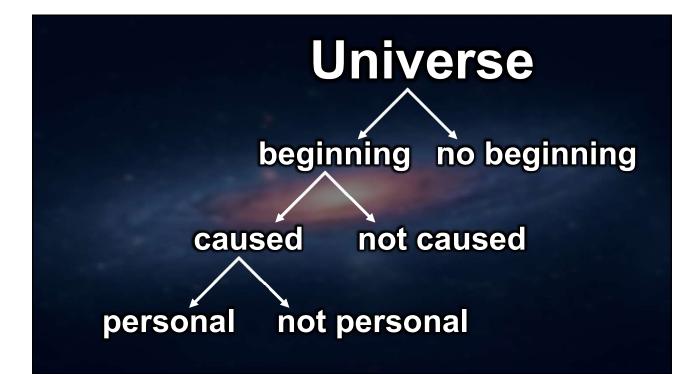
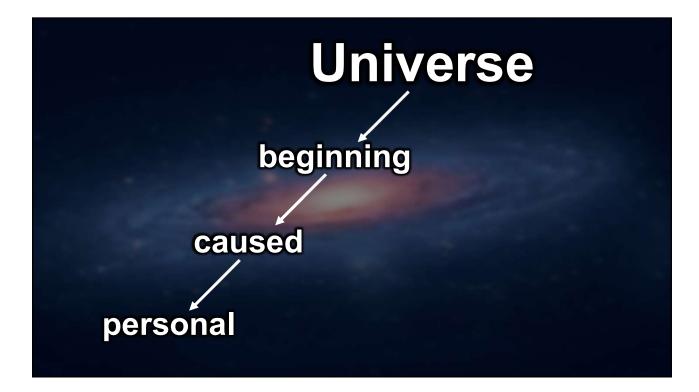


The Kalam Cosmological Argument **the universe's coming-intoexistence**

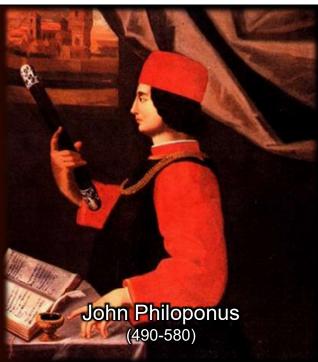
the universe's current existing

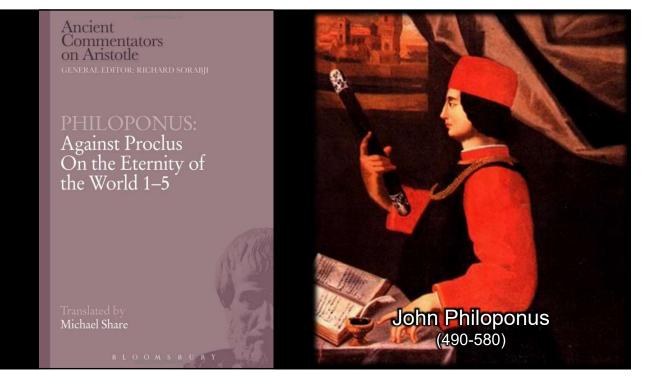


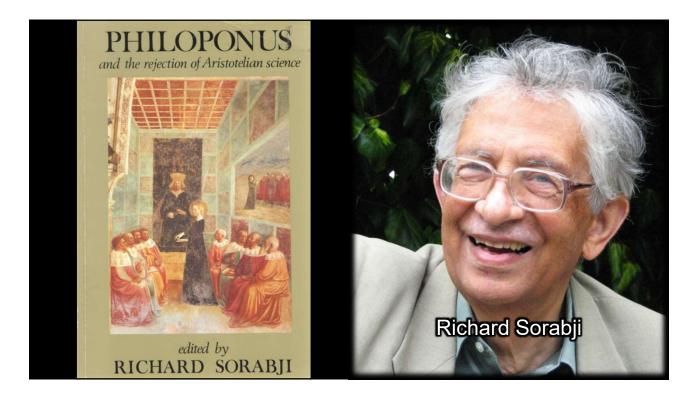




The earliest defense of a Kalam type of argument is by John Philoponus in his work Against Proclus' On the Eternity of the World [de Aeternitate Mundi contra Proclum].



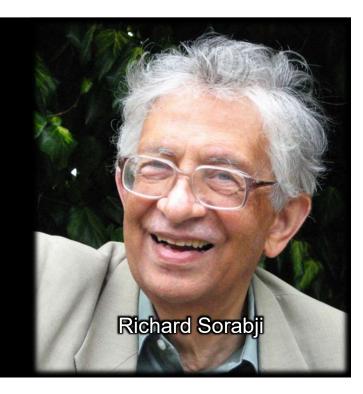




TIME, CREATION, AND THE CONTINUUM

Theories in Antiquity and the Early Middle Ages

RICHARD SORABJI

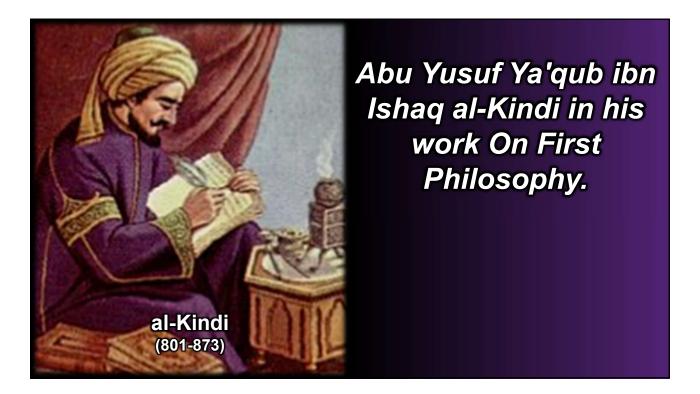








The Kalam Cosmological Argument was championed in Medieval Arabic Philosophy by:



Abu Hamid Muhammad ibn Ta'us Ahmad al-Tusi al-Shafi'i, generally known as al-Ghazali, in his work Incoherence of the Philosophers.

