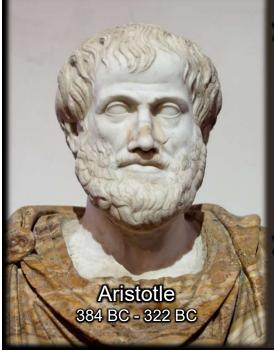


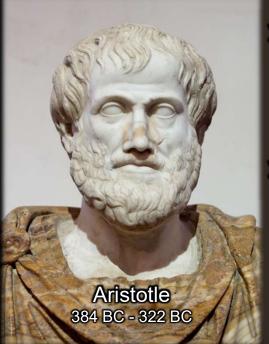
- When Plato's nephew Speusippus took over the Academy upon Plato's death, Aristotle went to Assos, under the rule of Hermeias, a former student at the Academy, and founded a branch of the Academy.
- He taught there for three years and married Hermeias' niece and adopted daughter Pythias. They had a daughter.



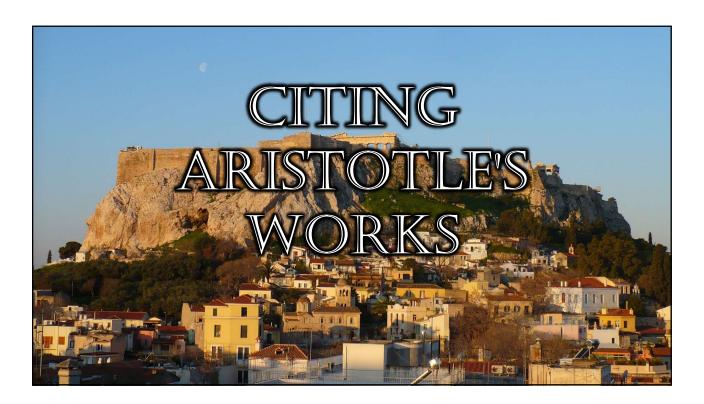
- They later returned to Athens. Pythias died and Aristotle and entered a relationship (though never married) with Herpyllis. According to Stumpf, they had a son named Nicomachus, after whom the was Nicomahean Ethics named.
- Aristotle moved to the island of Lesbos.



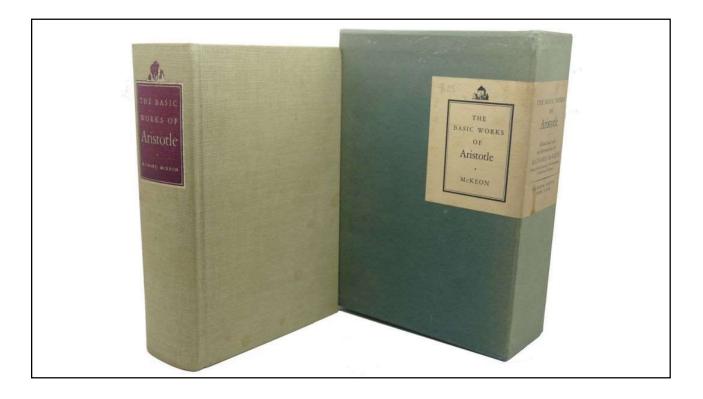
 In 343/2 Phillip of Macedon invited Aristotle to become the tutor of his son Alexander, who was 13 years old.
Upon return to Athens in 335/34 B.C., founded the Lyceum
named after the groves where Socrates was known to have gone to think and which were the sacred precincts of Apollo Lyceus

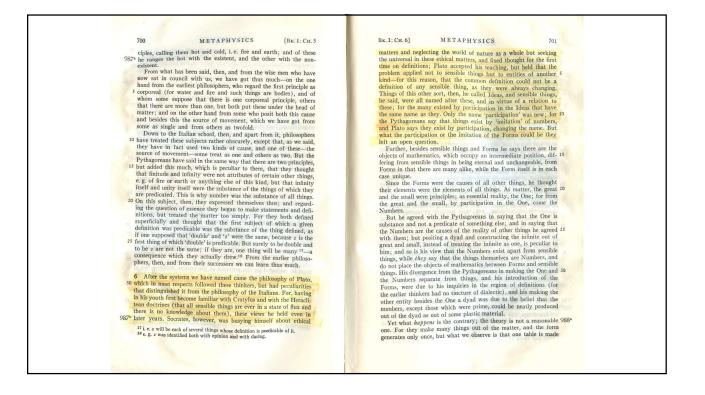


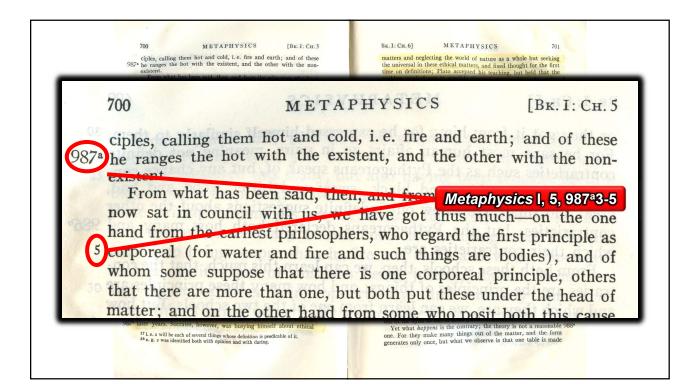
- He and his students would go for walks to discuss philosophy, hence the school became known as peripatetic (περιπατέω = to walk around)
- most productive time

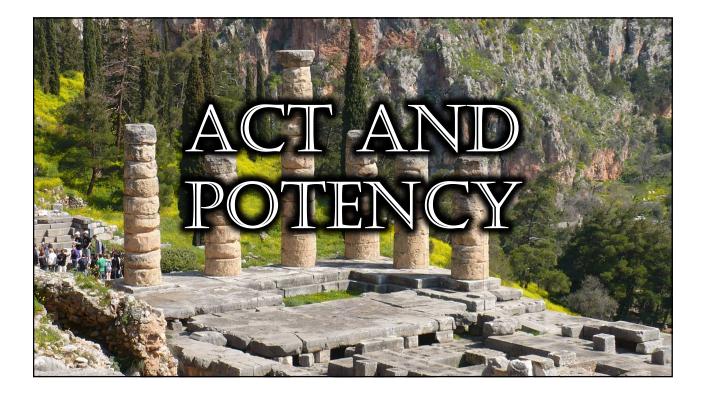


Bekker Numbers in the Works of Aristotle









Act and potency are sometimes referred to as actuality and potentiality.

