

A glowing lightbulb is the central focus, with a warm yellow light emanating from it. The base of the lightbulb is encased in a white, paper-like cone that has been torn and crumpled, suggesting a broken idea or a fallacy. The background is dark, making the lightbulb stand out prominently.

# 30 MORE FALLACIES

Michael LaBossiere

# 30 More Fallacies

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*1<sup>st</sup> Edition*  
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*This book is a follow up to 42 Fallacies, which is also available for the Kindle and Nook  
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## Introduction

This book is intended as a companion to my *42 Fallacies* and it adds thirty fallacies. However, this book does not require that you have *42 Fallacies* and it stands on its own.

As the title indicates, this book presents thirty fallacies. Understanding what a fallacy is requires that you first have at least a basic understanding of arguments in the philosophical sense. In philosophy, an argument is not a fight or even a dispute. Rather, an argument is as set of claims (statements that can be true or false) that are related in a way that one of them is supported by the others. Another way to look at it is that one claim is presented to be proven and the other claims are presented as evidence or reasons for that claim,

In technical terms, the claim being argued for is known as the conclusion. A single argument has one (and only one) conclusion. One way to spot a conclusion is to ask “what is the point that is supposed to be proven here?” If there is no point, then there is no argument. Of course, a person can make a point without offering proof, so what is also needed is evidence or reasons. The evidence or reasons being presented in support of the conclusion are known as premises. An argument will always have at least one premise, but there is no limit on the number allowed. One way to find premises is to ask “what reasons, if any, are being given in support of the conclusion?” If no reasons are given, then there is no argument present.

In general, philosophers take arguments to be of two main types: deductive and inductive. A deductive argument is an argument such that the premises provide (or are supposed to provide) complete support for the conclusion. An inductive argument is an argument such that the premises provide (or are supposed to provide) some degree of support (but less than complete support) for the conclusion. The support given by the premises to the conclusion is a matter of logic and, interestingly enough, has nothing to do with whether the premises are actually true or not. I will say more about this later.

If a deductive argument’s premises properly support the conclusion, the argument is valid. In technical terms, a valid deductive argument is such that if all its premises were true, then its conclusion must be true.

If a deductive argument is valid and actually does have all true premises, then it is sound. An argument can be valid and unsound by having one or more false premises.

If a deductive argument is such that the premises could all be true while the conclusion is false at the same time, then the argument is invalid. Invalid arguments are always unsound. This is because a sound argument must be valid and have all true premises.

An invalid argument is also known as a formal fallacy or a deductive fallacy. This book does not cover these fallacies.

Deductive arguments are tested for validity using a variety of methods, such as Venn diagrams, truth tables and logical proofs. While these are interesting (well, to some people), they will not be covered in this book.

Inductive arguments are assessed differently from deductive arguments. If the premises of an inductive argument support the conclusion adequately (or better) it is a strong argument. It is such that if the premises are true, the conclusion is likely to be true. If a strong inductive argument has all true premises, it is sometimes referred to as being cogent.

One feature of inductive logic is that even a strong inductive argument can have a false conclusion even when all the premises are true. This is because of what is known as the inductive leap: with an inductive argument the conclusion always goes beyond the

premises. However, this does not make all inductive reasoning fallacious (although it does make it all technically invalid). An inductive fallacy occurs when an argument's premises do not adequately support the conclusion. In most fallacies this occurs because the premises being offered have little or no logical connection to conclusion. The fallacies covered in this book are of the informal inductive sort.

Before moving on to the actual fallacies, it is necessary to have a short discussion about what fallacies are not. Unfortunately for those who teach about fallacies, people often use the term "fallacy" when they are actually referring to a factual error. For example, someone might say "a lot of people think that Google created Android from scratch, but that is a fallacy. Google actually based Android on Linux." While thinking that Android was created from scratch would be an error, it is an error about the facts, rather than an error in logic. If someone said "Android is awful. After all, a fair number of creepy geeks use it", then this would be an error in logic. Even if creepy geeks use Android, this does not prove that the operating system is awful. While both of these are mistakes, they are two different types of mistakes.

To see why, think about balancing a checkbook. I can make a mistake by doing the math incorrectly (which would be an error in reasoning) and I can make a mistake by entering the wrong amount for a check. These errors are different and treating them the same would cause confusion. The same applies for fallacies and factual errors.

To use another analogy, think about cooking. One way I could screw up a meal is by cooking badly. This would be like an error in logic. Another way is that I could use the wrong (or bad) ingredients. That would be like making a factual error.

As such, it is one thing to get the facts wrong (factual error) and quite another to reason badly about them (fallacy).

So, a fallacy is an error in reasoning/logic. To be more specific, a fallacy is an argument in which the premises fail to provide adequate logical support for the conclusion. A deductive fallacy, as noted above, is a deductive argument that is invalid (it is such that it could have all true premises and still have a false conclusion). Whether an argument is valid or invalid is an objective matter and can be tested by various means, such as truth tables and proofs.

An inductive fallacy is less formal than a deductive fallacy. They are weak inductive arguments in which the premises do not provided enough support for the conclusion. While deductive arguments can be tested with objective and definitive means, the same is not true for inductive arguments. There are objective standards, but assessing informal fallacies is somewhat like judging figure skating: really good and really bad cases are easy to spot, but there are situations where there will be reasonable dispute.

People also use the term "fallacy" to refer to errors that are not factual errors and do not involve actual arguments (in the technical sense). This is sometimes done when referring to cases of rhetoric in which an argument is not present. Some people are rather flexible about what counts as a fallacy and include things that more strict classifiers would exclude. My approach is to present the fallacies in terms of being flawed arguments while also respecting the broader usage of the term by mentioning such common uses in the relevant fallacies.

When reading through the fallacies, be sure to keep in mind that there is no "official governing body" for fallacies. As such, you will almost certainly see other names and slightly different definitions for these fallacies in other sources.

It is also a good idea to keep in mind that not all things that look like fallacies are actually fallacies. In some cases, they are not fallacies because they are not arguments. In other cases, what might be taken as a fallacy is actually a non-fallacious argument. I have taken care to make a special note of such cases in the relevant descriptions. As a final point, there are far more fallacies than are listed in this book (or any book). So, just because something does not match a named fallacy, it might still be a fallacy (or it might not).

## Examples

### **Example of a Valid Deductive Argument**

Premise 1: If Bill is a cat, then Bill is a mammal.

Premise 2: Bill is a cat.

Conclusion: Bill is a mammal.

### **Example of a Strong Inductive Argument**

Premise 1: Most American cats are domestic house cats.

Premise 2: Bill is an American cat.

Conclusion: Bill is domestic house cat.

### **Example of a Factual Error**

Columbus, Ohio is the capital of the United States.

### **Example of a Deductive Fallacy (Invalid Deductive Argument)**

Premise 1: If Portland is the capital of Maine, then it is in Maine.

Premise 2: Portland is in Maine.

Conclusion: Portland is the capital of Maine.

(Portland is in Maine, but Augusta is the capital. Portland is the largest city in Maine, though.)

### **Example of an Inductive Fallacy (a Hasty Generalization)**

Premise 1: Having just arrived in Ohio, I saw a white squirrel.

Conclusion: All Ohio squirrels are white.

## The Fallacies

What you will find below are entries for thirty common fallacies. Each entry provides a common name for the fallacy, common alternative names, a general form, a description and examples.

### **Accent, Fallacy of**

#### **Description:**

This fallacy occurs when a conclusion is drawn from a premise or premises that are ambiguous due to a lack of clarity regarding the emphasis. Most commonly this fallacy

involves an ambiguity arising from a shift in emphasis/accents in the course of the argument. This fallacy has the following form:

- 1) Premises are presented that are ambiguous due to a lack of clarity regarding emphasis.
- 2) Conclusion C is drawn from these premises.

Ambiguity by itself is not fallacious, but is a lack of clarity in language that occurs when a claim has two (or more) meanings and it is not clear which is intended. The Fallacy of Accent occurs when an inference is drawn from a premise or premises on the basis of a specific sort of ambiguity that arises in three main ways.

The first is that a claim is ambiguous because the intended tone is not clear. For example, the claim “you would be lucky to get this person to work for you” could be high praise or a sarcastic remark depending on the tone used. The second is that the ambiguity arises from a lack of clarity regarding the intended stress. For example, the meaning of the claim “Leslie thinks that Sally has been faithful to him” can shift based on the stress. Stressed one way, the claim can be taken as indicating that Leslie thinks this, but is wrong. A third possibility is that claim is taken out of context. As an example, suppose that the original text was “Among the radical left, Mr. Jones has considerable appeal as a congressional candidate. However, mainstream voters rightfully regard him as a questionable choice, at best.” If someone were to quote this as “Mr. Jones has considerable appeal as a congressional candidate”, then they would be taking the quote out of context.

Perhaps the most used example of this sort of fallacy involves a hard drinking first mate and his teetotaler captain. Displeased by the mate’s drinking habits, the captain always made a point of entering “the mate was drunk today” into the ship’s log whenever the mate was drunk. One day, when the captain was sick, the mate entered “the captain was sober today” into the log. Naturally, the mate intended that the reader would take this emphasis as an indication that the event was unusual enough to be noted in the log and thus infer that the captain was drunk on all the other days. Obviously, to believe that conclusion would be to fall victim to the fallacy of accent.

### **Example #1**

Sally: “I made Jane watch Jennifer Aniston in *Just Go With It* last night.”

Ted: “What did she think?”

Sally: “She said that she never wants to see another Jennifer Aniston movie.”

Ted: “But you love Jennifer and have all her movies. What are you going to do?”

Sally: “I’ll do exactly what she said. I’ll make her watch *Just Go With It* repeatedly.”

Ted: “Cruel.”

Sally: “Not at all. She did say that she never wants to see *another* Jennifer Aniston movie and I’ll see to that by making sure that she watches that movie rather than another.”

### **Example #2**

Dr. Jane Gupta (on TV): “Though Prescott Pharmaceuticals claims that their VacsaDiet 3000 is ‘guaranteed to help you shed those unsightly pounds’, this claim has not been verified and many of the ingredients in the product present potential health risks.”

Stephen: "Hey, Bob! Dr. Jane Gupta just said that 'Prescott Pharmaceuticals VacsaDiet 3000 is guaranteed to help you shed those unsightly pounds.'"

Bob: "In that case, I'm going to buy it. After all, Dr. Jane knows her stuff."

Stephen: "Yes she does. You just missed her-she was on TV talking all about diets and stuff."

Bob: "I'm sorry I missed that. By the way, do these new pants make me look fat?"

Stephen: "No, your fat makes you look fat."

Bob: "You wound me, sir."

### **Example #3**

Employer: "I wasn't sure about hiring you. After all, you were at your last job just a month. But your former employer's letter said that anyone would be lucky to get you to work for them."

Keith: "I will do my best to live up to that, ma'am."

Employer: "I'm sure you will. Welcome to the company."