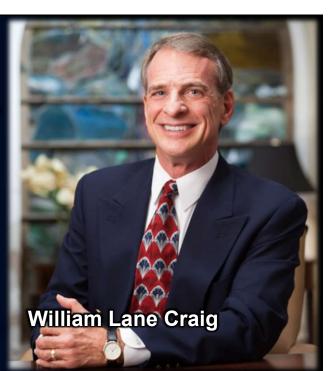


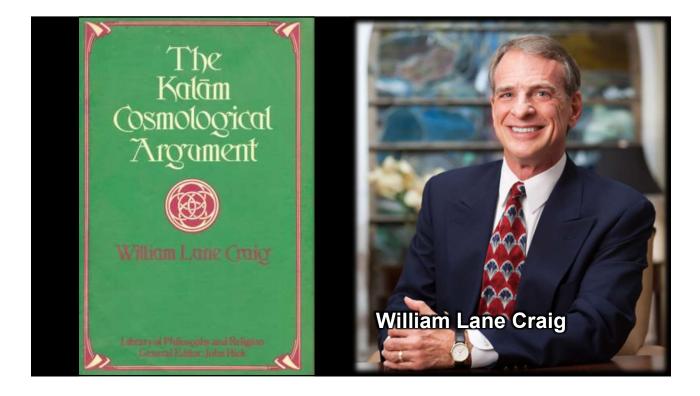


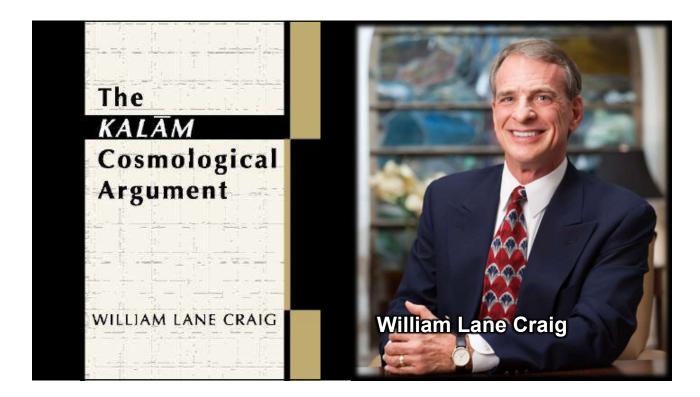
It was championed in Medieval Jewish Philosophy most notably by Saadia ben Joseph (Saadia Gaon) in his work The Book of Beliefs and Opinions. It was championed in Medieval Christian Philosophy most notably by Bonaventure (John of Fidanza) in his Commentary on the Sentences.



The most notable contemporary defender of the argument is William Lane Craig in his work The Kalam Cosmological Argument.





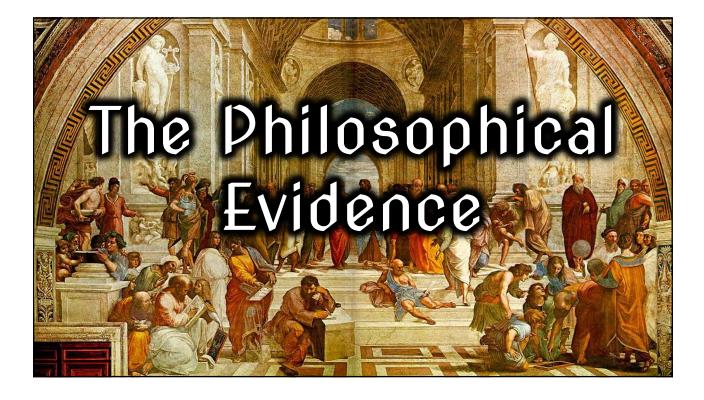


Premise 1: The Universe began to exist.
Premise 2: Whatever begins to exist has a cause of its existence.
Conclusion: Therefore, the universe has

a cause of its existence.

The argument is valid, which means that if the premises are true, then the conclusion is necessarily true. In order to defend the truth of the conclusion, one must give evidence for the truth of each premise.

Premise 1: The Universe began to exist.

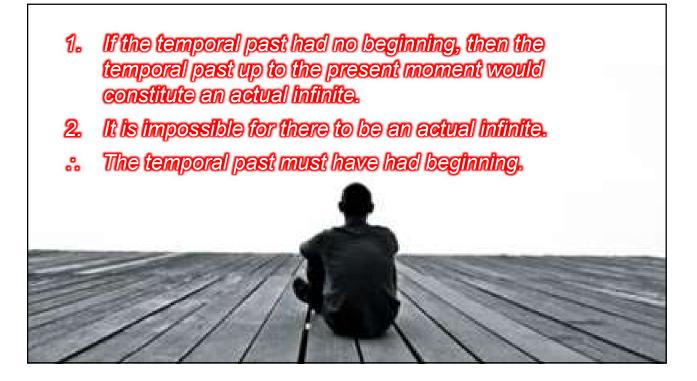


If the universe did not have a beginning, then the past up until now would be actually infinitely long. The philosophical evidence seeks to show that the past cannot be beginningless by showing two things...

