions in the past – a question that, according to skepticism, we have no way of settling. If the external world skeptic is right, then we have no reason to believe that we correctly identify our own names. We have no reason to believe that we understand the nature of our bodies or even whether we have bodies. And we certainly cannot know any religious truths, if these truths must be inferred from knowledge about the world.

⁷ In the Sixth Meditation he considers another objection to the dream argument, “for I now notice that there is a vast difference between the two, in that dreams are never linked by memory with all the other actions of life as waking experiences are” (1986, p. 89). For a criticism of the notion that dreams and waking experiences can be said to have the same content – which Descartes assumes – see Malcolm’ (“Dreaming and Skepticism” in Sesonke & Fleming, 1965, pp. 5–25) and Wittgenstein (1967, para 396–400). For a criticism that dreams have a distinctive “dream-like” quality to them see Austin (1969).

⁸ The first challenge is more characteristic of Academic skepticism. Popkin writes: “Since the evidence for any [knowledge-claim about the world] would be based, according to the skeptics, on either sense information or reasoning, and both of these sources are unreliable to some degree, and no guaranteed or ultimate criterion of true knowledge exists, or is known, there is always some doubt that any non-empirical or trans-empirical proposition is absolutely true, and hence constitutes real knowledge. As a result, the Academic skeptics said that nothing is certain. The best information we can gain is only probable, and is to be judged according to probabilities” (1979, p. xiv). Richard Swinburne, as we shall see, argues in the same vein. The difficulty is that for the radical Cartesian skeptic, the epistemological problem is not that our sources for information about the world are “unreliable to some degree,” but that we have no way of determining whether they are unreliable or not.

If a philosopher accepts a view of God as a causal explanation and a Cartesian view of the mind as a private theater of ideas, then he or she must show how or why both Philo and the Cartesian skeptical arguments are mistaken or confused. If not, then he or she appears to be driven into skepticism regarding claims about God and the physical world. Unfortunately, the problems do not end there.

Logical Skepticism

The deepest form of skepticism questions not the sense of this or that type of claim, but the possibility of offering any claim whatsoever – including, of course, a religious claim. We can call this form of skepticism “logical skepticism,” in that it questions the possibility of language having sense.¹⁰ For skepticism about language to get off the ground, there must be a philosophical view of language that allows it. Take this following classic account of language from John Locke, some version of which stills haunts analytical philosophy to this day:

“God having designed Man for a sociable Creature, made him not only with an inclination, and under a necessity to have fellowship with those of his own kind; but furnished him also with Language, which was to be the great Instrument, and common Tye of Society. Man therefore had by Nature his Organs so fashioned, as to be fit to frame particular Sounds, which we call Words

Besides particular Sounds therefore, it was farther necessary, that he should be able to use these Sounds, as Sign of internal Conceptions; and to make them stand as marks for the ideas within his own Mind, whereby they might be made known to others, and the Thoughts of Men’s Minds be conveyed from one to another” (1971, p. 402).

On Locke’s picture, human beings have access only to their own minds and must infer whether people, things, and events exist outside of their minds. Language

⁹ One controversial area in Descartes scholarship concerns the notion of the so-called “Cartesian circle.” The challenge of the circle is that Descartes needs to prove that God exists and is no deceiver in order to guarantee the truth of the rule which states that all clear and distinct perceptions are true, but uses this very rule in order to prove that God exists. Cottingham argues that Descartes may be able to escape the circle by arguing that “there are some propositions of which I can enjoy self-evident knowledge, so long as I continue to attend to them, without any need for a divine guarantee” (1986, p. 67). The point of proving God’s existence is to guarantee the truth of those perceptions that we are not presently attending to. But as Collingwood points out, this claim appears to contradict Descartes’ statement in Meditation One that “there is nothing among the things I once believed to be true which it is not permissible to doubt,” a remark which implies that no propositions that he attends to are incapable of being mistaken, even those that seem most obviously true. Whether or not Descartes’ final view was that he could or could not be wrong about even those self-evident truths that he was attending to, we can formulate a skeptical objection that would make that much deeper, more radical claim. Descartes may not have intended to “open the door” of radical skepticism, but now that philosophers see that it can be opened in this way, it cannot be closed.

occurs when we place labels on ideas that we form in our minds, articulate these labels, and (if we are successful) create the same ideas in other minds. The skeptical problem is that we have no test for whether the idea in the mind of any perceiver is the same as the idea in the minds of others.