This is how Aristotle and Aquinas account for change.

*∾***Potency***≪*

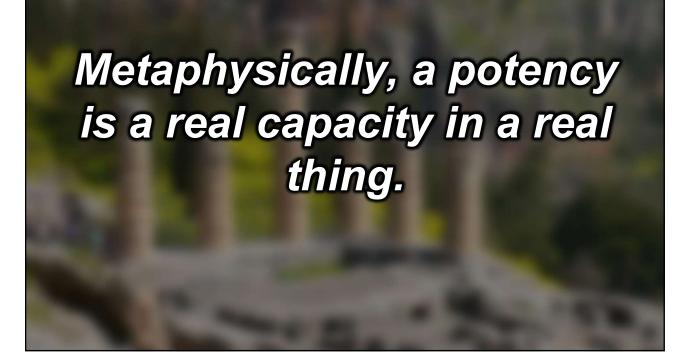
= the power or capacity to be actual or real

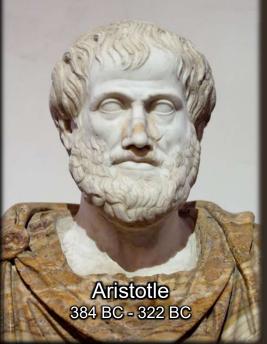
There are both logical and metaphysical senses of the terms "potency" or "possible." Logically, something may be possible in as much as it is not a contradiction.

> "The possible, then, in once sense, as has been said, means that which is not of necessity false."

[Metaphysics D (V), 12, 1019ª30, trans. W. D. Ross, in Richard McKeon, ed. The Basic Works of Aristotle (New York: Random House, 1941), 765]

Aristotle 384 BC - 322 BC





"Potency' then means the source, in general, of change or movement in another thing or in the same thing qua other."

[*Metaphysics* D (V), 12, 1019^a15 - 1019^a20, trans. W. D. Ross, in Richard McKeon, ed. *The Basic Works of Aristotle* (New York: Random House, 1941), 765]

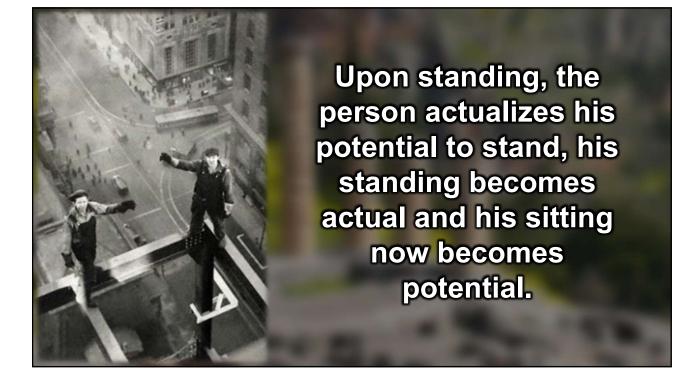


(or Actuality)

= to be real A potency is actualized by a cause.

A person who is actually sitting but not actually standing, nevertheless has the potential or power or capacity to stand.





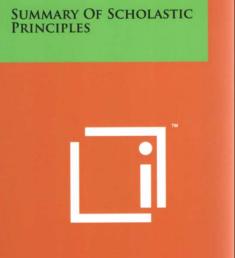
While a man who is actually sitting has the potential to stand, or who is actually standing has the potential to sit, a rock lacks the potency to stand or sit.



Note, therefore, the difference between the non-existence of the standing in a sitting man and the non-existence of the standing in the rock.

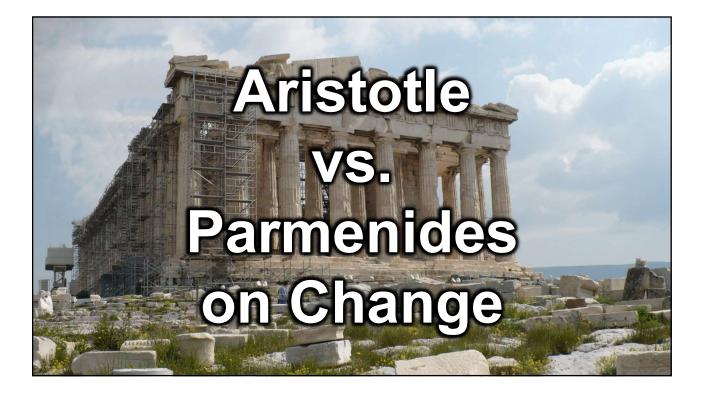


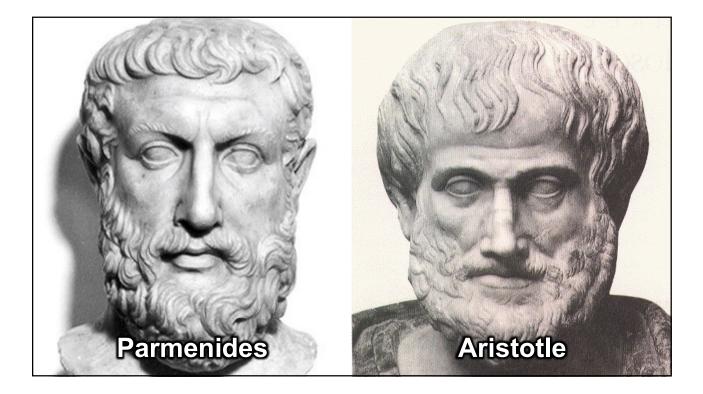
"Howsoever anything acts, it does so inasmuch as it is in act; howsoever anything receives, it does so inasmuch as it is in potency."