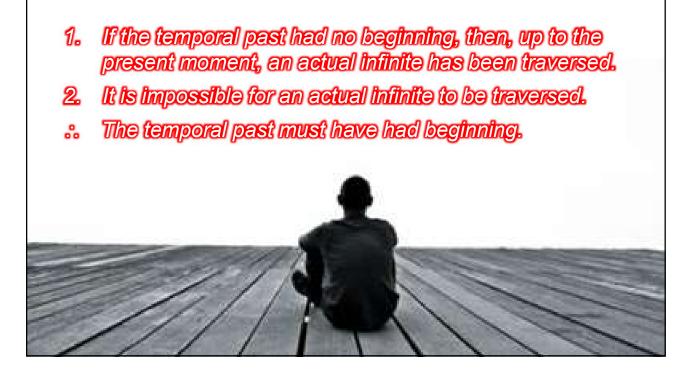
It is impossible for there to be an actual infinite.

It is impossible for an actual infinite to be traversed.

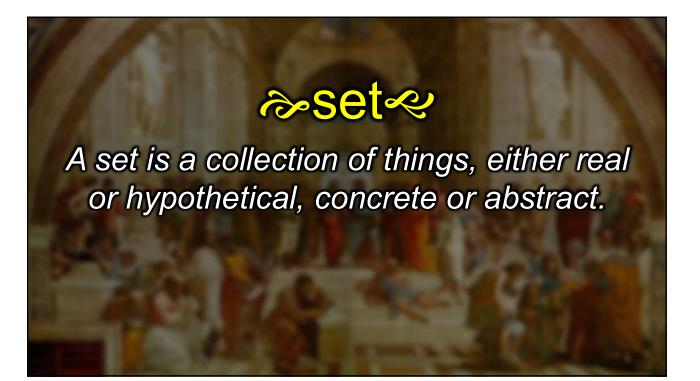














For our purposes, there are two types of sets: finite and infinite.

A finite set is a set that contains a finite number of members.

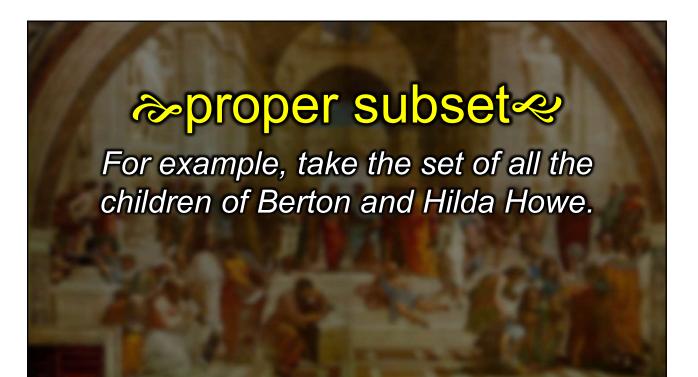
An example of a finite set would be the set of all children of Berton and Hilda Howe. {Don, Tom, Robert, Richard, David}

Richard		Don
David	Robert Tor	
-3-9	(120) N	THAT



Since sets of the sets is: The sets is: The sets is always larger than any proper subset of itself.

All members of the proper subset are members of the set. There are members of the set that are not members of the proper subset.



{Don, Robert, David}

{Don, Robert, David}

{Don, Robert, Daniel}

A finite set is a set that contains an infinite number of members.

minfinite set

There are two kinds of infinite sets: a potential infinite set and an actual infinite set.

A potential infinite set is a set whose members are increasing without limit, but the number of which is always finite.

 $\begin{array}{l} & \textbf{\sim potential infinite set-$<} \\ \{1+1=2+1=3+1=4 \\ +1=5+1=6+1=7+ \\ 1=8+1=9\ldots +1 \end{array} \right)$

An actual infinite set is a set that contains an actual infinite number of members, as, for example, the set of all whole numbers greater than zero $\{1, 2, 3, ...\}$

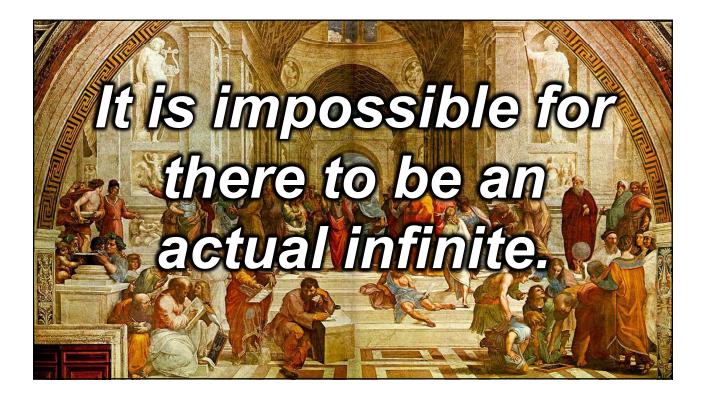
German mathematician Georg Cantor defined an infinite set as "a set in which a part is equivalent to the whole. This means that it can be put in a oneto-one correspondence with proper subset of litself."