According to Locke's account, I can think of a blue cup, talk about a blue cup to someone else, and by so doing generate a picture of a blue cup in this person's mind. The wily skeptic asks: "How can I know whether the idea in my mind when I say 'blue' is the same as the idea in yours? Maybe I call 'blue' what you call 'yellow'." I may then think that I can point to a blue cup and say "This is the idea that I have in my mind." But the skeptical doubt arises that his interpretation of the pointing is the same as mine. Perhaps he pointed at the color while I pointed at the shape. Even worse, how can he even be sure that when we point we are indicating the name of something? Maybe we are just stretching.

Locke's picture of communication does not allow us to be certain of the meaning of any word since it excludes the possibility of an independent check for sense. The skeptical doubt emerges in this way: "Even if I name my ideas and communicate only with myself, I can still never be sure that my memory of the name of any idea is correct: how do I know, for example, that my memory that this color is called 'blue' is not mistaken?" Consequently, the possibility of sense in language – any language, including religious language – is called into question. If philosophers of religion hold a picture of language along the lines of Locke's, then they are open to the objections of logical skepticism.

¹⁰ This form of skepticism has received little attention by philosophers of religion, although Kripke's account of Wittgenstein's rule-skepticism has raised considerable discussion in the wider philosophical community (Kripke, 1982). Although the attention given to logical skepticism is welcome, there are strong reasons to think that Kripke's account of it does more harm than good. Peter Winch has argued convincingly that Kripke is confused when he represents Wittgenstein as posing a "skeptical problem" about language in the *Philosophical Investigations* and then posing a "skeptical solution" (1987, p. 54). This misrepresentation of Wittgenstein as a skeptic does not imply, however, that Wittgenstein was unconcerned with skepticism about language or thought it was trivial or stupid. On the contrary, Wittgenstein identifies "the great question" in philosophy as that of the essence of language – i.e., what makes language so much as possible (1958, para 65). This great question is the central philosophical question since to understand philosophy is to understand language. Rush Rhees expresses this conception thus: "We cannot understand the central ideas of philosophy – such ideas as reality, truth, things, intelligibility, understanding – we cannot understand the role they play in language unless we try to understand what language is. We cannot understand how it is that puzzlement about them and puzzlement about language (about what 'saying something' is, for instance) are so run into one another that we can hardly distinguish them. So that skepticism regarding them is skepticism regarding the reality of discourse" (1969, p. 135). For Wittgenstein and Rhees, logical skepticism or "skepticism regarding the reality of discourse" is the deepest issue of philosophy.

Anonymous Skepticism

Depending on the nature of his or her theory, a philosopher of religion may be forced to defend against religious, Cartesian, and logical skepticism all at the same time – an unenviable position, to put it mildly. So, how has philosophy of religion addressed this formidable challenge? Our question will lead us to a consideration of three prominent contemporary philosophers of religion: Richard Swinburne, John Hick, and William Alston.¹¹ As we will discover, these philosophers are indeed open to the criticisms of the three types of skepticism we have discussed. At the same time, none of these philosophers thinks that skeptical objections pose a devastating or unanswerable threat to their epistemologies. For example, each of the three philosophers is an avowed believer in God and is fully aware of the challenge of religious skepticism, yet none believes that skepticism need cause a rational Christian to abandon his or her beliefs.¹² At the same time, each adheres to a philosophical theory that remains open to the devastating critique of Philo – who argues at his deepest, as we have seen, that talk of God is meaningless.