BERNARD J. WUELLNER

[Bernard J. Wuellner, *Summary of Scholastic Principles* (Chicago: Loyola University Press, 1956), 5]





Change is impossible because: being cannot come out of non-being (= out of nothing, nothing comes) being cannot come out of being, for being already is (fire cannot come out of air, since air is air and not fire)

Parmenides

Aristotle

Change is impossible because: being cannot come out of non-being (= out of nothing, nothing comes) being cannot come out of being, for being already is (fire cannot come out of air, since air is air and not fire)

Parmenides

Change is possible because: Fire does not come out of air as air [air *qua* air], but out of air which can be fire and is not yet fire (i.e., The air has the potentiality to become fire.)

Aristotle

Change is impossible because: This is would amount to saying that a being comes into being from non-being.

Parmenides

Aristotle

Change is impossible because: This is would amount to saying that a being comes into being from non-being. Change is possible because: It does not come into being from its privation merely [simpliciter], but from its privation in a subject.

Parmenides

Aristotle

Change is impossible because: This is would amount to saying that a thing comes into being from being, which is a contradiction (because a being already is, and thus cannot come into being).

Parmenides

Aristotle

Change is impossible because: This is would amount to saying that a thing comes into being from being, which is a contradiction (because a being already is, and thus cannot come into being).

Change is possible because: It does not come into being from being precisely as such, but from being which is also non-being, viz., not the thing which comes to be. (= distinction of act, potency, and privation)

Parmenides

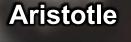
Aristotle

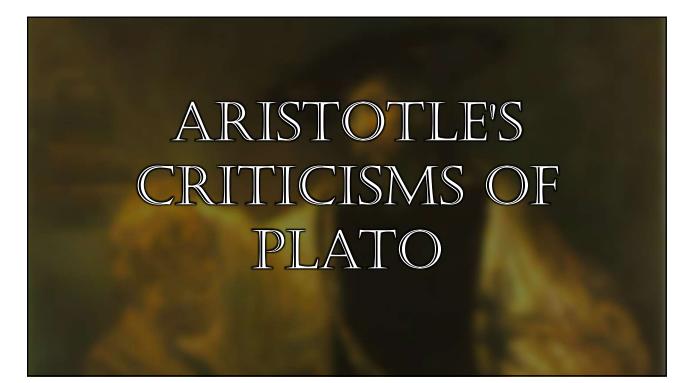
may be capable of being and not be, and capable of not being and yet be.... For of nonexistent things some exist potentially; but they do not exist because they do not exist in complete reality."

"So it is possible that a thing

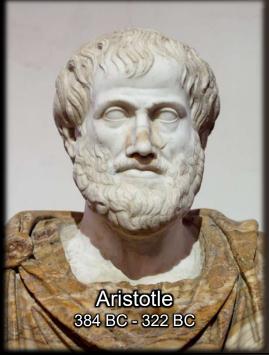
[Metaphysics, Q (IX), 3, 1047a20, 35-1047b1]

Parmenides

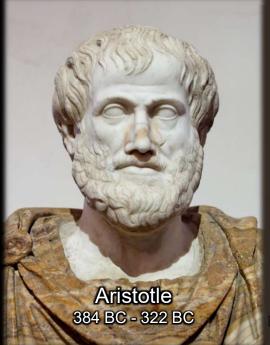




Aristotle's Criticism of Plato's Notion of Participation

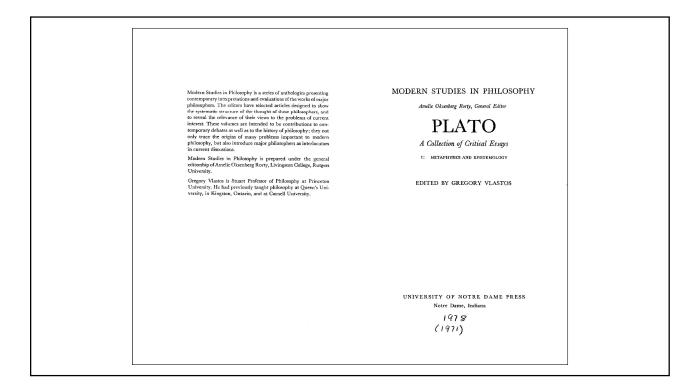


"After the systems we have named came the philosophy of Plato, which in most respects followed these thinkers, but had peculiarities that distinguished it from the philosophy of the Italians. For, having in his youth first become familiar with Cratylus and with the Heraclitean doctrines (that all sensible things are ever in a state of flux and there is no knowledge about them), these views he held even in later years. Socrates, however, was busying himself about ethical matters and neglecting the universal in these ethical matters, and fixed thought for the first time on fixed thought for the first time on definitions; Plato accepted his teaching, but held that the problem applied not to sensible things but to entities of another kind-for this reason, that the common definition could not be a definition of any sensible thing, as they were always changing."