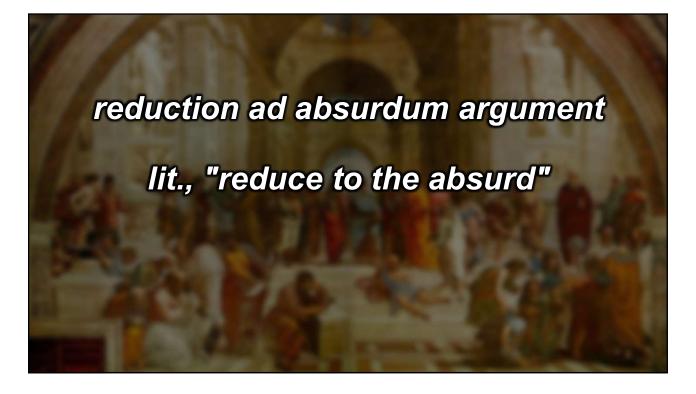
[George Cantor, Contributions to the Founding of the Theory of Transfinite Numbers, trans. with an Introduction by Philip E. B. Jourdain (New York: Dover Publications, 1915), pp. 55-6] Georg Cantor (845-1918)

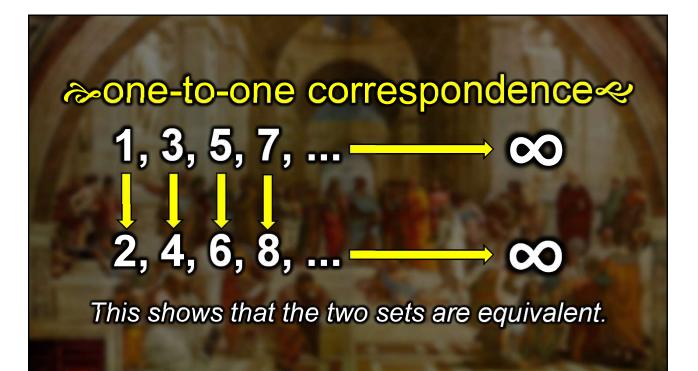
Two sets can be shown to be equivalent if their members can be put in a one-toone correspondence with each other.

For example, the set of all odd whole numbers greater than zero can be put into a one-to-one correspondence with the set of all even whole numbers greater than zero.

$\begin{array}{c} & \textbf{one-to-one correspondence} \\ 1, 3, 5, 7, \dots & & \textbf{oo} \\ 1, 1, 3, 5, 7, \dots & & \textbf{oo} \\ 2, 4, 6, 8, \dots & & \textbf{oo} \end{array}$

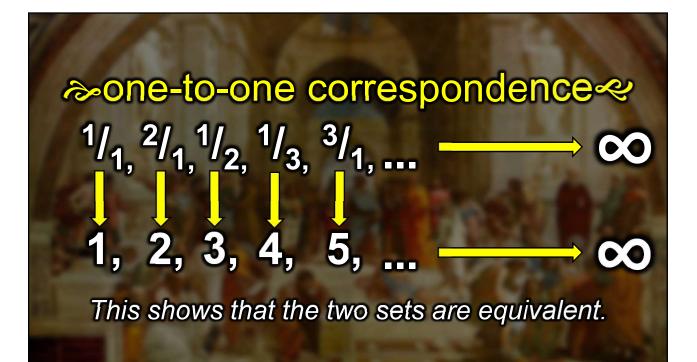


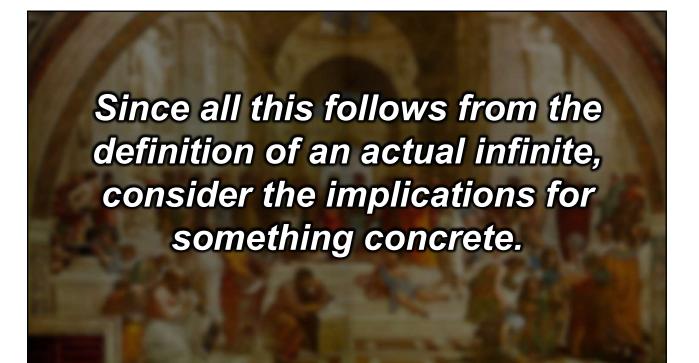


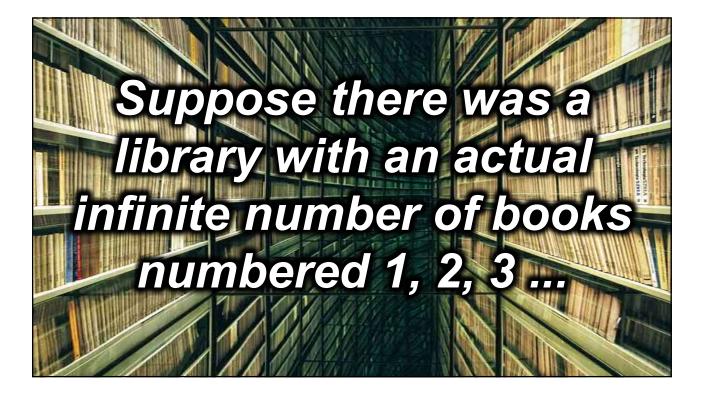


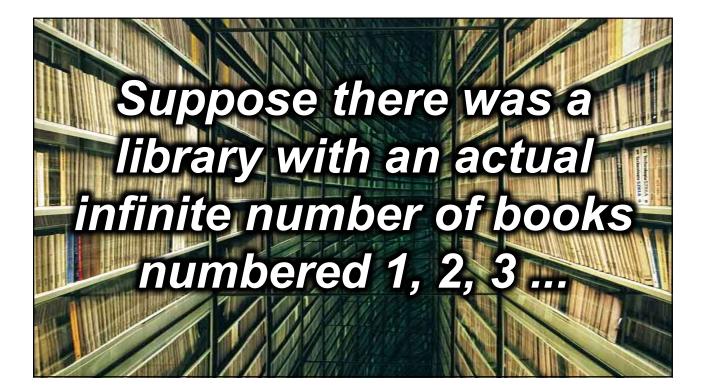
$\begin{array}{c} & \textbf{ black lines and lines are equivalent li$

