

PROFESSING THE CREED AMONG
THE WORLD'S RELIGIONS

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The Creed, the Created Order, and the Religions

THE CHRISTIAN CREED is a *particular* profession of faith, yet it is not the creed of a sect; it is essentially *universalist*. Both are dear not only from the Creed's content but also from the act by which it is professed.

By means of the Creed, one particular, identifiable ("visible") community---the Christian Church---professes, both to its own membership and to every particular person or community that wants to listen, its faith in God in the name of Jesus Christ. The particular profession is offered with a universalist intent, in the context of a communal missionary commitment to the whole world and, beyond that, in the perspective of the supernatural, all-encompassing, eschatological "life of the world to come." It is not surprising, that even those primitive trinitarian creeds that lack every trace of christological narrative (and thus also every reference to Christ's coming to do justice to the living and the dead) still include a profession of at least a few eschatological features of belief at the end. The most notable among these features are: the universal church (which represents and anticipates the final gathering of the saints), the (definitive) forgiveness of sins, the resurrection of the flesh, and the life that lasts forever.¹

But the Creed harbors another universalism as well. It is

¹ Cf. DS 1-6.

natural, fundamental, pre-metaphysical. In the text of the Creed, this universalism surfaces in the profession of God, as Creator of all, that is, whether seen or unseen, and of Jesus Christ as God's agent in creation. In addressing itself to humanity at the Creed relies on this. It appeals to humanity's native *eras-its* native attunement to God and to the whole world, its limitless capacity for authentic understanding, and its unquenchable thirst for communion.

In the rhetoric of the Christian profession of faith, the *fold* universalism enjoys pride of place. The Creed's *primary* profession is *positive*: thematically, the Creed is designed to formulate the Christian faith in its *complete, historic particularity*, in its commitment to the Christian mission to the whole world, and in its anticipation of the eschaton. But if it is true that the Creed primarily addresses itself to all of humanity with the eschatological message that is the horizon of the Christian faith, this positive profession is undergirded by a commitment to humanity all the world in their integrity, by means of a "subsidiary universalism." If, in the actuality of its historic the Church addresses itself to all of humanity and the world with its particular message of salvation, it is only by virtue of a fundamental, natural universalism that it can so address them. And it is on the strength of this latter universalism that the Christian community itself, too, acknowledges an *wholistic natural* order which it shares with all of humanity.

"All of humanity" is not an abstraction; it comes in the form of the great variety of "nations" (Mt 19), along with their great religions. The theological task of interpreting the Creed in light of its commitment to fundamental universalism, therefore, must somehow raise the issue of Christianity's relationship with the world's great religions.

In taking on this issue, we must remind ourselves of an important *one heavy with consequence*, as will become clear in the course of this essay. This reality was not unknown to the first Christian apologists: the Constantinian

and Theodosian settlements of the fourth century slowly but surely, and ever more forcefully, eased its abeyance. But it began to with a vengeance in the early eighteenth century, when the Enlightenment, increasingly fascinated by the variety of religions and cultures in the world, began to interpret them all in a perspective as shapes and manifestations of one and the same natural human religiosity. This amounted to a demand, issued to the Christian West, to take its place among the world religions as one of them and to reshape its self-consciousness in light of that demand. More than two centuries later, this reality is still very much with us, only in much sharper relief. In the global village of the twentieth century, it has not only become impossible to overlook the world's great religious traditions; they are also a presence whose *complexity* is only just beginning to dawn on us.

In view of all this, it is wise to remind ourselves right at the outset of a fundamental fact about the world religions and to do so, at least initially, simply for the sake of realism and fairness, that is, without immediately entering into much busy theoretical argument or jumping to conclusions of historic importance. The fact is this: the great world religions do not content themselves with purely local or regional relevance; they offer an encompassing interpretation of human life in the world and of the world itself. This, of course, what makes them so transplantable to other areas in the world nowadays. In other words, Christianity (along with Judaism, to which it owes the faith in the One True God that remains its root commitment)² is not alone in relating a *particular* profession of

² Gerd Theissen has made a point of stressing the relevance of the specifically Jewish tradition of monotheism to modern Christianity: "It is to Judaism that we owe the faith in the One and Only God. For a long time this faith was self-evident. Today it is a minority opinion. Since it is, historically and objectively, the most important presupposition of Jesus' preaching, it must be made accessible anew today" (*Der Schatten des Galiläers*, 5th impr. [München: Chr. Kaiser, 1988], p. 55; English: *The Shadow of the Galilean: The Quest of the Historical Jesus in Narrative Form* [Philadelphia:

faith to a universal world-order *universally accessible to humanity*. Nor is Christianity alone in professing that there prevails, by transcendent design, a deep *co-ordination* between, on the one hand, that inclusive world order and, on the other hand, the profession of faith shared among its members. Consequently, the Christian mission to the World must acknowledge some basic *structural parallels* between itself and other great religions. They are the following. The (Judeo-) Christian tradition is not alone (1) in distinguishing between *the particular order created by the "revelation"* (or its functional equivalent) that is the content of its own special profession of faith and *a universal order of "nature,"*⁸ (2) in having conceptions about *the integrity of the natural order and its relativity,* (3) in recognizing, on the basis of this order, a *natural comparability between itself and other great religions,* and hence, (4) in thinking that there is *a natural basis for encounter and debate among the great religions.*

These analogies, but especially the last two, may be disorienting, but at least they serve to emphasize the Christian conviction that the Creed is not the creed of a sect. They also suggest a basic conclusion: *the Creed itself implicitly invites and mandates a Christian dialogue with humanity's great religions. Why?*

Fundamental Christological Warrants for Encounter

If an acknowledgment of the universal order of nature undergirds the Christian profession of the order of grace, then

Fortress Press, 1987], p. 36). While commending the encounter with all of the world's great religions, Vatican II's Declaration on the Relationship of the Church to Non-Christian Religions *Nostra Aetate* (n. 4) gives Judaism pride of place. In the present context, however, it must suffice to note the theological primacy of the Jewish-Christian dialogue. The Jewish theologian David Novak has also affirmed this important issue, in his *Jewish-Christian Dialogue: A Jewish Justification* (New York and Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1989), esp. pp. 26-41.

⁸ Cf. Ninian Smart, *The Philosophy of Religion*, new ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1979), pp. 99-137.

this acknowledgment must naturally emend to the ways in which that natural order has been acknowledged and interpreted, notably in the great religions. Consequently, *attentive encounter with world religions, precisely inasmuch as they make their particular claims in a universalist perspective, must undergird the Christian mission.* Since it is important to understand this thesis thoroughly, let us clarify it in some detail.

What has been asserted is that it is *the Creed* that mandates an attentive encounter. Our thesis, in other words, is presented as a *theological* proposition predicated on positively *Christian* warrants. It is not proposed in deference to any allegedly superior general principle to which all the world's religious traditions would supposedly owe obedience on grounds that naturally command universal acceptance. In accord with this, the Catholic Church at Vatican II acknowledged positively *Christian* grounds for professing itself as respectfully and even vitally related to the great religions.

The background of this profession is the whole complex of christological doctrines, no matter how often they have been misrepresented. The two interrelated christological affirmations that anchor our thesis are: first, that God is not set against Creation, and secondly, that, in being united with the divine *Logos*, human nature (and the whole natural order along with it) is not diminished but enhanced and dignified.⁵ In other words, Jesus Christ is professed as the Son of God and the Savior of all of humanity and of the whole world because he embodies and includes and welcomes all ways and all souls, and chastens them, and perfects them by putting them in an ultimate perspective.⁶ He is *not* so professed because he (or faith in him) *displaces* other ways to God,

⁴ Vatican II, *Nostra Aetate*, n. 3; cf. *Gaudium et Spes*, n. 92.

⁵ Cf. Constantinople III (681 A.D.): Christ's human will is not taken away, but rather enhanced by being deified: DS 556.

⁶ On this "rhetoric" of "inclusion," "obedience," and "hope," cf. F. J. van Beeck, *Christ Proclaimed*. (New York, Ramsey, NJ, and Toronto: Paulist Press, 1979), esp. pp. 145-262. Cf. also "Ten Questions on Soteriology and Christology," *Chicago Studies* 25 (1986) : 269-278, esp. pp. 277-78.

along with the great souls that have found, lived, and taught them. Very importantly, Christ incorporates the natural order by virtue of *sovereignty*, not by dint of *superiority*.⁷ It is mis-
therefore, to characterize the classical Christian profes-
sion of Christ's *sole* Saviourship as "exclusivist."

Consequently, I am convinced that Paul F. Knitter's proposal⁸ to make some kind of distinction in the Christian faith between a universalist *theological* focus and a particularist *chmological* profession of faith is premature; it creates more
than it solves. From the point of view of the Creed, it comes close to compromising the inextricable and mutual
bond between Jesus Christ and the Living God, both in the order of grace and in the created order. If that bond is loosened, Jesus Christ ends up being entirely defined by the particularity of his humanity, and any claims made on his behalf involving a special
universalism become an offensive exercise in Western superiority and prejudice. In Knitter's proposal, therefore, both Christ's uniqueness and his inclusiveness are jeopardized.

However, if the present treatment makes no concessions in the area of Christ's uniqueness in regard both to God and to humanity and the world, it does wish to state that, to the extent that Christianity has presented itself as exclusivist, it has misunderstood both Jesus Christ and its own normative profession of faith and, hence, the significance of the great religions as well. Now as a matter of historical fact, the proposition that the Creed mandates an tentative encounter with world religions has been heeded at least as much in the breach as in the compliance, and affirming it as integral to Christianity calls for a firm *mea culpa*, on the part of both the Christian Church and the Christian theologian. But the problem has roots in a misguided christology. In interpreting
victory over sin and death in triumphalist terms, and in uncritically aligning it-

⁷ Cf. F. J. van Beeck, "Professing the Uniqueness of Christ," *Chicago Studies* 24(1985): 17-35.

⁸ *No Other Name? A Critical Survey of Christian Attitudes Toward the World Religions* (Maryknoll, NY: Orbis Books, 1985).

self with political power, the Church has often professed the Creed: (and, hence, Christ's universal Lordship) in *exclusivist, intolerant* terms, totally unwarranted by either the example of the historical Jesus or the true sense of the conciliar definitions. This error came to be compounded by dubious developments in the structural shape of Western Christianity. Undue deference on the part of the simple faithful to ecclesiastical-political establishments became the norm; an increasing preoccupation with salvation from sin as the central theme of the Christian faith contributed to the development of an ever more starkly adversary relationship between Christendom and non-Christian cultures.⁹ In time, these developments provided spurious theological warrants for the "conversion" of the non-Christian world; missionary campaigns could be as intolerant and aggressive as the inquisitorial "administration" of the Christian faith at home.

One very serious blot on the history of the Catholic Church in the Western hemisphere deserves specific mention, if only because it shaped the Church in Latin America to such a large extent. The slave traders, who made only the feeblest of attempts at offering a religious justification for their crimes against humanity, the leadership of the Spanish *Conquistadors* explicitly interpreted Christ's victory over the demons as a rationale for brutal treatment of the native Americans and the destruction of their culture; the protests of authentic Christian prophets like Bartolome de las Casas (1474-1566)¹⁰ were disregarded. The problem could not come to the fore so violently because *it* was really as widespread as Christendom itself. The ecclesiastical triumphalism estab-

⁹ Cf. F. J. van Beeck, *Loving the Torah More than God? Towards a Catholic Appreciation of Judaism* (Chicago: Loyola University Press, 1989), pp. 69-77.

¹⁰ See especially his *A Brief Account of the Destruction of the Indies. Breuissima relacion de la destruycion de las Indias*, in Coleccion de documentos ineditos para la historia de Espana, 71 (Madrid: Imprenta de Miguel Ginesta, 1879), pp. 1-199. English: *Tears of the Indians and The Life of Las Casas*, by Sir Arthur Helps (Williamstown, Mass.: J. Lilburne, [1970]).

lished in Europe the rise of Christian and post-Christian Deism. And while it is unfair to exaggerate the links between colonialist imperialism and the Christian missionary endeavor in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, it is unwise to deny them altogether. The efforts of contemporary scholars like Wilfred Cantwell Smith, John Hick, and even Paul Knitter to reinterpret the Christian faith and its relationship to other religions in "inclusivist" or "pluralist" terms may well have to be judged theologically unsatisfactory in the end; what cannot be denied is that the scandals of the Christian past cry out for the *kind* of remedial theological reflection they offer. With this cautionary tale in mind, then, let us return to the main theme.

Interreligious Dialogue and the Positive Elements

It must be carefully noted that the affirmation that the Creed mandates a respectful dialogue has a limited scope. The thesis states that the acknowledgment of the natural order—acknowledgment that Christianity shares with the great religions—furnishes the interreligious dialogue with its *foundation*; it does not state that it furnishes it with its *all* of its *content*. In fact, when it comes to the *content* of the interreligious dialogue, this essay is committed to a much broader (that is, much more catholic) proposition, namely, that the religions' *particular, positive elements* should be the principal content of the interreligious dialogue. This must be further

First of all, positive elements, as (of all people) Schleiermacher reminds us, are integral to all religions.¹² That

¹¹ For much of the remainder of this essay I am deeply indebted to conversation with and suggestions from Charles Hallisey and Francis X. Clooney, S.J., capable scholars in this history of religions, loyal friends, and reliable and constructive critics.

¹² *Ober die Religion: Reden an die Gebildeten unter ihren Vernehmungen*, 6th ed., ed. by Rudolph Otto (Göttingen: Vandenhoeck & Ruprecht, 1967), pp. 186-187. English: *On Religion: Speeches to its Cultured Despisers*, trans. by John Oman (New York, Harper & Row, 1958), pp. 234-235.

means, any real *dialogue* between or among actual religions must take into account their positive elements. It is a rationalist mistake to think that religiosity can exist in its "natural" form, separately; in fact, only an understanding and interpretation of a religion's positive elements is capable of laying bare, in an indirect fashion, its true nature as a *religion*.¹³ Secondly, it is good Christian theology to interpret the positive elements in Christianity (and, arguably, in other religions as well)¹⁴ as the concrete shape of the human response to God's self-revealing graciousness, that is, as the concrete shape of grace and, consequently, as superior to natural religion.¹⁵ It would, therefore, be a theological mistake of the first magnitude to exclude the great religions' positive elements from the agenda of the dialogue, no matter how intractable they may seem. For, thirdly, even from a humanistic, purely anthropological point of view, it is a mistake to want to subdue the concrete particulars of a different religion by fitting them into some large, overarching framework that claims to explain everything. A far more honest test of the seriousness of any encounter is a genuine, unprejudiced interest in the concrete particulars of other people's convictions and practices, no matter how particular and partial they may be. For it is a sign not of respect but of prejudice and a false sense of superiority to belittle and disregard the specific meanings, practices, and intentionalities of others and, hence, of any positive religion not one's own. This warning applies no less whenever it is proposed, however politely, that we can account for these specifics by regarding them as conventional differentiations of one allegedly universal (i.e., natural) religion.

¹³ Cf. F. J. van Beeck, *God Encountered: A Systematic Theology*, vol. I, *Understanding the Christian Faith* (San Francisco: Harper & Row, 1989), §26, 3; §25, 3; cf. §24, 2, a.

¹⁴ Cf., Heinz Robert Schlette, *Die Religionen als 'Phänomene der Theologie: Überlegungen zu einer «Theologie der Religionen»* *Quaestiones Disputatae*, 22 (Freiburg, Basel, and Wien: Herder, 1963), pp. 43-65. English: *Towards a Theology of Religions*, *Quaestiones Disputatae*, 14 (Freiburg: Herder; London: Burns & Oates, 1966), pp. 41-6L

¹⁵ Cf. *God Encountered*, §26, 2; §31.

Let us sum up. Our thesis *affirms* that the great religions have an awareness of a universal order of nature in common and that this awareness provides the interreligious dialogue with a common point of departure. Our thesis *disputes* the proposition that the dialogue requires that each religion be exhaustively interpreted within the framework of one, allegedly all-inclusive, naturally coexistent order. This requires some careful undergirding, by means of a reflection of a rather more philosophical nature amounting to a full-blown *excursus*. Cumbersome though this procedure may be, it will at the very least serve to bring home the delicacy of the task in hand.

Participative Knowledge

Let us begin by going back to the basic question. The Christian acknowledgment of the all-encompassing order of nature, it was stated, must extend to the ways in which *other religions* have acknowledged that universal natural order. Why exactly is this so?

The answer to this question is as profound as it is obvious. No human group or individual can claim to have an *objective, comprehensive* grasp of the all-encompassing order of nature, for the simple reason that they are all part of it. Human persons can no more grasp or comprehend or be objective about humanity and the world in their totality than fish can about the water that sustains them or, for that matter, individual persons can about the very persons they are. Just as we are unable to adopt a point of view *outside* ourselves in order to grasp ourselves in our totality as whole persons (which is why all self-knowledge remains ever so precarious and provisional), so we are unable to adopt a point of view *outside* our personal relationships with others and, even more, *outside* humanity and the world in such a way as to get them in clear focus in their totality.

To realize this may be at first disconcerting. The idea of the world and humanity as constituting a given, all-inclusive order of reality "out there" comes so naturally to the think-

ing mind, and it is such an indispensable ingredient in all the great cultural and religious traditions in the world as we know it, that we naturally assume that "we know what we are talking about" when we say "humanity and the world" or, for that matter, when we say "I" or "me" or "you" or even "us." Yet critical reflection, as Immanuel Kant has so conclusively shown in his *Critique of Pure Reason*, compels us to accept the fact that our cognitive grasp of certain realities is subject to serious limits. These realities include our own selves and other persons, humanity and the world in their totality (and then there is the transcendent reality of God). Whatever it may be that corresponds "out there in the real world" to the *ideas* we have of ourselves and of other persons, of humanity, and the world, we simply do not know them as (judging from the definite way we talk about them) we appear to know them, that is, we do not know them simply as *objects of knowledge*.¹⁶

Does this mean that our knowledge of ourselves, other persons, and humanity and the world is a complete illusion? That it amounts to nothing? Of course not.

First of all, it makes little sense to say that we have an *idea* but no *real knowledge of realities about* which we can, in fact, know so much objectively. After all, in our quest for understanding, we approach humanity and the world in a great variety of distinctive (if partial) ways, all of which are in some way rational. By means of these approaches, we do succeed in grasping a thousand particular, objective things, *about* ourselves, *about* others, *about* humanity and the world. All the while, of course, we realize that not even the largest accumulation of such particular items of knowledge *about* ourselves, others, and humanity and the world will ever add up to *ex-*

¹⁶ *Kritik der reinen Vernunft*, in *Werke* *sechs Bände*, Ed. by Wilhelm Weischedel, ([Wiesbaden]: Insel-Verlag, 1956-64), vol. 2, pp. 327-39. English: *Immanuel Kant's Critique of Pure Reason*, trans. by Norman Kemp Smith (London, Melbourne, and Toronto: St. Martin's Press, 1968), pp. 315-26.

haustive comprehension. Yet we will insist, despite this essential provisionality and incompleteness of our knowledge *about* ourselves, others, and humanity and the world, that we somehow really *know them*. Is this insistence merely naive, or does it stand up to critical examination? This question leads to a second, more important point.

In understanding ourselves, others, and humanity and the world, we rely not only on detailed, objective, rational (and sometimes even purely rational) knowledge but also on knowledge of a different sort. A realist like Thomas Aquinas, for all his esteem of knowledge of the precise and rational kind, is fully aware of this second type of knowledge. The most succinct formulation of his understanding of this issue occurs in the context of an *in*-discussion in the *Summa theologica*; but the concept itself occurs throughout his mature work, where it has a variety of applications. He explains:

Right judgment can come about in two ways. The first way follows the path of the accomplished use of reason [*perfectum usum rationis*]. The second way is based on a certain natural affinity [*connaturalitatem*] with the things about which, as it happens, we have to form judgments.¹⁷

In other words, knowledge—especially the knowledge that is a reliable guide to the lived life and in that sense "practical"—is not limited to the rational kind. When the occasion arises, knowledge is also available on the basis of *familiarity* or *participation*. Saints know about God from their experience of love (*caritas*) in prayer and practice; people to their marriage vows know about chastity from the experience of the pains and joys of loyalty; and cobblers know about leather from the experience of working with it every day. All of this is so true that saying that *they* are the ones that *really* know is not just an unpleasant attempt at idealization or moralizing or an instance of the romantic idealization of *om-fash-*

¹⁷ S. Th. II-II, q. 45, a. 2, *in* c.: "Rectitudo autem iudicii potest contingere dupliciter, uno modo, secundum perfectum usum rationis; alio modo, propter connaturalitatem quamdam ad ea de quibus iam est iudicandum."

ioned craftsmanship. *They obviously know.* Only priests and rationalists will maintain that saints and chaste folks and cobblers "don't really know" just because they have not studied either faith or ethics, or the physiology of the animal skin and the chemistry of the tanning process, or just because *they do not succeed in explaining in articulate, objective terms what they do know.*

It is true, of course, that many people who know by familiarity are conservative; they often resist the findings of rational investigation. But on the other hand, even without being priests or rationalists, intellectuals (and other smart people out to win an argument) tend to be so impressed by detailed, objective knowledge ("the facts" or "the state of the art") that they end up, in practice, considering it the only "real" knowledge. Even more importantly, they tend to be unaware of the extent to which detailed, objective, articulate, rational ("objectifying") knowledge of every kind is and remains *dependent on participative knowledge*, the sound understanding implicit in the relationship of familiarity with the (for lack of a better word) "object" of knowledge.

This last proposition, which will be crucial to our argument, can be further explored and clarified.

Perspective, Convergence, Interpretation

The pursuit of particular pieces of detailed, objective, rational knowledge is never entirely self-justifying, not even in strictly academic endeavors. Establishing, say, whether there is ammonia on the planet Jupiter assumes, at the very least, that the researcher *cares*. There is no pursuit of academic knowledge without some type of *interest*. That interest and the grounds [or it may very well not be entirely amenable to articulation, yet they are not, for that reason alone, altogether irrational. Educated interest of some sort motivates every particular scholarly inquiry, and gives it a provisional sense of direction; if everything goes well, that sense of direction improves as the inquiry moves afield and as the data confirm or

modify it. Thus there results a dynamic process. On the one hand, as the detailed data accumulate, they contribute to the researchers' broad, participative familiarity with the problem and make it more assured; on the other hand, the pursuit of detailed, objectifying knowledge is guided more and more by the perspective furnished by this broad, initially unthematic, but increasingly informed, participative knowledge. Only to the extent that researchers develop sounder participative judgment will their particular theoretical pursuits make more sense; without such judgment, the objectifying research will "fall apart" and disintegrate, or simply become insignificant. We conclude that objectifying knowledge needs the *perspective* offered by participative knowledge if it is to make sense, and that participative knowledge gains in assurance as it is informed and articulated by objectifying knowledge.

