### One: The Doctrine of Distribution

1	The traditional doctrine of distribution is commonly ac-	
	cepted without examination.	3
2	Keynes's formulation needs to be amended, because he confusedly uses schematic letters like "S" to represent	·
	both general terms and singular designations of classes.	4
3	What difference is supposed to exist between the rela-	-
-	tions of denoting and of referring to?	5
4	We cannot coherently take "some man" to refer to some	-
•	man.	6
5	A person who uses the words "some man" may be refer-	
-	ring to some particular man, but what he actually says	
	does not convey this reference.	7
6	An argument of Miss Anscombe's shows that at any rate	
	there could not be just one way that "some man" referred	
	to some man. This robs the doctrine of its intuitive	
	simplicity.	9
7	The idea that speaking of some men leaves us 'in igno-	
	rance with regard to the remainder' has been refuted by	

Keynes himself, and cannot serve to explain the nondistribution of the term "man" or "men".

- 8 "No men" assuredly does not refer to no men or to a class consisting of o men. We should equally doubt the view that "all men" refers to all men and "some men" to some men.
- 9 On a thoroughgoing class reading of categoricals there is no place for distribution.
- 10 As applied to predicate terms the doctrine of distribution is manifest nonsense, though there are ways of getting students to think it makes sense.
- 11 A further piece of sophistical reasoning is required when the doctrine is applied to the predicates of singular propositions.
- 12 We find the worst sophistries of all in 'proofs' that the predicates of particular negative propositions are distributed.
- 13 A medieval example shows that the doctrine does not supply a workable test for the validity of inferences.
- 14 If we correct his incidental mistakes, Hamilton's quantification of the predicate is a natural extension of the doctrine of distribution.
- 15 But a difficulty over simple conversion shows an essential defect in the theory.
- 16 The doctrine of distribution is thus quite indefensible. 20

#### Two: Subject and Predicate

- 17 "Subject" and "predicate" in this work are always linguistic terms. Provisional explanation of these terms.
- 18 It is convenient to say that an expression is a *predicable* when it can be attached to a subject, a *predicate* only when it actually is so attached.
- 19 In predicating we are not necessarily making an assertion or statement. Advantages and disadvantages of the term "proposition".
- 20 Names can be recognized from their use in acts of naming.

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21	Proper names are parts of the language in which they are embedded	-26
22	The role of demonstrative pronouns in simple assertoric	20
	sentences.	27
23	A subject may be picked out of a proposition as an expression that could be linked up with an act of naming.	28
24	A proposition may admit of more than one subject- predicate analysis.	28
25	The name refers to its bearer regardless of time.	20
26	We got a predicate by removing a proper name from a	ĺ
	proposition.	30
27	Names and predicables, referring to and being true of, are irreducibly different.	21
z8	The 'Aristotelian' doctrine is confused as regards the notion of 'term', and as to the role of the copula. The	)
20	two-name theory of predication is demonstrably wrong. The modern theory of varieties of copula is equally	34
-9	erroneous.	26
20	The problem whether there can be negative terms.	28
21	Substantival and adjectival terms	2° 28
32 32	When can substantival general terms occur as logical	<b>)</b> °
	subjects?	40
33 34	The use of proper names as logical subjects seems to	42
25	involve a subject-use of substantival general terms. How does such a term refer to the several objects it can	43
)) ~	be used to name?	46
	Three: Referring Phrases	
36	Explanation of the term "referring phrase". The infer-	
	ences by 'ascent' and 'descent'.	47
37	Russellian and medieval theories of referring phrases and	
	their various modes of reference.	51
38	These theories were unnecessarily complicated by bring- ing in immaterial 'meanings' of referring phrases and (in	
	Russell's case) nonrelational 'combinations' of objects.	53