## **Accident, Fallacy of**

### **Description:**

This fallacy occurs when a general rule is misapplied to a specific case that is actually beyond its intended scope. The fallacy has the following form:

- 1) General rule G, which usually applies to Xs is presented.
- 2) A is an X, but is an exception to G.
- 3) G is applied to A as if it were not an exception.

This is an error in reasoning because the general rule is being incorrectly applied to the specific case at hand. The application is incorrect because of the accidental property or properties of X make it an exception to the rule.

This fallacy is historically attributed to Aristotle. As far as the name goes, it does not mean an accident in the usual sense (like getting hit by a car). Roughly put, Aristotle took an accidental property as lacking a necessary connection to the essence of a thing so that the property could change without the thing in question ceasing to be what it is. In contrast, essential qualities are necessary to the thing being what it is. For example, *having three sides* is an essential property of a triangle: if it ceases have three sides, it is no longer a triangle. Essential properties allow for no exceptions, so if property P is essential to being an F, then anything without P would also not be an F.

Continuing the triangle example, the specific color of a triangle, say blue, is an accidental property. This is not because it became blue as the result of an accident involving paint, but because ceasing to be blue would not make it cease to be a triangle. As such, accidental properties allow for exceptions.

Making an inference from an essential property would not be an error. For example, inferring that a specific triangle has three sides because triangles necessarily have three sides would be good reasoning. Treating an accidental property as an essential property and making this sort of inference would be an error. For example, while the vast majority of mammals lack pouches, lacking a pouch is not an essential property of mammals. So to

infer that a marsupial lacks a pouch because it is a mammal would involve this sort of error.

The fallacy can occur in cases literally involving rules (such as laws) or cases in which the rule is a bit more metaphorical (such as a rule of thumb).

### **Example #1**

“According to the constitution, people have a right to privacy. John beat his wife in private, so to arrest him for that would violate his right to privacy. So, he should not be arrested.”

### **Example #2**

Jane: “Please stop posting lies about me in your blog.”

Jim: “Like hell I will. I know my rights and I have a right to free expression!”

Jane: “Then I will have to sue you for libel.”

Jim: “Go right ahead. You’ll never win. Freedom of the press, babycakes. That means I am free to write whatever I want and there is nothing you can do.”

### **Example #3**

1. Birds fly.
2. Penguins are birds.
3. Therefore, penguins fly.

## **Amphiboly, Fallacy of**

### **Description:**

This fallacy occurs when a conclusion is drawn from a premise or premises that are ambiguous due to their grammatical structure. This fallacy has the following form:

- 3) Grammatically ambiguous premises are presented.
- 4) Conclusion C is drawn from these premises.

Amphiboly is a specific type of ambiguity caused by grammatical structure. Briefly put, something is ambiguous when it has two or more meanings and the context does not make it clear which is intended. Some texts refer to amphiboly as syntactical ambiguity (as contrasted with semantic ambiguity). This sort of ambiguity is often funny, as in the classic Groucho Marx line: “one morning I shot an elephant in my pajamas. How he got into my pajamas I’ll never know.”

Ambiguity is not itself a fallacy, but rather a lack of clarity in language (which might be intentional or accidental). The fallacy of amphiboly occurs when an inference is drawn from a premise or premises on the basis of such a grammatical ambiguity.

While this fallacy is not particularly common, it is somewhat famous thanks to King Croesus of Lydia, as shown in the following example. This example illustrates how a person can fall prey to the fallacy by drawing the conclusion he favors from premise that is ambiguous.

**Example #1**

King Croesus: "Oracle, if I go to war with Cyrus the King of Persia, then what will happen?"

Oracle of Delphi: "If Croesus went to war with Cyrus he would destroy a mighty kingdom."

King Croesus: "Excellent! After I destroy Cyrus, I shall make many and generous offerings to the gods."

**Example #2**

Roger: "Janet told Sally that she had made an error."

Ted: "Wow, I'm impressed that Janet was willing to admit the error she made."

**Example #3**

Lawyer: "Richard Jones left \$20,000 and his cat, Mr. Whiskerpants, to Sally Jones and Daniel Jones."

Sally: "Looks like I get the money and you get that darn cat."

Daniel: "What?"

Mr. Whiskerpants: "Meow."

**Appeal to Envy****Description:**

This fallacy occurs when a person infers a fault in another based on the emotion of envy. The fallacy has the following form:

1. Person A feels envious of person B.
2. Therefore person B has fault F.

This sort of "reasoning" is fallacious because a feeling of envy does not prove that a person has a fault or flaw. This error is tempting because people are often inclined to think badly of those they envy.

Naturally, while envy is generally regarded as a negative emotion, the feeling of envy is not a fallacy.

**Example #1**

"Sure he is rich and handsome, but I'm sure he doesn't have any friends."

**Example #2**

Sally: "You know rich people are very unhappy."

Ted: "Why think that? After all, they can solve many problems with money."

Sally: "I just know they are. I mean, look at their amazing lives: wealth, luxury goods, trips, beautiful boyfriends, and awesomeness. They just have to be unhappy. They just do."

## Appeal to Group Identity

**Also Known As: Group think fallacy**

### **Description:**

This fallacy occurs when an appeal to group identity is offered as a substitute for evidence for a claim. It has the following form:

- 1) An appeal, A, is made to a person or persons' identity with group G.
- 2) Therefore, claim C is true.

While the specific nature of the appeal can vary, the most common method of appealing to group identity involves an attempt to make use of the pride the group members feel regarding the specific group. While feeling pride and identifying with a group are not fallacious, to accept a claim based on group pride or identity would be an error. This is because feelings of pride and a feeling of group identity do not serve as evidence for a claim. A person can make this appeal to others or can make such an appeal to himself.

This fallacy can be used with any sort of group identity, such as political groups, ethnic groups, religious groups, and so on. One rather common version makes use of nationalism (pride in one's country) when attempting to get people to accept a claim (or accept that they should reject a claim). People can convince themselves that a claim is true (or false) based on their feeling of group identity or pride. As such, this fallacy can be self-inflicted.

That group identity does not serve as proof is easily shown by the following example: "I am proud of being a Flat-Earther, therefore the earth is flat."

This fallacy is easy to confuse with peer pressure, appeal to belief, and common practice. However, the mistake being made is different. While the peer pressure fallacy does involve a group, the mistake being made is that a claim is accepted based on fear of rejection by the group rather than because of pride in that group. In the case of appeal to belief, the error being made is that a claim is accepted on the basis that many people believe the claim. Common practice, as the name indicates, involves accepting that a practice is correct/good because it is common, rather than on the basis of identifying with a group that engages in that practice. People can commit multiple fallacies, so someone might appeal to group identity while also appealing to belief and to common practice.

### **Example #1**

"Your blog post is truly awful. Your criticism of America's Middle East policy shows that you are not a real American. Me, I love America and I am proud to be an American. Since you obviously do not love America or have any pride in her greatness, you should pack up and move to Iran. I think this takes care of your criticisms."

### **Example #2**

Fred: "America is responsible for global warming."

Sally: "Well, we do contribute more than our fair share to the problem."

Fred: "No, it is not just that Americans contribute more. American corporations and the American politicians set the world agenda and thus America is to blame for global warming."

Sally: “That seems a bit much. Surely other nations contribute as well. Look at China, for example. China is hardly an American puppet and they are cranking out cars and coal plants.”

Fred: “You just don’t get it. America is the cause of the world’s problems.”

Sally: “Wait; are you one of those ‘blame America first’ people?”

Fred: “That phrase is loaded, but I am proud to be on the left. We are the vanguard against America’s misdeeds and will make the world a better place. I know we are right because I can feel it in my heart.”

Sally: “So, you know you are right because you are proud of your elite group?”

Fred: “Yes. Maybe someday you will join us.”

Sally: “Will I have to buy a Prius and an iPad?”

Fred: “Of course.”

### **Example #3**

“Sure, there are people who criticize the government. But, as the guy said, ‘my country, wrong or right.’ So, those critics need to shut up and accept that they are wrong. Or maybe someone should shut them up with some Second Amendment remedies.”

### **Example #4**

“I’ve seen a lot of debate about faith, but I know that my faith is the correct one. Every time that I think of my relation with God and my fellow believers, my heart swells with pride at our true and pure faith. I cannot help but feel sorry for those who blindly refuse to accept what we thus know to be true, but perhaps they will realize the foolishness of their error before it is too late.”

### **Example #5**

George: “Wow, that Mal Mart seems pretty bad. Lawsuits from women and minorities and so on, that shows they have some real problems going on.”

Gerald: “You shut your Twinkie hole! I work at Mal Mart and I won’t listen to you say anything bad about us!”

George: “Easy, I’m not attacking you!”

Gerald: “When you attack Mal Mart, you attack me. Now admit you are wrong!”

George: “What, just because you work there and think you are part of the big Mal Mart family? That has nothing to do with me being right or wrong about the company.”

Gerald: “Shut up or I’ll lower your prices.”

George: “What?”

## **Appeal to Guilt**

### **Also Known As:** Guilt trip

An appeal to guilt is a fallacy in which a person substitutes a claim intended to create guilt for evidence in an argument. The form of the “argument” is as follows:

- 1) G is presented, with the intent to create a feeling of guilt in person P.
- 2) Therefore claim C is true.

This line of “reasoning” is fallacious because a feeling of guilt does not serve as evidence for a claim. The emotion of guilt, like all emotions, is not itself fallacious. However, to accept a claim as true based on the “evidence” of feeling guilt would be an error.

This fallacy is often used in an attempt to get a person to do something (to accept a claim that they should do something as being true) by trying to invoke a feeling of guilt. While it is appropriate to feel guilt when one has done something wrong, the fact that a person has been caused to feel guilty does not show that the person should feel guilty. The question of when a person should or should not feel guilt is primarily a matter for ethics rather than logic, which takes it beyond the intended scope of this book.

There are cases in which claims that logically serve as evidence can also evoke a feeling of guilt. In these cases, the feeling of guilt is still not evidence. The following shows a situation in which a person would probably feel guilt but in which there is also legitimate evidence for the claim being made:

Jane: “You really should help Sally move.”

Hilda: “Moving is a drag. Besides, the game is on then.”

Jane: “Sally helped you move. In fact, she spent all day helping you because no one else would.”

Hilda: “Are you trying to guilt me into helping her?”

Jane: “Yeah, a bit. But you owe her. She helped you move and you really should feel bad if you don’t lend her a hand.”

Hilda: “She’ll be fine. A lot of her friends are helping her out.”

Jane: “And they are helping her because she helped them. That is what friends do. If you value her friendship, then you should go with me.”

The above example does not involve a fallacy. While Jane does hope that Hilda will feel guilt and be motivated to help Sally, the fact that Sally helped Hilda does provide a legitimate reason as to why Hilda should help her. Naturally, it could be argued that helping people does not create a debt, but this would be a matter of substantial moral dispute rather than proof that Jane has made a logical error.

### **Example #1**

Child: “I’m full.”

Parent: “You need to finish all your food. There are children starving in Africa.”

Child: “But broccoli is awful!”

Parent: “Those kids in Africa would love to have even a single piece of broccoli. Shame on you for not eating it.”