Participative knowledge also accounts for something else; the sense that what I know is (of) itself. Research will reward and confirm the researcher's initial interest according as the particular data begin to arrange themselves into *patterns*; here if anywhere the whole, again and again proves to be more than the sum of its parts. A good analogue of this is found in the everyday experience of *conversation*. In ordinary, everyday communication situations, the experience of the dynamics of live speech (the "rhetoric") makes intelligent listeners of us. We understand the drift of the conversation better as we become better participants in it, and we are better participants if we do not bore each other, to tears, by insisting on complete explicitness about every last detail. Understanding a conversation is indeed dependent on knowledge of the objective meaning of words and the precise subject-matter of the conversation, but our ability to "read" what people are saying to each other in the situation is far more important. For the understanding achieved in live speech is not dependent on the participants' awareness of *each and every one* of the discrete linguistic *elements* that make up the speech-situation, even though the precise meaning of all those (phonetic, gram-

matical, syntactic, lexical, idiomatic, etc.) elements *can* be analytically established. Understanding depends on the lived experience of *relevance*. Relevance is dependent, among other things, on the experience of *convergence* of all (or at least most) of the elements in a speech-situation; and that experience is primarily a matter not of attention to details but of participation in the process as a whole. If the speech-situation comes off, all (or at least most) of the objectifiable elements of speech conspire to function as "pointers," and from the way they point we will spontaneously infer what the story is. The opposite happens when the speech-situation fails to come off. To the extent that we *don't* get the story, discrete elements in the conversation will become prominent in a haphazard way, only to distract and confuse and, of course, further explanation or accumulation of detail (especially of the "helpful" kind) may only serve to make matters worse. Not until "the penny drops" (often at the drop of the "right word")¹⁸ will we get reconnected and catch up and thus begin to understand again, understand both the broad meaning (i.e., the "point") of the conversation in the first place and, in that context, most of the details, too.

All of this, of course, constitutes *interpretation*. The two kinds of knowledge mentioned by Aquinas are indeed distinguishable but are not doomed to remain forever separate; normally, they function in interplay. Let us take a literary example. "Genuine poetry," T. S. Eliot wrote in his great essay on Dante, "can communicate before it is understood."¹⁹ The broad, intuitive, participative understanding which the first encounter with a poem awakens in me remains inarticulate at first, but that understanding, no matter how unthematic, does furnish me with a first *perspective* by which to guide my critical investigation. Then as the detailed knowledge

¹⁸ Cf. Ian Ramsey, *Religious Language*, 2nd ed. (London: SCM Press, 1967), esp. pp. 11-48.

¹⁹ *Selected Essays 1917-1932* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1932) p. 200.

thru I 'Wcqufoe about the poem falJs into a *convergent* pattern, I will proceed, thanks to my "illative Siert]se," inmlasingly to *interpret the poem as a whole in the light of its details and the details in the light of the poem as a whole*. Thus in the process of interpretation the poem (and my own spiritual world along with it) get both more complex and more unified. DelightfuJ-ly, my inner wmidil gets both furnished and organized; it develops in:to a broader, more coherent ,landsloape, with more patterned, cherished detail. In the process, my horizon is expanded and my peirspeotive is enlarged to make room for even mo,re lreality. Thus I grow and find both enrichment and en:lightenment, in virtue both of what I come to know in rthe way of obj,ectivity ,and of what I come to undersfand ,by participa-tion.

Let us sum up this analysis :and come to a siert of con-clusions. The fact that things and persons resist comprehension by means of objectifying knowledge does not prevent us from truJy knowing ;them, for we can also under-stand them in a more integral (if illess mltrculailJe) way, by par-ticipativ;e knowledge. Far from being irrtional, such partici-pative knowledgieserves to inspire and guide and lend perspec-tive to ohjlectifying knowledge, while obje|ctifying knowledge in its turn serves :to istmcture landartioularte participative knowl-edge.

In being known in this twofold way, alil *reality reveals its structure*. There is ihoth unity and multipJ:iicity to every thing, to persons, ,and ito humanity and the world in their totality. The multiplicity in them ailJows us to approach aud appreciate them hy means of detailed, objectifying yiert we realize that they *are* more than a conglomerate of objecti:fiabile elements; for a filller undeirs:ta,nding of their integrity (ithat is, their unity) we iremain dependent on participative knowledge.

The pmsuit of knowledge of every kind thus invariably lturns out ito he :an exiercise in *interpretation*; put dillerently, it is mterp|lleta:tion that mediat|es between reality and our-selves. On the one hand, things and our own selves and other

persons and humanity and the world can indeed be known in their integrity but only *interpretatively*, that is, according as our participative understanding of them increasingly makes sense of, accommodates, and integrates objectifiable elements arranged in significant structures. And on the other hand, all the details we objectively know *about* things and ourselves and other persons and humanity and the world are indeed a matter of time knowledge, but they acquire meaning only to the extent that they, too, are known *interpretatively*, that is, in their relevance to the whole.

Our analysis has shown that the world is not totally objective, definitive knowledge of humanity and the world as such is and remains inaccessible to us. We know the order of nature in its all-encompassing integrity only by way of familiarity and participation. That is, we know it interpretatively, as we let ourselves be guided by the patterns of convergence that strike us and the perspective we construe.

This has consequences. The task of interpretation faces human understanding with redoubtable standards of excellence. Indeed the standards will recede forever; interpretation, like tradition, is never done. If no individual person and no human community can know humanity and the world conclusively and definitively, then no individual, no group can ever claim exemption from interpretation; none can claim knowledge that is neither perspectival nor based on convergence.

Interpretation 'in an Eschatological Perspective

This is the moment to return to our principal thesis: the Christian respect for the universal order of nature must naturally extend to the ways in which other religions have recognized and interpreted that natural order. The lengthy analysis just conducted leads to a conclusion: in today's world community no individual, no community, and not even the Christian Church (with its divinely authorized, universalist missionary commitment) can propose one understanding of

the natural order of humanity and the world as definitive and, in that sense, exclusive; none can afford to dismiss alternative interpretations of the world and humanity as definitively irrelevant, dated, or unworthy of consideration.²⁰

This can be put differently. We, non-Christians and Christians, profess positive faiths that also imply a fundamental understanding of the natural order of the world and humanity. Not surprisingly, our positive statements of faith differ a great deal, but then, it is in the nature of positive religious traditions to be very different. Our understandings of the world and humanity are different, too, but it is clearly the same world and the same humanity we are referring to, even though we do not comprehend just *how* they are the same, that is, we agree they are the same even though we interpret them differently.

Where do we get the idea that it is the same world and the same humanity we are referring to? What makes us think we can get past our interpretations of them? The answer must be: *the implications of the act of interpretation itself.*

Let us start with a parallel. We know from experience that hearing someone speak a different language conveys, in and of itself, the present situation's potential, both for continued incomprehension (with the likelihood of hostility) and for mutual understanding (with the possibility of peace). This is so because it is obvious to us that we both speak *languages*, and we know that languages, no matter how foreign-sounding they may be, are (must be) *interpretable*, at least to an appreciable extent. Thus *the speech-situation in and of itself lays bare the fact that we cannot not communicate: we are meant to communicate even if we do not understand each other's language.* But this level of communication below the level of language faces us with a choice: we can either decide not to pursue the process, or we can decide to learn how to cross the linguistic boundary and to communicate with

²⁰ For the way in which this applies to Judaism, cf. *Loving the Torah More than God?*, pp. 3-4, 66-82.

each other by particular linguistic means, that is, by linguistic interpretation. There is something else that speech-situation conveys as well, least thematically: neither communication nor interpretation has anything to gain from the assertion, on the part of either party, that its particular language is superior to the other's.

Positive faith-professions, e.g. George Lindbeck has rightly argued, have basic characteristics in common with languages; chief among these is that languages are cultural in nature; they must and can be *learned*.²¹ Just as we must both resolve to communicate across linguistic divides and develop interpretative skills to do it, so it takes willingness as well as interpretative skills to communicate across the divides made visible by the encounter between the great religions. Both the willingness and the skills to deal with the particulars are a matter of faith. To those open to learning, the simple encounter with a different world-view, like the simple encounter with a speaker of a foreign language, involves the realization that the stated convictions we both live by are *interpretations*, our particular interpretations of humanity and the world. It also makes us realize that these interpretations harbor, in and of themselves, the potential for mutual understanding and enrichment, simply because they are *interpretable* to others, at least to a large extent (that is, others can learn about them).

This recognition has implications. Most of all, in our very attempts at interpreting our various interpretations of the natural order to each other, there is implicit a twofold *fundamental* affirmation on which we find ourselves in partial agreement: the world and humanity are basically intelligible, and we humans are one at least in the sense that we recognize each other as essentially equipped for the kind of intelligent, interpretative communication that can lead to growth in shared, participative understanding of truth.

This final affirmation, which is *'implicit in the persistent*

²¹ Cf. *The Nature of Doctrine: Religion and Theology in a Postliberal Age* (Philadelphia: Westminster Press, 1984), esp. pp. 32-41, 73-84.

practice of interpretative communication, must guide the dialogue among the great religions, rather than any *explicit* profession of a single, common, overarching, *systematic* philosophical or religious faith. It is only by participation, that is, by interpretation, that we know humanity and the world in their natural integrity. Does it not stand to reason, then, that it is by the patient sharing of our several perspectival understandings of humanity and the world that we are likely to come to a better (if never definitive) understanding of the world and the humanity we share? Such a persistent practice of hermeneutics will also help reveal two fundamental implicit truths about the natural order we appear to have in common: the essential intelligibility of humanity and the world, and the fundamental unity of humanity in virtue of its capacity to find and appreciate truth, that is, our native resemblance to the transcendent One. We will also convey that as believers we profess faith-commitments that we find enlightening all of which we expect will guide us to the end. As believers we are not living by the affirmation and imposition of totalitarian ideologies that brook no questioning. And thus the interpretative dialogue could reveal, by implication, that our faith-commitments do indeed aspire beyond the furthest imaginable horizon to the One that many of us—Jews, Christians, and Muslims—worshipfully adore God.

Despite some appearances to the contrary, the proposal just advanced is not an attempt to trade in the mistaken Christian triumphalism of the past for an equally mistaken relativist pluralism. There are several reasons why this is not so.

First of all, the proposal, which is fundamentally indebted to Hans-Georg Gadamer's work, understands tradition as a process of ongoing interpretation, which keeps alive a continuous adjustment of perspectives (in Gadamer's term, a "fusion of horizons") across times and places.²² In interpreting

²² CL *Wahrheit und Methode*, 2nd ed. (Tübingen: J. C. B. Mohr [Paul Siebeck], 1965), pp. 289-90, 356-57, 375; English: *Truth and Method*, (London: Sheed & Ward, 1975), pp. 273-74, 337-38, 358).

the judgments of the past, we try to reconstruct the historic concerns that prompted, inspired, and thus prejudiced the judgments in such a way that they were appropriate (or at least understandable) to those concerns. But what happens in this process of interpretation is that the past puts us on the line. Under the impact of our own questioning, judgments made in the past turn out to be able to challenge us; the judgments of the past lay bare the concerns that prompt, inspire, and thus prejudice the judgments we live by. Thus the examined and interpreted past reveals us to ourselves.

Implicit in Gadamer's hermeneutical theology is the affirmation of absolute truth as a living *reality*, ultimately transcendent, yet endlessly fascinating in the present. Those truly devoted to the process of interpretation will find themselves continually chastened as well as delighted by the discovery that knowledge of this ultimate reality is available only by participation, in perspective fashion, even asymptotically, and not in a form that will ever be exhaustive or definitive.

Soon, it is true that the Christian Church professes its faith in an overarching divine design, namely, that it is in Jesus Christ risen that God has definitively welcomed humanity and the world into the divine life. Still, the fulfillment of this divine commitment remains a matter of hope, that is, of *a profession of faith that remains true only to the extent that it is interpreted perspectively*.²⁸ Protestant faith does not give the Christian Church any present grasp of the *shape* of the eschatological fulfillment of humanity and the world. The Church makes eschatological affirmations, which shows that it claims some access to the fulfillment; but this access rests entirely on discernment, that is, it operates on *interpretation*.

To maintain this consistently eschatological perspective, it would seem to be of the utmost importance to recall that the

²⁸ Cf. *Christ Proclaimed*, pp. 308-09, 331-42. Cf. also *God Unhindered*, §40, 1; §42, 1.

central theme of the Christian faith is the glory of God and God's commitment to share the divine nature with humanity and the world; *not* the question "Who is saved?" (cf. Lk 13: 23-24).²⁴ Thus I cannot agree with Paul F. Knitter's decision to seek for a firmer foothold for pluralism in "sorterio-centrism."²⁵ If the salvation issue is allowed to become its dominant preoccupation (as it has in many ways since the sixteenth century), Christians are likely, by an exercise known to psychologists as projection, to interpret other religions as narrowly as Christianity itself. This undiscerning approach turns other religions into *competing systems of salvation* (and eventually, under the influence of rationalist theologians, into alternative ones,--even though a liberalized version of Christianity usually used to be presented as a superior salvation system). In the long run, great, original figures like Gautama Buddha then get ignorantly lumped together under the rubric "Savior figures" or even "Christ figures"; whether this alien characterization is imposed on them in admiration or in disqualification is irrelevant.

The great tradition of the undivided Church has been less prejudiced. It has viewed, with deeper discernment, the great souls in the history of religions as revelations of the eternal *Logos* in creation and the religions themselves as expressions of humanity's natural desire for God and thus as worthy of careful, appreciative (if critical) understanding.²⁶ It has also been prepared to distrust parts of them as potentially misleading manifestations of human depravity, which makes them worthy of careful, critical (if compassionate) understanding. And when it comes to the question who is saved, surely a pilgrim Church that can commit some of its own sinful members to God's judgment by excommunicating them with a view to their salvation (1 Cor 5: 4-5) can entrust to

²⁴ On this essential theme, cf. *God Encountered*, §20, 2.

²⁵ *The Myth of Christian Uniqueness*, p. 187.

²⁶ Cf. *Nostro*, 2FJtate, nn. 2-3.

God's merciful judgment those who, as a matter of simple fact, seek God with an upright heart along other pilgrim paths?

There is a further point. The catholic tradition holds that the natural order is fully revealed only in the act of being divinely exceeded. This has a consequence for our present argument: in not claiming to grasp the shape of the fulfillment of humanity and the world to come, the Christian faith implies that it has no definitive understanding of them in their natural, integrity either. For all the eschatological assurance inherent in the Christian profession of faith, it is in the nature of Christianity (and hence of its universalism) to be *transitional*. Consequently, the Christian Church need not (and indeed must not) think it incumbent upon itself, simply by virtue of its total commitment to the profession of Christ's sovereignty and uniqueness, to sit in judgment on other religions or to assign definitive places to them, either in God's kingdom to come or in God's world as we know it already. Just how Christ is Lord, 'already in the present moment, of all the dead and all the living (cf. Rom 14: 9) — a mystery of eschatological faith and hope, not a matter of present comprehension. This mystery, in other words, is inaccessible to Christians except by way of perspective, the kind of perspective that is designed to foster in the Church the attitude of the pilgrim, not the arbiter.

What, then, are we to do of Karl Rahner's proposal to call the countless people who live well and nobly outside the Christian community, by the light available to them, "anonymous Christians" ? The expression, unfortunately, has elicited as least as much misunderstanding as genuine Christian openness. It is clear that it must not be understood as an expansionist gesture by which countless admirable non-Christians, unbeknownst to themselves, are captured by a totalitarian church that brooks no goodness in the world outside itself. It is clear, too, that it is one way to express the Christian marvel at the free revelation of God and the *Logos* in the world; hence, it also conveys the Christian commitment to respectful missionary effort.

Unfortunately, however, it must also be said that Rahner's insight has encouraged a whole generation of systematic theologians to content themselves with a generous waiver of the hand in the direction of the great non-Christian religions and to think of themselves as dispensed from all attempts at a detailed understanding. This amounts to turning the phrase "anonymous Christians" into pure theory. To be credible, marvel at the manifestation of the *Logos* at work in the world must inspire encounter at close quarters. For that reason, too, this essay has argued that the inter-religious dialogue must concern itself with the religions' positive elements.

Finally, the mention of close quarters calls to mind the figure of the historical Jesus. The imitation of Christ would seem to commend to the pilgrim Church truly Christ-like approaches to other religions, not to mention Judaism. Time and again, Jesus made Israel's universalist his own (cf., for example, Is 66: 18-21!); he found and admired true faith outside Israel and glorified the Father for it. The Gospel of Luke goes so far as to have Jesus address the Christian community with an eschatological threat based on that same Jewish universalism (Lk 13: 24-29).

The memory of that threat, it is true, does not come naturally to a triumphalist Christianity still residually accustomed to the attractive (and often quite constructive) privileges of the Constantinian establishment and its aftermath. But now that the Christian faith no longer defines the prevalent cultural climate, it is easier to see that those privileges had a dark side to them, too. They caused the Church to lose its pre-Constantinian ability to give an account of its faith from a position of equality, and even subordination, amidst a variety of non-Christian religions and philosophies, all often before the tribunal of the powers that be. The second-century apologists and Origen had still been ready to do that. In accepting establishment, the Church lost touch with some of the patience and neighborliness that the early communities, in imitation of the historical Jesus, had shown vis-a-vis outsiders. In the process,

it also lost, in all Jikel:thood, some of]ts original sense of Jesus' God, as Gero Theissen pointed[y (if somewhat testily) reminds us:

Christian faith in God has often been fundamentally compromised by its entanglement with power and domination. A persecuted minority for centuries, Jews have more credibly testified that the God of the Bible is not on the side of the powerful and the dominating.³⁷

Some Reflections on Today's Discussion

Recent years hav:e seen a vigorous disoos:sion of fresh proposals---aimed at understanding all the great religions, las a matter of stated principle, in a plur:alist perspectiV'e. But some of these proposals are strongly reminiscent of questionable eighteenth-ieentury precedents,²⁸ because they rthoroughly relativize partiooJar religions by "placing" .them in an all-encompassing framework. In this setting, aill the religions' allegedly runiversalist intentions tend to be viewed as equally right, .and laM their allegedly parlioularist claims as equally mistaken.²⁹ While allegedly promoting *dialogue among* .the religions, this appoach in reality favors " a new *monologue containing them* instead." so

The more general .theologicalailwritings of the learned islamic-i-st Wilfred Cantwell Smith, no matter how inspiring and attractive, are a good example of this unsatisfactory approach. The problem is that Smith offers, under cover of a visionary exhortation to dialogue, what is in reality a hier:archical classification of all. positive religions. As long as he simply discerns

²¹ Gerd Theissen, *Der Schatten des GaZiTJi,ers*, p. 55; *The Shadow of the Galilean*, p. 36.

^{2s} For a competent discussion of no less than 14 recent books related to this issue, cf. the twin review essays by Francis X. Clooney (" Christianity and World Religions: Religion, Reason, and Pluralism") and Paul F. Knitter (" Making Sense of the Many") in *Religious Studies Review* 15 (1989): 197-204; 204-07.

²⁹ Cf. *God Encountered*, §28, 4, a, [*d*].

^{8o} David Novak, *Jewish-Ohristian Dialogue*, p. 80; italics added.

a "vision of world brotherhood" as a development that "we believe to be a step towards God's vision," there is still a welcome note of provisionality and perspective, even though Smith's reference to God's vision, as the point of perspective, raises doubt. The doubt is reinforced by the very title of the essay from which this quote was taken: "Mankind's Religiously Divided History Approaches Self-Consciousness." Are we to understand that human self-consciousness is the essence of religion, and is the God whose vision Smith wishes to approximate simply human self-consciousness writ large? ^{s2} There is even more reason to enter firm reservations when Smith proposes that *it* is the task of theology "to formulate *not a view of others seen through Christian eyes*, but rather a view, in global perspective, of humankind, . . . *a God's-eye view*, one might almost wish to say, of *all the human family*." Are eyes other than Christian ones available to us? Finally, reservation should turn into firm rejection when the "almost" is dropped and the ruling is handed down in all its undisguised immodesty: ". . . in God's eyes there is genuine pluralism." ^{ss} Elsewhere, Smith can write, with an astonishing lack of awareness of the relativity of his own position: "I am ready to argue with a Christian theologian, on Christian premises, that the modern comparative religionist's vision of the religious history of mankind provides a truer vision of that *total history*-that is, a vision closer to *God's way of seeing it*, a more authentic *Heilsgeschichte*-than *is any interpretation of this wide-ranging matter formulated within the Church* before the present information, or indeed any serious historical information, was

^{s1} "Mankind's Religiously Divided History Approaches Self-Consciousness," in *Religious Diversity: Essays by Wilfred Oantweii Smith*, ed. by Willard G. Oxtoby (New York and London: Harper & Row, 1976), p. 111; italics added.

^{s2} Cf. *God Encountered*, §25, 4, d; §35, 2-3.

^{ss} "The World Church and the World History of Religion: The Theological Issue," in *The Catholic Theological Society of America: Proceedings of the Thirty-Ninth Annual Convention* 39 (1984): 52-68; quotations pp. 54, 63 (italics added for emphasis).

available. It is significant to add this: that I would argue the corresponding point with Muslim theologians, on Islamic premises. I write that sentence not glibly, but in full seriousness, realizing that *the radically new vision that it implies would have to be defended before and ultimately assimilable by Muslims themselves*. . . . [T]his religious reconceptualization is not simply my wish but is: *necessitated by the advance of modern knowledge*." ³⁴ Hence both Kant and Christian doctrine--*bien etonnes de se trouver ensemble*--must rise in protest, for this is illegitimate theological language. It cries out for the realization that when it comes to the knowledge of ourselves, other persons, and humanity and the world (not to mention God), there are, in the final analysis, no judges and arbiters, only participators, discerners, and interpreters.

While I must strongly disagree with Professor Smith, I do recognize that his approach to religious pluralism bears the marks of his lifelong struggle to understand a different religion in all its particularity, Islam. This spells the difference between Professor Smith and an author like John Hick, who has also treated the issue of religious pluralism with great frequency but always in very general terms and very frequently in reliance on secondary materials only. Professor Hick's oft-repeated rejection of the absoluteness of Christianity would seem to be the principal source of the energy with which he has committed himself to very firm judgments about other religions. But the problem with those judgments is that they appear to have too easily absolved the author, in advance, from the (un)conscientious, detailed study of these religions themselves.

The curiously high-handed, even authoritarian overtones of this new, enlightened orthodoxy are due to the fact that its advocacy of tolerance comes mainly from above. Those who profess it tend to claim, whether implicitly or explicitly, that they occupy the higher ground, that theirs is the viewpoint from which all religions, not to mention humanity and the world as

³⁴ *Religious Diversity*, p. 112; italics added for emphasis.

a whole, can be *placed*, that is, *judged*. The principal problem with such a principled pluralism is that it fails to realize that its understanding of the world and humanity, too, is *participative*, not comprehensive. What is unacceptable, therefore, is the definiteness of its claim or, in other words, *its deficient awareness of the relativity of its own perspective*.

Curiously, but not really surprisingly, blindness to the relativity of all understanding is precisely what this new approach would seem to have inherited from the very orthodoxies it regards (often with reason) as dated because they are out of step with the temper of the present, a generally unbiased age. Under cover of the fine-sounding, tolerant slogan of "pluralism," therefore, this approach invites all religions to submit to the new universalism by giving up whatever is incompatible with it, just as the old orthodoxies (supposedly) had demanded that all other faiths give up whatever was incompatible with themselves. But why would anyone wish to trade in an old, sturdy (if theoretical) orthodoxy for an almost entirely theoretical, pan-humanitarian ideology that looks so blatantly like a benign form of post-Christian, rationalist, Western imperialism?

Very sensibly, therefore, in a world torn apart by patently unjustifiable differences and inequalities that beggar description, this brave, suspiciously *painless* type of liberal universalism of Western origin has been accused of "view[ing] the whole world as like unto itself, and [of keeping] its distance, even if it be a sympathetic distance, from the wretched of the earth."³⁵

Envoy

This can also be put in the straightforward, uncompromising Language of Christian doctrine. The original unity of all of

³⁵ Cf. Tom F. Driver's "The Case for Pluralism," the final essay in *The Myth of Christian Uniqueness* (pp. 203-18; quotation p. 206), discussing a highly critical response by Kenneth Surin to the essays in that collection. Cf. also Michael Barnes, "Beyond Inclusivism," *The Heythrop Journal* 30 (1989): 325-27.

humanity, along with the whole world, is protological: it is of God's fashioning, and it is in the nature of a first installment on a magnificent promise. The ultimate unity of all humanity, along with the whole world, is eschatological: again, it is of God's making—however and whenever God may fulfill creation's native potential, beyond anyone's wildest dreams.