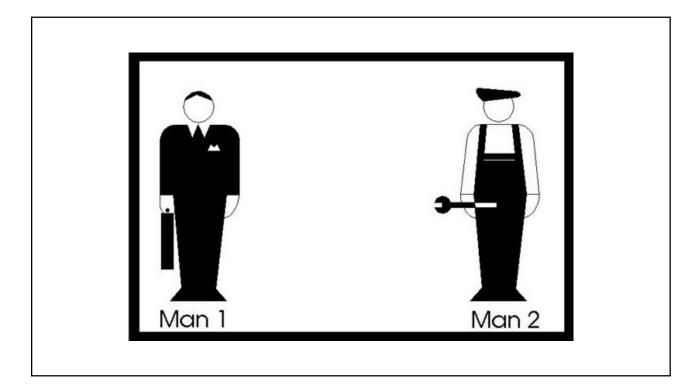
"Things of this other sort, then, he called Ideas, and sensible things, he said, were all named after these, and in virtue of a relation to these; for the many existed by participation in the Ideas that have the same name as they. Only the name 'participation' was new; for the Pythagoreans say that things exist by 'imitation' of numbers, and Plato says they exist by participation, changing the name. But what the participation or the imitation of the Forms could be they left an open question."

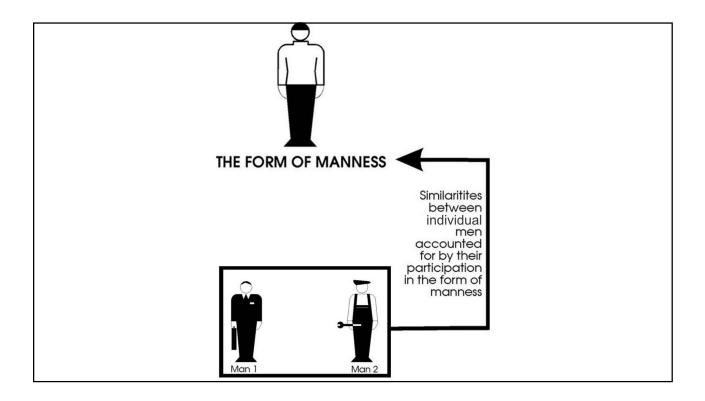
[*Metaphysics*, A (1), 6, 987a29 - 6, 987b8-13, trans. Ross, in McKeon, 701]

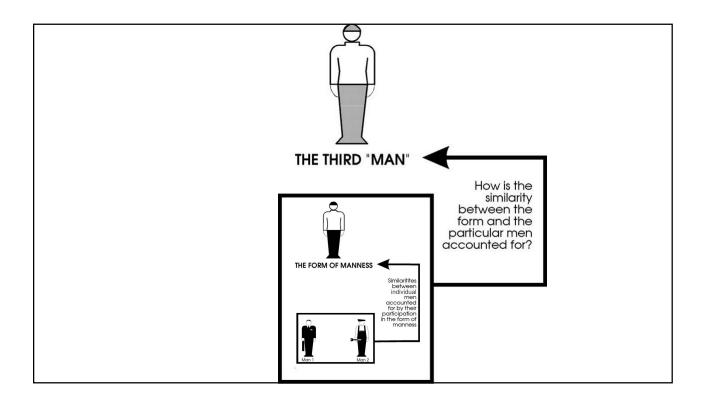


8
TO DEPENDENT OF THE DEPENDENT OF
PARTICIPATION AND PREDICATION IN PLATO'S MIDDLE DIALOGUES
R. E. ALLEN
I propose in this paper to examine three closely related issues in the
interpretation of Plato's middle dialogues: the nature of Forms, of participation, and of predication. The familiar problem of self-
participation, and or production to the inquirot.
I. SELF-PREDICATION
The significance—or lack of significance—of Place's self-predica-
ive statements has recently become a crux of scholarship. Briefly,
the problem is this: the dialoguet often use language which aug- exist that the Form is a universal which has itself as an attribute
and is thus a member of its own class, and, by implication, that it is
the one perfect member of that class. The language suggests that
the Form has what it is: it is self-referential, self-predicable. Now such a viewis, ito says the least, precluim. Proper universals
are not instantiations of themselves, perfect or otherwise. Oddness
is not odd; Justice is not just; Equality is equal to nothing at all.
No one can cut up for a map in the Divine Bedraratity; not even God can seranch Doghood behind the Ears.
The view is more than peculiar; it is absurd. As Plato knew, it
implies an infinite regress, one which he doublets regarded as vicious. Indeed, if a recent critic, Professor Gregory Matos, has
analysed the Third Man correctly, ¹ it implies still more. We must
suppose that Plato could swallow, without gagging, a flat self-
⁵ Gregory Vlastos, "The Third Man Argument in the Panamillar," Phil. Rev. LUII (1993), 19:20-49. For Wirds discussion, see: Wild d
$\begin{array}{c} rmi, mr, LAM (10); (1); (2); (2); (2); (2); (2); (2); (2); (2$
G_{CCACM} , <i>Phil. Rev. L.X.V.</i> (1990), <i>j</i> =700, <i>i</i> , <i>i</i> , <i>i</i> , <i>j</i> =54, <i>i</i> , <i>i</i> , <i>j</i> =16, <i>i</i> , <i>j</i> =16, <i>i</i> , <i>j</i> =16, <i>i</i> , <i>j</i> =16, <i>j</i>
115-21.
167

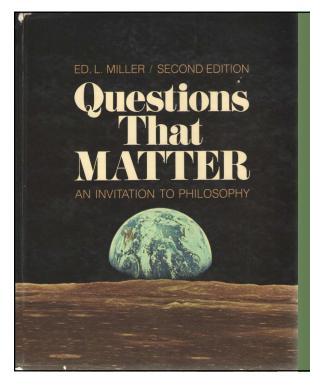




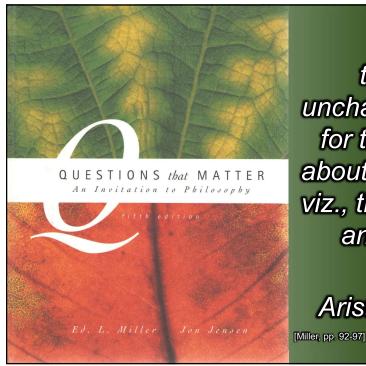




Aristotle's Two Questions about Plato's Theory of Forms.