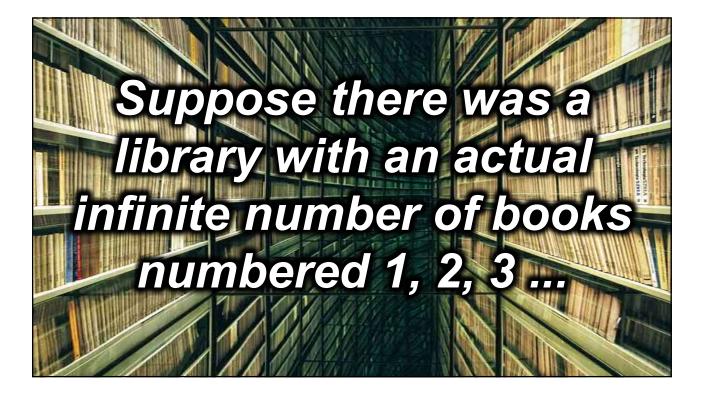
	1	2	3	4	5
1	<u>1</u> 1	$\frac{2}{1}$	<u>3</u> 1	$\rightarrow \frac{4}{1}$	<u>5</u> 1
2	<u>1</u>	2	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
	2	2	2	2	2
3	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
	3	3	3	3	3
4	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
	4	4	4	4	4
5	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
	5	5	5	5	5