For the here and the now, however, we will have to hold on to a paradoxical proposition. We uphold the finality of the Creed we profess, but we invoke that very finality to argue that *our Christian commitment must be to the in-between*, that is, to the present pursuit of justice and truth. This will consist partly in the respectful cherishing of all that truly distinguishes all of us—and partly in the painstaking overcoming of all that estranges us. This contemplation of truth and justice will show all the signs of the here and the now; it will have to submit to the dynamics of provisionality inherent in the great Tradition. In short, it will have to combine modesty with hope. The modesty will consist in reckoning with the possibility that at any time and in any situation, even in our best moments, any of us may be thoroughly misguided in what we think or do. The hope will consist in the trust that humanity and the world will truly come into their own by a design not conceivable by human reason nor made by human hand, an incomprehensible, hidden design that is as holy as it is loving, and that comes to do justice to us from beyond us. In view of the accomplishment of that hoped-for design, neither truth nor justice is accomplished by claiming that it is in the nature of Christianity (or, for that matter, of any other faith or philosophy) to give us a commanding bird's-eye overview of humanity and the world, a view claimed to be a "God's eye-view." Only the Lamb who was slain, the Lion who has conquered, is worthy to open the scroll that has the mysteries of the sealed up in it (Rev 5: 1-5, 12). Final justice and final truth are ours to anticipate, not grasp.

And in any case, we know from the Gospel just how God means to direct our gaze as we view humanity and the world.

We are to view them not from any height but, so to speak, "from below," that is, from the traveling Samaritan's patient, neighbourly. For the pilgrim, servant Church to try to define, in the name of God, the final unity of humanity and the world while it still finds people lying by the wayside with no one to understand or serve them is the equivalent of walking to the heavenly Jerusalem with blinders on. Or, to change the metaphor, to dream up a common language this side of the *Halleluyah*, amounts to compounding the already existing confusion of tongues with yet another vociferous ideological jargon; in that sense, it would only help shore up the tower of Babel.³⁶

³⁶ The last phrase suggested by remark in Tom F. Driver's "The Case for Pluralism," p. 205.

RAHNER ON THE UNORIGINATE FATHER

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I. Introduction

BY ANY MEASURE, Karl Rahner was one of the principal architects of the renaissance of trinitarian theology that has marked the last half of this century. Rahner found that in their practical lives Christians were "almost mere monotheists" ¹ while in speculative endeavors the treatise on the Trinity stood "isolated in the structure of dogmatic theology as a whole," ² and so he devoted himself to overcoming both the practical and the theoretical isolation of the doctrine. He proposed as a methodological *Grundnorm* the dictum that "the 'immanent' Trinity and the 'economic' Trinity," ³ in order to preclude any sharp disjunction between how God is *in se* and how God is *ad extra*, between theology and the economy. He also developed a concept of self-communication, inscribed it within the heart of his trinitarian theology, and materially recast the traditional account of the Trinity to conform with that notion.

His account of the identity and role of God the Father is a striking, although little noted, feature of Rahner's thought. His trinitarian theology trumpets the primacy of God the Father: this is evident in his oft-stated resolve to begin the

¹Karl Rahner, *The Trinity*, trans. Joseph Donceel (New York: The Seabury Press, 1974), p. 10. Hereafter cited as *Trinity*.

²"Remarks on the Dogmatic Treatise 'De Trinitate'," in Karl Rahner, *Theological Investigations IV*, trans. Kevin Smyth (New York: The Seabury Press, 1974), p. 78. Hereafter cited as "Remarks."

³*Trinity*, p. 22.

theological enterprise, in consort with Scripture and the Greeks, with God the Father, rather than the one divine essence shared by Father, Son, and Holy Spirit.⁴ And that primacy, in turn, is secured by an extraordinary emphasis on the unoriginatedness traditionally ascribed to the Father. What unoriginatedness involves and how unoriginatedness and fatherhood bear on the identity of the Father become central questions within Rahner's trinitarian theology.

This is no bit of trinitarian artifice, no subtlety of interest only to a scholastic mindset, but an issue whose consequences reverberate throughout Rahner's thought. Two examples will suffice. Insofar as Rahner is concerned with the notion of self-communication, he identifies the Father as the origin of the self-communication. Divinity is communicated through the Son and the Holy Spirit. Issues regarding the identity of the Father impinge, therefore, on questions concerning the self-communication precisely because they impinge upon the identity of the self that is communicated. In addition, Rahner works out the identification of the being of God and the trine being of God in the person of the Father. The by the question about the identity of the Father becomes important in settling the ontological status of the immanent Trinity in the sense in which God is eternally Trinity *simpliciter*.

This essay examines Rahner's rich and complex account of the identity of the Father. It will be necessary, first of all, to situate that teaching, to clarify what Rahner means by unoriginatedness, and to determine how he understands unoriginatedness and fatherhood to be interrelated in constituting the identity of the Father. The essay will argue that Rahner's account of the Father's identity is not, for fact, succeed and fail, this is his theology. Rahner's position can thus be seen as an attempt to identify a philosophically conceived, abyssal Father in trinitarian doctrine by reworking the unoriginatedness traditionally ascribed to the Father.

⁴ *Trinity*, p. 111.

II. 'O 8ebc; and the Father

In an essay that appears early on in the *Theological Investigations*, "Theos in the New Testament", Rahner outlines the content of the New Testament conception of God under several headings.⁵ He notes, first of all, the New Testament's imperious claim that its God is the one true God, O 8ebc;. Rahner describes this as the New Testament's doctrine of God's uniqueness. Under a second rubric, God as person, Rahner ranges several topics. According to Rahner, as person, God is (1) an agent who acts (2) freely in (3) historical dialogue with human beings and (4) in so doing discloses his attitudes or dispositions, in contradistinction to his metaphysically necessary attributes, toward human beings. Third, that unique God, a free and living God, is a God of love and is so definitively and irrevocably because God "has bound himself."⁶ God's last word and last deed is love. Fourth and finally, Rahner asserts that within the New Testament the unique God, O 8ebc;, is identified with the one whom Jesus calls Father; the one true God is the Father of Jesus Christ.

So far, so good. Rahner's argument is largely exegetical and gives new force to the deliverances of New Testament scholars. Nevertheless, systematic considerations do intrude. Granted that in the New O 8ebc; is the Father, Rahner argues that O 8ebc; signifies the Father and does not merely stand for the Father.⁷ Prescinding from complexities in the theory of meaning, one can discern only slightly muffled echoes of a battle with scholasticism over the concept of God and over the internal organization of the treatise on God (the *De Deo Uno-De Deo Trina* sequence). Negatively, Rahner denies that

⁵ Karl Rahner, *Theological Investigations* I, trans. Cornelius Ernst, O.P. (New York: The Seabury Press, 1974), pp. 79-148. Hereafter cited as "Theos."

⁶ "Theos," p. 117.

⁷ See Cornelius Ernst's remarks about this claim in his note in "Theos," pp. 127-8.

Otheos; signifies either the divine nature or "the Trinity in general (and hence indistinctly)." ⁸ Were that the case, *Otheos* would merely stand for rather than signify the Father. Positionally, if "God" signifies the Father, then the one who acts freely in historical dialogue with human beings and thereby discloses his dispositions (rather than attributes) is the Father of Jesus Christ. In effect, the lengthy descriptive phrase uniquely picks out God the Father. So, according to Rahner,

when the New Testament thinks of God, it is the concrete, individual, uninterchangeable Person who comes into its mind, who is in fact the Father and is called *Otheos*; so that inversely, when *Otheos* is being spoken of, it is not the single divine nature that is seen, subsisting in three hypostases, but the concrete Person who possesses the divine nature unoriginately, and communicates it by eternal generation to a Son too, and by spiration to the Spirit. ⁹

Rahner illustrates that his thesis about the Father will foster a reciprocal awareness of the trinitarian rhythm of the Christian life. Prayer and grace provide his stock examples. If God signifies the Father, the Christian at prayer will be fully aware that she prays in the Spirit through Jesus Christ to the Father. ¹⁰ By the same token, if, as children of God, we are children of the Father, then the mediatorial role of Christ in our being children of God will be underscored. Moreover, Rahner sees a connection with the question of whether or not Father, Son, and Holy Spirit possess proper non-appropriated relationships to the justified person in grace. As Rahner sees it, the justified person's relation to the Son and the Spirit cannot be interpreted as sonship without making "God" stand for the Trinity in its entirety. Consequently, the Trinity is our "Father" in grace only by appropriation. If, on the other hand, the Father in the Trinity is also our Father through grace, then our relation cannot be interpreted as sonship, and it may need to be asserted that "each of the three persons has its own proper relationship to the justified man." ¹¹

⁸ "Theos," p. 130.

⁹ "Theos," p. 146.

¹⁰ "Theos," pp. 129-30, 148.

¹¹ "Theos," p. 147.

Whether or not the claim that "God" signifies the Father leads to a recovered sense of the trinitarian rhythm of the Christian life, its ramifications within Rahner's theology are noteworthy. For one thing, it is an example of Rahner's characteristic refusal to develop a separate or independent doctrine of God. He pilloried the scholastics for developing, despite their best intentions, a treatise more accurately termed *De Divinitate Una* rather than *De Deo Uno*.¹² Instead, one ought to treat the "essence" of God only in conjunction with the being of the Father, and thereby only as "the Godhead of this Father."¹³ It is preferable to handle "the general doctrine of God as the doctrine of God the Father, the sourceless origin in the Godhead," rather than "as the doctrine of the nature of God which is common to all the Persons."¹⁴

Methodologically, Rahner recommends beginning the systematic enterprise with the *being* of the Father. In Rahner's eyes this has the further merit of making the sequence of the "treatises" reflect the historical unfolding of revelation itself.¹⁵ The systematic yield is: not a better version of the traditional *De Deo Uno-De Deo Trina* sequence but a leveled sequence that moves from "the Godhead of this Father" to treatments of Christology and then Pneumatology.¹⁶

¹² "Remarks," p. 102.

¹³ "Remarks," p. 83.

¹⁴ "Observations on the Doctrine of God in Catholic Dogmatics" in *Theological Investigations IX*, trans. Graham Harrison (New York: The Seabury Press, 1973), p. 131.

¹⁵ "We might say at least with equal right that the history of revelation first reveals God as unoriginate person in his relation to the world, and next proceeds to the revelation of this person as the origin of intra-divine, personalizing vital process." *Trinity*, p. 20, note 15.

¹⁶ See the remarks about this at the very end of *The Trinity*. I plan in another essay to address the status of the concept of "trinity" in Rahner. That concept belongs to a different level of discourse and involves a set of considerations that go beyond a merely linear treatment of the Godhead of the Father, Christology, and Pneumatology. Where "trinity" ought to be treated and what logical shape that treatment must possess on Rahner's

Finally, insofar as "God" signifies the Father, the divinity of the Son and Spirit will be "conceptually a consequence of the fact that the Father communicates his whole nature."¹⁷ The doctrine of the Trinity's compatibility with monotheism is rooted in the Father's role as *fons trinitatis*. If the Father is the one true God, then if the Son and Holy Spirit are themselves divine, they are so thanks to their origination from the Father rather than to their possession of a common nature.

III. *The Father as Unoriginate Origin*

The equation of *ὁ Θεός* and the Father engenders a dilemma that Rahner must confront the minute the question of natural theology arises; he seems to have no way out of an unpalatable disjunction. On the basis of his claim about the Father, he simply denies the very possibility of a natural knowledge of God: God is either apprehended by faith through grace as the Father of Jesus Christ or God is simply not grasped at all. From Rahner's perspective, that would be tantamount to fideism and would entail the scuttling of the very foundational theology he labored to construct. Conversely, Rahner could boldly affirm that God is known in natural theology precisely because the God so grasped *is* the Father. If, however, the term of natural theology is the Father, there seems to be no way to deny the inference that the entire Trinity is knowable by reason from the created order. If, that is to say, the act of self-communication constitutes the Father, then the Father simply cannot be known in isolation from the Son and the Spirit. Faith, then, is rendered superfluous and supplanted by an extraordinarily virulent gnosticism.

Rahner's response is to make a paradoxical assertion. "It is obvious," he says, "that the Father is not known as Father in natural theology, i.e., not as He who communicates his nature

terms are questions worth pursuing. For one attempt to discern, *inter alia*, various levels of trinitarian discourse, see Robert Jenson, *The Triune Identity* (Philadelphia: Fortress Press, 1982),

¹⁷ "Theos," p. 146.

to the Son by an eternal generation, and it is obviously true that the necessary uniqueness of the divine nature is discerned by natural theology." 18 In short, Rahner's position is that natural theology grasps the Father but not the Father as such, i.e., as Father. This seems, on the face of it, a contradictory assertion, for how can natural theology both know and not know the Father?

In part to solve this problem, Rahner introduces at this point the concept of unoriginatedness. Natural theology, he claims

ascends not just to a divinity but to a God; it knows, that is, that this divine nature necessarily subsists, and subsists, what is more (or at least also), in an absolute and unqualified *unorigination* (*Ursprungslosigkeit*). Natural theology is quite capable of affirming the necessity of a pure and absolute unorigination in God, free from any conceivable restriction, even if its statement of this remains wholly formal.¹⁹

So what natural theology knows is the "*absolutely* Unoriginate." 20 Inasmuch as Rahner meditates natural theology with the ability to discern "the necessary uniqueness of the divine nature,"²¹ it is reasonable to infer that Rahner identifies that uniqueness with unoriginatedness.

Positively, Rahner affirms that philosophy grasps "this complete, absolutely unoriginate Origin of all reality." 22 Moreover, the Unoriginate is seen "not just set over against an origination by creation, but as opposed to every conceivable real and hypothetical origination." 23 But "every conceivable real and hypothetical origination" would include the begetting of the Son and the breathing of the Spirit, that is, it would range over origination by self-communication. Consequently, the absolutely Unoriginate is affirmed to be the origin of all reality *ad extra* as well as all reality *ad intra*. It is origin by creation *ex nihilo* as well as *fans trinitatis*.

18 "Theos," p. 132-3.

19 "Theos," p. 133.

20 "Theos," p. 134.

21 "Theos," p. 132.

22 "Theos," p. 132.

23 "Theos," p. 132.

Negatively, Rahner denies that philosophy discerns that the concrete, absolutely unoriginate is "Origin also by communication of the divine nature and not merely by creation *ex nihilo*."²⁴ Thus: the divine self-communication, according to Rahner, remains "utterly concealed" from natural theology.²⁵ Its affirmation of the absolutely unoriginate [is said to remain "wholly formal," to bear on its object only "formally and *a priori*."²⁶ Rahner's point seems to be that the knowledge of an absolutely unoriginate origin of all possible reality does not entail the ability to deduce everything that has in fact sprung from that source. A gap, a logical hiatus, must be marked between the formal or *a priori* domain and the material or *a posteriori* domain. The fact of divine self-communicativeness can remain "utterly concealed," buried within the unoriginate, because philosophy endorses the unoriginate only as the source of whatever *can* be. From that absolute reservoir of possibilities, however, philosophy cannot deduce the actuality of divine self-communication.

Nevertheless, Rahner continues to insist that "when natural theology acquires knowledge of a single and absolutely first Principle of all reality (not just creaturely reality), what is so

²⁴ "Theos," p. 132.

²⁵ "Theos," p. 132.

²⁶ "Theos," p. 132.

²⁷ By the same token, the philosophical account of the created world can only be formal in Rahner's scheme. Philosophy can discern the *a priori* structures that any possible world, any possible creation, must take, but it cannot deduce either (a) the existence of the world, the actuality of creation or (b) the determinate content of the actual world. Rahner's doctrine of creation, in short, is conceptually tied to his account of the being of the Father and, in particular, can be tied to the twists and turns in the relation between unoriginate and fatherhood in comprising the identity of the Father. The distinction between creation as the condition of possibility of the self-communication and creation as a consequence of the self-communication (as brought about by the self-communication in order to realize itself) mirrors the distinction between unoriginate and fatherhood within Rahner's account of the Father. To the extent that Rahner succeeds in identifying the unoriginate and the Father, he will succeed in identifying creation as both condition and consequence of the self-communication.

known is the Father."²⁸ The central feature, therefore, in Rahner's account of the Father is the identification of the absolutely Unoriginate with the Father. Thereby, to be sure, a wrinkle has been added to the original question of what O_{(Je6c;} "God," signifies. Its signification now covers both absolute unoriginatedness and fatherhood. So Rahner is claiming that

(1) "God" signifies the Father precisely as the absolutely unoriginate Father;

The absolutely unoriginate Father is grasped by philosophy;

(3) Philosophy grasps the concretely subsisting God *qua* the absolute Unoriginate but not *qua* Father.

This move plays an important role in Rahner's constructive theological endeavor. Grant Rahner his concept of the absolutely unoriginate Father and the trinitarian form of his entire project becomes clear. At no step need one ever move outside the trinitarian orbit; everything can be brought within its purview. Rahner can plausibly claim, for example, that on his terms either God [is known as Father or Son or Holy Spirit or else God is simply not known at all.²⁹ This is because even philosophy's grasp of the Unoriginate is not a move outside the

This may surprise readers of Rahner inclined to stress the complete independence of the philosophical precedent. But grant him the identity of the Unoriginate with the Father and even philosophy may be brought within the trinitarian form as an inner moment of theology. Within the Father, in fact, Rahner is able to identify the philosophical or speculative first principle with Christian faith's first. Ultimately both spring from the same root, and both share an identical object, so that the differences between philosophy and theology are absorbed into a deeper and primordial unity. From this per-

²⁸ "Theos," p. 133.

²⁹ Rahner says that "we can never conceive of a divinity which does not exist either as that of the Father or of the Son or of the Spirit." *Trinity*, p. 84, note 6.

speative, the thesis about the Father may even provide the vehicle for bringing together *Spirit in the World* and the *Theological Investigations* under a single trinitarian umbrella! In any event, the identity of the Unoriginated and the Father anchors the ultimate compatibility of a rich series of terms whose mutual coherence is required for the viability of Rahner's project. Natural and revealed knowledge of God, nature and grace, creation and predestination, providence and predestination, to name but a few, presuppose that identity for their ultimate reconciliation in Rahner's scheme.

IV. *Unoriginatedness and Fatherhood*

Introducing the concept of unoriginatedness, as we have seen, has only complicated the claim that Θ signifies the Father. In order for secure that Θ , "God," refers to a unitary thing, Rahner needs to provide some account of the relationship between unoriginatedness and fatherhood in constituting the Father. At stake, in other words, is the unitary identity of the Father. Moreover, the decision to rejoin an independent doctrine of God all to treat the Godhead of God only within the account of the being of the Father puts the identity of God with the Father (and, thereby, the Trinity) at issue as well. In particular, Rahner must dispel any concern that the epistemological distinction between grasping x as unoriginated origin and grasping x as Father opens out into an ontological distinction that so bifurcates unoriginated origin and Father as to preclude their really being the same x .³⁰ Commitment to the identity of being and knowing rules out Rahner's ability to separate sharply how the Father appears in

so Once you operate within the parameters of Rahner's distinction, it becomes very difficult to refer to the entity under discussion in a way that clarifies the issue. Rahner himself has difficulties: when he needs a circumlocution to identify what it is that is unoriginated and what it is that is Father (without simply defining one in terms of the other), he sometimes speaks of the first hypostasis or the first person of the Trinity. My use of x as a placemaker for the underlying issue is not done merely out of my own sense of rigor.

relation *to us*, for *our* knowledge, and how God is *in se*, independently of our knowledge. Much is at stake.

It would be a mistake to take Rahner's concept of unoriginatedness at face value. It looks like the traditional ascription of innascibility or unbegottenness to the Father, and there is certainly nothing Christianly inappropriate about that. Yet we should not prejudge the case by filling in Rahner's concept with the traditional content; I think there are several good reasons for not doing so.

If we are ever to be in a position to assess Rahner's proposal about the Father, we first need more clarity about what he means by unoriginatedness and how he sees this related to fatherhood. To do that, we need to examine his talk of "total unoriginatedness" and "concrete unoriginatedness" in relation to three terms: uncreatedness (or aseity), unbegottenness (or innascibility), and fatherhood. First, "total unoriginatedness" must be situated in relation to uncreatedness and unbegottenness. Second, what is distinctive about Rahner's concept of "concrete unoriginatedness" is to be identified by ranging it alongside Aquinas's account of trinitarian characteristics.

Total Unoriginatedness. One legacy of the ancient trinitarian debates is the half-drawn distinction between uncreatedness (or, positively expressed, aseity) and unbegottenness (or, as the Latins came to say, innascibility). Tremendous confusion, in part due to similar spelling in Greek (*agenetos* and *agennetos*), resulted from a failure to distinguish the two.³¹ Unoriginatedness, in other words, might be used in the sense of uncreatedness or in the sense of unbegottenness. Insofar as aseity or uncreatedness was at issue, the decisive point was that Father and Son and Holy Spirit were uncreated or *a se ipso*. Being unoriginate in the sense of uncreated, therefore, was not a property that uniquely singled out one member of

³¹ See the account of G. L. Prestige, *God in Patristic Thought* (London: S.P.G.K., 1952), pp. 37-52.

the Trinity as opposed to another. It bore instead on the divine nature.

On the other hand, unlike aseity or uncreatedness, unbegottenness was a property peculiar to the Father, one side of the primacy accorded to the Father within the Trinity. Logically, it represented the denial of being begotten and, by extension, the denial of having an origin. Armed with the distinction between being uncreated and being unbegotten, it was possible to deny that whatever was uncreated (unoriginate in *this* sense) was by that very fact unbegotten (unoriginate in *that* sense) and, conversely, to deny that whatever was begotten was *eo ipso* created. To be unbegotten, therefore, could not be what made God God. If so, the very possibility of divinity's being communicated would be precluded.

According to Rahner, "before the revelation of the Trinity, the total unoriginatedness cannot yet be differentiated into aseity and innascibility."⁸² If we follow revelation in its temporal unfolding, the sequence commences with an unoriginate origin subsequently shown to be the Father of Jesus Christ. Only at that point is total unoriginatedness divisible into aseity and innascibility. Nevertheless, one can think of philosophy as logically, rather than temporally, prior to the revelation of the unoriginate Origin as the Father of Jesus Christ and then philosophy's object is total unoriginatedness. Total unoriginatedness, in turn, must ultimately be with the Father.

The earlier tradition needed to distinguish uncreatedness and unbegottenness without proposing any more comprehensive concept capable of systematically unifying or bridging the two. The novelty of Rahner's concept of total unoriginatedness is that it purports to accomplish just that. Uncreatedness and unbegottenness are themselves moments or dimensions of a total unoriginatedness which includes both within itself. Therein they merge into an impenetrable unity and are only

⁸² *Trinity*, p. 59, note 8.

to be distinguished from one another subsequently, i.e., from the vantage point of Christian faith. Aseity bears on being the principle of all reality *ad extra*; innascibility on being the principle of all reality *ad intra*. Rahner's concept of total unoriginate-ness spans both and points towards some more encompassing reality in which they find their root.

Concrete Unoriginatedness. Precisely how are unoriginated-ness and fatherhood interrelated in Rahner's thought? Before turning directly to that question, we need to have some sense of what might be at stake in a theologian's decision about how to conceptualize the relation between the two. Aquinas will provide a useful example.

