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Affirming the consequent is

The reason for this confirmation is the name of an invalid conditional argument form. Think of it as an invalid version of the modus ponens. Below is modus ponens, which is valid: 1. If A then B 2. For this reason, B Now, below is the invalid form that you get when you try to deduce the history by confirming the resulting: 1. If you are A then B 2. B Therefore, A No matter what statements are replaced by A and B, all arguments which form I will be valid and any argument that confirms the consequent will be invalid. Note that it means that an argument is invalid, that if the premises are all true, the conclusion may still be false. In other words, the truth about the premises does not guarantee the truth of the conclusion. Here's an example: 1. If I have the flu, I'll have a fever. 2. I have a fever. That's why I have the flu. Here we are confirming that the resulting is true, and from this inferring that the prequel is also true. But obviously, the conclusion doesn't have to be true. Many different diseases can cause fever, so the fact that you have a fever, there's no guarantee that you have the flu. More officially, if you were asked to justify why this argument is invalid, you would say that it is invalid because there exists a possible world in which the premises are all true, but the conclusion turns out false, and you could defend this claim by providing a concrete example of such a world. For example, you could describe a world where I don't have the flu, but my fever is bronchitis, or a reaction to a drug I'm taking. Another example: 1. If there is no gas in the car, then the car will not run. 2. The car will not run. That's why there's no gas in the car. That doesn't follow either. Maybe the battery's dead, maybe the engine's dead. Since gasoline is not the only possible explanation why the car does not start. Here's a tougher one. The argument is written in a non-standard form, and the conditional form isn't so transparent: You said you'd call me if you got home before 9:00 p.m. and called, so you have to go home before 9:00 p.m. Is this conclusion valid or invalid? This is not as obvious as other examples, and part of it is because there is no natural causality between the omen and the consequent that can help you rethink your conditional logic. We understand that cars need gas to operate, and flus cause fever, but there's no natural causal link between getting home before a certain amount of time and making a phone call. To be sure of such arguments, you need to rely on knowledge of conditional claims and conditional argument forms. You identify your predecessors and conditional claim, rewrite the argument in standard form, and determine whether it meets one of the valid or invalid arguments that you know. Here is the argument written in standard form, where I have been careful to note that the prequel to conditional, what comes after the if: 1. When you get home before 9pm, you give me a call. 2. You gave me a call. So you got home before 9:00 p.m. It is now clearer that the argument in the form of confirms the consequent, which we know is invalid. The argument would be valid if you said you would give me a call only if you got home before 9pm, but that's not what they say here. If he got home at 9:30 or 10:00 and called, he wouldn't go against any of the rooms. If these kinds of translation practices help conditional statements are unknown, you can check out the tutorial course on Basic Concepts in Propositional Logic, which is a whole section on different ways says: If you have type B erroneous argument (logical error) Confirming the consequent, sometimes converse error, error of the opposite, or confusion about the need and conformity, the official error make a real conditional statement (eg if the lamp was broken, then the room would be dark,) and invalidly inferring the converse (The room is dark, so the lamp is broken,), although the opposite may not be true. This occurs if the resulting (the room would be dark) has several possible predentuses (for example, the lamp is not connected or the lamp is in working order but is turned off). Converse mistakes are common in everyday thinking and communication, and can result from, among other things, communication problems, misconceptions about logic, and failure to take into account other reasons. The opposite statement, which denies the consequent certificate, is a valid form of argument. Official description To support this: Confirm the true statement of $P \to Q$ and invalidly constrain it to converse $Q \to P$. The resulting name comes from the $Q \to Q$ that is used to bind the prefix P. This illogicality can be formally combined as $(P \to Q, Q) \to P$ or, alternatively, $P \to Q$, Q $\therefore P$. The root cause of such a logical error is sometimes not realize that just because P is a possible condition of Q, P may not be the only condition q, ie Q can follow another condition as well. [1] [2] Confirmation of the consequent assertions may also stem from the over-generalized experience of many statements requiring true conversation. If P and Q are equivalent statements, i.e. $P \leftrightarrow Q$, a p conclusion can be made in addition to the Q condition. For example, it's August 13th, so this is my $P \to Q$ and It's my birthday, so August 13 $Q \to P$ are equivalent, and both true consequences of the statement august 13th is my birthday (abbreviated form $P \leftrightarrow Q$). The use of one statement to conclude the other is not an example of the consequent confirmation, but some people may take this approach incorrectly. More examples 1. For example: If Bill Gates owns Fort Knox, then Bill Gates is rich. Bill Gates is rich. That's why Bill Gates owns Fort Knox. Owning Fort Knox isn't the only way to get rich. There are many other ways to be rich. However, you can confirm with certainty that if someone is not rich (not Q), then that person does not own Fort Knox (not P). This is the consideration for the first claim and must be true if and only if the original claim is true. Example 2 Here is another useful, obviously-erroneous example, but one that requires no knowledge of who Bill Gates is and what Fort Knox is: If an animal is a dog, it has four legs. My cat has four legs. That's why my cat is a dog. Here it is immediately intuitive that a number of other prefixes (If an animal is deer..., If an animal is an elephant..., If an animal is a moose..., etc..) can give rise to the consequent (you have four legs) and that it is absurd to

assume that having four legs should mean that the animal is a dog and nothing else. This is useful as a teaching example since most people can immediately recognize that the conclusion must be wrong (instinctively, a cat cannot be a dog), and that the method which was reached must be etye-s.

Example 3 Arguments of the same shape can sometimes seem superficially persuasive, as in the following example: If Brian had been thrown from the top of the Eiffel Tower, he would be dead. Brian's dead. So Brian was thrown off the roof of the Eiffel Tower. Throwing from the top of the Eiffel Tower is not the only cause of death, as there are many different causes of death. Reinforcing the consequent is often used for rationalization, and thus seems like a coping mechanism for some people. Example 4 in Trap 22,[3] the chaplain is being questioned for allegedly Washington Irving/Irving Washington, who sealed most of the soldiers' letters at home. The colonel found a letter like this, but the pastor's name is signed. He can read, can't he? The author signed his name. That's my name. Then you wrote it. Q.E.D. P in this case the pastor signs his own name, and Q the pastor's name is written. Pastor's name must be written, but not necessarily written as the colonel wrongly concludes. [3] See also the list of errors Abduction reasoning Appeal to the consequences Of the invitation to consequences The inverse refusal of the ELIZA effect is the only reason for error of this not distributed middle conclusion is the best explanation Modus ponens Modus penens Post hoc ergo propter hocy and sufficient references ^ Confirming the consequent. Mistake ifiles. Mistake ifiles. Accessed May 9, 2013. ^ Damer, T. Edward (2001). Mistaking the necessary, in good condition. Offensive erroneous reasoning (ed. 4). Wadsworth. ^ Heller, Joseph (1994). Trap 22. Vintage. 438, 8. ISBN 0-09-947731-9. The

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