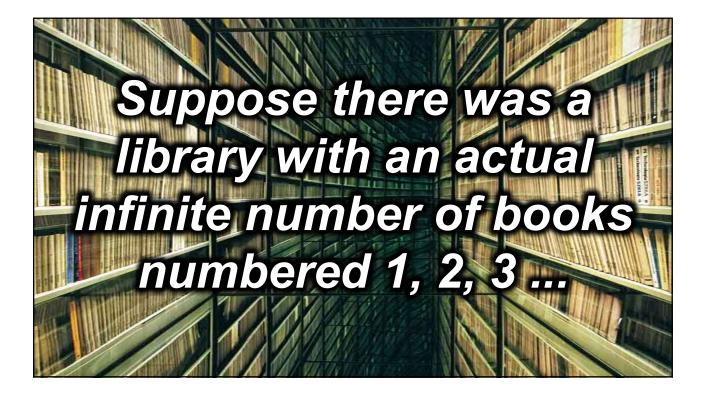


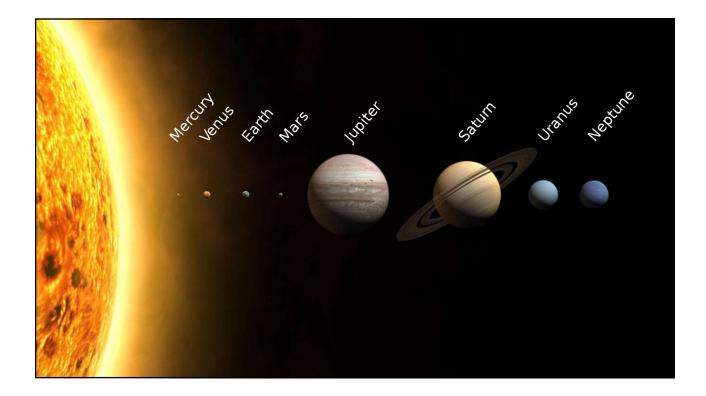


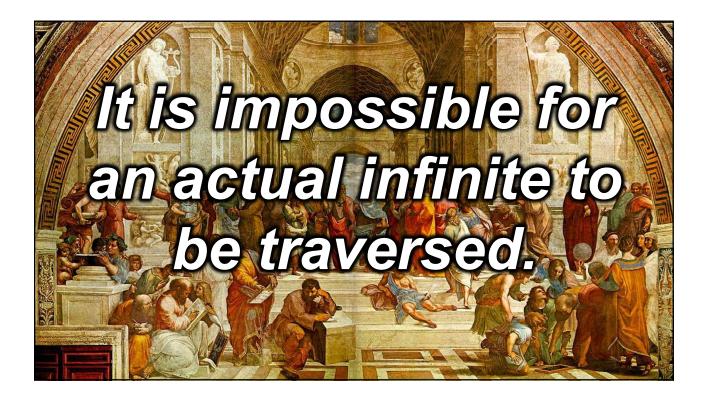




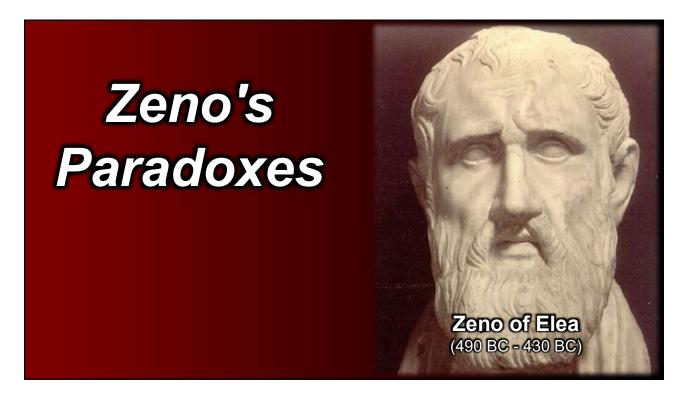


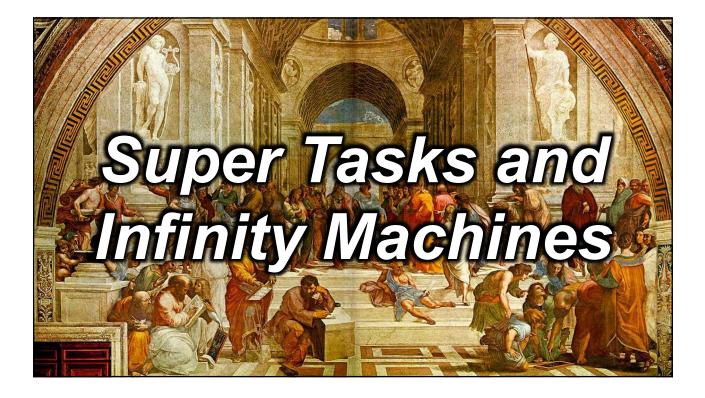


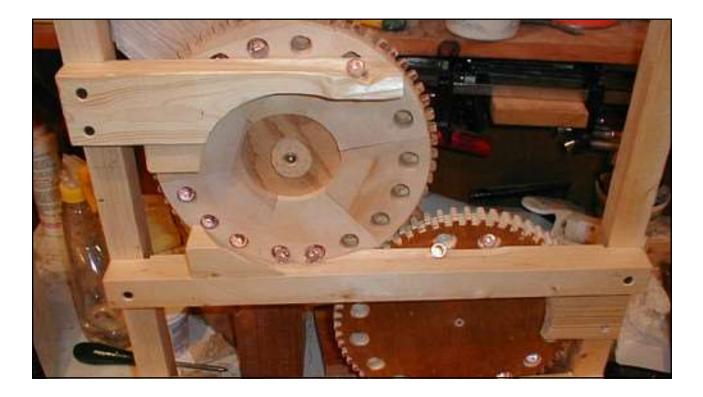




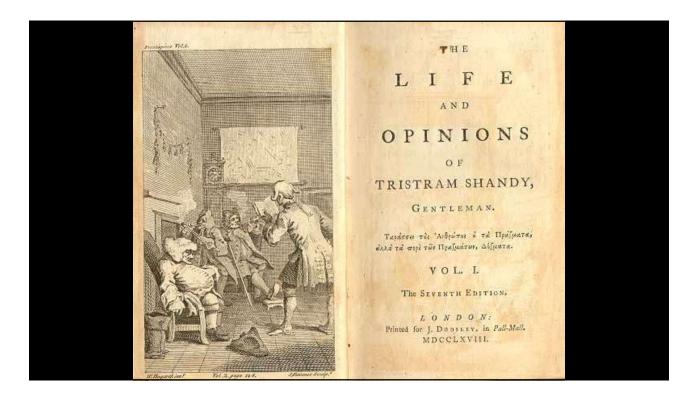
0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, Now ... -7, -6, -5, -4, -3, -2, -1, 0 Now





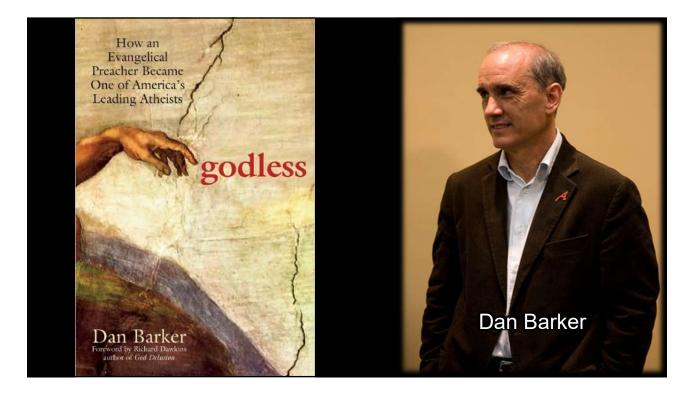






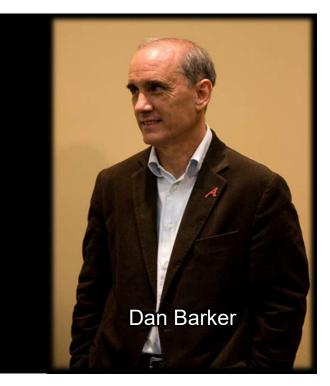
Premise 2: Whatever begins to exist has a cause of its existence.

Astonishingly, many contemporary atheists completely miss this premise in the argument.



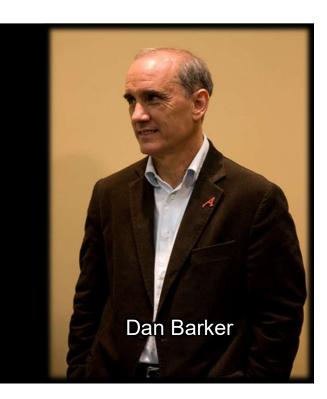
"The old cosmological argument claimed that since everything has a cause, there must be a first cause, an 'unmoved first mover.' Today no theistic philosophers defend that primitive line because if everything needs a cause, so does God."