In question thirty-two of the *Summa theologiae*, having denied that the Trinity of persons may be known by natural reason, Aquinas develops a theory of *notiones* or characteristics to explain how the divine persons are known.³³ Characteristics are "concepts whereby the persons are known."³⁴ Aquinas posits five: innascibility, fatherhood, sonship, common spiration, and procession. Obviously some persons will be marked by more than one characteristic. Within Aquinas's theory of knowledge, human beings know what is (e.g., God) in a complex way, so the multiplicity of characteristics belonging to a particular person as known need introduce no diversity into the person *in se*.

Nevertheless, the characteristics are not all on a par for Thomas. Indeed only three are said to be personal characteristics, inasmuch as they constitute persons; they are fatherhood, sonship, and procession. It is, in fact, precisely because no philosopher *qua* philosopher knows "the mystery of the divine persons through the personal properties of fatherhood, sonship and procession"³⁵ that Aquinas denies that the Trinity can be known by natural reason. Its intriguing for our purposes is Aquinas's denial that innascibility is a character-

as *Summa theologiae*, Blackfriars edition, 60 volumes (New York/London: McGraw-Hill/Eyre and Spottiswoode, 1964-1981).

³⁴ S.T. Ia, 32, 3.

³⁵ S.T. Ia, 32, 1 ad 1.

istic that constitutes a person, The person of the Father, in Aquinas's way of speaking, is constituted by fatherhood, Innascibility is, indeed, a characteristic of the Father and only of the Father for as that, it does not comprise the identity of the Father, It does not serve to distinguish the first hypostasis from of the Son and Holy Spirit, Insofar as the Father is unbegotten or unoriginate, the Father cannot be as being from another. For Aquinas, one might say, innascibility only works to point out one previously identified by other means (specifically, by fatherhood),

this contention are insurmountable, First, persons are the relations of origin and these relations are, in turn, upon processions. Innascibility, according to is itself a relation only indirectly. In first it is the negation or denial of a relation, the of being begotten or, more broadly, having an origin. It presupposes a prior affirmation of the act of begetting. Moreover, no procession, no *act* innascibility. Therefore lacks those features: that are person-producing for Aquinas. Innascibility cannot constitute a trinitarian hypostasis.

In a question devoted specifically to the Father, Aquinas entertains a suggestion that unbegottenness be taken both negatively positively.³⁶ On this supposition, unbegottenness both (1) that the Father comes from no one the: Rather is the source or principle of others. Aquinas concludes that unbegottenness must be taken negatively, is, as excluding generation in a passive sense. If positively, he says, there would be no way to distinguish it from either fatherhood or spiration. So the meanings of innascibility and fatherhood must be held to be diverse.

Finally, Aquinas inquires in another context whether a hypostasis in the Trinity remains when by thought we isolate the relations from the persons³⁷ Specifically, he asks whether,

³⁶ *S.T.* Ia, 33, 4.

³⁷ *S.T.* Ia, 40, 3.

if one should set aside fatherhood in thought, the unbegotten hypostasis of the Father would remain nevertheless. Appealing to the distinction between personal and non-personal characteristics, Aquinas answers that if one thought away a non-personal property like innascibility, the person or hypostasis of the Father would still remain. If, conversely, fatherhood were subtracted, the hypostasis would be subtracted as well. Without that property, they no longer remain a hypostasis distinct from the Son and the Holy Spirit. By fatherhood, "the Father is not only Father, but also 'one,' i.e., a hypostasis."³⁸ All by itself, innascibility is "a negative, affirming nothing."³⁹

Rahner handles the relation between unoriginatedness and fatherhood in his concept of "concrete unoriginatedness." He claims that "God's unoriginatedness, as manifested in his self-communication, possesses a positive character: the fact that the divine unoriginate communicates himself in no way threatens or impairs his absolute integrity."⁴⁰ The implied contrast between a negative and a positive unoriginatedness is worth noting. Negative unoriginatedness, we may fairly presume, is identical with that "total" unoriginatedness that philosophy grasps. Positive unoriginatedness, on the other hand, is ranged alongside of the divine self-communication, a fact outside philosophy's purview. Within the self-communication of God, "the essence of unoriginatedness shows itself in its completeness: divinity (aseity) which can communicate itself without thereby losing itself, yet without merely keeping to itself, for that would do away with the character of a self-communication."⁴¹ The logic of Rahner's claim is that, *if* a self-communication occurs, then unoriginatedness is complete in its very essence and so the Father.⁴² Thereby, in the terms

³⁸ *S.T.* Ia, 40, 3 ad 1.

⁴⁰ *Trinity*, p. 84.

³⁹ *S.T.* Ia, 40, 3 ad 3.

⁴¹ *Trinity*, p. 84, note 6.

⁴² The status of the self-communication is left open at this point. Whether its contingent givenness can be surmounted in Rahner's thought is a question that will be addressed later.

of the self-other dirulooti.chovering in the background, God is not tmpped within the opposed alternatives of rolitruiness o:r self-foss. Concrete !Unociginatedness spehls God's (i.e., the Father's) ability lbo communicate himself without risk of losing himself.

So the Eather is " not only ' fatherhood ' (hellOe ' notion-ality '), but the concrete God in the unity of essentirul aseity and notionrul fatherhood, conCl'ete unoriginatedness:"⁴³ Care needs :to he taken, however, in specifying that unity or connection. Some specifications can certainly he ru.Jied out. For one thing, it would be mislerudillgto think of concrete unoriginatedness:as the SIUm, .so to speak, of aseity land .fathe!l.hood. Putting it that way conjmles up the £alse picture of aseity and fatherhood as log,iicaHyprior and independently aiocessibleeilements which are then subsequently combined to yield concrete unoriginatedness. Even were that ruoouriate,innascibility would not be the resrULt, for nothing woillid thereby be settled about the Father's originlessness. Besides, Rahner invoked " tOlbal" unoriginatedness preci19ely in order to merge aseity and innascibili.ty info a unity tha:t was eonoeptrurullyimpenetrable for phllosophy. The ;twin moments of aseity and ii.nnascibility were distinguishable only giy;en the resources of specificaJily Christian revelation, that is, the .self-communication of God.

Furthermore, Rabner is *not* making the Thomistic claiim tha:t innascibility is predicated of :the Father whiile the Faither is constiituted by fatherhood. On •tihat supposition, innascibililty presupposes :that the person of the F.a.ther has afoeaidy been identified hy other means. By itself, iit does, not a hypostasis. But " concirete unoriginatedneiss " does not work that way.

Rahner is :saying that concrete unoriginatedness and fatherhood lare *identical*. He says, for eXiample, that " the Fatherhood and ilie unoriginatedness of :bhe Flather may be distinguished, with01Ut over:looking the fact that *the Fatherr's unoriginatedness is his fatherhood* and should not be conceived as

⁴⁸ *Trinity*, p. 84, note 6.

previous to it, as constituting a person."⁴⁴ In other passages, he expressly identifies unoriginatedness as that which constitutes a hypostasis in contrast to those of Son and Spirit. Rahner contends that "insofar as he is unoriginate ... the Father himself has a manner of being given and of existing which distinguishes him from Son and Spirit, but which yet does not properly precede his relation to either of them."⁴⁵ Finally, Rahner counts among the "person-constituting" relations of origin, "the unoriginatedness (innascibility, unbegottenness, *Pater ingenuus*) of the Father as the origin of the Son (Fatherhood)." ⁴⁶

Rahner's identification of concrete unoriginatedness and fatherhood seems more nearly akin to the proposal, rejected by Aquinas, that involves both originlessness and being the source of others. Certainly there is a similarity. Rahner's deployment of "total" and "concrete" unoriginatedness, related as negative and positive, covers some of the same conceptual territory. But the differences run deeper. The proposal Aquinas spurned operated only on the level of trinitarian characteristics; it still presupposed something like the classical *De Deo Uno-De Deo Trino* sequence. From the outset, however, Rahner has refused to treat the being of God prior to and independent of the being of the Father. Aseity itself is only a moment within total unoriginatedness. Thereby the dialectic of unoriginatedness and fatherhood is a dialectic within the very being of God, the Godhead of God, as well. The transition from negative, and total unoriginatedness to positive and concrete unoriginatedness operates both on the level of the Trinity and on the level of the divine essence.

The identification of concrete unoriginatedness and fatherhood is the pivotal claim. If they cannot be identified, a rift

⁴⁴ *Trinity*, pp. 78-9. Emphasis added.

⁴⁵ *Trinity*, p. 74. Here, as in a few other passages, Rahner talks (curiously) of the Father's having a manner of being given. Is this manner of being given something other than his self-gift in Son and Spirit? What could it be?

⁴⁶ *Trinity*, p. 78.

opens within the very being of God between the Unoriginate and the Father of Jesus Christ. At the decisive point of transition from negative and total to positive and concrete unoriginatehood stands Rahner's appeal to the concept and the foot of a divine self-communication. As a consequence, the status of the identity of the Unoriginate and the Father is finally inseparable from the status of the foot of self-communication.

V. Critique

There are several compelling reasons to think that the required identity of the Unoriginate and the Father cannot be carried through successfully on Rahner's terms. Indeed, his scheme simultaneously requires and precludes that identification. At worst, the two features simply exclude one another. At best, they exhibit a mere conjunction, a juxtaposition, a simultaneity that falls short of yielding instead a hybrid. The identity of Unoriginate and Father becomes, at best, a necessary accident; so too the foot of self-communication. The upshot is a pervasive ambiguity about whether the ultimate origin of all reality is indeed the Father of Jesus Christ or whether there is something behind or prior to the Father. Ultimately, it seems that what Rahner is trying to do is to identify a philosophically positioned abyss with the Father of Christian faith by reinterpreting the traditional notion of innascibility.

Absolute and Relative Unorigination. Because the divine self-communication remains "utterly concealed" from it, natural theology misrepresents an important fact about the absolutely Unoriginate. It has no idea that "this 'absolutely Unoriginate' possesses the divine nature and its own absolute unorigination simply in being related to its Son."⁴⁷ This, of course, is simply the claim that natural theology does not know the Father as Father. The reason, presumably, is that the Father is who he is only in relation to the Son. Substitute the claim that un-

⁴⁷ "Theos," p. 134.

originateness and fatherhood are identical, however, and you generate a contradiction. The contradiction resides in Rahner's claiming about the same *x* (vaguely put, the first trinitarian hypostasis) that it is both absolutely and relatively unoriginate. If the Unoriginate as grasped by natural theology is *absolutely* unoriginate, "free from any conceivable restriction,"⁴⁸ it cannot possess its unorigination *only* in relation to the Son. Were that the case, its unorigination itself would be constituted by a relation and thus not be absolute. Its being absolutely unoriginate means its being is constituted independently from any relation, including its relation to the Son. That relation must be adventitious to its being as the absolutely unoriginate. What cannot be said is that a thing has its unrelatedness in relatedness. At this point, the absolutely Unoriginate and the Father, total and concrete unoriginatedness, move in opposite directions.

Unoriginate and Self-Communication. The notion of self-communication is central to Rahner's trinitarian theology. To grasp the measure of the magnitude of the divine act, according to Rahner, one must invoke the category of selfhood rather than essence or nature. What God communicates is no less than God's very self. The incarnation of the Son and the descent of the Spirit are the fore-described as "the inner, mutually related moments of the one self-communication, through which God (the Father) communicates himself unto the world in absolute proximity."⁴⁹ It is characteristic of Rahner's scheme that the communicator is the Father and so, since the communication is a self-communication, the self in question is that of the Father. The question is that "by which the Father communicates *himself*."⁵⁰

If, however, unoriginatedness and fatherhood are identical, a self-communication becomes logically impossible. The reason is straightforward: unoriginatedness is, by definition, incommunicable. It represents that in God which cannot be answered

⁴⁸ "Theos," p. 134.

⁴⁹ *Trinity*, p. 85.

⁵⁰ *Trinity*, p. 102.

mitted and the permanent logical bar to the very possibility of a complete self-communication. Moreover, to the extent that unoriginatedness and self-communication pull apart, the Unoriginated looks more and more like something pre-personal, something for which the category of selfhood does not obviously apply. It is more like a pre-personal source of trinitarian personality.

Indeed, Rahner appears to link God's transcendence with unoriginatedness and God's immanence with self-communication. Distance and inaccessibility are associated with unoriginatedness while nearness or closeness are predicates of the self-communication.⁵¹ As a consequence, the reconciliation of divine transcendence and divine immanence is worked out with his account of the being of the Father. The struggle is evident in Rahner's insistence on preserving God's "absolute integrity" even within the self-communication. That is, divine transcendence, is preserved by claiming that even in the self-communication the Father remains "the unoriginated, who keeps to himself, who remains the incomprehensible"⁵² or, a bit more pointedly, "stays the one who is free, incomprehensible"⁵³ a word, Insofar as unoriginatedness represents a logical bar to divine transcendence and divine immanence end up being played off one another; transcendence competes with God's capacity for fellowship.

Status of the Self-Communication Rahner argues that,

⁵¹ Rahner, for example, regularly contrasts God as "the distant, incomprehensible and asymptotic term of our transcendence" and God as "present in the mode of closeness" in the self-communication. See *Foundations of Christian Faith*, trans. William V. Dych (New York: Crossroad, 1978), p. 119. Hereafter cited as *Foundations*.

⁵² *Trinity*, p. 640

⁵³ *Trinity*, p. 84. See also the analogy between self-communication and the experience of transcendence in *Foundations* (pp. 121-2). Rahner argues about the term of transcendence and, by extension, God in the self-communication that "while it is what is innermost in this movement, it also remains absolutely beyond and absolutely untouched by this transcendental movement."

given the self-communication, the Unoriginate is disclosed to be the Father. The transition from total unoriginatedness, philosophy's abdoot, to concrete unoriginatedness is effected by appeal to the act of self-communication. Even though it grasps the Unoriginate, philosophy does not perceive that the Unoriginate is in fact the Father. Why not? Presumably because, as Rahner emphatically insists, the Unoriginate is both incomprehensible and free. No merely *a priori* construction can deduce any free act. *A fortiori*, the act of self-communication cannot be deduced from the concept of the Unoriginate. No logical entailment can span the transition from total to concrete unoriginatedness or fatherhood. Thereby the "absolute freedom" and the "irreducible facticity" of the self-communication is preserved. It is only "experienced as an event in plllre facticity, it cannot be deduced from another point, and as such again it J.'remains a mystery." ⁵⁵

Since it cannot be deduced, one must look to history to determine whether or not a self-communication has indeed taken

This is what Christianity does. It affirms that God has been operative historically in Jesus Christ and in the bestowal of the Spirit upon believers. The incarnation and the descent of the Spirit, however, are facts gleaned from history and, insofar as they are historical facts, represents contingent states of affairs. It could always have been otherwise. If the self-communication is a purely contingent state of affairs, the act of self-communication cannot qualify or determine the very being of God *in se*. So Rahner insists that;

Between *a priori* deduction and merely *a posteriori* gathering of random facts, there exists a middle way: the recognition of what is experienced *a posteriori* as transcendently necessary, because it has to be, because it cannot be mere facticity, whatever the reasons from which this necessity may be inferred.⁵⁶

⁵⁴ *Trinity*, p. 88, note 10.

⁵⁵ *Trinity*, p. 88, note 10. Note the close connection between freedom and mystery.

⁵⁶ *Trinity*, p. 100, note 18.

On the other hand, if the self-communication stamps God essentially *in se* there is an immanent trinity. And, to the extent that "God" signifies the unoriginate origin in the first place, only if the self-communication intrinsically and necessarily determines the Unoriginate is that Unoriginate essentially or necessarily the Father.

The status of the self-communication therefore, bears on the nature of the identity of the Unoriginate and the Father. If Rahner insists, as he does, on the freedom of the self-communicative act, he is forced to admit that the Unoriginate is free to be Father or not, free to be concrete or not, and, by extension, free to be a trinity or not. If Rahner insists, as he also does, on the necessity of the self-communication, he is forced to concede its deducibility from the concept of the Unoriginate rendering it thereby rationally (i.e., comprehensible). That is, if the self-communication essentially or necessarily characterizes the Unoriginate, philosophy could not grasp that Unoriginate without grasping it precisely as Father. What Rahner wants to affirm is the identity of unoriginate-ness and otherhood as well as the non-deducibility of the self-communication. But that puts him in the bind of saying that one and the same act is both necessary and free. To be sure, in Rahner's thought the principal stress falls on the freedom and sovereignty of the unoriginate God. This emphasis, together with the simultaneous assertion of the God's freedom and necessity, means that the self-communicative act has the status of a 'necessary accident' in God; so too, the identity of the Unoriginate and the Father is a 'necessary accident.'⁵⁷

Rahner does not claim that the unoriginate God and the self-communication do not "simply coincide . . . in lifeless identity."⁵⁸ The appeal to the category of life at just this juncture

⁵⁷ The complete argument for this claim exceeds the scope of this essay. Suffice it to say, it would involve careful attention to Rahner's account of freedom, especially the relation between freedom and eternity, as well as to his account of the being of the Holy Spirit and its role within the Trinity.

⁵⁸ *Trinity*, p. 84.

is tantalizing. Nevertheless, Rahner settles for the negative form, the denial of a fileless identity, rather than provide a positive account of what the divine life itself consists in. Not surprisingly, he avoids the obvious positive move, viz. the simple equation of that life with the act of self-communication so that it comprises God's very being. In a slightly different context, when attempting to reconcile God's distance (or transcendence) and God's nearness (or immanence as self-communicating), Rahner says that the two "coincide in a way which subsumes both-term and object-and their difference into a more original and ultimate unity which can no longer be distinguished conceptually."⁵⁹ Again there is an appeal to a coinciding and a species of identity. This time the coincidence itself is described as: conceptually impenetrable. Presumably the same holds true for the coincidence of necessity and freedom. In the absence of a positive account of their compatibility, the coincidence is indistinguishable conceptually from a 'necessary accident'.

An Abyss. I would like to conclude this discussion by making a further interpretive proposal, even though I cannot fully argue its aptness within the parameters of this essay. Rahner's distinctive claim about the identity of the unoriginate Father, coupled with the several *aporias* argued to be attendant upon that claim, generates the hypothesis of an abyss lying behind the Father. Consider the evidence.

Rahner's position relies on a dialectical interplay between Father and unoriginatedness, between the Unoriginate and the Father. They are to be both distinguished and identified. A sharp logical break is marked between them. That hiatus cannot be spanned conceptually. Thought cannot bridge it, for incomprehensibility is a predicate of the Unoriginate. Only a completely free act which, as such, is non-deducible can surmount the logical hiatus and effect the transition. Christianity, proclaiming that a divine self-communication has

⁵⁹ *Foundations*, p. 119.

taken place, confesses the Unoriginated to be the Father of Jesus Christ.

In effect, philosophy mounts to an abyss, to what it recognizes reflection cannot encompass but only endlessly approach in an asymptotic fashion. That abyss is subsequently identified, from the standpoint of Christian faith, with the unoriginatedness taken to be distinctive of the Father within Trinitarian theology. Total unoriginatedness, insofar as it points to the underlying illihood of uncreatedness and unbegottenness, already moves in the direction of an abyss, an ontologically formless *prius*. This move, baptizing the abyss by identifying it with trinitarian unoriginatedness, underwrites Rahner's reconciliation of faith and reason, theological and philosophical first principles.

Conversely, however, the reinterpretation of the traditional notion of innascibility through the category of the abyss creates problems within Christian theology. An abyss is incomprehensible to its actions, if and insofar as it acts, 'are non-deducible: its will is inscrutable and unpredictable. Formlessly, the abyss can never be completely identified with any state of affairs grounded in it or, to use a different metaphor, with any action springing from it. When, therefore, Rahner tries to identify the philosophical abyss with the Father of Christian faith through a reinterpreted notion of innascibility, he runs up against the abyss's imperviousness to any concrete determination like fatherhood. In Rahner's language, the dialectical transition from "total" to "concrete" unoriginatedness cannot finally be made.⁶⁰ Thereby

⁶⁰ The hypothesis of an abyss shows where Rahner seeks to distance himself from Hegel without reverting to a pre-critical metaphysics. It is not the destiny of the abyss to become subject, as is the case for 'substance' with Hegel. Schelling's version of romantic idealism comes closest to providing Rahner with a philosophical vehicle. (An essay well worth pondering in this connection is Emil Fackenheim's "Schelling's Conception of Positive Philosophy," *The Review of Metaphysics* 7 [1953-54]: 563-82.) The trinitarian price to be paid, however, is no less heavy than what comes with electing the Hegelian option. The upshot of coupling an abyss with a self-communicative act is a trinitarian theology, and that is no advance over Absolute Spirit,

the abyss of communication suspended over the abyss, seems at best a necessary accident and, along with it, the fatherhood of God. The abyss, not the Father, is the ultimate source of the entire Trinity (immanent as well as economic) and of the created order. **It** becomes the condition of possibility of the immanent trinity. Solitariness rather than fellowship threatens to be the final word about God.

JOHN COURTNEY MURRAY'S PROBLEMATIC
INTERPRETATIONS OF LEO XIII AND THE
AMERICAN FOUNDERS

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"Useful falsehoods are dangerous things,
often costing something down the road."

Garry Wills

IN THE PROLOGUE to his provocative study of the Declaration of Independence, Garry Wills claims Abraham Lincoln distorted Thomas Jefferson's document for purposes. Amid the tumult of civil war, Lincoln encouraged Americans to "dedicate" themselves to the "proposition that all men are created equal," because on this basis their "fathells" had originally "conceived" the nation "four score and seven years" earlier.

In fact, says Wills, the signers employed the word "not to denote an attribute of individual persons but rather to describe the severed colonies' political standing vis-a-vis the mother country. Nor did the Declaration conceive a nation: "if anything, July 4, 1776, produced two new nations."¹

Lincoln's reiteration of the Declaration of Independence at Gettysburg bore both benefits and costs. It emboldened the Union in resolving the war and inspired a new nation in the aftermath. Yet it also, thinks Wills, promoted the false notion that the Declaration contains a coherent political "doctrine," a doctrine one must adopt "in order to be an American." In addition, it transformed the Puritan ideal of a "city set on a

¹ Garry Wills, *Inventing America: Jefferson's Declaration of Independence* (New York: Vintage Books, Random House, 1978), pp. xiii-xvi.

hilltop "It is a theory of American manifest destiny—" a belief in our extraordinary birth" as a "nation apart," with an obligation to "save the world."²

This paper argues that an analogous situation exists in the way the Roman Catholic theologian John Courtney Murray used the encyclical teachings of Leo XIII and the founding documents of the American republic. From 1945 to 1967, Murray presented powerful and yet flawed interpretations of these texts to advance two momentous projects: doctrinal recognition of religious freedom by the Roman Catholic Church and social recognition of a link between Catholic and American political thought. It is important to identify these flaws because, like Lincoln's reading of the Declaration, Murray's interpretations have not only enhanced but also handicapped contemporary Roman Catholic social ethics.

The argument will proceed in three steps. First, Murray's case for Catholic approval of religious freedom and American political thought will be outlined. As the shifts and increasing complexity of Murray's thinking on these matters have been amply demonstrated by others, only a distillation of his thought will be offered here.³ Second, an argument for Murray's misinterpretation of both Leo XIII's encyclical teachings and American political thought will be presented. The purpose will not be to invalidate outstanding achievements in American Catholic social ethics but to establish the grounds for challenging it in step three. This final step will focus in on two persistently influential yet problematic dimensions of his work: the organic theory of doctrinal development and the Catholic incorporation of American liberalism.

² Ibid., pp. xix-xxii.

³ See J. Leon Hooper, *The Ethics of Discourse: The Social Philosophy of John Courtney Murray* (Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University Press, 1986); Thomas T. Love, *John Courtney Murray: Contemporary Church-State Theory* (New York: Doubleday, 1965); Robert W. McElroy, *The Search for an American Public Theology: The Contribution of John Courtney Murray* (New York: Paulist Press, 1989); Donald E. Pelotte, *John Courtney Murray: Theologian in Context* (New York: Paulist Press, 1975).