We will see that Swinburne, Hick, and Alston are rightly to be considered as “anonymous skeptics.” Readers familiar with the work of the theologian Karl Rahner will recognize an echo of his famous doctrine that non-Christian religious believers are really “anonymous Christians,” i.e., Christian believers who do not recognize themselves as such. In a similar way, the philosophers of religion under consideration are skeptics who most certainly would not identify themselves as such. They are anonymous skeptics in the sense that their epistemologies create the very conditions that allow for the severe and, *on their own terms*, unanswerable challenges of skepticism. In other words, their epistemological theories unwittingly *imply* skeptical theses, because these theories invite the very skepticism that they are logically incapable of answering.

¹¹ We shall confine our attention to them because of limitations of space, but they are by no means the only anonymous skeptics on the contemporary scene. In fact, the logical points that we shall raise in relation to their philosophical theories are applicable in some form or another to the overwhelming majority of analytic philosophers of religion (see Chapter 7).

¹² They differ in their attitude toward non-Christian religions. Swinburne argues for the probability of theism, although he acknowledges that “rival creeds” can be argued for as well. It is clear that he views non-theistic religions as competing with theistic religion in their truth-claims and thinks that it is incumbent upon them to provide proofs for their beliefs that can be shown to be better than theistic proofs. Hick does not view the various religions as competitors at all: each is an equally justified interpretation of one transcendent reality. Alston argues that “though this is not epistemically the best of all possible worlds, it is rational in this situation for one to continue to participate in the (undefeated) practice in which s/he is involved, hoping that the inter-practice contradictions will be sorted out in due time” (1991, p. 7).

At first glance, these claims may sound outrageous. Do we mean to imply that Richard Swinburne, the foremost philosophical theist in contemporary epistemology, is a skeptic in disguise? How can that be? His massive trilogy – *The Coherence of Theism*, *The Existence of God*, and *Faith and Reason* – is the most ambitious and tightly argued defense of philosophical theism in contemporary literature. Yet despite his avowed aim of providing rational support for belief in God, Swinburne in fact provides a good example of how the skeptical implications of a philosopher’s own position can go completely unrecognized.

Swinburne’s Skepticism

Swinburne’s epistemology unwittingly commits him to at least *three different kinds* of skeptical conclusions. First, his account of language as a formal system implies a type of logical skepticism in which we cannot argue that any given unit of language is coherent without involving ourselves in a vicious infinite regress. By making the sense of any statement dependent on the sense of some other statement, he rules out any possible test for the sense of propositions. If the sense of proposition *A* depends on a test that is constituted in proposition *B*, we may go on to ask about the sense of proposition *B*, only to be in the same situation as before. In effect, there can be no test for the sense of a proposition whose sense is not itself subject to further doubt. This skeptical challenge in itself is enough to shut down his theist aims – a fact that he does not acknowledge. Surely, if we are logically prevented from testing whether any given statement is intelligible, then it follows that we cannot determine the intelligibility of religious claims.

Second, Swinburne’s characterization of belief as a “mental attitude” toward evidence-based propositions renders unintelligible our language of the external world. If every belief is ultimately constituted by evidential propositions, and we can only back up one proposition by appeal to the evidence of another proposition, then how can we ever compare our propositions with the reality that they supposedly reflect? But if we have no independent test to determine whether our evidence is true, then what sense is there in talking about evidence at all? And if there can be no justification for beliefs, then why believe anything?

Finally, because Swinburne insists on speaking of the universe as a physical object, he creates logical space for the skeptical doubt over the coherence of the assumption that we can have empirical evidence for God. Why? If it does not make sense to talk of experience beyond the realm of the universe, then how can he speak of God as an extra-mundane causal hypothesis that is supported or confirmed by our experiences within the world? Swinburne argues for God’s existence in a way that allows a skeptic like Philo to show that Swinburne’s own assumptions imply that we cannot meaningfully talk about God. Swinburne is, to use D. Z. Phillips’s wonderful phrase, a “friend of Cleanthes” (1995, p. 4).

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