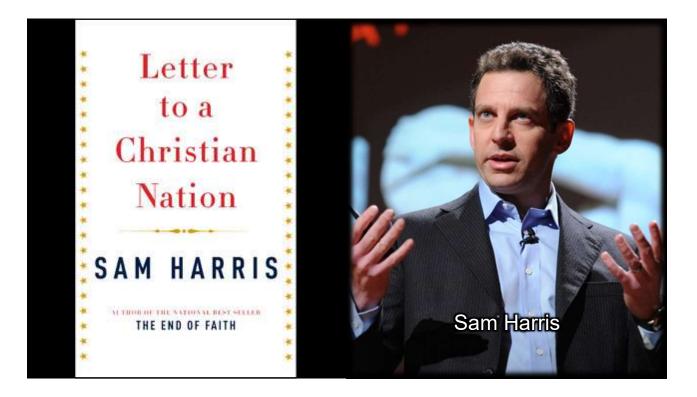
[Dan Barker, Godless: How and Evangelical Preacher Became One of America's Leading Atheist (Berkeley: Ulysses, 2008), 130]



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"Everything that exists has a cause; space and time exist; space and time must, therefore, have been caused by something that stands outside of space and time, and the only thing that transcends space and time, and yet retains the power to create, is God."

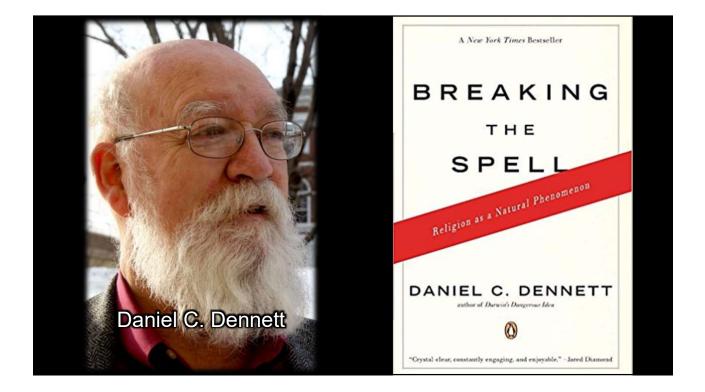
[Sam Harris, *Letter to a Christian Nation* (New York: Vintage Books, 2008), 72]

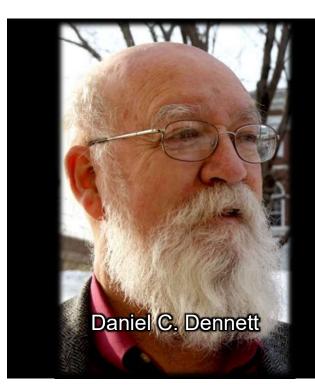


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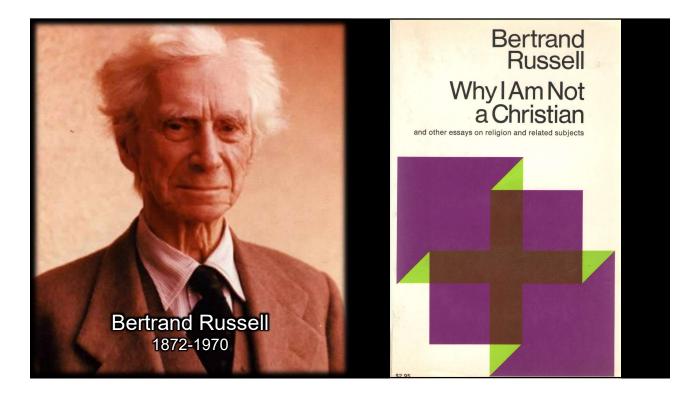


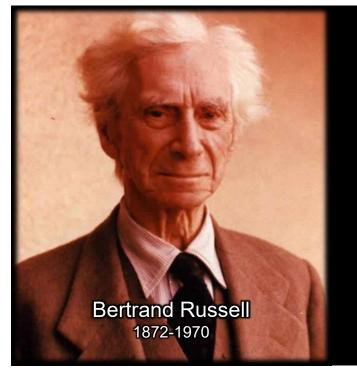




"The Cosmological Argument, which in its simplest form states that since everything must have a cause the universe must have a cause namely, God doesn't stay simple for long."

[Daniel C. Dennett, *Breaking the Spell*, (New York: Penguin Group, 2006), 242]