Child: “Okay, I’ll send them this broccoli!”

Parent: “No, you’ll eat it.”

Child: “But how does that help the starving kids?”

Parent: “Finish the broccoli!”

### **Example #2**

Eric: “I need an iPad!”

Mother: "Don't you already have one?"  
Eric: "That was the old iPad. I need a new iPad."  
Mother: "You barely use the iPad you have now."  
Eric: "If you love me, you'll get me one!"  
Mother: "I don't think you need a new one now."  
Eric: "How can you treat me like this? What sort of mother would let her son go to school without the latest iPad? You hate me!"  
Mother: "Okay, I'll get you one."  
Eric: "I need a new iPhone, too."  
Mother: "I just bought you one!"  
Eric: "The new one is a different color. That changes everything."  
Mother: "Fine."

### **Example #3**

Bill: "You're late. I planned dinner for when you were supposed to get home, so yours is cold now."  
Kelly: "I'm sorry. The meeting ran a little longer than I expected. But the boss had good news for me-I got a raise!"  
Bill: "Oh sure, show up late for dinner and throw a raise in my face, now that I'm not working!"  
Kelly: "I didn't throw it in your face, I just..."  
Bill: "You're robbing me of my manhood!"  
Kelly: "I'm sorry!"  
Bill: "Well, you can make it up to me by buying me a motorcycle."  
Kelly: "Okay. I'm sorry about dinner and getting a raise."  
Bill: "That's okay. You can use the raise to get me a really good motorcycle."

## **Appeal to Silence**

**Also Known As:** Argument from Silence, Argumentum ex Silentio

### **Description:**

This fallacy occurs when someone attempts to take silence (or a lack of response) as evidence for claim. It has the following form:

- 1) No reply (or objection) has been made to claim C.
- 2) Therefore, claim C is true.

This is a fallacy because the fact that no reply (or objection) has been made to a claim is not evidence for that claim. A lack of reply (or objection) leaves the claim with as much evidence as it had prior to any lack of reply (or objection).

There are cases in which a lack of reply (or objection) can be taken as evidence for a claim, but this typically requires establishing a situation in which a lack of reply reasonably indicates consent to accepting the claim. For example, suppose that someone is conducting a meeting in which a matter has been discussed and voted on. The chair says "if there are no objections to be stated, then the consensus is that we will go with Sally's plan." It would not be a fallacy for the chair to accept the claim that the consensus is to go

with Sally's plan. While the chair could be mistaken (people might hate her plan but just want the meeting to end), there is no error in reasoning.

This fallacy is similar to appeal to ignorance and is sometimes classified as a variant of this fallacy. The main difference is that an appeal to ignorance is typically based on a general lack of evidence against something while the appeal to silence is typically aimed at the lack of a reply (or objection) in a specific context, such in a conversation or debate in the comments of a blog.

### **Example #1**

"Aha, the blog's author never replied to my criticism of her view of string theory. From her lack of reply, I must infer that she has no reply to make and has conceded to my argument."

### **Example #2**

Eric: "I think that people who are mentally incompetent should not exempt from the death penalty. After all, those are exactly the people we need to get rid of."

Rich: "That is horrible."

Eric: "But can you show I am wrong?"

Rich: "We've been arguing for hours. I'm argued out."

Eric: "Aha! I must be right then."

Rich: "What?"

Eric: "If you have no reply, that means I win. I'm right."

Rich: "Fine."

Eric: "Victory at last!"

## **Appeal to Vanity/Elitism**

**Also Known As: Appeal to Snobbery**

### **Description:**

This fallacy occurs when an appeal to vanity or elitism is taken as evidence for a claim. It has the following form:

- 1) V is presented, with the intent to appeal to the vanity or snobbery of person P.
- 2) Therefore claim C is true.

This sort of reasoning is fallacious because appealing to a person's vanity or snobbery does not serve as evidence that a claim is true. However, such an appeal can be psychologically effective because people are often swayed by a desire to think of themselves as part of an elite group. This fallacy is most often employed in advertising and the usual tactic is to try to convince people to buy a product because it is associated with someone famous or that having the product somehow makes a person part of a special group.

### **Example #1**

"Ben Affleck wears the finest suits. Of course, he buys them at the Harvard Yard Suit & Baked Bean Emporium. You should too."

### **Example #2**

“Such a fine watch is not for everyone, but only for those who can truly appreciate a majestic time piece. If you are one of the select few, you may arrange an appointment with one of our agents to discuss purchasing opportunities. Needless to say, we do not accept walk-ins.”

### **Argumentum ad Hitlerum**

**Also Known As: Appeal to Hitler, Reductio ad Hitlerum, the Nazi Argument, the Hitler Card, the Nazi Card, Argument from Hitler**

Description:

This fallacy is simply a very specific instance of the general guilt by association fallacy. It has the following general form:

- 1) Hitler (or some other Nazi, or the Nazis in general) accepts claim C.
- 2) Therefore claim C is false/wrong.

This is a fallacy for the obvious reason that the mere fact that Hitler (etc.) accepted a claim (or acted in a certain way) does not show that the claim (or action) is wrong. Hitler certainly believed that  $1+1=2$  and if this “reasoning” was any good, it would have to be concluded that  $1+1$  does not equal 2, which is absurd.

While this fallacy is already covered by guilt by association, the excess use of the argumentum ad Hitlerum on the internet, in politics and elsewhere warrants it receiving its own entry.

### **Example #1**

Lee: “So, you are a vegetarian now.”

Rachel: “Yes. Well, I am trying.”

Lee: “You know that Hitler was a vegetarian, right?”

Rachel: “Really?”

Lee: “Yes. He also hated tobacco smoking.”

Rachel: “Quick, get me some bacon and a pack of cigarettes! I repudiate my views!”

### **Example #2**

Ricardo: “Hmm, there seem to be some good arguments for having national health care.”

Glenda: “Oh, really?”

Ricardo: “Yes. After all, we have national defense against human enemies and even a federal agency for disasters. Why not have a comparable national defense against diseases and health problems?”

Glenda: “Why not indeed. You know that the Nazis were for national health care. They also killed all those people in the death camps. You are not proposing a final solution to health care, are you?”

Ricardo: “I watch the History Channel, so yeah, I know. But what does that have to do with national health care?”

Glenda: “I’m just connecting the dots.”

Ricardo: “Uh huh.”

## Complex Question

### Description:

This fallacy is committed by attempting to support a claim by presenting a question that rests on one or more unwarranted assumptions. The fallacy has the following form:

- 1) Question Q is asked which rests on assumption (or assumptions) A.
- 2) Therefore A is true.

This version of the fallacy is similar to begging the question in that what is in need of proof is assumed rather than properly established.

Complex question is also often defined as presenting two or more questions as if they were a single question and then using the answer to the single question to answer both questions. The answer is then used as a premise to support a conclusion. This version has the following form:

- 1) Question Q is presented that is actually formed of two (or more) questions Q1 and Q2 (etc.).
- 2) Question Q is based on one or more unwarranted assumptions, U.
- 3) An answer, A, is received to Q and treated as if it answers Q1 and Q2.
- 4) On the basis of A, U is concluded to be true.

This is a fallacy because the answer, A, is acquired on the basis of one or more unwarranted assumptions. As such, the conclusion is not adequately supported.

This fallacy needs to be distinguished from the rhetorical technique of the loaded question. In this technique a question is raised that rests on one or more unwarranted assumptions, but there is no attempt to make an argument. In the context of law, a loaded question is sometimes referred to as a leading question. The classic example of a loaded question is “have you stopped beating your wife?”

### Example #1

“How can America be saved from the socialist programs and job killing ways of the current administration? Clearly there is only one way: vote Republican!”

### Example #2

Professor: “Have you stopped plagiarizing papers?”

George: “Um, Yes.”

Professor: “Ah, that means that you were plagiarizing papers and that you have stopped now!”

George: “What?!”

Professor: “Well, you said you had stopped. That requires that you had been plagiarizing before. You could not very well stop if you had not started, right?”

George: “Um, I mean that no, I haven’t stopped.”

Professor: “Aha, so you are still plagiarizing papers! If you have not stopped, that means you have been and still are plagiarizing away!”

George: “No, I mean...I don’t know what I mean!”

Sally: “George, you got suckered into that. The right answer is to say ‘no, I didn’t stop because I never started.’”

### **Example #3**

Lawyer: “So where did you hide the money that was stolen in the robbery?”

Defendant: “Nowhere.”

Lawyer: “Ah, so you did not hide it. It must then be inferred that you spent it all.”

Defendant: “What, I didn’t steal the money!”

Lawyer: “But you just said that you hid it nowhere. That seems to be an admission of guilt!”

Defendant: “Hey, shouldn’t my lawyer be objecting or something?”

Lawyer: “Even he can see you are guilty.”

## **Confusing Explanations and Excuses**

### **Description:**

This fallacy occurs when it is uncritically assumed that an explanation given for an action is an attempt to excuse or justify it. This fallacy has the following form:

- 1) Explanation E is offered for action A.
- 2) Therefore E is an attempt to excuse or justify A.

This is a fallacy because an explanation of an action need not involve any attempt to excuse or justify that action.

This fallacy can be committed by accident due to a failure to distinguish between an explanation and an excuse or justification. This most often occurs because people confuse explanations and arguments. Explanations are attempts to provide an account as to how or why something is the case or how it works. Arguments, in the logical sense, are attempts to establish that a claim (the conclusion) is true by providing reasons or evidence (premises). What can add to the confusion is the fact that explanations can be used in arguments, generally to establish an excuse or to justify an action.

To illustrate, if someone said, “John missed class because he was in a car wreck”, this would be an explanation rather than an argument. However, if someone said, “John’s absence from class should be excused because he was in a car wreck”, then this would be an argument. This is because John being in a car wreck is being offered as a reason why his absence should be excused.

The fallacy can also be committed intentionally in an attempt to “prove” that someone is trying to justify an action when they are actually only offering an explanation.

It is also a mistake to assume that an excuse or justification is only an explanation, although that sort of error is not nearly as common as confusing explanations with excuses.

### **Example #1**

Hosni: “While it has been common for many American politicians to claim that terrorists attacked America because they hate our freedoms, the reality seems to be that they have been primarily motivated by American foreign policy.”

Sam: “I can’t believe that you are defending the terrorists! How can you say that the 9/11

attack was justified?”

Hosni: “I said no such thing.”

Sam: “Yeah, you did. You said that they were motivated by American foreign policy. That means you think we made them attack us and they were right to do so!”

### **Example #2**

Karen: “I think that Bill is doing badly in the class because he finds the subject matter boring. During my recitation sections he just spends his time texting, no matter how often I ask him not to. I know he can do good work-my sister showed me some of his work in his major, and it is really good. But my sister says that he’s not interested in philosophy.”

Drew: “I know that Bill is your sister’s boyfriend, but you don’t have to defend him.”

Karen: “I’m not. I’m just saying why he is doing badly.”

Drew: “Don’t get defensive. I’m fine with teaching assistants who advocate for students. I was quite the advocate in my day, you know.”