40	A referring phrase is only a quasi subject, not a subject.	56
41	Frege's analysis of propositions containing referring	
	phrases.	57
42	The 'scope' of referring phrases.	58
43	The canceling-out fallacy.	61
44	The modes of reference of "some" and "any" phrases.	61
45	Confused suppositio-the mode of reference of "a"	
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46	Referring phrases do not require namely-riders if their	
•	suppositio is confused.	64
47	Confused suppositio and disjunctions of proper names.	65
48	A paralogism of Berkeley's explained in terms of con-	
•	fused suppositio.	70
49	The mode of reference of "every" phrases: conjunctive	'
.,	suppositio.	71
50	This kind of <i>suppositio</i> , as distinct from the distributive	'
,	suppositio of "any" phrases, was not recognized by the	
	medieval logicians, but was so by Russell.	72
51	My explanation fits almost all Russell's examples of re-	,
,	ferring phrases.	73
52	Russell's attempted explanation of the distinction be-	15
)-	tween "any" and "every" is different, but is anyhow in-	
	consistent with his own examples	77
52	The distinction between "every" and "any" enables us	11
"	to avoid fallacies	70
<b>7</b> 4	It will however be shown that this no more justifies us	79
24	in accepting the doctrine of suppositio than the falla-	
	ciousness of svilogisms with 'undistributed middle' justi-	
	fied our accepting the doctrine of distribution	70
	ned our accepting the doctime of distribution.	79
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<b></b>	Truth-conditions for propositions containing referring	
<b>)</b> )	phrases or the similar phrases formed with the applicative	
	"most"	٥.
<b>r</b> 6	Exposition of the dictum de omni principle	8- 01
>°	The dictum de amni applied to "come" "app" and	03
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58	Apparent exceptions to the dictum de omni, where we	o
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59	A proposition may be an apparent exception because it	
	is not genuinely formed, as it appears to be, by attaching	
	a predicable to a reterring phrase as quasi subject. Illus-	
	trations with "most", "a", and "every" phrases.	89
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	seems to give a very good account of propositions got	
	by filling the blanks of a two-place predicable with re-	
	ferring phrases.	94
61	If, however, we fill up the two blanks with a "some"	
	phrase and an "any" phrase, the rules land us in difficulty.	96
62	Russell and the medievals could dodge this difficulty with	,
	supplementary rules.	07
62	These rules are awkward and artificial, and no such device.	71
• >	would remove a similar difficulty over a pair of "most"	
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64	The key to our problem is that the order of insertion of	90
<sup>04</sup>	the two phrases into the proposition makes a difference	00
6-	William of Sharwood unwittingly attained this con	99
05	whilam or sherwood unwittingly attained this con-	
	ception.	102
66	The fallacies that the referring-phrase theory sought to	
	avoid, and the apparent exceptions to the dictum de	
	omni that it generates, can all be dealt with in terms of	
	the two notions: order of filling up, and scope. We may	
	therefore reject the alleged distinction between "any"	
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70	Defining and qualifying relative clauses. A provisional	
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71	Are complex terms of the form "A that is P" genuine	
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72	Reasons for denying this: in such phrases we have to	
	split up "that" into a connective (not always the same	
	one) and a logically relative pronoun, and with this the	
	whole appearance of a complex term vanishes like a	
	mirage.	116
73	"Such that" is an all-purpose connective whose ambiguity	
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74	Cannot definitions of terms be given in the form "A	
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75	Proper names and definite descriptions.	122
76	Do relative pronouns ever pick up a reference made by	
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	others do not.	124
77	The sort of example given by Strawson is no exception.	126
78	We must be cautious over classifying a pronoun as one	
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79	Sometimes the work of pronouns answering to bound	
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80	A reflexive pronoun does not have the same reference	
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81	Walter Burleigh on the <i>suppositio</i> of reflexive pronouns.	132
82	A reflexive pronoun cannot be taken as filling up one	-)
	blank in a two- or many-place predicable.	125
82	Rather, a reflexive pronoun fills up both places in a two-	- >>
- )	place predicable, but its own requirement for an ante-	
	cedent reintroduces an empty place. This account is	
	essily extended to many-place predicables. The matter	
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84	There are connected nuzzles shout those uses of bound	130
<sup>0</sup> 4	variables which correspond to the use of reflering and	
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Six: Pronominal Reference: Indefinite Pronouns List of the pronouns to be discussed-a miscellaneous 85 lot. 144 "Anything, everything, something" and 86 the noun "thing". 144 We might try splitting up "something that is F" into 87 "some" and "thing-that is F"; here "thing-that" would be a logically simple sign with the role of transforming a predicable "is F" into something that can occur in subject position. 145 88 This might be used to explain the systematic ambiguity whereby a substantival general term can shift about between subject and predicate position. 147 But to take "thing that is F" as a sort of complex name 89 is open to some of the objections raised in section 72 to a similar view of "A that is F". 148 Analyzing away this sort of phrase leaves us once more 90 with unanalyzed occurrences of "anything", "something", and the like. 149 Are phrases like "any A" and "some A" analyzable in 91 terms of the corresponding "-thing" pronouns and merely predicative occurrences of "A"? Reasons to deny this. 149 Frege's views on identity and countability. 92 151 An alternative view of unrestricted quantifiers. 93 153 Application of this to quantifiers that reach into an 94 oratio obliqua clause. 155 Quantifiers with proper-name variables and with general-95 term variables. These two sorts of quantifier relate to the same entities. Proper-name variables can occur in a language that includes no proper names. 158 The error of Quine's slogan "To be is to be the value of 96 a variable". Only predicable expressions can fill the blank in "There is-"; and empty proper names, unlike empty predicables, have no place in language used to convey information. 161 Empty proper names in oratio obliqua clauses constitute 97 only an apparent exception. 163

98 The forms "For some x, x is F", "There is something that is F", "Something or other is F", "There exists something that is F", are in very many cases equivalent. 165

### Seven: The Logic of Lists

- Lists of proper names; their mode of significance. A
  proper name is a one-item list.
- The modification of a predicate by an applicative (of a certain class) yields a predicate that can be attached to an arbitrarily long list as subject; the truth-condition of this predication is that a certain disjunction of conjunctions of singular propositions should be true.

101 The interpretation of predicates that take lists as subjects, for the degenerate case of one-item lists. 172

- 102 It is only an incidental effect of applicatives to remove ambiguities in truth-conditions. 173
- 103 Solution of an old puzzle about suppositio. There is no need to ascribe to a list various modes of reference; one must 'separate the concept all from the truth-function'. 174
- 104 Generalization of our results to many-place predicables and to lists of arbitrary finite length. 176
- 105 A substantival general term can take the place of a list as a logical subject; it is by itself a logical subject and does not go with an applicative to form a quasi subject. 178
- 106 Truth-conditions for categoricals with empty general terms as logical subjects. 180
- 107 What are we to say when the things covered by a general term cannot be listed? 184
- 108 The applicative "only" and the pronouns "the same" and "other". 186
- 109 Tentative account of substantival general terms in predicate position. 190

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