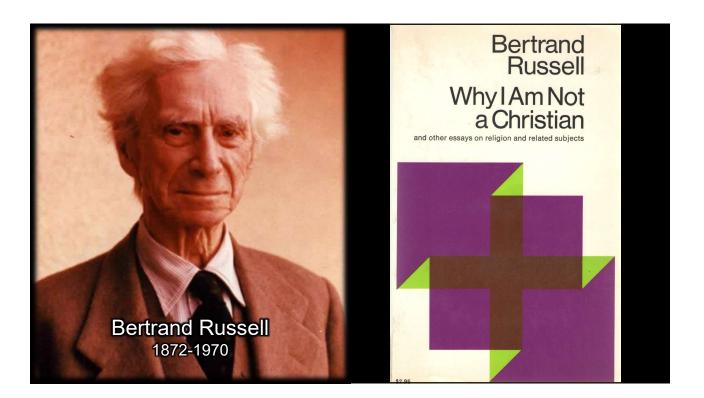


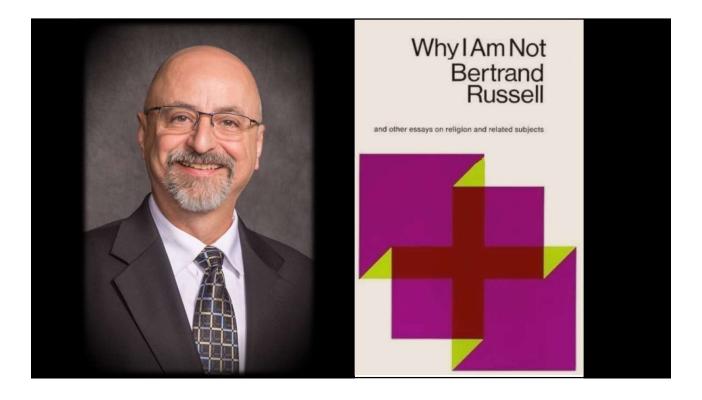
"The fallacy in the argument of the First Cause [is that] if everything must have a cause, then God must have a cause."

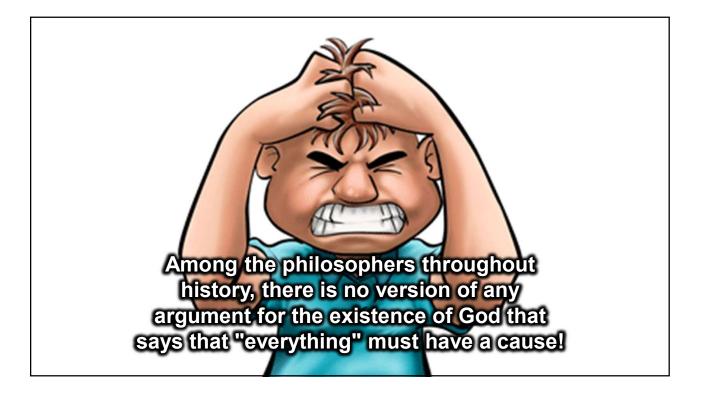
[Bertrand Russell, *Why I Am Not a Christian and Other Essays on Religion and Related Subjects* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1957), 6-7]

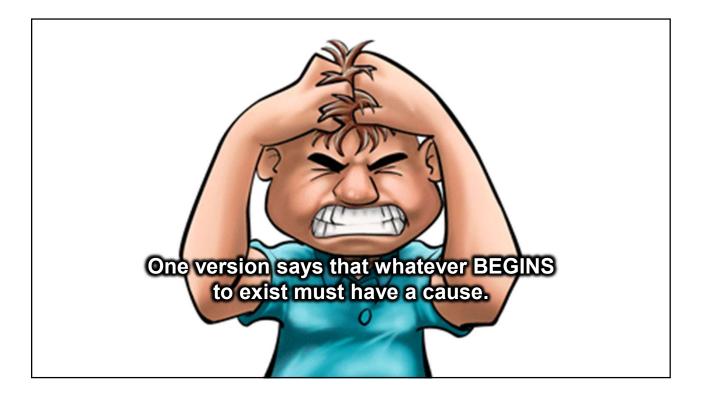
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"Although this argument from empirical facts is not apt to impress philosophers, it is nevertheless undoubtedly true that the reason we—and they accept the principle in our everyday lives is precisely for this very reason, because it is repeatedly confirmed in our experience.



"Constantly verified and never falsified, the causal proposition may be taken as an empirical generalization enjoying the strongest support experience affords."

[William Lane Craig, *The Kalam Cosmological Argument* (London: The Macmillian Press, LTD, 1979), 145.]



Conclusion: Therefore, the universe has a cause of its existence.



The Universe is uncaused. Response

This is impossible since everything that has a beginning needs a cause.

The Universe is self-caused.

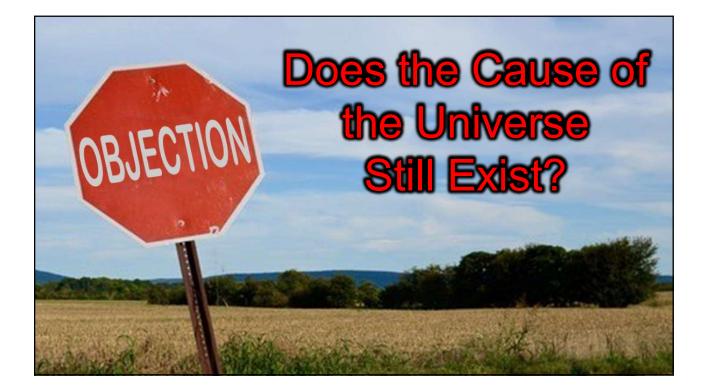
Response

This is impossible since to be self-caused is a contradiction.

The Universe is caused. *Response* This is the only reasonable option.









It belongs analytically to the concept of the cosmological singularity that it is not the effect of prior physical events. ... This effectively rules out the idea that the singularity is an effect of some prior natural process.

[Quentin Smith, "The Uncaused Beginning of the Universe," in William Land Craig and Quentin Smith, *Theism, Atheism and Big Bang Cosmology* (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1993), 120] Atheist Philosopher Quentin Smith