Karen: “Really?”

Drew: “Of course. Now I’m the cruel professor. Hah, hah.”

Karen: “Hah.”

## **Cum Hoc, Ergo Propter Hoc**

### **Description:**

This is an error in causal reasoning that occurs when it is assumed that the correlation between two things must be a causal connection. Translated into English, it means “with that, therefore because of that.” This fallacy has the following form:

- 1) There is a correlation between A and B.
- 2) Therefore, A causes B.

This fallacy is related to the post hoc ergo propter hoc fallacy. The difference is that the post hoc fallacy occurs when it is inferred that A causes B merely because A occurs before B. In the cum hoc fallacy, the error involves assuming that correlation must entail causation.

Obviously enough, the fact that two things are correlated is not enough to justify inferring that there is a causal connection. In some cases, this is rather obvious. For example, (almost) no one would infer that winter is caused by people wearing winter jackets.

Not surprisingly, the fallacy occurs most often when it seems like there might be a connection between the things. For example, a person might find that there is a correlation between sleeping fully dressed and waking up with a headache and conclude that sleeping clothed causes headaches. The fallacy can even be committed when there really is a causal connection between the two things. While this might seem odd, the key to the fallacy is not that there is no causal connection between A and B. It is that adequate evidence has not been provided for the claim that A causes B.

This fallacy is typically committed because people are simply not careful enough when they reason. Leaping to a causal conclusion is always easier and faster than actually investigating the phenomenon. However, such leaps tend to land far from the truth of the matter. Because this fallacy is committed by drawing an unjustified causal conclusion, the key to avoiding them is careful investigation. While it is true that causes and effects are in

correlation, it is not true that correlation makes something a cause of something else. Because of this, a causal investigation can start by an investigation of correlation, but it should not end there.

### **Example#1**

“You know what I’ve noticed? There is a correlation between when the President speaks on the economy and the Dow Jones. While it does not happen every single time, usually when he speaks the Jones dips. And the more he talks, the deeper the dip. If he wants to help the economy, he needs to stop talking about it-his speeches are bringing it down!”

### **Example #2**

Sam: “After four years of college I’ve learned something important.”

Jane: “And what might that be, Socrates?”

Sam: “Sleeping in your clothes gives me a headache.”

Jane: “You’ve been sleeping in my clothes?”

Sam: “No, I mean the general thing. Well, I mean when I sleep in my clothes I get a headache. I’m not sure why, but sleeping with clothes on hurts my head. So that is why I started sleeping naked.”

Jane: “What does your roommate think of that?”

Sam: “He’s not happy. He calls me ‘junk man.’”

Jane: “So, do you no longer get headaches?”

Sam: “That is the odd part. I still do. But I’m sure the clothes cause headaches. Maybe I’m sleeping too close to them?”

Jane: “Yeah, I’m sure that is it.”

### **Example #3**

Ashleigh: “I’ve decided I’m not eating ice cream before I go swimming.”

Nancy: “You know that isn’t true. The myth about eating before swimming, I mean.”

Ashleigh: “Oh, I know. But I heard the professor say in class that drowning deaths increase in proportion to the sale of ice cream. I’m not sure what he was talking about, but I’m fairly sure that eating ice cream before swimming would be risky.”

## **Equivocation, Fallacy of**

### **Description:**

Equivocation occurs when an ambiguous expression is used in more than one of its meanings in a single context. The fallacy occurs when that context is an argument and the conclusion depends on shifting the meaning of the expression while treating it as if it remains the same.

- 1) A premise or premises are presented that contain an equivocation.
- 2) Conclusion C is drawn from these premises.

Ambiguity by itself is not fallacious, but is a lack of clarity in language that occurs when a claim has two (or more) meanings and it is not clear which is intended. The sort of “reasoning” presented above is fallacious because the evidence merely appears to support

the conclusion since the same word is being used. Because the word shifts in meaning, the evidence does not actually support the conclusion.

In some cases the error is obvious. For example, if someone said “Sally is standing on my right, I’m a moderate and people to the right of me are conservative, so Sally is a conservative”, then most people would not fall for this line of “reasoning” and would probably regard it as a lame joke. Other cases of equivocation, especially ones that occur with a more subtle equivocation, can be far more tempting.

Equivocation, like amphiboly, is often used in humor. Such uses are not intended as serious arguments and would not (generally) count as fallacies. Perhaps the most famous example is from *Alice in Wonderland*:

*Who did you pass on the road?’ the King went on, holding out his hand to the Messenger for some more hay.*

*‘Nobody,’ said the Messenger.*

*‘Quite right,’ said the King: ‘this young lady saw him too. So of course Nobody walks slower than you.*

*‘I do my best,’ the Messenger said in a sulky tone. ‘I’m sure nobody walks much faster than I do!’*

*‘He can’t do that,’ said the King, ‘or else he’d have been here first. However, now you’ve got your breath, you may tell us what’s happened in the town.’*

### **Example #1**

“A blue whale is an animal, therefore a small blue whale is a small animal.”

### **Example #2**

“A feather is light. What is light is not dark. So, feathers cannot be dark.”

### **Example #3**

Rex: “I can’t believe that Sally still doesn’t believe me.”

Ted: “Why not?”

Rex: “Well, I gave her the reason why I did it and I learned in logic that reasons support claims. So, she should believe me.”

### **Example #4**

“Every day we see miracles such as antibiotics, the internet, and space travel. So when those atheists say there are no miracles, they are wrong. So, that pretty much wraps it up for the atheists’ claim.”

## **Fallacious Example**

**Also Known As:** Fallacious Argument by/from Example

### **Description:**

This fallacy occurs when an argument by/from example fails to adequately meet the standards for assessing said argument type.

Not surprisingly, an argument by example is an argument in which a claim is supported by providing examples.

Strictly presented, an argument by/from example will have at least one premise and a conclusion. Each premise is used to support the conclusion by providing an example. The general idea is that the weight of the examples establishes the claim in question.

Although people generally present arguments by example in a fairly informal manner, they have the following logical form:

- 1) Premise 1: Example 1 is an example that supports claim P.
- 2) Premise n: Example n is an example that supports claim P.
- 3) Conclusion: Claim P is true.

In this case  $n$  is a variable standing for the number of the premise in question and P is a variable standing for the claim under consideration.

An example of an argument by example presented in strict form is as follows:

Premise 1: Lena ate pizza two months ago and did not contribute any money.

Premise 2: Lena ate pizza a month ago and did not contribute any money.

Premise 3: Lena ate pizza two weeks ago and did not contribute any money.

Premise 4: Lena ate pizza a week ago and did not contribute any money.

Conclusion: Lena is a pizza mooch who eats but does not contribute.

### *Standards of Assessment*

The strength of an argument by/from example depends on four factors. First, the more examples, the stronger the argument. For example, if Lena only failed to pay for the pizza she ate once, then the claim that she is a mooch who does not contribute would not be well supported—the argument would be very weak.

Second, the more relevant the examples, the stronger the argument. For example, if it were concluded that Lena was a pizza mooch because she regularly failed to pay for her share of gas money, then the argument would be fairly weak. After all, her failure to pay gas money does not strongly support the claim that she won't help pay for pizza (although it would provide grounds for suspecting she might not pay).

Third, the examples must be specific and clearly identified. Vague and unidentified examples do not provide much in the way of support. For example, if someone claimed that Lena was a pizza mooch because “you know, she didn't pay and stuff on some days...like some time a month or maybe a couple months ago”, then the argument would be extremely weak.

Fourth, counter-examples must be considered. A counter-example is an example that counts against the claim. One way to look at a counter example is that it is an example that supports the denial of the conclusion being argued for. The more counter-examples and the more relevant they are, the weaker the argument. For example, if someone accuses Lena of being a pizza mooch, but other people have examples of times which she did contribute, then these examples would serve as counter-examples against the claim that she is a pizza mooch. As such, counter-examples can be used to build an argument by example that has as its conclusion the claim that the conclusion it counters is false.

An argument that does not meet these standards would be a weak argument. If the argument is weak enough (though there is not an exact line that defines this) it would qualify as a fallacy because the premises would not adequately support the conclusion.

### **Example #1**

Rush: "The President is a socialist!"

Sean: "Really? Can you prove that?"

Rush: "Well he did those things, you know like that money thing and that other thing with insurance. You know, the socialist things."

Sean: "So, those examples prove he is a socialist?"

Rush: "Well, yeah."

### **Example #2**

Dan: "In the Apology, Socrates argues that he did not corrupt the youth intentionally. He does this by asserting that if he corrupted them, they would probably hurt him. But, since no one wants to be harmed, he would not corrupt them intentionally. However, there are plenty of examples of leaders who corrupted their followers without being harmed by them. So much for Socrates' argument!"

Ted: "Like who?"

Dan: "You know, like those leaders that corrupted people."

Ted: "Oh, them."

## **Fallacy Fallacy**

Also Known As: Argumentum ad Logicam, Fallacist's Fallacy

### **Description:**

This fallacy occurs when someone infers that a claim is false because a fallacy has been used to "support" that claim. The form of this "reasoning" is as follows:

- 1) Fallacy F was used to argue for claim C.
- 2) Therefore claim C is false.

This is a fallacy (and a somewhat ironic one) because the truth or falsity of a claim cannot be inferred solely from the quality of the reasoning. If someone has committed a fallacy, then he has made an error in reasoning but it does not follow that he has made a factual error. As noted above, it is one thing to commit an error in reasoning and quite another to get the facts wrong. One does not follow from the other.

This is especially clear when a deductive fallacy (an invalid deductive argument) is considered:

- 1) If Washington D.C. is the capital of the United States, then it is in the United States.
- 2) Washington D.C. is in the United States.
- 3) Conclusion: Washington D.C. is the capital of the United States.

This is an example of the famous deductive fallacy affirming the consequent and is invalid. However, the conclusion is true. As such, it should be clear that poor reasoning does not entail a false conclusion.

### **Example #1**

Glenn: "Obama is a Muslim and a socialist. That is why he is wrong when he claims his stimulus plan helped the economy."

Jon: "Aha! I just read about fallacies on the internet and you, my fine fellow, have just committed an ad hominem! That means that you are wrong: Obama's plan must have helped the economy."

### **Example #2**

Sally: "Why should you believe in God? Well, the bible says that God exists."

Jane: "But why should I believe the bible? It is just a book after all."

Sally: "It was written by God, so you can believe every word."

Jane: "Hey, you are just assuming what you need to prove. That isn't a good argument at all! So, that just about wraps it up for God."

Jane: "What?"

Sally: "Well, your argument is bad, so your conclusion has to be wrong."

Jane: "I don't think it works that way."

Sally: "Why, did God put that in His book?"

## **Historian's Fallacy**

**Also Known as: Hindsight Fallacy**

### **Description:**

This fallacy, which is credited to David Hackett Fischer, occurs when it is assumed that people in the past viewed events with the same information or perspective as those analyzing these past events from a (relative) future. The fallacy has the following form:

- 1) From the present perspective event A in time T is seen as X (a good idea, significant, a bad idea, etc.)
- 2) Therefore event A was (or should have) been seen as X at time T.