The Two Projects

Murray's work in ethics and public affairs covered a wide range of topics, resulting in a prodigious output of over 130 magazine and journal articles in thirty-five years. His two projects, religious freedom and Catholic compatibility with American political thought, constitute over a third of this corpus. The following offers an encapsulated version of each argument.

Religious Freedom

In thirteen *Theological Studies* articles from 1945 to 1966, John Courtney Murray turned mainstream Roman Catholic teaching about religious freedom on its head. He claimed that the public expression of an individual's religious faith was morally acceptable on grounds internal to Catholicism itself. But what of Pope Leo XIII's nineteenth century support for Catholic confessional states and for the banning of an individual's public expression of non-Catholic religion? Murray said that this was "consequent upon social fact and social necessities of the historical, not theological, order," a position taken to protect church freedom against attacks by Europe's newly constituted, anti-clerical nation-states.⁴

Murray focused the non-contingent core of Catholic thought on religious freedom in three interrelated ideas: the distinction between state and society, the freedom of the church, and the dignity of the person. Each idea crystallized at different times in his thought, reaching mutual reinforcement during and after the religious freedom debates at Vatican II.

By 1951, Murray felt a critical element in understanding

⁴ John Courtney Murray, "Leo XIII: Two Concepts of Government," *Theological Studies* 14 (December 1953) : 556. *Theological Studies* is hereafter cited *TS* and article authors and titles will be given only in the first citation. See also his "The Church and Totalitarian Democracy," *TS* 13 (December 1952) : 551; "Leo XIII on Church and State: The General Structure of the Controversy," *TS* 14 (March 1953) : 13; and "Leo XIII: Two Concepts of Government, II Government and the Order of Culture," *TS* 15 (March 1954) : 15.

reiligious :freedom was the d:istiTI!ctionbetween state and so-
 ciety. The :state neither embodies society as a whole nor as-
 sumes responsihllity for .all of its needs. Instead, it is but one
 social institution among many and has one principa;l task: :to
 preserV'epublic order by wadministering essenrtialleveis of peace,
 moraility, iand justice. Oare for the total common good of so-
 "includes all the sooiaJ.goods, spiritual and mollal
 as well as material, which man pursues here on earth in ac-
 oord with :the demands of his personal and sociaJ.nature" -is
 the province not of the state lrulone,but of aH the social institu-
 tions (family, church, business firm, voluntary ais-
 sociation, ista:te) functioning freeJy, cooperativieily, and ap-
 propriately in their distinct arieas of ioompetence.⁵

In his iseareih for an example of this distinction in papal
 encyclicals, Murray ladmritredthat "up fo [Leo XIII's] *Rerum
 novarum*, rthe trdutional distirction between ,society and state
 is obscured." ⁶ But in tihis encyclical the distinction surfaces
 when the pope describes :the powe["of the :state in the economic
 order as "strictly limited" rto grav:e :social emergencies to
 which no other social unit can adequately l"espond. Murray
 used tthe folilowingquotations from the encyclical: " The law
 ought not to undertake more, nor ought it go farther, than the
 remedy of evils or the removatl of danger requires," and " Let
 the state protect these lawfully rassociated bodies of citizens.;
 but let it not intrude into their internal .affairs and order of
 liife." Leo XIII's use of a more " paternal " and less " prop-
 eruy political " notion of the state [n otiher letters was a func-
 tion not of his prIDcipJes but of " the hisbo:rical conditions
 which this particular pope confronted." ⁷

With the help of this distinction between stwte and society,
 Mrurray argruedthat direct care for the spiritual good of lsociety

⁵ John Courtney Murray, "The Problem of Religious Freedom," *TB* 25
 (December 1964): 528. See also his "The Problem of State Religion," *TS*
 12 (June 1951) : 158, n. 6.

⁶ John Courtney Murray, " The Issue of Church and State at Vatican
 Council II," *TB* 27 (December 1966): 586.

⁷ *TS* 14 (December 1953) : 551-54.

depends not on the state but on religious individuals and institutions. "The Church and the churches, and various voluntary associations for religious purposes" should be neither impeded nor directly aided by the state.⁸ While the state should show concern for the religious condition of society, its *cura religionis* must go no farther than preserving juridical conditions "to the free profession and practice of religion" by the people (the *cura libertatis religionis*) and their religious institutions (including Roman Catholic concern for the *cura libertatis Ecclesiae*).⁹

Murray found arguments against state coercion of religious institutions in "60 or more documents of Leo XIII" and saw an argument against direct state aid for religion in the pope's *Sapientiae christianae* statement that "the governance of souls (*regimen animorum*) is committed to the church alone, in such wise that the political power has no part in it at all." From this, Murray concluded that

When the pope says 'no part at all,' it is to be presumed that he means 'no part at all.' Not even therefore an instrumental part. Consequently, when one finds in history the civil power playing a part in the governance of souls, one can be sure that other factors were at work beyond the exigencies of principle; they were factors inherent in special historical circumstances.¹⁰

From the beginning of his deliberations on religious freedom, Murray considered the basic issue "the freedom of the human person to reach God."¹¹ But not until he established the identity and relative autonomies of state and church did he

⁸ *TS* 25 (December 1964): 528. See also *TS* 27 (December 1966): 598.

⁹ *TS* 27 (December 1966): 598. See also John Courtney Murray, "Contemporary Orientations of Catholic Thought on Church and State in the Light of History," *TS* 10 (June 1949): 189; *TS* 12 (June 1951): 173, n. 17; *TS* 25 (December 1964): 528.

¹⁰ On state coercion, see *TS* 12 (June 1951): 156; and *TS* 27 (December 1966): 593. On state aid, see *TS* 14 (June 1953): 204; and *TS* 27 (December 1966): 606.

¹¹ John Courtney Murray, "Freedom of Religion: I. The Ethical Problem," *IS* 6 (June 1945): 236.

amplify this dimension of the problem. This process helped him understand how the dignity of the person (rooted in humanity's God-given rationality and freedom) requires that individuals be allowed the freedom to negotiate the claims of citizenship and religiosity in their own consciences and not have these claims negotiated for them in enactments between states and churches. Thus, the state is not to promote religious truth for individuals, but to protect the individual's right to pursue such truth; the church may facilitate this pursuit through its duty to "teach, rule, and sanctify," but it may not enlist the state in these activities, lest individual consciences be coerced. "No argument can be made today," said Murray, "that would validate the legal institution of religious intolerance."¹²

Murray identified "the truth of the dignity of the human person" as "part of the Catholic position from the beginning," though it did not "emerge as determinant of social and political doctrine" until Leo XIII's *Rerum novarum*.¹³ Another important step was Leo XIII's *Immortale Dei* which defined the person as both "citizen and also Christian." "Leo XIII was implicitly saying," wrote Murray, "that the human person by his action as Christian and citizen ought to be the instrument and agent of establishing this harmony in actual fact."¹⁴

Murray held that these three ideas undergirding religious freedom were implicit in Leo XIII, further elucidated in the writings of Pius XI, Pius XII, and John XXIII, and fully manifested in Vatican II's *Dignitatis humanae*. Few issues, thought Murray, gave greater evidence for the development of doctrine in the Roman Catholic Church than religious freedom.

¹² On the role of the church, see *TS* 12 (June 1951): 156. On intolerance, see *TS* 25 (December 1964): 570.

¹³ Edward Gaffney, "Religious Liberty and Development of Doctrine: An Interview with John C. Murray," *Catholic World*, February 1967, p. 278. See also *TS* 27 (December 1966): 586.

¹⁴ *TS* 10 (June 1949): 189, 220-22. See also *TS* 14 (June 1953): 209-11 and *TS* 27 (December 1966): 587.

American Political Thought

In the introduction and first two chapters of *We Hold These Truths*, John Courtney Murray argued that Roman Catholic thought the best intellectual base for the "American Proposition" contained in the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution, and the Bill of Rights. This assertion was based on four links he perceived between and the founding documents of the American republic.

First, he traced such American principles as the rule of law, the importance of consent of the governed, and the distinction between state and society back to the Christian political theory of medieval Europe. In the thirteenth century, for example, Henry of Bradon understood that the king was "under God and under the law" because "the law makes the king." Similarly, "the principle of consent was inherent in the medieval idea of kingship"; as an instance, Henry VI's Chief Justice insisted that the king "may set upon them [the people] no impositions without their consent [*sic*]." Finally, the distinction between state and society was apparent in the medieval differentiation between *studium* and *imperium*.¹⁵

Second, Murray felt that the Declaration, like Roman Catholic thought, assumes a "realist epistemology." Here, "the 'real' is the 'measure of knowledge' and human intelligence can reach 'the real, i.e., the nature of things.'" This epistemology was "made clear by the Declaration of Independence in the famous phrase: 'We hold these truths to be self-evident.'" In these words, the American founders presumed the Catholic notion of "objective truth, universal in its import" and "accessible to the reason of man."¹⁶

Murray also thought the Declaration shares with Catholicism a commitment to the moral theory of natural law. Both the Declaration and the Bill of Rights were "tributary to the

¹⁵ John Courtney Murray, *We Hold These Truths: Catholic Reflections on the American Proposition* (New York: Sheed and Ward, 1960), pp. 32-35.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. viii-ix and 327.

original responsibilities precisely as man, antecedent to his status as citizen." Here again, Catholicism and the Declaration draw on the "shared epistemology" that man is intelligent; that reality is intelligible; and that reality, as grasped by intelligence, imposes on the will the obligation that it be obeyed in its demands for action or abstention."¹⁷

The fourth link Murray recognized was mutual recognition of God. The Declaration, he wrote, "looks to the sovereignty of God as to the first principle of its organization." Like Catholicism, the American founders understood God as the "Creator of nature and the Master of his story."¹⁸

On the strength of these four links, Murray concluded that if a time came when either indifference or dissent eroded the principles of the Declaration,

The Catholic community would still be speaking in the ethical and political idiom familiar to them as it was familiar to their fathers, both the Fathers of the Church and the Fathers of the American Republic. The guardianship of the original American consensus, based on the Western heritage, would have passed to the Catholic community, within which the heritage was elaborated long before America was.¹⁹

Problematic Interpretations

But in arguing for Catholic recognition of the importance of religious freedom and of the value of American political thought, Murray presented flawed interpretations both of the encyclical teachings of Leo XIII and of the founding documents of the Republic.

The Encyclical Teachings of Leo XIII

Close analysis of the papal encyclical literature does not support the argument that Leo XIII recognized implicitly or explicitly the three non-contingent elements Murray con-

¹⁷ Ibid., pp. 37 and 109. ¹⁸ Ibid., pp. 28 and 37. ¹⁹ Ibid., pp. 42-43.

sidered essential to Catholic thought of religious freedom. Both a micro- and a macroscopic study of these letters rebuts Murray's claim.

When viewed in detail, the critical texts that Murray used do not sustain his argument. This is true, first of all, concerning Murray's distinction between state and society. When Leo XIII wrote "that the law ought not to undertake more . . . than the remedy of evils," he was addressing the state's response to specific social emergencies such as labor strikes, Sunday labor, or work-force oppression. In such cases, the state must offer assistance without assuming the responsibilities of the business firm itself; the latter would be an intrusion into an association's "internal affairs and order of life." In saying this, the pope was not—as Murray suggested—establishing a principle for the state's approach toward society under normal conditions. Leo XIII was clear on this matter: since the state's purpose is "to serve the common good," it must monitor social life in all its dimensions. The power of the state, he said in *Rerum novarum*, "should be exercised as the power of God is exercised—with the fatherly solicitude which not only guides the whole, but reaches also individuals."²⁰

Murray's second element concerned church freedom. When Leo XIII declared in *Sapientiae christianae* that the political power has "no part at all" in governing souls, he was referring to tasks specific to the church: the preaching of the Gospel; the practice of sacred rites; the distribution and discipline of ecclesiastical offices; the enactment and administration of canon law; and the support of religious congregations, associations, and institutions. Leo XIII was not saying—as Murray maintained—that the state should not assist the church in these tasks; he was stating that these are not the state's prerogatives. Two paragraphs farther along in the same letter, the pope noted: "in the public order itself of

²⁰ Leo XIII, *Rerum novarum*, 35. All encyclical references are taken from Claudia Carlen, ed., *The Papal Encyclicals*, 5 vols. ([Wilmington, N.C.]: McGrath Publishing Co., 1981), vol. 2.

states-which cannot be severed from the laws influencing morals and from religious duties---it is always urgent, and indeed the main preoccupation, to think how best to consult the interests of Catholicism."²¹

Finally, as to Murray's identification of the concept of human dignity as a "determinant of social and political doctrine" in Leo XIII, the pope nowhere employed this concept as a philosophical or theological ground for understanding human conscience. In *Rerum novarum*, Leo XIII did refer to human dignity three times, but in each case it is without elaboration, and in each case he associated it, not (like Murray) with human nature, but with "Christian character." Similarly, in *Immortale Dei*, when Leo XIII described the human person as both "citizen and also Christian," he did not mean to suggest that the truth claims of state and church should be adjudicated solely in individual conscience. Quite the opposite. Leo XIII used this idea to indicate how important it was for state and church to cooperate "inasmuch as each of these two powers has authority over the same subjects."²²

On a general level, the total thrust of Leo XIII's communications across 86 encyclicals/letters runs counter to Murray's claims. As can be seen from the perspective of his entire corpus, Leo XIII held that all state authority comes from God for the "welfare of those whom it governs." This requires care of people's "external well-being" and "the welfare of men's souls," respectively called the "proximate" and "remote" ends of government. Church and state have joint jurisdiction over remote ends such as marriage, education, and public censorship. But because the church possesses primary authority over matters of the soul, state regulation in these areas must follow church teaching. Thus, the state should "the Catholic Church since" the profession of one

²¹ Leo XIII, *Sapientiae christiana*, 29.

²² On human dignity, see Leo XIII, *Rerum novarum*, 20. On the two powers, see *Immortale Dei*, 13.

religion is necessary in <the state" and the religion prudently professed must be that " which alone is true." ²³

Underlying this teaching was Leo XIII's firm commitment to Thomas Aquinas's architectonic vision of all things emanating from God, sustained by God, and returning to God through Jesus Christ. This vision included a model of the world as a hierarchy of created entities moving through space and time by virtue of ordered causes. This movement is not random, but reflects--however obliquely--God's embedded purposes for the world. From this perspective, Leo XIII believed " the principle of civil and religious power is one and the same, namely, God. Therefore, there can be no discord between them ... for God cannot be at variance with Himself." ²⁴

But Leo XIII also recognized two facts. First, the of institutional priority being granted the Roman Catholic Church in traditionally non-Catholic states was remote. Second, church insistence that Catholic citizens press for such institutional status in states could cause more harm than good. As a result, out of considerations of expedience, he did accept situations of less than optimal church status. In *Libertas*, 33, he

, .. while not conceding any right to anything save what is true and honest, she [the Church] does not forbid public authority to tolerate what is at variance with truth and justice, for the sake of avoiding some greater evil, or of obtaining or preserving some greater good.

From both a micro- and a macroscopic perspective, John Courtney Murray presented a flawed interpretation of the papal texts and proposed an argument for religious freedom in

²³ Leo XIII, *Libertas*, 21; and *Sapientiae christianae*; 25 and 29. See also *Licet multa*, 3; *Nobilissima gentium*, 2; *Immortale Dei*, 4, 6-7, 10.

²⁴ Leo XIII, *Officio sanctissimo*, 13. See also *Quod apostolici muneris*, 10; *Arcanum*, 36; *Immortale Dei*, 32; *Sapientiae christianae*, 5-6, 11. On creation and causality, see *Officio sanctissimo*, 8; *Libertas*, 15; *Rerum novarum*, 6 and 22; *Divinum Officium*, 3. On purposiveness, see *Arcanum*, 25; *Immortale Dei*, 4; *Au milieu des sollicitudes*, 6.

direct opposition to the teachings of Leo XIII. Leo XIII's support for the Catholic confessional state and for banning an individual's public expression of non-Catholic religion cannot be explained away by appeals to historical contingency; these were his principles.

Oatholicism and the " American Proposition "

When Murray proposed his argument for the compatibility of Catholic and American thought, disagreement surfaced not only from scholars accustomed to be wary of the Catholic presence in the United States but also from some academics otherwise sympathetic to Catholicism. An example of the latter is Edward " Essay " John Courtney Murray: "Historicism as an Antidote," published in his *Peter and Caesar: The Catholic Church and Political Authority* (New York: Herder and Herder, 1965). Although the entirety of his argument will not be discussed here, one of his points is particularly apropos.

Contemporary scholarship on the intellectual and historical context of the founding documents also calls several of Murray's claims into question. We will retrace, once again, to Garry Wills's *Inventing America*.

If Goerner and Wills are correct, Murray's four links between Catholic thought and the founding documents of the American republic cannot hold. As to Murray's first claim that American political thought is rooted in the Christian political theory of medieval Europe, Goerner insisted that the remote origin of early American political thought was not the medieval period but Greek and Roman civilization. The alternative, wrote Goerner, is a "noble, Platonic tale that Murray tells with a view to taming the excesses of both Catholics and non-Catholics so that they can live together."²⁵ For the proximate intellectual origin of the American republic, Wills

²⁵ E. A. Goerner, *Peter and Caesar: The Oath of Obedience and Political Authority* (New York: Herder and Herder, 1965), p. 182.

cites the founders' "special affinity" with the English revolutionaries of the 17th century who celebrated the fact that they "ousted a Catholic incumbent" from the throne.²⁶

Contrary to Murray's second claim that Catholicism and the American founders share a realist epistemology, Wills notes that Jefferson-like the bulk of his contemporaries was a Lockean empiricist. For Jefferson, reason discerns not the ends and purposes of human action (as in Thomistic realism) but the means necessary to ends proposed by human desire; reason is not a "principle of action" but a "still and receptive" faculty assigned the tasks either of "simply registering reality" or of making practical choices.²⁷

But what of Jefferson's "self-evident truths" which Murray identified with Catholic natural law moral theory? From Jefferson's perspective, these were not laws discovered within natural reason but affective sentiments of benevolence issued from the human heart. On this basis, the Declaration is far from a natural law document; instead, it reflects the moral sense theory of the Scottish Enlightenment. In this theory, morality is a matter of aesthetics, not dialectics. Thus, Wills asserts that Jefferson's ethical theory (following Francis Hutcheson) was not linked to natural law but to "the moral sense as a separate faculty."²⁸

Finally, the deistic beliefs of Jefferson and many of his political contemporaries were a far cry from Roman Catholic theism. Although Jefferson's deism—unlike Toland's—incorporated a "religion of the heart," his appeal to God in the Declaration would scarcely support Murray's belief in a mutual recognition of God between Catholicism and the American founders. Jefferson, writes Wills, "left no room for divine revelation" and "identified Europe with superstition because of the Catholic church."²⁹

Murray's argument that Roman Catholic thought undergirded the founding political documents of America cannot be

²⁶ Wills, *Inventing America*, p. 99.

²⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 194.

²⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 199.

²⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 160, 182, 283.

sustained. He misread the founding documents in that he situated them at too great a distance from their classical and Enlightenment origins. Throughout his life, Murray agonized over the prospect of America departing from its "doctrine," but, like Lincoln, he missed the extent to which this doctrine was of his own making.

Handicaps

John Courtney Murray endowed Roman Catholic social ethics with a rich, substantial legacy. But over the years, general acceptance of his interpretations of Leo XIII and the American Founders has served to endorse two elements of this legacy that he challenged. These are his magmatic theory of doctrinal development and the Catholic incorporation of American liberalism.

Development of Doctrine

In his commentary on Vatican II's Declaration on Religious Freedom, Pietro Pavan says the Council would have rejected *Dignitatis humanae* had Murray not "put in evidence" its continuity with "the teaching of the Catholic Church."³⁰ But this essay shows that Murray's concept of religious freedom was not in continuity with the teachings of Leo XIII. The problem, however, is not discontinuity but the way he argues for continuity.

Murray's interest in the impact of historical context and change on church teaching made for a more sophisticated approach toward doctrinal development than that held by many of his contemporaries. Beyond simple elucidation through gradual intellectual clarification, doctrines also develop dialectically, "by a *ressourcement*, a creative return to the sources

³⁰ Pietro Pavan, "Ecumenism and Vatican II's Declaration on Religious Freedom," in *Religious Freedom: 1965 and 1975: A Symposium on a Historic Document*, ed. Walter J. Burghardt, Woodstock Studies 1 (New York: Paulist Press, 1977), p. 14.

of the tradition, "a review of traditional doctrine within a new perspective created by history."³¹

Yet, the heart of Murray's theory-like that of Bernard Lonergan, from whom he borrowed-retains what Joseph Stephen O'Leary calls the "total acceptance of the Aristotelian myth of a necessary progression from mythos to logos."³² Even with his sensitivity to history, Murray remains committed to the organic dictum that "living things grow without surrendering their identities."³³ Or, as Pavan describes it:

Between repetition and contradiction '*datur tertium*,' there is a third possibility: unfolding from within. What our Lord said of the kingdom of heaven can be said analogically of Christian socio-political doctrine: it is a seed which becomes a tree.³⁴

The organic theory of doctrinal development handicaps Roman Catholic social ethics in two ways. It masks the "discontinuities, the flaws, the tentative and makeshift quality, the weddible pluralism" of church discourse on social ethics.³⁵ Thus, Murray's success at Vatican II has allowed Catholics to overlook the reality of substantive conflict and contradiction in church teaching. What Catholics need to do is to develop the theological capacity to concede ecclesial error.

The organic theory also requires that new ethical insights be justified by showing connections with earlier church utterances. Making such connections a requirement draws scholars perilously close to what O'Leary calls a "hermeneutics of

³¹ TS 25 (December 1964): 534. See also John Courtney Murray, "Vers une intelligence du développement de la doctrine de l'Eglise sur la liberté religieuse," in *Vatican II: La Liberté Religieuse*, ed. J. Hamer and Y. Cougar (Paris: Les Editions du Cerf, 1967), p. 114.

³² Joseph Stephen O'Leary, "The Hermeneutics of Dogmatism," *Irish Theological Quarterly*, 41 (1980): 108.

³³ William E. Reiser, *What are They Saying About Dogma?* (New York: Paulist Press, 1978), p. 34.

³⁴ Pavan, "Ecumenism and Vatican II," p. 14.
 as O'Leary, "Dogmatism," p. 112.

transparent circularity."⁸⁶ Even Murray entered this circle on occasion: "The answer [to the question of religious freedom] must be new," he wrote, "because the question *is* new. The answer must also be traditional, because it is the answer of the Old Church."³⁷

American Liberalism

Though the case for the compatibility of Catholicism and American political thought is flawed, this argument persists, buoyed by the substantial participation of Catholics in political life and the tremendous material success of the American elite. The sanguine alignment in most Catholics' minds between American liberalism and Roman Catholicism is, in part, a problematic legacy of Murray's work.

American liberalism is a form of classical Enlightenment liberalism nuanced by America's unique social experiences of westward expansion and unprecedented economic growth. Despite differences, both forms of liberalism share a core understanding of the self and society. According to S. I. Benn, "the model of the natural person presupposed by liberalism is that of a self-governing chooser"; or, paraphrasing J. S. Mill, the person is "self-determining, self-developing, and autonomous."³⁸ The liberal idea of society is a body of individuals "not for itself, or for anything intrinsic to the cooperative activity, but only for what each believes he would get out of it." In this model, the individual's commitment to the group will "always be conditional, and derive from his own standards"; complete commitment to a community would constitute "abdication of autonomous judgement."³⁹ Drawing from this core understanding of self

⁸⁶ Ibid., p. 98.

³⁷ *TS* 25 (December, 1964): 523.