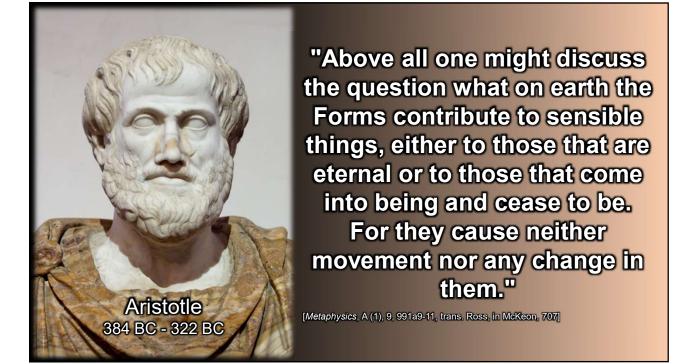


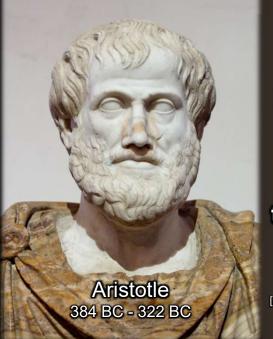
How can the Forms be the causes of the natures or "whatnesses" of things without being "in" those things? Aristotle says they can't.



How do Plato's transcendent and unchanging Forms account for the most evident fact about the things around us, viz., their coming into being and their motion and change? Aristotle says they don't.

Aristotle on Plato's Doctrine of Forms





"But again they help in no wise either towards the knowledge of the other things (for they are not even the substance of these, else they would have been in them), or towards their being, if they are not in the particulars which share in them."

[Metaphysics, A (1), 9, 991a12-15, trans. Ross, in McKeon, 707-708]

But, further, all other things cannot come from the Forms in any of the usual senses of 'from'. And to say that they are patterns and the other things share in them is to use empty words and poetical metaphors....

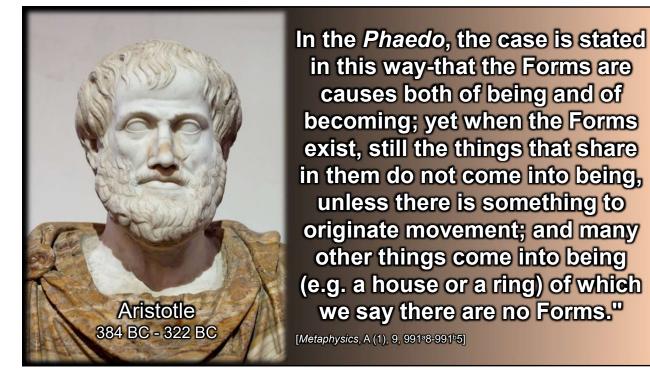
[Metaphysics, A (1), 9, 991a19-22, trans. Ross, in McKeon, 708]

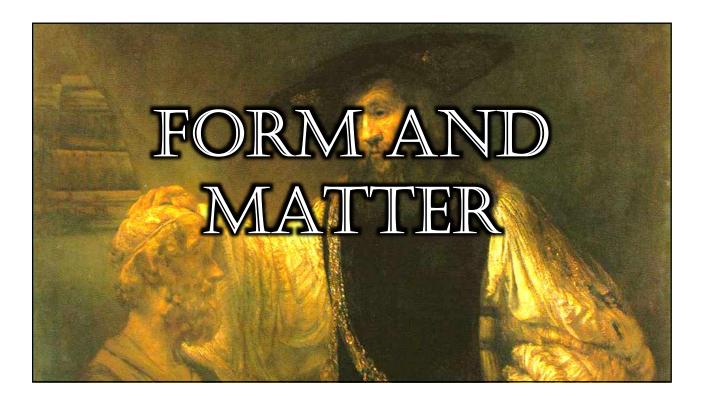
histofle Bad BC - 322 BC

Aristotle 384 BC - 322 BC

> "Again, it would seem impossible that the substance and that of which it is the substance should exist apart; how, therefore, could the Ideas, being the substances of things, exist apart?

[Metaphysics, A (1), 9, 991b1-3, trans. Ross, in McKeon, 708]





Aristotle's Doctrine of Form

Although Aristotle rejected Plato's notion of Form, he did not reject the notion of Form altogether.

Instead, Aristotle rejected Plato's transcendent forms and opted instead for immanent forms. The form of the thing is in the thing, not removed or separated from it.

In the sensible realm, form cannot exist without matter and matter cannot exist without form.

The form of the thing is in the thing, not removed or separated from it.

In the sensible realm, form cannot exist without matter and matter cannot exist without form.

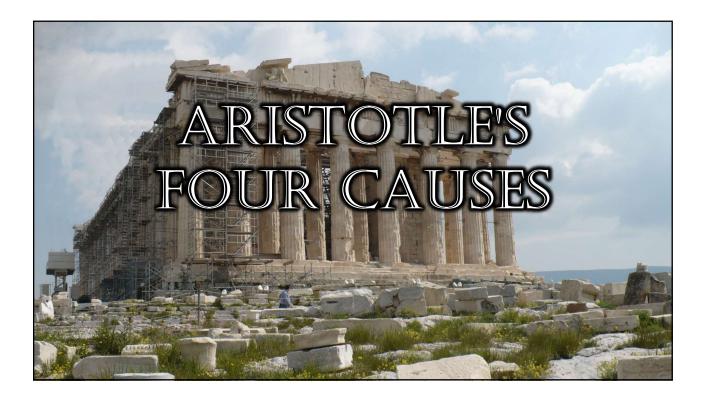




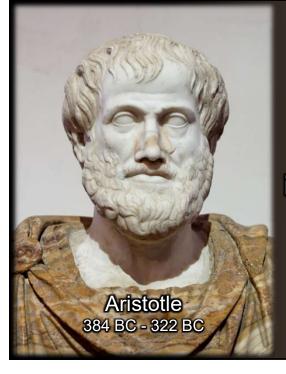
hylomorphic composition

the necessary twofold composition, material and formal, of everything in the sensible world

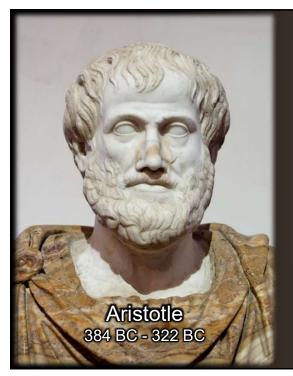
hule ($\dot{\upsilon}\lambda\dot{\eta}$) = matter morphe (μορφή) = form



According to Aristotle, there are four principles or causes which are necessarily involved in the explanation of a sensible object.