The X in the form above can be many sorts of assessments, such as being a good idea, being of great significance, being a bad idea, being easily foreseeable, and so on.

This sort of reasoning is a fallacy because it is an error to infer that people in the past would (or should) see the events of their time from the perspective of those in their relative future. Obviously, the people in the past do not have the benefit of hindsight that those looking back possess.

It is not a fallacy to analyze past events from a present perspective, provided that the analysis is done in a way that attributes to those involved only the information they could reasonably be expected to have at the time. For example, suppose that Sally marries Bill and he seems fine until he becomes dangerously unstable. In this case, it would not be a fallacy to claim that it *turned out* to be a bad idea for Sally to marry Bill. It would be a fallacy to judge Sally as if she knew then what she only learned now. To use another example, if Sally did have adequate evidence that Bill was (or would become) dangerously unstable, then one would not commit this fallacy if one were to argue that she made a bad choice *when* she married him.

It also is not a fallacy to be critical of a person for what they reasonable should have known. For example, if Sally did not know about Bill being a psychopath because she married him a week after meeting him, it would be reasonable to argue that she made a poor choice in not getting to know more about him. This does not require having a perspective available only from the future and hence would not be fallacious.

### **Example #1**

“It seems clear that Roosevelt must have known about the attack on Pearl Harbor and let it happen to ensure that we got into the war. After all, looking over all the historical data from the United States and Japan, the signs of an attack are so obvious. So, he surely must have known.”

### **Example #2**

Dan: “Did you hear? Kelly and Rob are getting divorced.”

Lisa: “Why?”

Dan: “Well, Rob lost his job and...”

Lisa: “And she just dumped him as soon as she found out? Rob is such a great guy and I’m sure he’ll get a new job. I set them up, you know!”

Dan: “No. He didn’t tell her that he lost his job. He tried to find one, but he couldn’t and it kind of broke him. He started drinking and he wrecked the car while driving drunk.”

Lisa: “She should have known to never marry that loser!”

## **Illicit Conversion**

Description:

This mistake occurs when someone makes illicit use of the conversion rule from categorical logic, which is a type of deductive logic.

In deductive logic, conversion is a rule that allows the subject and predicate claims of a categorical claim to be exchanged. As with most rules, it has correct and incorrect applications. In the case of conversion, the correctness of the application depends on what sort of claim is subjected to the rule.

In categorical logic there are four sentence types: *All S are P*, *No S are P*, *Some S are P*, and *Some S are not P*. C applies correctly to two of them: *No S are P* and *Some S are P*. A conversion is legitimate when the converted claim logically follows from the original (and vice versa). Put another way, the rule is applied correctly when its application does not change the truth value of the claim.

For example, “No cats are hamsters” converts legitimately to “no hamsters are cats.” Interestingly, “some dogs are huskies” converts correctly to “some huskies are dogs”, at least in categorical logic.

In categorical logic, “some” means “at least one.” Hence, “at least one dog is a husky” is converted to “at least one husky is a dog.” In this case, the inference from one to the other is legitimate because it is made in the context of categorical logic.

The illicit use of conversion is, not surprisingly, an error. This error occurs in two ways. The first is when the rule is applied incorrectly in the context of categorical logic: if conversion is applied to an *All S are P* or *Some S are not P* claim, then the rule has been applied improperly. This can be easily shown by the following examples.

The first example is that while it is true that all dogs are mammals, the conversion of this claim (that all mammals are dogs) is not true. As another example, the claim that some dogs are not huskies is true while its conversion (that some huskies are not dogs) is false. This sort of mistaken application of the conversion rule can also be presented as a fallacious line of reasoning, as shown by the following flawed inference patterns:

### **Fallacious Pattern #1**

- 1) Premise: All S are P
- 2) Conclusion: All P are S

### **Fallacious Pattern #2**

- 1) Premise: Some S are not P
- 2) Conclusion: Some P are not S

The second type of error occurs when the conversion rule is applied outside of the context of categorical logic as if it were being applied within such a context. To be specific, it occurs in contexts in which “some” does not mean “at least one.” The mistake, which is sometimes known as an illicit inductive conversion, is as follows:

### **Fallacious Pattern #3**

- 1) Premise : P% (or “some”, “few”, “most”, “many”, etc.) of Xs are Ys.
- 2) Conclusion: Therefore P% (or “some”, etc.) of Ys are Xs.

For example, to infer that most people who speak English are from Maine because most people from Maine speak English would be an obvious error. This is because “most” in this context is not taken to mean “at least one” but is instead taken to refer to a majority.

Not surprisingly, people generally do not make such obvious errors in regards to conversion. However, people do fall victim to conversions that seem plausible. For example, when people hear that a medical test for a heart condition is 80% accurate they might be tempted to infer that 80% of those who test positive have the condition. However, to convert “80% of those who have the condition will test positive” (that is what it means for a test to be 80% accurate) to “80% of those who test positive have the condition” is an illicit use of conversion.

The following are examples of this sort of illicit conversion.

### **Example #1**

“Very few white men have been President of the United States. Therefore very few Presidents have been white men.”

### **Example #2**

“A fairly small percentage of automobile accidents involve drivers over 70. Therefore a fairly small percentage of drivers over 70 are involved in automobile accidents.”

### **Example#3**

“Most conservatives are not media personalities on Fox News. Therefore, most of the media personalities on Fox News are not conservative.”

**Example #4**

“Most wealthy people are men so most men are wealthy.”

**Example #5**

"Most modern terrorists are Muslims, therefore most Muslims are modern terrorists."

**Example #6**

"Most modern terrorists are religious people, therefore most religious people are terrorists."

## Incomplete Evidence

### Also Known As: Suppressed Evidence

This fallacy occurs when available evidence that would count against a conclusion is ignored or suppressed. It has the following form:

- 1) Evidence E is given for conclusion C.
- 2) Available evidence A that would count against C is ignored or suppressed.
- 3) Therefore, C.

Unlike many other fallacies, this fallacy does not arise because the presented premises fail to logically support the conclusion. Rather, the error is that the person making the argument fails (intentionally or accidentally) to take into account available evidence that is relevant to the truth of the conclusion. The fallacy does its work by conveying the impression to the target that the premises are both true and complete (that salient evidence has not been ignored or suppressed).

There are two factors that need to be considered as part of determining whether the fallacy has been committed or not.

The first is whether or not the suppressed/ignored evidence is actually significant enough to outweigh the presented evidence. The mere fact that some salient information has been left out is not enough to establish that the fallacy has been committed. What is needed is that the suppressed/ignored evidence is actually significant enough to make a difference. If not, the fallacy is not committed. It is also reasonable to consider whether or not the person was aware of the significance of the evidence. If not, then the person would not have intentionally committed the fallacy.

The second is that the (allegedly) suppressed/ignored evidence was reasonably available to the person committing the fallacy. If someone “ignored” evidence that he could not reasonably be expected to know, then he would not be committing this fallacy. Sorting out what a person can reasonably be expected to know can be a controversial matter in some cases, which is why there can be considerable dispute over specific cases alleged to involve this fallacy.

As a general guide, if the evidence was missed because of carelessness, bias, or lack of reasonable effort, then it would be reasonable to expect the person to be aware of the

evidence in question. In any case, a person who knowingly suppresses or ignores evidence is clearly guilty of committing this fallacy.

One form of the fallacy of accent, namely quoting out of context, is also a type of incomplete evidence.

### **Example #1**

“Most philosophers are men. Since Dr. Sarah Shute is a philosopher, Dr. Shute is a man.”

### **Example #2**

“People from the Middle East generally do not speak English fluently. So, I’ll certainly need to get a translator when I interview the Israeli ambassador to the United States.”

### **Example #3**

Steve: “All those gun control laws are unconstitutional.”

Mitt: “Could you be more specific?”

Steve: “Well, here is an example. By law, I can’t bring my pistol to class.”

Mitt: “How is that unconstitutional?”

Steve: “The Second Amendment clearly states that the right of the people to bear arms shall not be infringed. My right to bear my pistol in class is clearly being infringed! So, that law is unconstitutional.”

Mitt: “Maybe you should read the whole amendment and maybe some of the rulings on relevant cases. You are in law school, after all.”

### **Example #4**

David: “Did you read by blog about how the founding fathers were fundamentalist Christians?”

Thomas: “Not yet. Can you sum up your argument?”

David: “Sure. I went to the original texts and found all the references made to Christianity by the founding fathers that match fundamentalist ideas. I found quite a few and they clearly serve as evidence for my thesis. Those liberal atheists are really going to hate me!”

Thomas: “Hmm, that is interesting. But did you consider references they made to Christianity and other things that do not match your fundamentalism?”

David: “Well, no. My thesis is that they held to fundamentalist views. Why would I bother looking for evidence that they were not? I’m sure there isn’t any.”

## **Moving the Goal Posts**

**Also Known As:** Raising the Bar

### **Description:**

This fallacy occurs when evidence against a claim is rejected by insisting, in an unprincipled way, that different (typically greater) evidence be provided. The fallacy has the following form:

- 1) Evidence E against claim C is presented.
- 2) It is insisted (without justification) that a different sort of evidence, D, must be presented.

- 3) E is rejected.
- 4) C is true (optional).

This is a fallacy because changing the conditions under which something counts as evidence against a claim (in an unprincipled way) does not show that the evidence does not count against the claim. This is analogous to moving a goal post after a goal has been scored and then insisting that the goal does not count.

It is not a fallacy to argue that alleged evidence against a claim is not, in fact, evidence against a claim. The fallacy occurs when the rejection of the evidence is done in a way that is not justified (typically this is done simply to “protect” the claim from criticism). There are cases in which the standards of what count as evidence against a claim can be shifted during the course of an argument. However, this must be done in a manner that is adequately justified. Not surprisingly, what counts as a justified change in standards can be a matter of considerable debate and goes beyond the scope of this book.

There is also another version of this fallacy in which a claim is “defended” from refutation by switching to a new or modified claim and treating that claim as if it were the original claim.

### **Example #1**

Gary: “The moon landings were faked. If they were real, there would be photos of the landing sites from later probes.”

Janet: “Well, there are. NASA released the photos a while ago.”

Gary: “Well, NASA no doubt modified the images using Photoshop.”

Janet: “That kind of modification can be checked, you know.”

Gary: “NASA’s technology is really good. They can fool the experts.”

Janet: “Well, what about the Russians. If we had faked the landings, they would have revealed it to the world.”

Gary: “The Russians were in on it. We lied for them, they lie for us.”

Janet: “For the love of God, what would count as proof? What if you were able to go to the moon and see the lander?”

Gary: “That could be planted there before I arrive.”

Janet: “I give up.”

Gary: “I win!”

### **Example #2**

Donald: “I still have doubts that Obama was born in America.”

Bill: “I didn’t vote for him, but he released his certificate of live birth. That seems good enough for me.”

Donald: “But a certificate of live birth is not the same thing as a birth certificate, so I have my doubts.”