³⁸ S. I. Benn, "Individuality, Autonomy, and Community," in *Community as a Social Ideal*, ed. Eugene Kamenka (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1982), p. 44 and 46.

³⁹ Ibid., pp. 44, 49, 57.

and society, America's unique experiences with westward expansion and economic growth have only tended to amplify this emphasis on individual self-reliance and social pragmatism.

The understandings of self and society offered in the encyclical social teachings of the Roman Catholic Church do not conform to these liberal models. Beginning with Benedict XIV (1740-1758), through Leo XIII, and up to John Paul II, the popes have understood the self as embedded in the community. From this perspective, the person is defined, in part, by "the totality of its relations with other beings and, particularly, with other selves."⁴⁰ Given these relations, the Catholic self—unlike the "radically unencumbered" liberal self—possesses what Allen Buchanan calls "special non-voluntary obligations." Admittedly, the popes have not always explained the origin of these obligations in the same way. While God's will is always identified as the ultimate origin of moral obligation, this will is sometimes mediated through territorial customs (the eighteenth-century position), sometimes through cosmological nature (Leo XIII's position), and sometimes through an affective sense of solidarity (the predominant position since Vatican II).⁴¹

Unlike largely procedural or functionalist understandings of society, the popes have argued for a 'diakonic' model wherein social roles and powers are hierarchically ordered for the purpose of mutual aid. Like their explanation of the self, the popes' model of society has had several interpretations: some rooted in appeals to custom, others to nature, still others to affection.

In short, Murray's association of Catholic and American political thought involved two serious misunderstandings. First, his work blurred the degree to which central features of American liberalism are at cross purposes with the communi-

⁴⁰ Roberto Mangabeira Unger, *Knowledge and Politics* (New York: The Free Press, 1975), p. 216.

⁴¹ Allen E. Buchanan, "Assessing the Communitarian Critique of Liberalism," *Ethics* 99 (July 1989): 872.

tarian tradition of Catholic social ethics reflected in the encyclical teachings of the church. Second, his assumption that Roman Catholicism not only 'can' but 'must' bolster the "American Proposition" foreclosed the question as to whether or not it should. It may be that a Roman Catholic community's social ethic makes for an inherently bad civil religion by the standards of American liberalism. It may likewise be that Catholicism provides not a "vapid image of the communal past" as in Robert Bellah's *Habits of the Heart* but a substantive challenge to the official presuppositions of American society.⁴²

Conclusion

One can argue that Abraham Lincoln distorted the Declaration of Independence. This paper has argued that, in a similar fashion, John Comitney Murray presented powerful and yet flawed interpretations of the teachings of Leo XIII and the founding documents of the American Republic. His aim was to advance the doctrinal acknowledgment of religious freedom by the Roman Catholic Church and public recognition of a link between Catholic and American political thought. But his interpretations of these texts have also meant the persistence of a theory of doctrinal development blind to error and an insufficiently critical appropriation of liberalism in modern Catholic social thought.

⁴² Criticism of Bellah is in Paul G. King, Kent Maynard, and David O. Woodyard, eds., *Risking Liberation: Middle Class Powerlessness and Political Heroism*, Foreword by Donald W. Shriver, Jr. (Atlanta: John Knox Press, 1988), p. 20.

A WAY OF LOOKING AT HEIDEGGER

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IN THE FOLLOWING essay I want to examine some of the basic aspects of Heidegger from something of a "transcendental Thomist" perspective, as represented by Bernard Lonergan's "generalized empirical method." I believe that there are a number of important insights to be gained from Heidegger's work but that it contains a few very perilous oversights as well. To my mind, Heidegger shows with more conviction and power than any other thinker how our anxieties and our trivial everyday concerns are apt to shut us out from apprehending the deep mystery of things, and how great art and poetry, together with a sustained thinking-through of the nature of consciousness and of the world which it reveals, have the power of opening up this mystery to us again. I also agree with Heidegger when he says that the technical languages of the sciences and of traditional metaphysics as well as, to a considerable extent, means for the domination and control of things by human beings, and, in consequence, they are a standing pretext for self-deception about the real nature of the world and of ourselves within it.

But I will argue that Heidegger overlooks the fact that the specialized languages of science and traditional metaphysics have other and other possibilities. They may be an expression and result of wonder; they may even convey a grasp of a veiled intelligible world made known to us by inquiry into the everyday world available to common sense and described by ordinary language. What appears to be a view of scientific and metaphysical language (almost always a means to control and domination) presents us

in effect with a terrible dilemma: we must either abandon the scientific world-view along with the enormous benefits which it has conferred on humankind, or we must resign ourselves to existence in a world conceived in a way which is utterly hostile to the life of the human spirit. I believe that this dilemma does not exhaust the possibilities, that science and traditional metaphysics, on the one hand, and the life of the spirit, on the other, may greatly enhance one another when both are properly related to their basis in human consciousness.

I

In this section, I shall outline what I take to be Heidegger's views on human beings and their consciousness, the nature of truth, the world of "things" which is given to consciousness, and the role of art in restoring our vision of how "things" really are when this has been obscured or corrupted.

It is specifically human nature, as concerned with the world and capable of raising questions about it, which Heidegger refers to as *Dasein*. "In which being, the meaning of Being to be found; from which being is the disclosure of Being to get its start?"¹ The answer to the question can only be, "this being which we ourselves in each case are and which includes inquiry among the possibilities of its Being."² What must be most strenuously is any attempt to deal with *Dasein* in terms used to interpret other parts or aspects of the world, e.g., material objects and processes.³ All metaphysical questions must be approached explicitly on the basis of *Dasein* which is the subject of questioning, which questions.⁴ From

¹ Martin Heidegger, *Being and Time*. Citation from the edition by David F. Krell: Martin Heidegger, *Basic Writings* (New York: Harper and Row, 1977), 47.

² Heidegger, op. cit.; Krell, 48. Cf. Heidegger, *Being and Time* (London: SCM Press, 1962; BT in subsequent references), 36-40.

³ Cf. Krell, "Introduction," 19.

⁴ Heidegger, "What is Metaphysics?"; Krell, 95-6.

this point of view, one has to dismantle the conceptual apparatus which we take for granted, an apparatus wherein the answers are given or presupposed, but the questions are never experienced any more—least of all those about our own nature, destiny, and state in the world. In asking these questions, we must be constantly aware of the limitations which accrue from our particular historical situation.⁵ These were not sufficiently taken account of in the classical phenomenology of Husserl, with its "transcendental subjectivity" based on an allegedly "disinterested observer." For all its determination to "return to" the things themselves," this did not attend sufficiently to the manner in which its own aims and procedures were determined historically.⁶ Husserl, as he himself acknowledged, was very much in the tradition of Descartes, who was trying to find an unshakable basis for the practice of philosophy. But it is just this basis which Heidegger seeks to put into question.⁷ We have to ask what is the decisive matter for thinking: "Is it consciousness and its objectivity or is it the Being of beings in its unconcealedness and concealment?"⁸ Access to the things themselves is best thought of in true Greek fashion as "*aletheia*, the unconcealedness of what is present, its being revealed, its showing itself."⁹ (As he quite often does, Heidegger is here making capital out of an etymological point; "*aletheia*," the Greek word for "truth," is equivalent to "*alētheia*," concealment.)

So what is basic to truth, it must be inferred, is not the correctness of assertions, or their correspondence with states of affairs, or the agreement of subject and object expressed by them; it is the *self-showing* which is necessary for things if

⁵ Cf. Krell, "Introduction," 21.

⁶ Ibid., 13.

⁷ Cf. Walter Biemel, *Martin Heidegger* (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1977), 8-9; Krell, 31. On the alleged errors of Descartes, see BT 123-33.

⁸ Heidegger, *On Time and Being* (New York: Harper and Row, 1972), 79; Krell, 14.

⁹ Heidegger, loc. cit., Krell, 13.

they *larie* to become objects of assertions .at all.¹⁰ The fact is that .nilil (IO!'respon^{dence}," rude^{equation} "11 or whatev<er, between judgment run.cl state of affairs preSJUrpposes a discovery or revealing of bein:gissuch as aililowsthem to be seen.¹² The usual '3Jooountof truth, as :rucool'dancebetween :a ;statement or proposition on rthe one hand and a thing or state of affairs on the other, is not wt bottom inreililigibJ.e. Suppose I say of a five-mark COM that: it is rorund. How are statement and tllng supposed to be in laoord!anoe? Whrut are ialleged to be related to one another .are so diverse in their .appeairalllCeand const:itu^{tion}: rthe five-mark piece is round •and metallic, whereas the s:statement is neither iSprutial noc materi@l.¹³ What relation the'l'e is depends on a certain *bearing* or *comportment* on the part of the one who makes rlihe statement, which is" invested with its oorrectTI!essby the openness of comportment; for only through the latter can what is opened up rerully become the standMid for the rpresentative correspondence." ¹⁴ (What this amounts to, I think, is that the correspondence of statements with things :in which truth is .SiUpposed to reside depends in-elucta:bly on the openness of lconsciorus subjectivity towards things; :it is *that* in which truth fun:damentally consists.) So the wad:itionrul assumption ithat truth. belongs at bottom to statements or pmrpositions rums orut to be fa.Urucious!⁵ The openness of compo:r:tment which is essential to truth is in rliurn grotmded in .freedom; freeddom being a matter of " the resolute-,ly open :bearing that does not closeup in iitself" ¹⁶ ;and th.llls a matter of letting things be.¹⁷ 80 it was at the iheginning of :the Western :trad:ition, in G:rreek thought. " If we :translate " *al-etheia* " .as " unconcealment " rather than " truth," this trans-

¹⁰ Krell, 18; cf. Heidegger, " On the Essence of Truth," Krell 117ff.; and "The Origin of the Work of Art," Krell 173ff. See also BT 257-73.

¹¹ Cf. the scholastic tag to the effect that truth is "adequatio rei et intellectus," or "adequation of thing and intellect."

¹² Heidegger, " On the Essence of Truth"; Krell, 115.

¹³ Ibid., 122.

¹⁴ Ibid., 124.

¹⁵ Ibid., 125.

^{1s} Ibid., 133.

¹¹ Ibid., 127.

fation is not merely more literal; it contains the directive to re-think the ordinary concept of truth (in the sense of the correctness of statements) and to think it back to that still un-comprehended disclosedness and disclosure of being."¹⁸

Unfortunately, we are too prone to trade this free openness for the security of agreeing with "them," (that is, the thoughtless majority of people), with accepting without question whatever "they" say is true.¹⁹ There are besides so many things to seduce and distract us from attending to the presuppositions of all this secure "knowledge," whether it takes the guise of science or of religious faith; what are called "eternal truths" are apt to be nothing more than the most deeply in-

prejudicial.²⁰ The temptation becomes the greater when science has made such a wide range of things apparently familiar and well-known and when technical domination of the world may well appear virtually limitless. More authentic ways of knowing things tend ultimately to be no longer even a matter of indifference; they are simply forgotten. Everything becomes subjected to "the leveling and planning of this omniscience, this mere knowing."²¹ We distract ourselves further by proposing and planning on the basis of our latest needs and aims,²² thus fleeing from the basic mystery of things to what is readily available, "onward from one current thing to the next."²³ Even brutally a whole system of intellectual errors, with a long history of development, is built up;²⁴ and any thoughtful questioning of the system is dismissed as "an attack on, an unfortunate irritation of, common sense."²⁵

Obsession with manipulation and control is at the very bottom of our modern conception of what a "thing" is. Things are envisaged in modern Western thought as subjects of accidents or predicates, as mentally grasped unities of sense-im-

¹⁸ Ibid., 127-8.

¹⁹ Ibid., 115. On the "they", cf. BT 163-8.

²⁰ Krell, loc. cit.

^{2a} Ibid., 135.

²¹ Ibid., 131.

²⁴ Ibid., 136.

²² Ibid., 134.

²⁵ Ibid., 138.

pression:s, or as parcels of matter invested with form; all these conceptions reflect their origin in a specific kind of human activity, the use of tools or equipment. ²⁶ The original Greek experience of things was expressed (notably by Aristotle) in terms whose meanings were subtly but definitely affected in their translation by medieval scholars into Latin; this translation is by no means as innocent as it is usually taken to be. ²⁷ "Roman thought takes over the Greek worlds without a corresponding, equally original experience of what they say." Such is the origin of the rootlessness of thought in the modern West. ²⁸ It seems rash indeed to question the relation which is now so taken for granted between statements and things and between the structure of statements and the structure of things. yet we have to ask whether the subject-predicate statement is really the mirror-image of the structure of the thing (as substance characterized by accidents), or rather whether the structure of the thing is not merely a projection of the structure of the subject-predicate statement (as opposed to something existing in reality). ²⁹ And the mention of the matter does indeed indicate that the usual concept of the thing "does not lay hold of the thing as it is in its own being, but makes an assuit upon it."

It is true that people are occasionally struck by the suspicion that thought has done violence to things, but they react to this rather by disavowing thought than by being more thoughtful. Yet this reaction in favor of feeling or mood may in the last analysis be more reasonable, in the important sense of more intelligently perceptive and open to things, than the insensitive and domineering "rationality" which it is a reaction. ⁸⁰ According to one influential conception of the thing, what we perceive in the first instance is a mass of sen-

²⁶ Krell, 145; cf. *Being and Time*, sections 15-18.

²⁷ Heidegger, "The Origin of the Work of Art"; Krell, 153. For a sketch of the development and alleged distortion of Greek ontology through the history of European thought, see BT 43-4.

²⁸ Krell, 154.

²⁹ Loe. cit.

so Ibid., 155.

sations, on which we impose a unity--rather than something like a storm in a chimney, an airplane with three motors, or a Mercedes as opposed to a Volkswagen. But the fact is that the things themselves are closer to us, more immediately related to our consciousness, than the sensations; to get out mere sounds, at aural impressions, for "we have to listen away from things, divert our ear from them, i.e., listen abstractly."⁸¹ The matter-form structure on which this conception of a thing is based is in its turn ultimately grounded in assumptions of usefulness, where the "matter" is imposed on the "form" for a specific purpose. "A being that falls under usefulness is always the product of a process of making. It is made as a piece of equipment for something."⁸² Our ordinary and allegedly self-evident assumptions about "things" are based on this form-matter structure deriving from the medieval period, with the essentially pragmatic presuppositions which underlie it; to these assumptions, Kantian and transcendental modifications have made no fundamental difference.⁸³

How can we avoid such distorting preconceptions? Only by deliberately distancing ourselves from them and leaving each thing "to rest in its own self." Or we may aspire simply "to describe some equipment without any philosophical theory" in order to see what it is to envisage it precisely *as* equipment;³⁴ In this attempt, great works of art will be of the utmost assistance to us. An excellent example of how they may be is to be found in Van Gogh's well-known painting of a peasant's pair of shoes. This painting brings before us the peasant's weary tread, over furrows and through a biting wind, as she worries uncomplainingly about food for the future and

⁸¹ Ibid., 156. One may compare the aspersions of "linguistic philosophers," notably J. L. Austin, on the "sense-data" postulated as direct objects of sensation by representatives of an earlier stage of analytical philosophy. Cf. Austin, *Sense and Sensibilia* (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1962).

³² Heidegger, "The Origin of the Work of Art"; Krell, 158.

³³ Ibid., 159-60.

³⁴ Ibid., 161.

trembles, at the imminent and deadly danger of hearing a child. So the "equipmental quality" of this pair of shoes is, brought home to us, not by actual observation of the thing itself or of its manufacture or use, but by looking at Van Gogh's masterpiece. The painting does not merely evoke an emotion about or attitude to its subject; it "is the disclosure of what the equipment, the pair of peasant shoes, *is* in truth." We may see the point by saying that the essence of art is "the truth of things setting itself to work."³⁵ What should concern us is a first opening of our vision to the fact that what is workly in the work, equipmental in equipment, and thingly in the thing comes closer to us only when we think the Being of beings."³⁶

The same principles apply to art that is non-representational, a Greek temple for example. This "fits together good at the same time gathers around itself the unity of those paths and relations in which birth and death, disaster and blessing, victory and disgrace, endurance and decline acquire the shape of destiny for human being." The temple stands against the violence of the storm and by doing so manifests that violence; its repose and steadfastness bring out by contrast the surging of the surf and the tumult of the sea. Again, "the luster and gleam of the stone . . . first brings forth radiance the light of the day, the meadth of the sky, the darkness of the night."³⁷ In fact, "to be a work means to set up a world."³⁸ This insight into things (and the place of human beings among them) which is afforded by the temple remains open so long as the god of the temple has not left it.³⁹ A similar conception of divine presence may be applied to Greek and Greek tragedy. The sculpture of a god is not a device for showing people how the god is supposed to look; it is a work that lets the god himself be present and thus *is* the god himself." In the performance of a tragedy, the battle of new gods against old is not merely being represented but actually fought. 4-0

³⁵ Ibid., 165.

³⁶ Ibid., 166.

³⁷ Ibid., 169.

³⁸ Ibid., 170.

³⁹ Ibid., 169.

⁴⁰ Ibid., 170.

II

Thus far Heidegger. But what is one to make of what he has to say? According to Richard Rorty, there is an epistemological tradition which mistakenly attempts to find secure foundations for knowledge; this tradition has been central to philosophy since Descartes, and Husserl (like Bertrand Russell) is among the last of its distinguished representatives. But Rorty says that this tradition has rightly been repudiated by Heidegger (together with Dewey and Wittgenstein), who has seen that such grounding is unnecessary and in many cases impossible.⁴¹ I believe that Rorty brilliantly sets out the fundamental issues in contemporary philosophy and correctly aligns twentieth-century philosophers in relation to it; but I am convinced that he himself has chosen the wrong side on it. I have no space here to show *this* at length, but I must sketch the most important of my reasons. Short of some *foundations* for knowledge, which are not simply opted for or a matter of social consensus, there is no more *foundation* for the statement that water is a chemical compound or that Margaret Thatcher is Prime Minister of Great Britain in 1989 than for the statement that the moon is made of green cheese or that J. R. R. Tolkien has published a textbook on thermodynamics. And the notion that there are no foundations of knowledge other than convention or social consensus appears to be incoherent as well as having paradoxical consequences. One is to acknowledge that it is merely convention or social consensus that the foundations of knowledge are merely convention or social consensus. It seems that one is faced with intolerable consequences if one denies that knowledge has foundations (other than convention or social consensus); it was such foundations that Husserl was concerned to find.

I also believe that Husserl's attempt to found knowledge in consciousness was right in principle. For Husserl, as Heidegger

⁴¹ Richard Rorty, *Philosophy and the Mirror of Nature* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1979), 4-6.

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puts it, "the transcendental reduction to absolute subjectivity gives us the possibility of grounding the objectivity of all objects (the Being of these beings) in their valid structure and consistency, that is, in their constitution in and through subjectivity."⁴² In other words, only by being clear about the nature of conscious subjects and the way in which they can come to know objects can we properly ground our knowledge of objects, of things as they really are prior to and independently of the mental projections which we may impose upon them. Heidegger raises the question of whether we should be fundamentally concerned with consciousness and its objectivity or with the Being of beings in its unconcealment.⁴³ But I believe that this is a false dilemma, due primarily to the fact that a misleading ambiguity lurks in the concepts of "object" and "objectivity." It is one thing to impose our purposes on our environment in such a way as to envisage things as "goals" or "tools"; it is another to set ourselves to find out how things really are. It is to do the latter, not merely the former, as Heidegger seems to assume, that one must have a clear doctrine of how the conscious subject is, or at least may become, sufficiently "transcendent" of its particular situation to attain such knowledge.

However firmly each of us is embedded in her own historical situation and conditioned by the needs and aims stemming from her past driving her towards her future, we do have a certain degree of "cognitive transcendence," as it may be called, of this situation. This is to be asserted not because it is convenient or reassuring but because denial of it leads quickly to absurdity. When we come to know that two plus two equals four, that the Conqueror fought and won the Battle of Hastings in 1066, or that there is a giant planet in our solar system which is outside the orbit of Uranus, we know what *is so* absolutely, not just *is so for* persons in

⁴² Heidegger, "The End of Philosophy and the Task of Thinking"; Krell, 382.

⁴³ Of. note 8 above.

our particular historical milieu. Even to say that each human being is too embedded in her own historical situation to state what is so absolutely presupposes some degree of cognitive transcendence by the speaker *Of* her historical situation. What is being said is *about* human being; in general and supposed to be true *Of* them; it is not about them as they are merely *for* the speaker or *from* her particular point of view. Any statement of cognitive relativism, supposed to derive from the embeddedness of each knower within her own historical situation, in fact presupposes the falsity of such relativism. Now Heidegger seems to assume that this concern of Husserl's is either based on a mistake or a matter of indifference. Does this imply that Heidegger's thought thereby so totally and wed that nothing useful is to be learned from it? I do not see why this should be so. Assertion of the cognitive transcendence of human subject to know what is *really* so (and not merely so *from* a particular historical perspective, whatever this would amount to) can perfectly well be combined fruitfully with Heidegger's concern to make consciousness more sensitive, pliable, receptive, and reflective. Yet only when one takes the cognitive self-transcending subject as the archimedean point can one proceed to dismantle those aspects of the tradition that ought to be dismantled and to rehabilitate those that ought to be rehabilitated.

The "generalized empirical method" described by Bernard Lonergan⁴⁴ provides the (broadly transcendental Thomist) point of view from which I will assess those aspects of Heidegger's philosophy which I have summarized. Without spending a great deal of time describing or justifying the method, I do wish to set out those of its principles which will be relevant to the discussion.

1. One tends to get at the truth about things, by means of reasonable judgments that are based on the possibilities that *understanding* can encompass sufficiently broad

⁴⁴ Bernard Lonergan, *Insight: A Study of Human Understanding* (London: Longmans, Green and Co., 1957), 72, 243, 423-30.

of evidence *in experience*. It is self-stultifying to deny this. Suppose someone *does* deny it. Then she is advancing her denial as a truth. Does she then advance this supposed truth as the judgment that, among the range of possibilities that might be envisaged, best accounts for the relevant evidence in experience? If she does not, there seems no point in attending to what she says, since no defence of it, as more likely to be true than its contradictory, is to be offered. But if she does, she is implicitly presupposing the very conditions of stating the truth that she is explicitly denying.

2. It is equally self-stultifying to deny that one is a conscious subject -capable of making true judgments and judgments on the basis just sketched. The claim that one can make true judgments is itself a judgment advanced as being true. To make well-founded judgments which are liable to be true, I must be a subject of (a) experience, (b) understanding such as is able to envisage possibilities and concoct hypotheses which might account for such experience, and (c) *judgment* which is -capable of fixing on the possibility or hypothesis in each case which *does* apparently best account for the experience.⁴⁵ (The method of this kind of philosophy is "generalized empiricism". It is based on awareness ("experience" in a *wide* sense) of one's exercise of all these basic conscious capacities, including "experience" in a narrow sense--just as "empiricism" in the usual sense is based on "experience" in that narrow sense).

3. The actual world, i.e., reality, is nothing other than what true judgments are about and what properly-justified judgments (those based on the widest range of experience and of envisaged possibilities) tend to be about. Any intelligible contrast between reality and appearance, or between the actual world and the world merely *for* or *of* a particular individual or group, presupposes a contrast between the absence of proper

⁴⁵ There is a fourth basic kind of conscious act, that of *decision*, by which one moves from judgment to action; but this is not directly relevant to the present discussion.

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justification taken just so far and the same process pursued indefinitely.