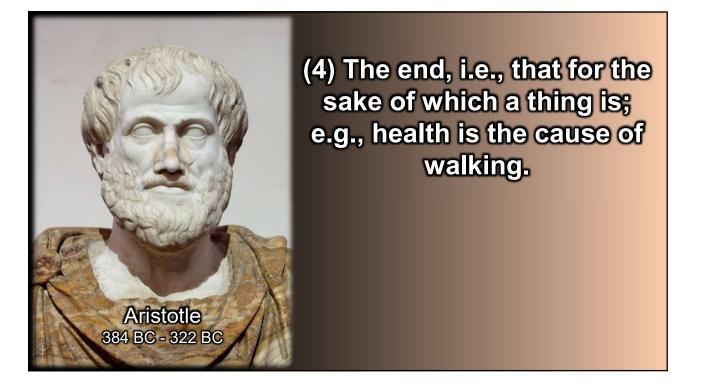
"Cause' means (1) that from which, as immanent material, a thing comes into being, e.g., the bronze is the cause of the statue ...



"(2) The form or pattern, i.e., the definition of the essence, and the classes which include this ..., and the parts included in the definition.

Aristotle 384 BC - 322 BC

"(3) That from which the change or the resting from change first begins; e.g., ... the advisor is the cause of the action, and the father a cause of the child



For 'Why does one walk?' we say; 'that one may be healthy'; and in speaking thus we think we have given the cause. These, then, are practically all the senses in which causes are spoken of."

[Metaphysics, D (5), 2, 1013º24-1013º3, trans. Ross, in McKeon, ed., 752-753]

Aristotle

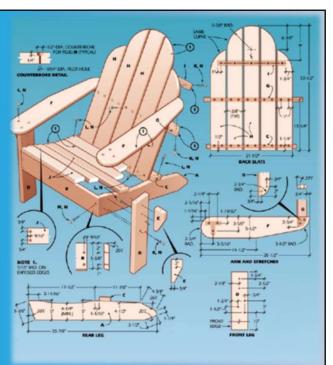
384 BC - 322 BC



Material Cause that *out of which* an effect is = what the chair is made of: wood

Formal Cause

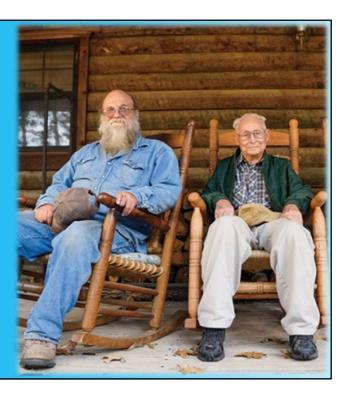
that *which* an effect is = form, structure, or nature of the chair: chair-ness

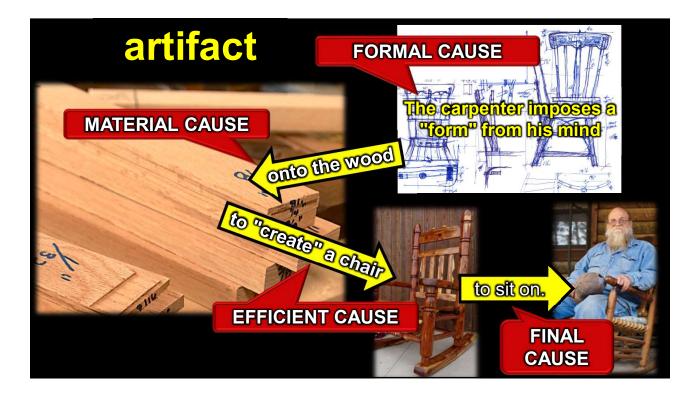


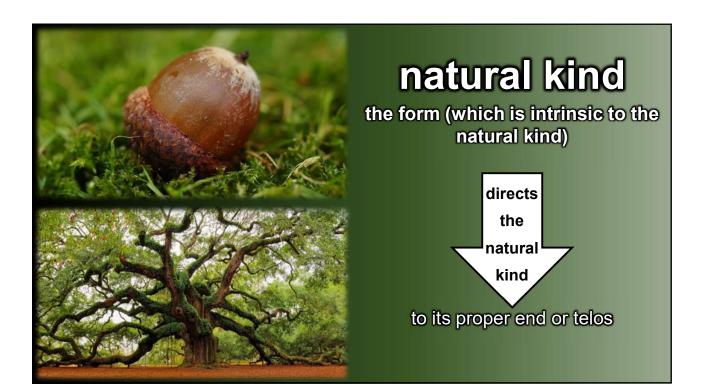


Efficient Cause that *by which* an effect is = who produced the chair: the builder

Final Cause that for which an effect is = why the chair was built: to sit on









There is nothing intrinsic to the wood that causes it to become a chair.

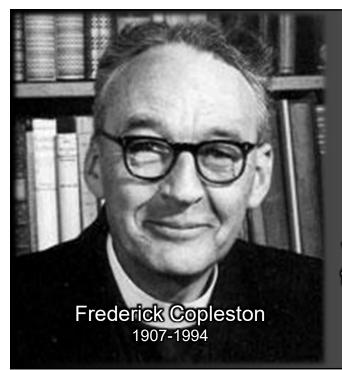
The "form" is completely accounted for extrinsically by the mind of the carpenter.