Bill: “Legally, it is good enough. Also, do you think that McCain, Rove, and all those major Republicans wouldn’t have challenged him if there was any basis for this?”

Donald: “They’re politicians, so they all stick together.”

Bill: “Yeah, I can see the love they have for Obama. But, it doesn’t really matter-Obama released his ‘long form’ birth certificate, you know.”

Donald: “That could be a fake.”

### **Example #3**

Rachel: "I'm not getting my son vaccinated. They cause autism."

Juan: "That does not seem to be true."

Rachel: "It is. The mercury in the thimerosal used as preservative for vaccines causes autism."

Juan: "Well, that was removed from vaccines years ago and there was no statistically significant change."

Rachel: "Well, the toxins in the vaccines cause autism."

Juan: "This has been thoroughly investigated and no causal link has been found. But don't take my word on this-check out the studies."

Rachel: "Those studies are flawed. No doubt they were sponsored by the companies that sell vaccines."

### **Oversimplified Cause**

#### **Description:**

This fallacy occurs when someone infers that only one cause is responsible for an effect and the person fails to consider that there might be multiple causes. This fallacy has the following form:

- 1) Effect E occurs
- 2) Therefore, C is the *single* cause of E.

This is an error in reasoning because the possibility of multiple causes should be considered when engaging in causal reasoning. This fallacy often occurs because sorting out complicated casual situations can be difficult and it is far easier to simply focus on one alleged cause.

In some cases, people commit this fallacy in ignorance-that is, they simple fail to consider that the causal situation might be complicated rather than simple. In other cases, this fallacy is used intentionally in an attempt to get people to accept that there is a single cause. This is sometimes done for political reasons and, not surprisingly, the single cause focused on tends to nicely fit in with the person's political agenda.

It is important to note that this error can still be committed when there really is only a single cause, provided that the person making the error fails to even consider the possibility that there are multiple causes. Naturally, some situations might so obviously be cases of a single cause that only the most minimal effort is required to eliminate the possibility of multiple causes.

#### **Example #1**

Rick: "It looks like our schools are in rough shape. I saw that Americans are lagging way behind the rest of the world in areas like math and science."

Ed: "Yup. It is those damn teacher unions. They ruined education. If we could just rid of the unions, we'd be on top of the world again."

#### **Example #2**

“The recent economic meltdown was an incredible financial disaster. However, nothing has been done to address its cause, namely allowing mortgage companies to make subprime loans.”

## **Overconfident Inference from Unknown Statistics**

### **Description:**

This fallacy is committed when a person places unwarranted confidence in drawing a conclusion from statistics that are unknown.

- 1) “Unknown” statistical data D is presented.
- 2) Conclusion C is drawn from D with greater confidence than D warrants.

Unknown statistical data is just that, statistical data that is unknown. This data is different from “data” that is simply made up because it has at least some foundation.

One common type of unknown statistical data is when educated guesses are made based on limited available data. For example, when experts estimate the number of people who use illegal drugs, they are making an educated guess. As another example, when the number of total deaths in the Iraqi war is reported, it is (at best) an educated guess because no one knows for sure how many people have been killed.

Another common type of unknown statistical data is when the data can only be gathered in ways that are likely to result in incomplete or inaccurate data. For example, statistical data about the number of people who have affairs is likely to be in this category.

Obviously, unknown statistical data is not very good data. However, drawing an inference from such data is not, in itself, an error. In some cases, such inferences can be quite reasonable.

For example, while the exact number of people killed in the Iraq war is unknown, it is reasonable to infer from the data that many people have died. As another example, while the exact number of people who do not pay their taxes is unknown, it is reasonable to infer that the government is losing some revenue because of this.

The error that makes this a fallacy is to place too much confidence in a conclusion drawn from such unknown data. Or, to be a bit more technical, to overestimate the strength of the argument based on statistical data that is not adequately known.

This is an error because, obviously enough, a conclusion is being drawn that is not adequately justified by the premises.

Naturally, the way in which the statistical data is gathered also needs to be assessed to determine whether or not other errors have occurred.

### **Example #1**

“Several American Muslims are known to be terrorists or at least terrorist supporters. As such, I estimate that there are hundreds of actual and thousands of potential Muslim-American terrorists. Based on this, I am certain that we are in grave danger from this large number of enemies within our own borders.”

### **Example #2**

“Experts estimate that there are about 11 million illegal immigrants in the United States. While some people are not worried about this, consider the fact that the experts estimate

that illegals make up about 5% of the total work force. This definitely explains that percentage of American unemployment since these illegals are certainly stealing 5% of America's jobs."

### **Example #3**

Sally: "I just read an article about cheating."

Jane: "How to do it?"

Sally: "No! It was about the number of men who cheat."

Sasha: "So, what did it say?"

Sally: "Well, the author estimated that 40% of men cheat."

Kelly: "Hmm, there are five of us here."

Janet: "You know what that means..."

Sally: "Yes, two of our boyfriends are cheating on us. I always thought Bill and Sam had that look..."

Janet: "Hey! Bill would never cheat on me! I bet it is your man-he is always given me the eye!"

Sally: "What! I'll kill him!"

Janet: "Calm down. I was just kidding. I mean, how can they know that 40% of men cheat? I'm sure none of the boys are cheating on us. Well, except maybe Sally's man."

Sally: "Hey!"

## **Pathetic Fallacy**

**Also Known As: Anthropomorphic Fallacy, Personification Fallacy**

### **Description:**

This fallacy occurs when inanimate objects are treated as if they possessed mental states such as feelings, thoughts, sensations, and motivations. In order to be a fallacy in the technical sense, a conclusion must be drawn on the basis of this assumption. However, by popular usage the "fallacy" occurs simply from treating an inanimate object in this way. As a fallacy in the strict sense it has the following form:

- 1) Inanimate object (or force) O is treated as if it had mental state M.
- 2) O was involved in event E.
- 3) Therefore, O's role in E is due to M.

This is an error because it attributes to inanimate objects animate qualities, which they do not (by definition) possess, and uses this attribution to support a conclusion. As an actual fallacy in the technical sense, it is actually fairly rare.

Far more commonly the pathetic fallacy is taken to include cases in which no conclusion is drawn. For example, if someone says "the sea is angry" and leaves it at that, then there would be no fallacy in the strict sense of the term. However, this would be regarded as the pathetic fallacy in the popular use of the term.

The pathetic fallacy is also taken as occurring in cases involving explanations that are flawed because they involve attributing mental states to inanimate forces or objects. For example: "When it gets hot, air wants to rise." Since air has no wants, this would be an inadequate explanation.

This fallacy derives its name from “pathos” rather than “pathetic” in the pejorative sense.

### **Example #1**

“I was working on my paper and the darn computer crashed. That computer never liked me, so I must infer that it did that out of spite.”

### **Example #2**

Les: “Thanks for letting me borrow your car, but it won’t start.”

Mel: “She is very temperamental. Did you try sweet talking her?”

Les: “Um, no. I did check the battery, though.”

Mel: “Here, I’ll give it a try.”

Les: “Okay.”

Mel: “Good morning Lucile! How about going for a trip with Les?”

Lucile: “Vrooom!”

Mel: “You see, this shows that she has to be sweet talked into starting.”

Les: “Thanks again. I’ll be sure to talk nicely to her there and back!”

## **Positive Ad Hominem**

### **Description:**

Translated from Latin to English, “ad Hominem” means “against the man” or “against the person.” The positive ad hominem can be seen as a “reverse” ad hominem. A “standard” ad hominem is a fallacy in which a claim is rejected on the basis of some irrelevant fact about the author of or the person presenting the claim. A positive ad hominem occurs when a claim is accepted on the basis of some irrelevant fact about the author or person presenting the claim or argument. Typically, this fallacy involves two steps. First, something positive (but irrelevant) about the character of person making the claim, her circumstances, or her actions is made. Second, this is taken to be evidence for the claim in question. This fallacy has the following form:

1. Person A makes claim X.
2. Person B notes a positive (but logically irrelevant) feature of A.
3. Therefore A’s claim is true.

The reason why an ad Hominem (of any kind) is a fallacy is that the character, circumstances, or actions of a person do not (in most cases) have a bearing on the truth or falsity of the claim being made. There are cases in which facts about a person can be relevant to assessing that person’s credibility and there are also cases in which non-fallacious arguments can be made based on a person’s expertise (as per the Argument from Authority). For example, it would not be a fallacy to accept an expert’s claim in her field because she is well educated in the field, unbiased, and experienced in the field.

### **Example #1**

“That Glenn is such a nice man and always so passionate about what he says. So, he must be right that we should buy gold.”

### **Example #2**

Sally: "What he said was ridiculous. Why do believe him?"

Janet: "Honey, with a butt like that, how can he be wrong?"

Sally: "Well, he was certainly talking out of it."

### **Example #3**

"I had some doubts about him, but then I realized that he was wearing an expensive suit. Plus, he had that British accent. There is no way he could be lying about this deal, so I am sure it will be a great investment!"

## **Proving X, Concluding Y**

**Also Known As:** Missing the Point, Irrelevant Thesis

### **Description:**

This fallacy occurs when a conclusion is drawn from evidence that does not actually support that conclusion but does support another claim. The form of this reasoning is as follows:

- 1) Evidence E for claim X is presented.
- 2) Therefore Y

While all fallacies are such that the alleged evidence provided in the premise(s) fails to adequately support the conclusion, what distinguishes this fallacy is that the evidence presented actually does provide support for a claim. However, it does not support the conclusion that is actually presented.

This fallacy typically occurs when the evidence for X seems vaguely connected or vaguely relevant to Y in a logical way, but actually is not. It is this seeming relevance or connection that lures the victim into accepting the conclusion. The victim of the fallacy can also be the person committing the fallacy.

A person can also commit this fallacy while being well aware that the conclusion does not follow from the evidence. In such cases, the person typically makes use of the apparent logical connection between the evidence and the conclusion to mislead someone into accepting it. This could, perhaps, be called "the bait and switch fallacy."

Obviously, this fallacy (like all fallacies) is a case of non-sequiter ("does not follow") in which the conclusion does not logically follow from the premises. However, this specific sort of mistake is common and interesting enough to justify giving it its own name and entry.

### **Example #1**

"I am troubled by the reports of binge drinking by college students. According to the statistics I have seen, about 19% of college students are binge drinkers and this leads to problems ranging from poor academic performance to unplanned pregnancies. Since people often drink in response to pressure, this shows that professors are putting their students under too much pressure and hence need to make their classes easier."

### **Example #2**

“Our product testing revealed that 60% of the people on Acme Diet Master reported that they felt less hungry when using the product. This shows that 60% ate less when using our product. I think we have our next big product!”

### **Example #3**

“High tax rates for individuals leave them with far less money to spend. High tax rates for business often leads them to lower salaries, which means people have far less money to spend. In these troubled economic times, revitalizing the economy requires that Americans spend more. Therefore, the obvious solution is to abolish all taxes.”