From points (1) and (3) it will be seen that one important consequence of the general, empirical method is that the traditional view of truth (that it is primarily a matter of judgments or propositions) is to be reaffirmed, in spite of Heidegger's authority. Heidegger is perfectly right, I believe, that attention to conscious subjects and to the way in which they may be relatively "open" or "closed" to the world is necessary if one is to understand much about the nature of truth. But it does not follow from this that truth is not, after all, primarily a matter of the relation between judgments or propositions and states of affairs. Still, while truth is to be found primarily in judgments, such judgments are an achievement of conscious subjects, who have to exert themselves to secure and maintain a certain openness towards the world in order to reach it. And Heidegger's work is extraordinarily instructive as to the nature of this openness.

Attention to point (3), I think, brings out the solution to Heidegger's puzzle about how there can be "agreement" or "correspondence" between entities so heterogeneous as propositions or judgments on the one hand and material objects on the other. If the real world, including all the material objects which it may contain, is nothing other than what judgments *would* be about, if all the relevant evidence in experience were attended to and all the relevant possibilities envisaged, then the problem of how statements can agree with things disappears.

Heidegger stresses the manner in which what is called "knowledge," especially in an era which particularly prides itself on its technology, may represent an assault on things rather than an allowing of them to be as they are. Here, I believe, he is highlighting a distinction which is of the utmost importance; but the manner in which he makes it is unfortunate and seems to obscure some vital issues. What is the proper role of mental "activity" in our com-

mg rto know things? It seems to be true and very important to note thurt there are two .aims in science, that of contemplating the worM as it reaHy is and that of controHiingit for our uses, and, however worthy the second a:im., something deadly happens to the human spirit if :the second :aim :rultogether usurps rthe place of rthe first. In foot, from a:tronomers to zoologists, first-rate natu!!"ruls scientists appear from their writings to be :activrubed more by ,a love for :and wonder at the ob- ject of their study than by a desire to control it.⁴⁶ It seems to me that the " disenchantment " with nature which so many haiv;e compiLainedrbhat scienoe has broru:ght on is rerully due to the assumption rthrut scienre is about control :r: rather than :con- templativ;e wonder. But in order to know things .as they really wre, even when one tis motivated hy love and wonder rather :than ithe urge to control, the use of -ructive powers of rthe mind is nooessrury. These are clearly and distinctly described by the generalized empiriicrul method, in a way that does not seem to he possible in terms of Heidegger's thought. In order to come rto know white dwarf stars or peregrine falcons for what they are, I hav;erto be sufficiently *passive* to attend to observations which go against the asSJUmptions which I bring to the subject. But I must also *actively* propound hypotheses and envisage possibilities .and must *actively* employ my faculty of judgment to determine which of these possibilities is best S1Upported by the obsel"Vlations which I ihav;emrude. It is in fact *failure* to be mentally :active in these ways which is TesponsiMefor our im- posing ruliencategomeson things, ratheT tha;n getting to- know them as :they :veally are. As Heidegger rightly inslists, things do not reveal themselves :to me unless I open myself to them; but he is suggesth,e ll rather than precise and in some ways posi- tively misleading about the nature of rthis openness. The genel'alized empirimerul method pl'ecisely airticulates the three

46 For the physicists and cosmologists, one might refer to the writings col- lected in K. Wilber's *Quantum Questions* (Boulder and London: Shambala, 1984); and for the zoologists, to K. Lorenz's *Studies in Animal and Humwn. Behwvior* (London: Methuen, 1971).

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basic types of mental operation in which this openness consists. What is to be avoided is by no means the ructively wtending, hypothesizing, and judging mind but rather the mind which is so obsessed with its pet theories that it is blind to other possibilities and brushes aside any conflicting evidence.

On this account of the basic mental operations involved in coming to know, it is unfair to attribute the medieval account of "substance" as "matter" and "form" exclusively (as does Heidegger) to the human tendency to dominate things rather than allowing them to be as they are. For the different realms of existence do in fact seem to form a hierarchy, in which "matter" is progressively "informed": chemical substances involve the imposition of sets of "forms" or structures on fundamental particles, organic life imposes another such set of "forms" on chemical substances, sensitive animal life on organic life, and human existence in turn on sensitive animal life. Each such "form" is to be grasped by hypothesis and verified in the data of experience; so the structure of what is to be known, which is nothing other than the real world, is analogous to the structure of knowing. Each level of existence has its own special set of intelligible properties, its "forms" in the Aristotelian and medieval metaphysical sense, which distinguish it from the levels below it, while share the properties of all these levels. (A human being is to some extent characterized by the special human properties of intelligence and reason, but she is also subject to the organic laws of growth and decay and to all the laws of chemistry and physics.) Thus the result of applying the generalized empirical method is to bring out the correctness of this basic Aristotelian and medieval insight into the nature of things and to show that there is no need to attribute it or even primarily to the human obsession with making and controlling. I believe that Heidegger is profoundly correct that Kantian and qualifications in the long run make no essential difference to the metaphysical analysis of the "thing" which we have inherited from the medievalists. But he infers

from this that both are to be rejected, whereas the considerations which I have adduced seem to lead rather to the contrary, transcendental Thomist view that both should be accepted.

But even if it is wrong to envisage Scholastic categories too exclusively means to use and control, there is no doubt that the urge excessively to use and control does exist and that it may poison and deaden our apprehension of the beauty and terror of the world. Heidegger is surely right that it is one of the main functions of great art to awaken us to this. We become so used to the uses of an old pair of shoes that we no longer see it for what it is. What was originally the embryo of scientific discovery becomes part of the stale and taken-for-granted furniture of the mind; a viewpoint adopted with a specific purpose is taken as universal and unquestionable, long after the specific purpose has been forgotten.

Heidegger associates the traditional "form-matter" schema with the belief that we mentally things out of data, rather than directly apprehending things as such. This association seems to me to be correct, but, in the relevant sense, so does the belief. It is true that, in the usual senses of "see" and "hear," we see and hear marching by and oboists playing their instruments. But this is no more than to say that, when using the terms "see" and "hear" in these senses, we assume not only that we have visual and aural impressions as though of soldiers marching by and oboists playing but that they are actually soldiers marching and oboists playing where there appear to be. In normal cases we leap spontaneously from a set of sensations to judgment, from a series of experiences *as though of* our most garrulous colleague walking towards us down the passage to the judgment *that* he is doing so. Alternative possibilities do not occur to us, let alone commend themselves as likely. It is only special circumstances, like deception or psychological experiment, which induce us to draw out the distinction between the types of mental act involved. In a psychology laboratory, I may even consider the

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possibility that things have been set up in such a way that they will appear to be a music-stand ten feet before my eyes when no such thing is there, and I may judge with good reason that this is the correct explanation of my experience. But the fact that I do not attend to the distinction between the various mental acts involved by no means proves that no such distinction exists. I may *engage* in a number of types of mental activity without attending to the fact that I am doing so. It seems clear that it is one thing to enjoy a pattern of sensation, and another to judge the state of affairs which would normally explain that pattern actually obtains.

I have tried in this article to show, on the basis of the kind of transcendental Thomism exemplified by the work of Bernard Lonergan, how one may derive great enlightenment from the writings of Heidegger, without accepting at face value his rhapsodies on traditional metaphysics as a whole.

UNREAL REAL, JSM

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Contextual Realism, a Meta-Physical Framework for Modern Science. By RICHARD H. SCHLAGEL. New York: Raragon House, 1986. Pp. xxiv + 808. \$22.95 (cloth). ISBN 0-913729-20-5.

The Many Faces of Realism. By HILARY PUTNAM. LaSalle, Ill.: Open Court, 1987. Pp. 98. \$8.95 (paper). ISBN 0-8126-9043-5.

Varieties of Realism: A Rationale for the Natural Sciences. By ROY WOOD SELLARS. Oxford and New York: Basil Blackwell, 1986. Pp. vii + 375. \$34.95 (cloth). ISBN 0-631-12592-2.

REN PASSMORE wrote his assessment of British moral philosophy, he lamented that the fifty years which had elapsed since 1900 had produced nothing better than so many variations on utilitarianism. Equally, a lament seems in order over the current state of epistemology. After so many years of grappling with the problem of validating idealism—consider, for example, the American scene during the first several decades of this century: Roy Wood Sellars et al. announcing the "new realism" and George Santayana et al. announcing the "critical realism"—one might have hoped for an outcome more reassuring than the current fideistic realism.

But if the fideism disappoints, its rationalizations fascinate. Take, for example, the trio of books discussed herein. They undertake a common project: to forge a rational justification for realism. They share other features, not so laudatory, especially a merely fideistic commitment to what might best be described as *generic realism*, which finally evaporates into

idealism. The most that the authors can muster on behalf of realism amounts to no more than this: "Something (*what*, we don't know) must exist outside our minds because we act on that premise with considerable success, not only in daily life but in scientific practice, and the theories used to explain it and its successes form a logically coherent whole." In other words, what these "defenses" of realism offer is a *pragmatic representationalism*, organized and ultimately vindicated by the idealist criterion of coherence and deriving overall inspiration from a blind faith in reality.

The tip-off is in the books' titles: *Contextual Realism*, *The Many Faces of Realism*, and *Varieties of Realism*. How can you talk about the "contexts," "varieties," and "many faces" of realism if, especially by your own admission, you cannot identify reality itself? The answer is found in fideism: you want to affirm extramental reality, even though you find it impossible to justify that affirmation rationally. So, in a flush of egotistical fervor, you accept all plausible claimants to the title of "reality"; and being unable to say that any one is more or less than any other, you hope to bring matters to a happy conclusion by appealing to "varieties," "contexts," and "many faces" of reality.

But the imperatives of life and thought make a harmonization of all these "realities" inevitable if anything resembling truth and false assertions is to be saved. If, for example, common sense tells us that the ice cubes and science tells us that they are only indeterminate mass particles, we will want to know how these assertions can both be true. Clearly, the venerable correspondence criterion of truth won't do here, since we are faced with two competing objects of correspondence. It thus becomes necessary to enlist the aid of the pragmatic theory of truth to decide which of the "realities" will be designated "real" in a given set of circumstances. Anticipating Putnam's argument, we may then say that ice and pink ones are real when we wish to mix drinks and that indeterminate mass particles are real when we wish

to produce a scientific account of the phenomenon called "ice cubes." Still, Kant (quoting Schlegel, not even pragmatism carries us far enough because it depends on knowing which results are felicitous. We thus turn to the coherence theory of truth as our final court of appeal. It furnishes the rational context for designating the felicitous results, in addition to harmonizing assertions about varied realities.

The irony of this whole process is that our "realists" end up with the idealist standard of truth and reality; the *known* and the *real* merge together. What can you expect? If things are not the measure of mind, if they do not proclaim their reality by their very being, then how do we establish a representation as real? Surely not by appealing to "contexts," "varieties," and "many faces"! If " $0 \times 0 = 0$," so does " $5 \times 0 = 0$." Only the coherence of likely accounts remains, and within this coherence lurks the identification of the *known* and the *real*. In other words, the cardinal principle of realism, "Things are the measure of mind" is reversed to read "Mind is the measure of things." What is advanced as *leash* turns out to be in the cases of Schlegel and Putnam, perhaps in the case of Harre. The former two authors clearly appeal to the coherence theory of truth as the ultimate criterion of rational justification. Schlegel explicitly enshrines it; Putnam implies it in his resort to formal rules of discourse, while Harre's use of Gibsonian psychology, neo-Kantian concepts, and the concept of a "theory-family" may yet prove to be cryptic versions of it.

Thus what fascinates in these "defenses" of realism are the echoes of Hegel's principle, "The real is the rational and the rational is the real."

Schlegel: "A Meta-Physical Framework for Modern Science"

It was said above that Schlegel belongs to that group of thinkers whose realism is in crisis: within his heart he is a realist, but within his mind he cannot manage to pin down exactly what aspects of experience count as reality. He settles

for the position that science, as well as everyday experience, testifies to the reality of the extramental world, but adds that the meanings we attribute to the things which compose the world depend ultimately on the coherence of our assertions about them within the multileveled historical, cultural, and linguistic-of human experience. This anticlimactic "defense" belies the puffery on the dust jacket which announces that *Contextual Realism* is a "landmark" book. For all its precision and scholarship, it remains no more than a variation of that fusion of pragmatism with neo-Kantianism and Hegelianism which has been peculiar to American philosophy since the last century has been exemplified chiefly in the writings of John Dewey and C. I. Lewis.

Although Schlagel's commitment to the very distinction between *phenomena* and *noumena*, his commitment to the sensationalist theory of knowledge leads him to embrace neo-Kantianism and finally idealism. His realism, being more fideistic than rational, lacks the intellectual wherewithal to justify an objective, veridical knowledge of the world. He is thus confronted with the very distinction he would reject: between things as they are in themselves and things as they are known (i.e., contextually conditioned) by us.

Consider the preeminence and origin of his coherence theory of truth: the "... final justification of truth must depend upon *the most coherent integration of knowledge*"

Although emphasizing the importance for truth of "Observable data, predictable consequences, and experimental results or discoveries," he nevertheless adds, "*but insofar as their meaning and significance depend on how they are interpreted*, the coherence of the interpretation becomes the predominant factor for the assessment, even though the other criteria continue to play some (247-48).

Hence the transformation of realism into idealism. Characteristic of the coherence theory, mind, not things, is the source of intelligibility: "... because the world as directly ex-

perienced and described in everyday language does not reveal its own *raison d'être*, we have had to create theories to represent the internal structures and extensive background conditions on which the foreground of experience depends.

these theories consisted of analogical models copied from the operations of the world around us so the process could be imagined, but now that our theories have become so dependent upon exceedingly esoteric experimental data and highly abstract mathematical formalisms, the test of consistency consists of internal consistency and congruence with the experimental evidence, "coherence"

In the book's introduction, Schlager tells his readers that he seeks to develop, besides a theory of knowledge, "a conception of Reality consistent with the remarkable developments of twentieth century science." He says that these developments portray physical reality as composed of a series of levels, each of which consists of entities whose distinctive properties anticipate the structures, interactions found on the successively deeper levels of reality. Yet the journey to each succeeding level requires a speculative leap, insofar as the transitions are incomplete. Aided by increasingly sophisticated scientific instruments, we attain a progressively deeper penetration into physical reality, revealing a reduction from the diversity and complexity of the entities most accessible to our perceptions to an ever increasing unity and coherence on the levels furthest removed.

Despite the fact that these discontinuities leave us unable to fully explain why the entities on the deeper levels have the distinctive properties they seem to possess, Schlager assures us we still have access to enough data to suppose that, contrary to the Kantian dichotomy between phenomena and noumena, physical reality is continuous, albeit multi-leveled. His claim that "the meta-physical picture of contextual realism" is "more consistent with the achievements of contemporary science than Kant's notion" (294) understates matters; more than being consistent with the achievements of contemporary science, his book from start to finish enshrines science as the best available knowledge of reality.

Unfortunately, Schlegel's argumentarium of truth cannot penetrate the separating mind from the physical world for the simple reason that all claims about reality, including his vaunted experimental evidence, are contextually conditioned, making it impossible to know the meaning of anything apart from the ultimate context, coherence. But not only does the coherence of a system of thought have nothing in principle to do with the latter's correspondence with extramental reality, Schlegel himself emphasizes the merely provisional status of the most coherent conceptual system, even a system highly regarded at present.

Schlegel's sensationalism leads to his inadvertent embrace of neo-Kantianism. Anytime intelligibility is severed from its basis in extramental being, it must be imposed and imposed upon things. When all data from the physical world are reduced to sensations, our knowledge of things becomes both subjective and unreliable. If the deliverances of our perceptions are to be intelligible and ordered, then intelligibility and order must be imposed upon them *ab extra*. Thus Schlegel's conceptual systems tell us not so much about the objects we experience in the world as about what they must be for us to know them. How similar this is to the distinction Kant draws in the *Prolegomena* between (our subjective) "judgments of perception" and (our objective) "judgments of experience"!

Failing to grasp the significance of the ontological basis of knowledge, Schlegel has no alternative but sensationalism: all claims about the physical world must be reducible to empiriological knowledge. This bias first appears in the book's introduction where Schlegel cavalierly commingles Plato's and Aristotle's philosophical explanations with their scientific explanations; while these thinkers "provided a guarantee of objective knowledge but a weak explanation of natural phenomena, the Atomists provided a more adequate general framework (as attested to by later developments in science) for natural phenomena, but raised intractable ques-

tions "for a general theory of knowledge that have challenged modern philosophy" (xix).

The point of departure he cites is the dubiety of our sense perceptions, noted both by the Atomists and Galileo, to wit, the variations of tastes, odors, and colors, etc., which seem to originate not in the object perceived but in the interaction with the perceiver's sense organs. These variations, according to Schlagel, constitute one of the primary features of the modern conception of the world as opposed to the "realistic, and essentialist conceptions of Plato and Aristotle" (xx).

While the radical shift in philosophical preoccupation which Schlagel describes did in fact occur, he shows little appreciation for the fact that Plato and Aristotle were primarily concerned with an *ontological* account of our knowledge of things, a level on which perceptual variations have little relevance. Our knowledge of the being, substances, and essences of things, along with their essentially related causes, presupposes an intellectual rather than a merely sensible knowledge. The book's expressed concern with our knowledge of *physical* reality and claim to provide "A Meta-Physical Framework for Modern Science" might save Schlagel from the charge of being a sensationist: if were it not for his failure to display any inclination to give precedence to an ontological rather than a merely empiriological account. He repeatedly treats the current state of scientific knowledge as if it furnished the primary examples of our knowledge of external reality.

The unveiling of *contextual realism* occurs in successive chapters on the correspondence, pragmatic, and coherence theories of truth. That Schlagel should end up as a contextualist comes as no surprise; his sensationalist epistemology leads him to find inadequacies in the correspondence criterion. His blindness to the ontological level of knowledge results in his totally misunderstanding Aristotle. Aristotle's definition of truth is "saying of what is that it is." The most obvious interpretation of this definition, says Schlagel, collides with too many important instances where what we have taken to be ob-

jective features of the world were" actually a function of our experience (such as geocentrism and motion) or interpretation (as Aristotle's conviction that nature abhors a vacuum or belief in absolute space and time)" (180).

But not to worry. Schlagel sees a way to save the correspondence criterion. Suppose "we ignore the idealistic assumptions of the best of Aristotle's philosophy ..." and suppose also that being aware of the dubiety of our knowledge, he eschewed a naive or direct realism in favor of a contextual realism in which all knowledge is "framework dependent." Here we have a version of the correspondence theory that Schlagel can live with: "... whatever we can *mean* by something 'being what it is' depends ultimately on our conceptual-linguistic framework (although whether a *particular* assertion *within* that framework is true or false will depend upon how the world happens to be at that [sic] moment), as Popper, Quine, Sellers, and Feynman maintain" (181).

The unreliability which Schlagel detects in the correspondence criterion of truth means that even scientific knowledge must ultimately be context-dependent in order to be defensible. His sensationalist assumptions have scotched any hope of accepting a direct correspondence between the assertions of science and the entities to which they purport to refer. (For him the correspondence criterion has its greatest reliability in the realm of ordinary experience, but even then its meaning is contextually relative.) Thus he invokes the pragmatic theory of truth--as expressed in terms of hypothesis and prediction--to scientific assertions. Of course, not even this resort proves sufficient, for pragmatism presupposes an established framework within which consequences can be determined to be felicitous or not.

In the end, the highest form of appeal is the coherence theory of truth. The test of truth "depends upon the assimilation of new evidence, discoveries, or experimental results within a former framework that may have to be either revised or rejected to accommodate the newly acquired or reinterpreted

... [thus] the total coherence of the interpretation becomes the primary factor in assessing its truth." (247-248).

But, if the coherence theory is the ultimate standard for assessing truth-value, it suffers from the very limitations that afflict all our means of knowing. Since all assertions, Schlegel confesses, are falsifiable, our state of knowledge of anything remains open to the highest, most coherent conceptual system can be nothing more than provisional (294-95).

Putnam's "Internal Realism"

Putnam, like Schlegel, faces the dichotomy between thought and reality, but his attempt at erasure amounts to no more than ignoring it by an appeal to a neutral pragmatism. As his argument unfolds, however, it becomes clear that he falls victim to the very neo-Kantianism he would use for his own purposes. In the end, he must resort to *thought* (i.e., various formal rules of discourse) to determine what is real.

Putnam proposes a "non-alienated view of truth and a non-alienated view of human flourishing" (1). As in his earlier work, *Reason, Truth and History*, he seeks to further specify his project of "breaking the Stranglehold" exerted by the dichotomy between 'objective' and 'subjective' views of truth." The "alienated views" are those which "cause one to lose one or another part of one's self and the world" (17). Such views are metaphysical realism, which holds that the mind simply copies a world which allows description by only one true theory, and relativism, which holds that the mind constructs the world. Putnam's non-alienated view is this, that "the mind and the world jointly up the mind and the world."

He calls this view "Internal Realism" ("Pragmatic Realism,"): "Internal realism is, at bottom, just the insistence that realism is *not* incompatible with conceptual activity. One can be *both* a realist and a conceptual relativist."

Putnam begins his project by addressing the tension between scientific idealism and commonsense realism. Scientific

Realism sits on mathematical physics's way of conceiving external objects, apparently introduced by Galileo's distinction between primary and secondary qualities. The former are regarded as real because they are describable in terms of mathematical formulas; the latter are not so regarded because they are not described in that way. This view led to the notion of a *8'en8'e datum*. Thus secondary qualities, viz., tastes, etc., are not *in the thing* but are instead in the *sense data*, the product of the perceiving subject, misled by the interaction between the thing's primary qualities and our perceptual apparatus. Putnam notes the disastrous effect of this view. Its dualistic representation of the physical world and its primary qualities, on the one hand, and the mind and its sense data, on the other, led to the "post-scientific commonsense" picture of the physical world which collides with the realism of everyday experience, a realism which affirms the existence of tables and chairs: the consistent application of the primary/secondary quality distinction means that even solidity suffers the same fate as color and taste. Despite the absence of decisive evidence in favor of the sense-data theory, its influence has per-

from the seventeenth century down to the twentieth.

But the problem with the "' Objectivist' picture of the world" goes deeper, observes Putnam, than sense data, which are only its symptoms. The root of the problem is the idea of an "' intrinsic ' property, a property something has 'in itself', apart from any contribution made by language or the mind" (8). Correspondence with the notion of an intrinsic property is the notion of properties that are merely 'appearances' or something we merely 'project' onto the object.

The distinction between *intrinsic properties* and *appearances* engenders the notion of *disposition*, which, according to Putnam, is the weak point of the whole distinction. Not only color and solidity, etc., but so-called intrinsic properties of external things such as *solubility* turn out not to be intrinsic properties of an external thing. Sugar does not always dissolve in water, but only under normal conditions. Thus "If the 'in-

intrinsic 'properties of 'external ' things are the ones that we can represent by formulas in the Language of fundamental physics, by 'suitable functions of the dynamic variables, then *solubility* is also not an 'intrinsic ' property of any external thing. And, similarly, neither is any 'other things being equal' disposition" (11). A sharp distinction must accordingly be drawn between dispositions and so-called intrinsic properties.

Lest one be led to suppose that dispositions ("or at least 'other things being equal' dispositions, such as solubility") are also not in the things themselves, Putnam challenges the notion of projection. Projection implies a dichotomy between mind and matter. But despite Descartes's distinction between two fundamental substances mind and matter, Putnam expresses confidence that contemporary philosophy no longer thinks of mind as a separate substance at all.

Overall the result is "metaphysical realism," which, in Putnam's view, ironically resembles idealism more than realism. From the standpoint of the common sense world, the efforts of metaphysical realism to supply the rationale for philosophical realism comes down to a denial of objective reality and the reduction of everything to *thought* alone. This is why Putnam elects to cast his lot with the "philosophers in the Neo-Kantian tradition—James, Husserl, Wittgenstein—who claim that commonsense tables and chairs and sensations and elephants are *equally real*, and not the metaphysical realists" (12). (As stated above, we shall see that Putnam himself ends in the mire of idealism.)