There is something intrinsic to the acorn that causes it to become an oak tree.

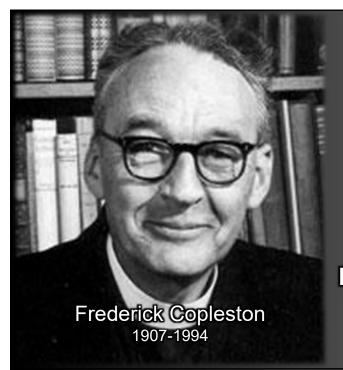
The form is intrinsic to the acorn.

However, for the Christian, God accounts for the existence of the form (extrinsically).

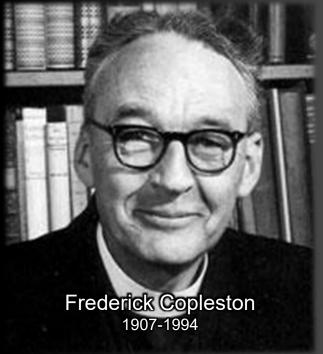
It should be noted that the final cause is not necessarily external to (i.e., from the outside of) the thing, and indeed in Aristotle's thinking, the final cause is often not distinct from the thing itself.



"But though [Aristotle] lays great stress on finality, it would be a mistake to suppose that finality, for Aristotle, is equivalent to external finality, as though we were to say, for instance, that grass grows in order that sheep may have food.



"On the contrary, he insists much more on internal or immanent finality (thus the apple tree has attained its end or purpose, not when its fruit forms a healthy or pleasant food for man or has been made into cider,

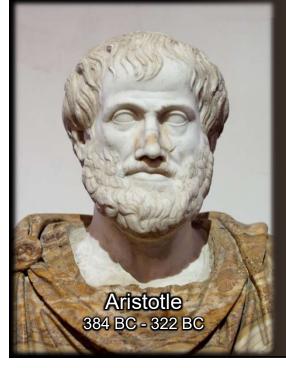


"but when the apple tree has reached that perfection of development of which it is capable, i.e., the perfection of its form), for in his view the formal cause of the thing is normally its final cause as well."

[Frederick Copleston, A History of Philosophy, 9 vols., Vol 1: Greece and Rome (New York: Image Books, 1962-62), 313]

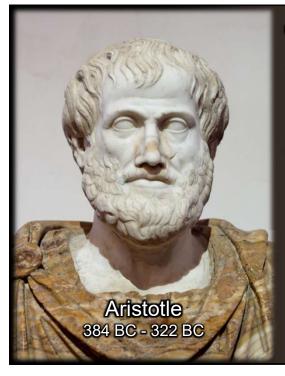
Using an artifact as an illustration of the four causes can be misleading, particularly in describing the final cause. With a statue, one would understand the final cause to be something in the sculptor in terms of his intention.

But for Aristotle, conscious intention is not necessary for final causality. While nature mirrors deliberation in that it works to an end, for Aristotle all things in nature tend toward the full actualization because of their forms.



"Further, where a series has a completion, all the preceding steps are for the sake of that. Now surely as in intelligent action, so in nature; and as in nature, so it is in each action, if nothing interferes. "Now intelligent action is for the sake of an end; therefore the nature of things also is so.... And since 'nature' means two things, the matter and the form, of which the latter is the end, and since all the rest is for the sake of the end, the form must be the cause in the sense of 'that for the sake of which.""

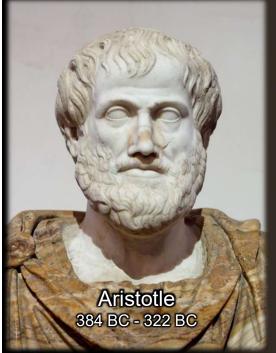
[Physics, II, 3, 194^b24-33, , trans. R. P. Hardie and R. K. Gaye, in McKeon, 240-241]



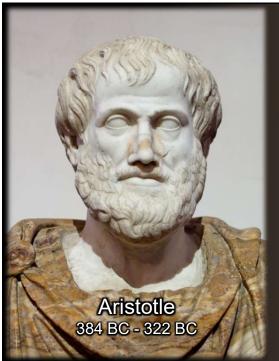
Aristotle

384 BC - 322 BC

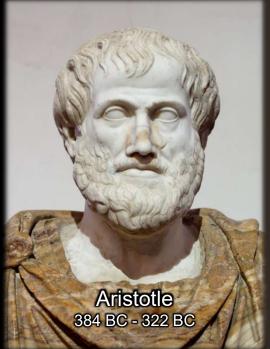
"A difficulty presents itself: why should not nature work, not for the sake of something, nor because it is better so, but just as the sky rains, not in order to make the corn grow, but of necessity?



"What is drawn up must cool, and what has been cooled must become water and descend, the result of this being that the corn grows. Similarly if a man's crop is spoiled on the threshingfloor, the rain did not fall for the sake of this—in order that the crop might be spoiled—but that result just followed.



"Why then should it not be the same with the parts in nature, e.g. that our teeth should come up of necessity—the front teeth sharp, fitted for tearing, the molars broad and useful for grinding down the food—since they did not arise for this end, but it was merely a coincident result; and so with all other parts in which we suppose that there is purpose?



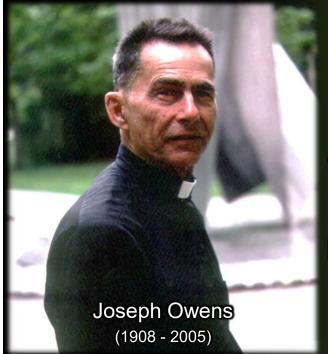
"Wherever then all the parts came about just what they would have been if they had come to be for an end, such things survived, being organized spontaneously in a fitting way; whereas those which grew otherwise perished and continue to perish...."