## **Psychologist's fallacy**

### **Description:**

This fallacy occurs when it is concluded that another person has a certain mental quality (or qualities) because the person drawing that conclusion has that quality (or qualities). This fallacy has the following form:

- 1) Person A has mental quality (or qualities) Q ( a belief, a skill, knowledge, or tendency to act a certain way, etc.).
- 2) Person A concludes that person B has Q a well.

The error being made is essentially that of a weak analogy: person A is drawing a conclusion about person B based on an unsupported assumption that A and B are alike. Without adequate reason to think that A and B are alike enough in relevant ways, concluding that they are alike in regards to the quality in question would be unjustified.

This fallacy can be avoided by making an adequate argument from analogy. This would involve providing the key premises establishing that A and B are alike in ways relevant to the quality in question.

The fallacy received its name from William James who noted that psychologists are particularly prone to ascribing their own standpoints to those they examine. A person does not, of course, need to be a professional psychologist to commit this fallacy.

### **Example #1**

Christine: “Thanks for coming to dinner! I made bacon burgers. With cheese!”

Florence: “Why?”

Christine: “I really like them. I figured you would, too.”

Florence: “I’m a vegetarian. Do you have anything I can eat?”

Christine: “Well, you can put the cheese, lettuce and onions on the bun.”

Florence: “I don’t like onions. Or lettuce.”

### **Example #2**

“I’m sure those people will help me push my car out of the ditch. After all, I’d help out someone who is in the same predicament.”

### **Example #3**

Bob: “Did you hear that the legislature just voted on a law legalizing same sex marriage?”

Gretchen: “No way!”

Bob: "Really. It is going to the governor."

Gretchen: "There is no way she'll sign it!"

Bob: "Really? Why?"

Gretchen: "Well, I wouldn't! So I'm sure she won't!"

Bob: "Uh, huh. Well, would you have voted for the law if you were in the house or state senate?"

Gretchen: "Hell no!"

Bob: "And yet the bill passed..."

#### **Example #4**

Bill: "I'm sure that no one would like that movie."

Paul: "Why?"

Bill: "Well, I did not like it."

### **Rationalization**

#### **Description:**

Rationalization occurs when a person offers a reason (or reasons) in support of a claim when this reason is not the person's actual reason for accepting the claim.

- 1) A reason, R1, is presented by person P for claim C.
- 2) But, P's real reason for accepting C is R2.
- 3) P accepts C on the basis of R1.

While people can aid others in rationalizing, this fallacy is often self-inflicted. In such cases a person engages in self-deception about the true reason (or reasons) for accepting the claim. This fallacy can, of course, be used to mislead others. The most common use is when a person presents a laudable reason to justify an action when the person's actual motivation would not sound as good to others.

What distinguishes rationalization from outright lying is that rationalization is generally taken as requiring an element of actual self-deception. That is, the person rationalizing tends to accept, at least on some level, the professed reason as being the actual reason.

Determining when a person is rationalizing can be rather challenging. After all, this requires having grounds to believe that the reason being given is not the actual reason and that the person is engaged, at least in some degree, in self-deception.

When people rationalize, they often find it difficult to accept that they are doing so. After all, they will be putting effort into convincing themselves that their actual reason is their professed reason. While it can be difficult, it is wise to be on guard against this tendency to avoid deceiving yourself.

Some people define "rationalization" in a way that does not require self-deception but merely the presentation of a reason that is not the person's actual reason. In this case, showing that a person is rationalizing does not require showing that self-deception is involved. All that is needed is evidence that the actual and professed reasons are not the same.

#### **Example #1**

Rick: "Man, gas prices are going up."

Mick: "They sure are. I've been driving less."

Rick: "I'm going to buy a motorcycle. They get excellent gas mileage. I'll save a lot of money."

Mick: "Good idea. Are you selling your car?"

Rick: "Well, no. I'll need it when the weather is bad and to transport stuff."

Mick: "Makes sense. So, what kind are you getting? Since you are trying to save money, I assume you'll be getting the least expensive bike."

Rick: "This is the one I'm looking at."

Mick: "Hmm, that is a \$25,000 sports bike."

Rick: "It gets better mileage than my car. I'll save a ton of money on gas."

Mick: "But it is \$25,000..."

Rick: "Look at this-that is the helmet I ordered. I also got a full racing grade riding suit and these top grade leather boots. The motorcycle trailer is on back order, but it should get here in two weeks."

Mick: "You'll sure save a lot of money with all that stuff."

Rick: "Yup. See, here is the gas mileage for the bike. Way better than my car. Heck, it is even better than a Prius."

Mick: "Hey, you could buy one of those and save even more money."

Rick: "A Prius? Seriously? I might as well get neutered."

### **Example #2**

Jack: "Happy birthday! I got you the new Zbox 720 and an HD TV!"

Cynthia: "But I don't play video games. You do. But the TV is nice. I can put it in my workout room."

Jack: "Um, the TV is for the Zbox."

Cynthia: "Um, why would you be playing your Zbox in my workout room?"

Jack: "I won't. The TV and the Zbox are for my man cave."

Cynthia: "How is this a present for me?"

Jack: "Well, you are always complaining that I am playing my video games when you want to watch TV. This way you get a great gift: I'll be in my man cave playing my Zbox 720 on the HD TV while you are watching TV."

Cynthia: "My, this is the best present ever."

Jack: "I know! I just knew that this would be the best gift for your birthday!"

## **Reification, Fallacy of**

### **Also Known As: Fallacy of Hypostatisation**

#### **Description:**

This fallacy occurs when an abstraction is assumed to be a real, concrete entity and a conclusion is drawn from this assumption. The fallacy has the following form:

- 1) Abstraction A is treated as if it were a real, concrete entity.
- 2) Treating A as real is taken to entail C.
- 3) Therefore, C is true.

The mistake being made is that an abstraction is treated as real entity without adequate support for this view and this is then used to support a conclusion.

This fallacy commonly occurs when abstract entities such as nature, fate and political or social entities are treated as being real entities with intentions, desires, needs and motivations of their own. Attributing such human qualities to abstractions is sometimes called the anthropomorphic fallacy or the pathetic fallacy.

This fallacy also commonly occurs when human institutions, such as states, are treated as real entities on par with (or being) natural (or supernatural) forces. This reification is often done in an attempt to justify certain actions or policies either in favor of or against the institution in question. For example, a state might be reified so as to argue that it must be obeyed. As another example, a person who pirates software, music, movies and ebooks might reify companies to argue that his theft is not morally wrong.

What counts as reification can be a matter of significant philosophical debate. This is because thinkers have, over the centuries, argued for the reality of what some would consider abstract entities. For example, some fascists have argued that the state is a real entity (complete with a personality). To automatically dismiss such arguments would be an error. As another example, thinkers such as Aristotle and Aquinas attributed purpose to natural forces. To merely dismiss their arguments would also be an error. To show that a fallacy has been committed requires providing evidence that the abstraction in question has been assumed to be a real entity without adequate support. If a legitimate argument (or arguments) for treating an abstraction in this manner has been provided, then this argument must be engaged rather than merely dismissed as a fallacy.

### **Example #1**

Rick: "Homosexuality only occurs in humans and only by choice. In nature, there are no homosexuals. This shows that nature is opposed to homosexuality and hates it. Therefore, homosexuality is morally wrong for what nature opposes is evil."

Emile: "I'm pretty sure there are gay animals."

Hugo: "Yes, I saw a show years ago about gay penguins. I mean, they all wear tuxes and you know who wears tuxes, right?"

Emile: "Grooms?"

Hugo: "Right. And you know what grooms do?"

Emile: "Get married."

Emile: "Spot on. Since all the penguins wear tuxes, that means they are all grooms. So penguins are totally practicing gay marriage."

Rick: "No, they are not! And if they were, they'd go to hell!"

Hugo: "Yup. And it would be extra bad for them. They are, after all, accustomed to the cold."

Emile: "Those poor dead gay penguins..."

Rick: "Don't pity them! They got what they deserved!"

### **Example #2**

Kyle: "You know, I feel bad doing this experiment. I know they signed a release and all, but zapping them with electric shocks doesn't feel right."

Gina: "I understand. This is hard on me, too. But the experiment requires that we go on and do what we must."

Kyle: "Well, if the experiment requires me to do it, then I must. I get my \$15 right?"

Gina: "Of course, the experiment always keeps its word."

Kyle: "It better. Why are you having me shock people?"

Gina: "Oh, we're doing an experiment on reification."

Kyle: "Is that a fancy term for zapping people?"

Gina: "As far as you know."

Kyle: "Zap!"

### **Example #3**

"Why do you waste your energy trying to oppose the State? You otherwise seem to be a sensible man. You do not stick your head into a fire and try to resist its burning. You don't run out in a storm and shake your fist at the tornado. You do not try to oppose gravity. Be sensible and do not resist the State. It only wants what is best for you, so even if you could someone resist, then you would only be hurting yourself. Be sensible. Come back to the loving embrace of the State. Even now, the State will forgive you your sins."

### **Example #4**

Lulu: "I used to feel a bit bad about liberating software, music, videos and ebooks."

Sasha: "You mean 'pirate', right?"

Lulu: "Such a harsh word. But anyway, I don't feel bad at all about it now. After all when I liberate...or pirate...stuff, I am not hurting individuals. I am just pirating from the corporation. It has plenty of money and does all kinds of bad things. So, it is fine for me to pirate from it."

Sasha: "Well, would you steal a candy bar from the corner store?"

Lulu: "No way. That would be stealing from Mr. Whipple. That would be wrong."

Sasha: "But stealing from a corporation is okay? What about the artists who create the work or the people who distribute it?"

Lulu: "Yeah, it is fine. I'm not hurting those people. I'm sticking it to the corporation."

## **Texas Sharpshooter Fallacy**

### **Also Known as: Sharpshooter Fallacy**

#### **Description:**

This fallacy occurs when it is concluded that a cluster in a set of data must be the result of a cause (typically whatever the cluster is clustered around). This fallacy has the following form:

- 1) A cluster L occurs in data set D around C.
- 2) Therefore C is the cause of L.

This causal fallacy occurs because the conclusion is drawn without properly considering alternatives. One alternative that is ignored is the possibility that the cluster is the result of chance rather than an actual causal factor. Another alternative that is ignored is that the cluster might be the result of a cause, but not the claimed causal factor.

A cluster does provide grounds for considering a causal hypothesis that can then be properly tested. However, mere correlation does not establish causation. Given the role that correlation (in this case, clustering) plays, this fallacy can be considered a specific variation of the cum hoc ergo propter hoc fallacy. However, Texas sharpshooter has a history of its own that warrants its inclusion under its own name.

The fallacy's name is derived from a joke about a person (usually a Texan) who shoots away at the broad side of a barn. He then paints a target around the biggest cluster of bullet holes and claims to be a sharpshooter. This creates the illusion that he is a good shot, just as focusing on clusters and ignoring the rest of the data can create the impression of a causal connection. As such, this fallacy can also be seen as very similar to incomplete evidence in that when a person "draws the target" what is outside the target is conveniently ignored. Since Texas sharpshooter is specifically a causal fallacy, it can be distinguished from the more general fallacy of incomplete evidence in this way.