At the very heart of the problem of vindicating philosophical realism is the increasing tendency, according to Putnam, to regard thought itself as a production. And this is because, despite its widespread support, it remains to be shown that the view that "thought is just a primitive property of a mysterious 'substance', mind, [has] any content" (13).

The esoteric route from projection is neo-Kantianism. His warrant for this preference seems to be an interpretation of

Kant's first critique as meaning that the extramental existence of noumena has not been established and that we do not (and never will) know what mind is. Putnam insists that the alternative native is to assume, as the Objectivists do, that "*mental phenomena must be highly derived physical phenomena in some way ..*" (13).

That is to say, there are two Objectivist assumptions. (1) "... there is a clear distinction to be drawn between the properties things have 'in themselves' and the properties which are 'projected by us' and (2) that the fundamental in the singular, since only physics has that status today-tells us what properties things have 'in themselves'" (13).

This, according to Putnam, has reduced modern Objectivism to materialism. The latter's chief problem is to account for the emergence of mind from matter. But the outlook for success in this endeavor will be no rosier than that of reducing color or solidity or solubility to fundamental physics--which has proved impossible. The functions of mind resist reduction to brain functions for the simple reason that the 'intentional' cannot be reduced to the 'computational level' anymore than it can be to the 'physical level'.

This leaves the Objectivist with only one conclusion, namely, that intentionality as we must be a mere "projection." But this is indefensible, for the very idea of projection presupposes intentionality. Thus thought cannot be a mere projection. Intentionality is thought, i.e., consideration of the "aboutness" of things.

All of which clears the ground for Putnam to introduce his defense of Idealism. Seventeenth-century philosophy has led to a dead end in the twentieth century, but the alternative is neither extreme relativism nor the denial of commonsense realism. To be sure, "seventeenth-century conceptions of the 'external world', 'sense impressions', 'intrinsic properties', and 'projections', etc., have failed to rescue commonsense

Putnam nevertheless reassures us: "There are tables and chairs and ice cubes. There are also elections and space-

time regions and prime numbers and people who are a menace to world peace and moments of beauty and transcendence and many other things" (16-17). His only caveat here is that idealism with a capital R won't wash; in fact it is the bane of common sense realism. The defense of commonsense realism requires realism with a small r.

Enter *Internal* (Pragmatic) *realism*, which "... is, at bottom, just the insistence that realism is *not* incompatible with conceptual relativity. One can be *both* a Realist *and* a conceptual relativist" (17). Putnam's claim that conceptual relativity differs from truth-relativism demands an explanation. What is the difference?

In answer, Putnam invites us to consider the following examples taken from the respective logics of Carnap and the Polish school. In a world of three individuals, the answer to the question "How many *objects* are there in this world?" depends on your rules of formal discourse. It might be supposed that, having posited a world of *individuals*, there must be three objects. After all, how can there be non-abstract entities which are not 'individuals'? One possible answer is "There cannot be," if, for example, we identify 'individual', 'object', 'particular', etc., and do not regard as absurd a world with only three objects which enjoy independence and unrelatedness to each other (as 'logical atoms').

But a different logical doctrine can justify saying that these three individuals amount to more than three objects. If, for example, we assume the premise of some Polish logicians that 'for every two particulars there is an object which is their sum,' then (ignoring the so-called 'null object') it turns out that "the world of 'three individuals'... actuality contains seven objects..." (18).

Now here comes the ticklish part of Putnam's claim that his "relativity" differs from truth-relativism. The answer to the question, "How many objects are there?," is "three" or "seven" depending on how we use the word "object" or "exist." The answer, according to him, cannot be reduced to

a matter of convention and cannot validly be interpreted as being equivalent to implying "radical cultural relativism": "Of course concepts may be culturally relative, but it does not follow that the truth or falsity of everything we say using these concepts is simply 'decided' by the culture. But the idea that there is an alternative, a use of 'exist' inherent in the world itself, from which the question 'How many objects really exist?' makes sense, is an illusion" (20).

This neo-Quineanism, then, is Putnam's be- between commonsense realism and scientific realism. Depending on our formal rules of discourse, "it may be possible [!] to show how the 'same' world can be described as composed of tables and chairs, with these objects described as colored and possessing dispositional properties, etc., on the one hand, and composed of space-time regions, particles and fields, etc., on the other hand. But 'Although these two versions of the world are "deeply related," they cannot be reduced to a single version; for the question "'Which are the real objects?'" makes no sense apart from our choice of concepts (20-21).

It would be difficult to imagine a "realism" more barren and more conflictual than this. As with Schlegel, Putnam's words betray more than a mere flirtation with idealism: "What is strange about the fear that only the Metaphysical Realist can save fair common sense from Demon Relativism is that even Metaphysical Realists recognize that the writ of rationality runs farther than what they are pleased to call 'the truth'" (30).

Clearly, the realm of thought embraces more than the realm of existence, for more things can be thought than exist. But so what? Unless Putnam thinks he can show that the criteria for being a thought and being an existent are the same, it does not follow from the greater extension of thought over things that the former are more decisive in establishing what is ideal. Putnam seems perfectly innocent of the criterion of classical realism, "Things are the measure of mind, not mind the measure of things."

Putnam's words, as do Schlegel's, ring with the same idealist imperative heard in Hegel's dictum, "The ideal is the rational and the rational is the ideal." For he leaves no doubt that the formal rules of discourse determine what we rationally say the things in the world are like. Because, however, his "Idealism" is fideistic, he cannot accept the idealistic implications of his *Internal Realism* but instead fervently (perhaps desperately) embraces pragmatism. He follows Quine and others who urge us to reject the spectator point of view in metaphysics and epistemology. (So much for speculative knowledge!) We are to accept the "reality" of abstract entities because they are indispensable in mathematics, microparticles and space-time points because they are indispensable in physics, and tables and chairs because they are indispensable in daily living.

This leap away from idealism in favor of *pragmatic realism* can be traced to acceptance of science as the standard of knowledge. Despite his exhortation to abandon certain outlooks of seventeenth-century philosophy, he seems nevertheless to cling firmly to Locke's view that the philosopher's vocation is to serve as an "undersweeper" for science. He goes so far in his adulation of science as to preach resignation to the prospect of having to live and philosophize without foundations. Why? Because "Science is wonderful at destroying metaphysical answers, but is incapable of substituting ones. Science takes away foundations without providing replacement" (32).

Adverting to the undermining influence which the dichotomies between common sense and knowledge have on common sense realism, Putnam seeks to show how his *Internal Realism* erases these dichotomies without lapsing into "sheer linguistic idealism." He insists that on the strength of *Internal Realism* we can still show that there is "'externality,'" "'something' out there independent of language and mind."

But his defense against "sheer linguistic idealism" lays bare an *epistemological agnosticism*, testifying to the way modern

philosophy has knowledge by separating the *object* of knowledge from the *thing*. It looks as though Putnam-despite his disclaimers on *internal realism* regarding the dichotomy between subject (mind) and object (thing)-has whole the Cartesian dichotomy. He that the latter are "facts" that we can describe them. But "we cannot say-because it makes no sense-what the facts are of all choices" (3). We can answer the question, "How many objects are there?" by appealing either to the logical system of Carnap--in which case we answer "Three"--or to the system of the case we answer "Seven." Either answer correct on our "conceptual choices," is many objects there are.

The reason Putnam the indefensibility of "objects existing 'independently' conceptual schemes is that there are no for the use of even the logical notions from conceptual is impossible therefore to assign an to category of Object or Substance. he we must reject the position that "... its aH " Some facts "are the!le rto he discovered and not by us"; we cannot embark on such discoveries before we "... adopted a way of speaking, a language, a 'conceptual scheme'." " 'Facts'," " 'exist'," "object" are not words us!age is determined by "Reality Itself" (35-6).

would Putnam haVe us suppose that his *internal realism* defends realism without acknowledging the 'thing in itself'. The latter engender such as those between intrinsic and non-intrinsic properties, the former being the properties possessed things in themselves; as we haVe seen, accuses dichotomies undermining common sense knowledge.

Having dismissed the dichotomies, Putnam assures us that we are no longer constrained to divide reality into a "sci-

entific ilnage ' aJJid a ' manifest image ' " : " Tables and chairs (and yes, pink ice cubes) exist jlllst as much as quarks and gravitruionailfields.... The idea thait most of illlllndane reality is illusion ... is given up once and for all. But mundane rerulity [now] looks different, in that we are forced to acknowledge thait many of our familiar descriptions reflect our interests and choices" (37).

Barre's "Modest Soientifi() Realism"

Because Harre contents: llimself with working toiward a rationalJ. justification onily for *soientifio* realism, he keeps the ph:ifosopbical underpinnings of this project under wraps. NevertheJess, his appiIloach raises a question or two about these underpinnings and hence about the ultimate significance of his defense of scientific l'eailism.

Harre proposes a *modest* scientific realism, a " referential which he also caHs " policy I"ealism." In gener:al iterns, what he means by *soientifio realism* is ". . . the doctrine that science descriibes somewhat imperfectly and certainly incompiLetely, the world as it e:irists independently of the cognitive aJJid maiteriailpraetices of mankind ... " (237). He quickly adds that this reailism cannot be established by a "global rurgument"; it is impoissibleto ·oonstmct an argument that would justify a realist il'e3Jding of all scientific theories. He bases this disclruimer on the premise that there are three importantly different ci.ndls of scientific object, each inhabiting iits own realm and requiring its own criteria of verification. Rerulm 1 contains only objects of actual experience; Realm 2 ,contains objiecbds of possible experience; Realm 3 contains objects " which, if they we'l."e real, womd be beyond 'all possible experience ... " (237).

Harre undersicores two features of this scheme: the first is that most sciences make rnfel'ence to '3Jll three realms; the second is that the lines of demarcation between the realms are poorly defined. Where the boundaries a[l]e dmwn depends on historical and technical considerations (e.g., the inviention of

the microscope). Nevertheless, no difficulty exists in finding representative objects for each realm.

Citing "hivalence" and "essentialism" as the chief sources of scepticism toward scientific realism, he appeals to the principle of "material practices." The principle ofivalence, which holds that "'The theoretical statements of science are true or false by virtue of the way the world is,'" presupposes a truth-realism that the "best explanation" cannot defend. Essentialism, which is to proceed from theory to pronouncement about what science is, misses the mark. The essence of science requires the appeal to material practices, i.e., to what scientists actually do when they do science (3-4).

Harre's construction of these material practices leads him to attribute a *moral*, rather than an epistemological basis to science. The moral sensibility of the scientific community—which he regards as a *pragmatic*—is needed, particularly to stave off relativism, because there are no clear-cut procedures for determining common objects of perception and common objects of understanding. Thus a tradition of trust must pervade the scientific community. Scientists must have confidence in the integrity of their colleagues, rendering belief in the discoveries and procedures of others reasonable. Moreover, the everyday sense of truth and frugality does not extend to the unobservable or the general, i.e., to theories and laws. Truth and falsity are, in Harre's estimate, justified when used for confirmation and disconfirmation of the trustworthiness of expressed belief or opinion. Their use forms part of "the social network through which an epistemic *moral, order* is sustained" (93).

But despite the initial emphasis Harre places on this moral basis, he allows it to slip immediately from sight so that it plays no further role in his defense of scientific realism. At all events, it is hard to understand how morality could be defended as the basis of a discipline or a family of disciplines whose goal is understanding. Also, the differentiation of disciplines depends on the specificity of their respective objects of focus; how, then, could science legitimately be differentiated

flom commerce? Surely trust among rthe members of the busi-
 ness community is equally rnmrcial. Perhaps the impossibility
 of observing the putative denizens of Realm 3 science makes
 Ham?'s emphasis on the importance of moral sensibility among
 scientists more undersitandahle.

He argues t:hat realism assumes a different form in each of
 the three realms and accordingly needs different defonses.
 Thus the project for the phifo.sophy of soience is clearly set
 tortih: "The pursuit of the philosophy of science becomes the
 effort to develop an adequate theo:i.y of science for each realm,
 a theory which expJains how knowl'dge conceirning the beings
 of each !ealm is possible, and defines the extent to which the
 method!ologies of soience can aubieve it" (237). Although
 deficient, these defenses are hieramhically velated: the defense
 of the "transcendental reaJ.ism" of Relal;lm 3 depends on the
 "policy reallism" of Rea1lm 2 which, in turn, depends on a
 successful defense of the "pevceptual realist wccorunt" of
 Realm I.

modest 11ealist comtrurul of Realm 1 science l'ppeaJ.s
 to Gihsonian ps;yochology. He argues that Gibson's>sanaJysis of
 pemeption speciiifical constants in our pereep-
 tiuail judgments; ecvien erroneous jllldgment.s, e.g., that there are
 canals on Ma.vs, can be shown rto be based on these constants
 (237-38).

He defonds the realism of Realm 2 science, *policy realism*, by
 an inductive argument. He begins with the proce-
 dulle of looking for so far unobserved entities whose e:icistence
 has been rendered plausible by the theoriz,ing of Realm 2 sci-
 ence. Past suooes:sessin this way of proceeding justify the prac-
 tice. Ha.rre turns to the method of "Joonlc theorizing" to de-
 fond the procedure's rationaliLity. Iconic theorizing preserves
 the generic natural kiinds of ReaJm 1 science, whose observabil-
 ity has ailverudy been established, and then proceeds to the for-
 mation of conceptions of unobserved objects by analogously e:
 e:iciding the features of observed nabural kinds into Realm 2.
 For eXjample, Prasteur's eallly yea,vs in micmbiology spent in-

investigating the influence of yeasts in fermentation him with the "analytical analogue" to explain the suppuration of wounds. "Were the "cells" in fact bodily cells set loose by the disease, as Lord Lister thought? By thinking of suppuration as analogous to fermentation, Pasteur was to entertain the conception of the cells as analogous to yeast and thus to conceive of them as an infection: "In inducing a cloisured analytical had opened up a research project, which culminated in the discovery of the so-called 'attenuation of viruses'" (174).

Such analogical conceptualization enables the formation of a "theory-family." The latter is "a kind of cognitive object characteristic of theories that pertain to ... [Realm 2]" (193). Policy realism consists in the formation of theory-families which not anticipate the manner in which new kinds of beings may be conceived but also suggest methods of constructing strategies for discovering of such beings.

Hence this way of proceeding cannot be extended to Realm 3 because the denizens of that realm elude all possible experience. Although acknowledging some shifts in the boundary separating Realms 2 and 3, as when technical advances made viruses possible objects of visual observation with the electron microscope, Harre nevertheless sees the division between these realms as formidable: "A being which belongs to Realm 3 may or may not be of a familiar metaphysical category and of one of the common natural kinds. At least some of the beings are not of familiar natural kinds." Harre has in mind here esoteric beings such as "the vector bosons of quantum field theory" (238-39).

Clearly Realm 3 entities create massive problems for any defense of scientific realism. If the putative objects of scientific discourse are inaccessible to possible experience, what is the warrant for the claim that they are real? Harre's defense uses the concepts of *covariance*, *invariance*, and *symmetry* to justify the crucial putative link between the entities of Realm 2 and 3. The Kantian concept of substance can be

analogically extended to the unobservable entities of Realm 3, and an individual member therein is construed as a "conserved quantity." The proposed analogy then presents itself as that between substances as *permanent entity* and energy as *permanent quantity*.

Thus, depending on the Lorentz transformation, the "revision of the concept of mass leads directly to the popularly famous Einsteinian relation $E = Mc^2$. This relation can be interpreted as introducing a new conserved quantity, 'energy.' ... Or, to put the matter another way, the existence of this relation within the theory shows that the laws which are covariant under the Lorentz transformation can be interpreted as being about a 'substance' of unknown constitution but known dispositions: energy. A realist interpretation then calls for the postulation of m being, 'energy', to be the heart of a common ontology for physical theories. Whatever it is, the energy concept behaves like a substance concept" (250-51).

"Real" as applied to Realm 3 entities derives its meaning from the "Robustness Principle": "Whatever persists unchanged through change is real ..." (277). This use of "real" is clearly crucial to Harre's adaptation of the covariance principle to validate the reality of Realm 3 entities. He characterizes the Robustness Principle as "exceeding power," insofar as it allows direct inferences from designated kinds of observable changes displayed by Realm 1 phenomena to phenomena in Realms 2 or 3.

Harre does not lose sight of the fact that, despite all the above strategies, the entities of Realm 3 remain unobserved. The properties which the theories of Realm 3 science attribute to them do not reveal themselves to us. Rather it is the "affordance" of these beings that such theories describe. "Affordance" refers to the category in which Realm 3 entities are expressed. An affordance is "a special kind of tendency, one for which the typical manifestation must be related to something specifically human" (283). Despite grounding in the objective properties of things, "there can never be a

wholly theory-wee reail.ng of the natures of things from the oibservwbledisplays. of tendencies" (283). In other worlds, the way the entities o[Realm 3 science appear to observation is shaped by the specifications and caprucities for display in the particular appaIDatusused: " A water dropilet can he seen by a physicist, but the ioniz-wtionof which it is a manifestation is !itself a manifesbation of the charge on a subatomic particle" (307).

AlJrtih.ough not importantly m-iginaJ, Harre offers a sober, thorough defense of scientific realism. His book abounds in incisive analyses .and bruJ.fant critiques. His dismantJ.mg of anti-realist claims, slUlchas Cartwright's and Fraasen's, are cases in point. Unlike Schlagel, he is not content to acknowledge pomts of discontinuity between observ:able and unobservable entities and let matters stand at that; instead he appeals ;to anrولوجiesand "theory-families" to vindicaite claims Of ove!!"-all continuity in the scientific woll"ld view.

If there is .any point whei'e his lapproach raises a question, lit is the absence of any aidvertence to a philosophicaJ under-1structu:re. Viewed exclusively in terms of providing " A Rationale for the Natural Sciences " (the book's subtitle) , his accomplishment, as impressive as it is, gives no clear rerudi.ng of just what " V'ariety" of realism he has SIUoceededin defend-ing. Is it the fideistic variety which, like thwt espoused by Schilagel anJdi Putnam, ends in a pragmatic rep!!"esentationalJ-ism? Is it finally a cryrpto-iderulism?Harre's book unfortunately provides no .answers to these kinds of questions.

We cannot infer much about his *philosophical* ;le'aJismfrom his claim that ReaJm 2 science (upon which Realm 3 science depends) depends on Realm 1 sciel1lce, the obj,ects of which are observca.ble by ordinary experience. His defense of the veracity of ourr sense pereptions, recalJ, resits on an :appeal to Gihsonian psychology, speci:fiooJJ.yto the lwtteir'sstructuralism, accoirling to wmcch our pereceptual judgments rely on a set of llaw...likeoonstanrbs. As it stands, this can be interpreted in a neo-Ka:nJbiansense and thrus fits snugly with Harre's qualified neo-Kantian notion of srubstance and his concept of ,a theory-

family, which may also have a hard time escaping the neo-Kantian label. Insofar as a theory-family is a cognitive object representative of theories that pertain to Realm 2 and validated: by the consensus of the scientific community for the purpose of allowing the anticipation of new kinds of beings, it sounds very much like Kant's set of a priori principles, "Analogies of Experience."

Of course, these things in themselves do not allow us to infer that Harre is a neo-Kantian. But if his defense of *scientific realism* does not spring from an authentic *philosophical realism*—by the latter I mean a philosophy which starts with the knowing *immediate* and *certain* knowledge of extramental being—then Harre will have accomplished is to articulate the methodically coherent manner in which science investigates real entities, *if real entities exist*. And I think it is clear that he wishes to do more than that.

Concluding Remarks

How does realism become idealism? The proximate answer, I think, lies in nominalism. Schlagel and Putnam deny the intellect the power to know *what* things are in themselves. The representationalist theory of knowledge engendered by nominalism evinces any attempt to defend our ability to know extramental reality. For we know *that* things are at the same time that we know *what* they are. Abstractions such as "reality" and "being" can mislead, but when we say that we perceive reality, we mean that we perceive *things*. Things have distinctive characteristics, and the less we know these characteristics, the less we know that there are things. No one's introduction to the world of extramental reality consists of perceptions of things *as such*. There are generic labels (as opposed to brand names) for products but not generic products. (Try to imagine a generic corn flake.) The world is populated by specific entities, and the specificity of each is intimately bound to distinctive characteristics.

If, as I know are our representations of things, then what we know directly and in the first instance are the representa-

tions, not the things they putatively represent. The cause of realism is confronted here with something more serious than knowing *what the representations are while not knowing what the things they represent are*. It is a matter of knowing *what the representations are and that they exist* (in us, at least) *while not knowing what and that anything beyond them exists*.

If we follow Sidalgel and Putnam in saying that we cannot know the properlies and characteristics things possess in themselves but can only know instead our representations of them, then like these writers we can defend realism only by going to the pragmatic and ultimately to the coherence theories of truth,

But realism is poorly served by pragmatism. The repeated confirmation of assumptions through successful action, although rendering increasingly plausible the claim that the world *is* as we represent it, does not eradicate the *de jure* possibility that the "external world" is no more a dream. For all that in principle the premises of pragmatism is that the proposition "Action *x* fulfills the expectations of my assuming *y*" is coherent with other assumptions by which I live.

Small wonder, then, that the coherence theory venerated by idealists should be brought forth as the ultimate criterion of truth! But by realists?

How illogical that philosophers professing to be realists should, in the end, embrace a nominalism. I pointed to nominalism as the "proximate" cause. But how account for the nominalism? Judging from the texts of Sidalgel and Putnam, the direct cause of their nominalism (and the penultimate cause of their idealism) is the *materialization of the mind*. Both writers discard ontological knowledge in favor of sense knowledge. As the writings of Hume and, preeminently, of Hume eloquently testify, the mere association of sensible properties bespeaks no intelligible structures, no formal cause, intrinsic to things. If the mind grasps only sensible properties, it has no experiential evidence for justifying the claim that essences are real; for the *whateness* of things is not material; matter itself cannot ex-

plain Organization. The knowledge that my stereo is rectangular in shape presupposes my apprehension of its *rectangularity*; to know that the individual approaching my office is the telephone repairman presupposes my apprehension of his essence, *man*. But the logic of materialization carries us farther than this. As Hume correctly saw, it leaves no evidential basis for saying even that there are *things*; the evidence provided by sensory data or impressions justifies no more than asserting the presence of mere *phenomena*, i.e., bundles of impressions.

If the proximate cause of the prevalent crypto-idealism is *nominalism* and its penultimate cause the *materialization of the mind*, the ultimate cause, it seems to me, is the assumption that common sense knowledge and philosophical knowledge are dichotomized. This curious feature of modern philosophy bedevils any attempt to defend realism. Our primary, experiential knowledge tells us that *things*, not mere sensory entities, populate the world. And the identification of an object of knowledge as a thing requires a knowledge of its *whatness*, essence, and its *thatness* (existence, either possible or actual). Such spontaneous judgments of common sense are the stuff of philosophical and scientific knowledge; they immediately proclaim their truth to the mind. It is *evident* and *certain* that things exist outside the mind because things are *ways of being*, because all things are reducible to being (and indeed all concepts are reducible to the concept of being); thus being is the basis of all intelligibility.

Once one forsakes the higher reaches of metaphysical abstraction in favor of the "clear and distinct," then the materialization of the mind with its attendant nominalism follows. As Plato observed in the *Sophist*, those who reject the doctrine of the Form of sensible things because the latter can be grasped by the senses should immediately take boulders to be the most real of things, for they can be hugged!

But the writings of Schlegel and Putnam unmask the irony in all this: when boulders are taken as the most real of things, they somehow transmute into the mere idea of boulders.

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