[Physics, II, 8, 198b17-32, trans. Hardie and Gaye, in McKeon, 249]

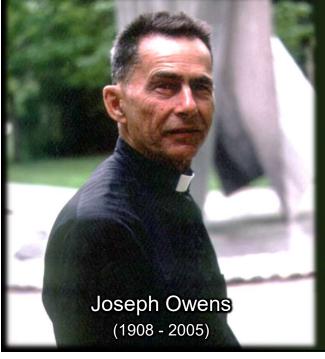


For Aristotle, to be is to be a form. As such, there is no philosophical notion of existence as such in Aristotle's philosophy.

Indeed, there does not seem to be a distinctive philosophical discussion of existence as such in any ancient Greek philosophy.



"From the viewpoint of the much later distinction between essence and the act of existing, this treatment [of the nature of being per accidens] must mean that Aristotle is leaving the act of existing, entirely outside the scope of his philosophy.



"The act of existing must be wholly escaping his scientific consideration. All necessary and definite connections between things can be reduced to essence."

[Joseph Owens, *The Doctrine of Being in the Aristotelian* Metaphysics: *A Study in the Greek Background of Mediaeval Thought*, 3rd ed (Toronto: The Pontifical Institute of Mediaeval Studies), 309 emphasis in original]

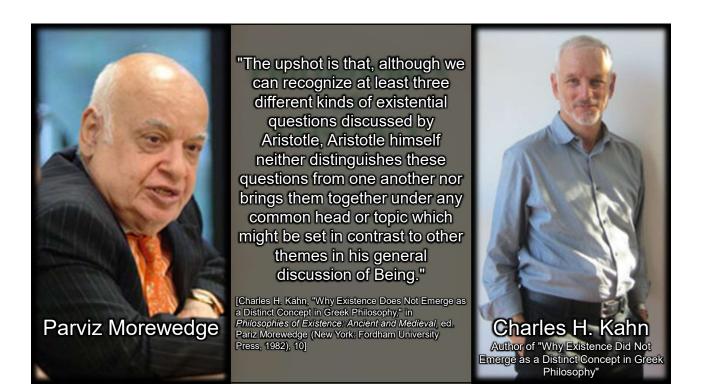


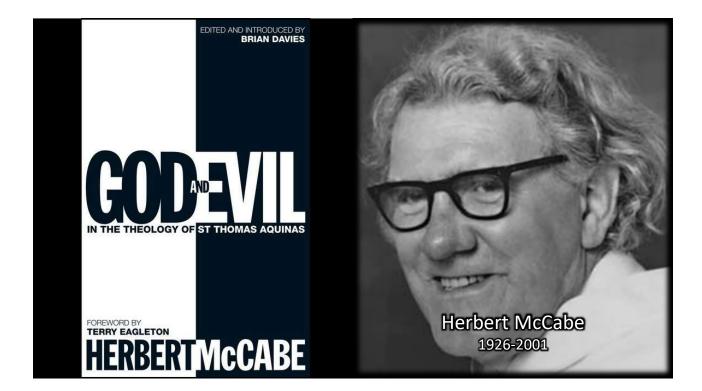
PHILOSOPHIES OF EXISTENCE

> Ancient and Medieval

Edited by Parviz Morewedge





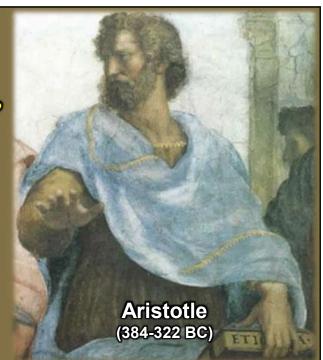


"A perfect X is an X that has all its properties; an imperfect X lacks one of more of its properties."

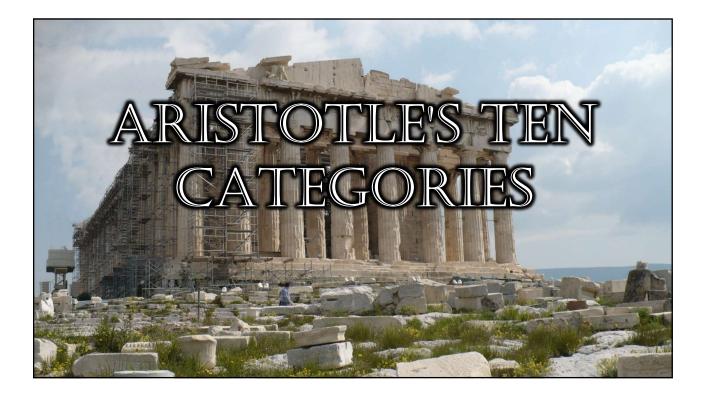
[God and Evil in the Theology of St Thomas Aquinas (London: Continuum, 2010), 40]



 Genus « animal
Specific difference « rationality
Species « human
Proper accident « five fingers
Accident « black hair







Category	Meaning	Greek	Example
Substance/Essence	What	ousia	man, horse
Quantity	How much	poson	six feet tall
Quality	What sort	polon	white, literate
Relation	in relation to something	pros ti	double, half, greater
Place or Location	Where	pou	in the marketplace
Time	When	pote	yesterday, last year
Position	Being situated	keisthai	lies, sits
State or Habitus	Having, possession	echein	is shod, is armed
Action	Doing	poiein	cuts, burns
Passion	Undergoing	paschein	is cut, is burned

A six-foot tall^{Quantity} white^{Quality} man^{Substance}, much taller than his friend^{Relation}, was standing^{Position} in the field^{Place} yesterday^{Time} armed with an ax^{State (Habitus)}, cutting down a tree^{Action}, completely unaware that he was being burned^{Passion} by the sun.