### **Example #1**

Rich: "Hmm, this data shows that the number of cases of cancer in Old Town is greater than the national average."

Alice: "Interesting. Do you have any data that is more precise?"

Rich: "Indeed, take a look at this graphic. As you can see, it shows a significant clustering of cases near the paper mill."

Alice: "Wow! Those poor people!"

Rich: "You know makes it really bad?"

Alice: "What?"

Rich: "The housing around the mill is for retired senior citizens!"

Alice: "Wait, what?"

### **Example #2**

Michelle: "I was reading through the predictions of Nostradamus. He must have been able to see the future because his predictions came true."

Hilda: "What did he get right?"

Michelle: "Well, he predicted Hitler. He said 'Beasts wild with hunger will cross the rivers, The greater part of the battle will be against Hister. He will cause great men to be dragged in a cage of iron, When the son of Germany obeys no law.'"

Hilda: "Wow, that is amazing! 'Hister' is really close to 'Hitler', he was German...well close enough anyway and he did cross rivers."

Michelle: "Like I said, he made those predictions because he could see the future."

Hilda: "Did all his predictions come true? That book you have looks pretty thick."

Michelle: "Well, he did write hundreds of predictions and only a few have come true. But, he was seeing the future so it will take a while for them all to come true. The important thing is that he got Hitler and some other things right so far!"

Fran: "You know that 'Hister' is just the Latin name for the Danube river, right? Also, your translation is a bit off. In any case..."

Michelle: "Shut up!"

## **Victim Fallacy**

### **Description:**

This fallacy occurs when a person uncritically assumes that the cause of a perceived mistreatment (such as not being hired or receiving a poor grade) is due to prejudice (such as sexism or racism) on the part of the person or persons involved in the perceived mistreatment. The form of "reasoning" is as follows:

- 1) Person P believes s/he is being mistreated by person or persons M.
- 2) Person P regards himself or herself as a member of group G and believes this group has been subject to prejudice. Or P believes that M regards him/her as a member of G.
- 3) P uncritically concludes that his/her perceived mistreatment is the result of prejudice against G on the part of M.

This is a fallacy because the mere fact that a person perceives himself or herself as being mistreated does not provide sufficient justification for the claim that the alleged mistreatment is the result of prejudice. After all, even if the situation does involve mistreatment, it might be the result of factors that have nothing to do with prejudice of the sort being considered. For example, imagine the following situation: Jane is taking a chemistry class and always comes to class late, disrupting the lecture when she strolls in. She also blatantly checks her text messages on her mobile phone during class. She earns a B in the class, but is assigned a C instead because the professor is angry about her behavior. Jane would be correct to conclude she has been mistreated given the disparity between what she earned and what she received, but she would not be justified in assuming that it was “just because she was a woman” without adequate evidence for the professor being a sexist.

This mistake in reasoning is similar to the various causal fallacies. In these fallacies an uncritical leap is made from insufficient evidence to conclude that one thing caused another. In this case, a leap is being made without sufficient evidence to conclude that the alleged mistreatment was caused by prejudice.

Reasonably concluding that an alleged mistreatment is the result of prejudice involves establishing that the mistreatment is, in fact, a mistreatment and the most plausible explanation for the mistreatment is prejudice. Without taking these steps, the person is engaging in poor reasoning and is not justified in his/her conclusion—even if the conclusion is, in fact, true. This is because good reasoning is not just about getting a correct conclusion (this could be done accidentally by guessing) but by getting it in the right way.

If a person has good reason to believe that the alleged mistreatment is a mistreatment and that it is a result of prejudice, then the reasoning would obviously not be fallacious. For example, if Jane was aware that she earned a B and was intentionally assigned a C, she would be justified in believing she was mistreated. If the professor made sexist remarks and Jane knew he downgraded other women in the class and none of the men, then Jane would be justified in concluding that the mistreatment stemmed from prejudice.

Not surprisingly, the main factor that leads people to commit this fallacy “honestly” is because the group in question has been subject to prejudice. From a psychological standpoint, it is natural for a person who is aware of prejudice against the group in question to perceive mistreatment as coming from that prejudice. And, as a matter of fact, when considering a perceived mistreatment it would be quite reasonable to consider the possibility of prejudice. However, until there is adequate evidence it remains just that—a mere possibility.

In addition to cases in which the fallacy is committed as an honest mistake, there are cases in which this type of “reasoning” is cynically exploited as an excuse or even as a means of revenge (charges of prejudice, even if completely unfounded, can do a lot of damage to a person’s career in many professions). As an example of an excuse, a person

who has done poorly in a class because of a lack of effort might tell his parents that “the professor has this thing against men.”

In addition to the fact that this is a mistake in reasoning, there are other reasons to avoid this fallacy. First, uncritically assuming that other people are prejudiced is itself a sign of prejudice. For example, to uncritically assume that all whites are racists is just as racist as assuming that all Jewish people are covetous or all blacks are criminals. Second, use of this fallacy, especially as the “reasoning” behind an excuse can have serious consequences. For example, if a student who did poorly in a class because of a lack of effort concludes that his grade was the result of racism and tells his parents, they might consider a law suit against the professor. As another example, if a person becomes accustomed to being able to fall back on this line of “reasoning” they might be less motivated in their efforts since they can “explain” their failures through prejudice.

It must be emphasized that it is not being claimed that prejudice does not really exist or that people are not victims of prejudice. It is being claimed that people need to be very carefully in their reasoning when it comes to prejudice and accusations of prejudice.

### **Example #1**

Sam: “Can you believe this-I got a C in that class.”

Jane: “Well, your work was pretty average and you didn’t put much effort into the class. How often did you show up, anyway?”

Sam: “That has nothing to do with it. I deserve at least a B. That chick teaching the class just hates men. That’s why I did badly.”

Bill: “Hey, I earned an ‘A’, man.”

Sam: “She just likes you because you’re not a real man like me.”

### **Example #2**

Ricardo: “I applied for six jobs and got turned down six times!”

Ann: “Where did you apply?”

Ricardo: “Six different software companies.”

Ann: “What did you apply for?”

Ricardo: “Programming jobs to develop apps for Android.

Ann: “But you majored in philosophy and haven’t programmed anything. Is that why you didn’t get the jobs?”

Ricardo: “No. All the people interviewing me were white or Asian. A person like me just can’t get a job in the white and yellow world of technology.”

### **Example #3**

Dave: “Can you believe that-those people laughed at me when I gave my speech.”

Will: “Well, that was cruel. But you really should make sure that you have your facts right before giving a speech. As two examples, Plato was not an Italian and Descartes did not actually say ‘I think, therefore I am.’”

Dave: “They wouldn’t have laughed if a straight guy had said those things!”

Will: “Really?”

Dave: “Yeah! They laughed just because I’m gay!”

Will: “Well, they didn’t laugh at me, but I actually did my research.”

Dave: “Maybe they just don’t know you’re gay.”

Will: “Yeah, that must be it.”

## Weak Analogy

**Also Known As:** False Analogy, Fallacious Analogical Argument

### **Description:**

This fallacy occurs when an analogical argument is not strong enough for its premises to adequately support its conclusion. The fallacy of weak analogy has the same form as the analogical argument. The fallaciousness occurs not because of the form but because the specific argument fails to meet the conditions of a strong analogical argument.

Strictly presented, an analogical argument will have three premises and a conclusion. The first two premises (attempt to) establish the analogy by showing that the things in question are similar in certain respects. The third premise establishes the additional fact known about one thing and the conclusion asserts that because the two things are alike in other respects, they are alike in this additional respect as well.

Although people generally present analogical arguments in a fairly informal manner, they have the following logical form:

- 1) Premise 1: X has properties P,Q, and R.
- 2) Premise 2: Y has properties P,Q, and R.
- 3) Premise 3: X has property Z as well.
- 4) Conclusion: Y has property Z.

X and Y are variables that stand for whatever is being compared, such as chimpanzees and humans or blood and money. P, Q, R, and Z are also variables, but they stand for properties or qualities, such as having a heart or being essential for survival. The use of P, Q, and R is just for the sake of the illustration-the things being compared might have many more properties in common.

An example of a non-fallacious analogical argument presented in strict form is as follows:

Premise 1: Rats are mammals and possess a nervous system that includes a developed brain.

Premise 2: Humans are mammals possess a nervous system that includes a developed brain.

Premise 3: When exposed to Nerve Agent 274, 90% of the rats died.

Conclusion: If exposed to Nerve Agent 274, 90% of all humans will die.

The strength of an analogical argument depends on three factors. To the degree that an analogical argument meets these standards it is a strong argument. If an analogical argument fails to meet these standards, then it is weak. If it is weak enough, then it would be considered fallacious. There is no exact point at which an analogical argument becomes fallacious, however the standards do provide an objective basis for making this assessment.

First, the more properties X and Y have in common, the better the argument. For example, in the example given above rats and humans have many properties in common. This standard is based on the common sense notion that the more two things are alike in

other ways, the more likely it is that they will be alike in some other way. It should be noted that even if the two things are very much alike in many respects, there is still the possibility that they are not alike in regards to Z. This is why analogical arguments are inductive.

Second, the more relevant the shared properties are to property Z, the stronger the argument. A specific property, for example P, is relevant to property Z if the presence or absence of P affects the likelihood that Z will be present. Using the example, above, the shared properties are relevant. After all, since nerve agents work on the nervous system, the presence of a nervous system makes it more likely that something will be killed by such agents. It should be kept in mind that it is possible for X and Y to share relevant properties while Y does not actually have property Z. Again, this is part of the reason why analogical arguments are inductive.

Third, it must be determined whether X and Y have relevant dissimilarities as well as similarities. The more dissimilarities and the more relevant they are, the weaker the argument. In the example above, humans and rats do have dissimilarities, but most of them are probably not particularly relevant to the effects of nerve agents. However, it would be worth considering that the size difference might be relevant-at the dosage the rats received, humans might be less likely to die. Thus, size would be a difference worth considering.

### **Example #1**

“The flow of electricity through wires is like the flowing of water through pipes. Water flows faster downhill, so electricity does, too. This, by the way, is why electrical wires are run on poles-that way the electricity can flow quickly into your house.”

### **Example #2**

Glenn: “Obama is going to do the same things to America that Hitler did to Germany!”

Bill: “What?”

Glenn: “Obama was democratically elected. So was Hitler. Do I need to bust out some chalk and draw it out for you?”

Bill: “Sure.”

Glenn: “I’m out of chalk.”

Bill: “Too bad.”

### **Example #3**

Steve: “Those darn Republicans!”

Lena: “How have they hurt your liberal sensibilities this time?”

Steve: “They are saying that the health care plan is a big government takeover. They are making a big lie, just like Goebbels did. It is just like blood libel.”

Lena: “That seems to be a bit much.”

Steve: “Not at all. You know, that is how the Holocaust got started. With a big lie. The Republicans are going to cause a Holocaust because they are just like the Nazis!”

Lena: “That is quite a comparison.”

Steve: “I know!”