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RESEARCH ARTICLE

Benford's Law: Textbook Exercises and Multiple-Choice Testbanks

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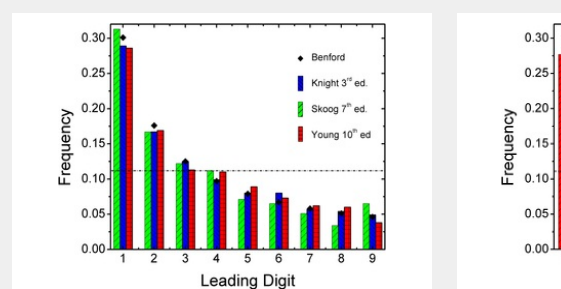
Media Coverage

Figures

Figures

	Benford dist.	Knight 3 rd ed. textbook answers	Young 10 th ed. textbook answers	Skoog 7 th ed. textbook answers	Knight textbook answers	Young 10 th ed. textbook answers	combined data
#	1644	2155	294	1485	5871	11349	
1	0.3010	0.2889	0.2858	0.3129	0.2774	0.2906	0.2883
2	0.1760	0.1873	0.1889	0.1887	0.1872	0.1816	0.1774
3	0.1249	0.1247	0.1128	0.1224	0.1428	0.1208	0.1262
4	0.0969	0.0981	0.1104	0.1122	0.0875	0.1012	0.1011
5	0.0791	0.0802	0.0881	0.0774	0.0714	0.0806	0.0860
6	0.0669	0.0623	0.0723	0.0648	0.0635	0.0613	0.0609
7	0.0579	0.0586	0.0617	0.0570	0.0506	0.0507	0.0562
8	0.0511	0.0525	0.0589	0.0545	0.0505	0.0471	0.0508
9	0.0457	0.0492	0.0381	0.0484	0.0391	0.0497	0.0454
MAD [†]	0.0005	0.0064	0.0192	0.0110	0.0111	0.0064	0.0033
SSD [‡]	4	9	12	15	3	2	perfect conform

[†] MAD = Mean Absolute Deviation (see text for definition)
[‡] SSD = a Sum of Squares Difference (see text for definition) Observed distributions of leading digits and measures of conformance to Benford's Law for three textbooks, a multiple-choice textbook, and aggregate data
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Abstract

Benford's Law describes the finding that the distribution of leading digits in innumerable datasets follows a well-defined logarithmic trend, rather than uniformity. In practice this means that the most common leading digit is 1, with an expected frequency of 30.1%, and the least common is 9, with an expected frequency of 4.6%. Currently, the most common application of Benford's Law is in detecting fraud and invention and tampering such as found in accounting-, tax-, and voting records. We demonstrate that answers to end-of-chapter exercises in physics textbooks conform to Benford's Law. Subsequently, we investigate whether Benford's Law can be used to gain advantage over random guessing in multiple-choice tests. While testbank answers in introductory physics closely conform to Benford's Law, the testbank is nonetheless secure against such a Benford's attack for

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Data Availability: Access to the full data set from the three textbooks and testbanks can be obtained by request from Dr. Aaron D. Slepkov at aaronslepkov@trentu.ca.

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Introduction

The expectation that the leading digits in the numbers one encounters are uniformly distributed is a well-known “pitfall of elementary statistics.” Mathematician Simon Newcomb observed that the earlier pages in logarithmic tables were considerably more worn than the later pages in the book, and he proposed that the leading digits of various numbers he encountered were distributed logarithmically. Fifty years later, physicist Frank Benford independently discovered the same effect in his log tables and came to the same conclusion. Benford's Law states that the probability of a digit d appearing as the leading digit is $\frac{1}{9} \log_{10} \left(\frac{d+1}{d} \right)$.

collect over 20,000 numbers from 20 different datasets such as from entries, street addresses of eminent scientists, physical constants, baseball statistics, to show that this finding applies to a wide range. Benford's proposed distribution of leading digit frequencies is given

□

where P_i is the probability of finding i as the leading digit in a given dataset. The frequency of leading digits diminishes monotonically from 30.1% for digit 1 and 2, to 5.1% and 4.6% for the digits 8 and 9, respectively. This finding is often referred to as a "law of anomalous numbers" [3]. Nonetheless, in accordance with the eponymy [4], this has come to be known as Benford's Law of leading digits.

Must there be a well-defined distribution of leading digits for a given dataset? Intuitively, most people suspect that the most likely distribution should be a uniform distribution, such that they are all equally likely. However, if a physical phenomenon, any such stable distribution should be scale-invariant. The choice of unit system or choice of base would maintain the existing distribution. For example, if there is to be a well-defined distribution of the mass of various insect species, it shouldn't matter whether the mass is measured in milligrams or in grains of rice. It has been shown that Benford's Law is the only scale-invariant distribution of leading digits [5]. Furthermore, scale invariance assures base invariance as well [6]. Thus, it could be said that if a given dataset has an identifiable leading-digit distribution, then it must follow Benford's Law. There is no requirement that all datasets must have a base-invariant distribution of leading digits, and thus not all phenomena follow Benford's Law.

Decades of research have led to some guidelines for predicting which datasets follow Benford's Law [8–10]. Such phenomena should span several orders of magnitude and preferably should be unbounded. The numbers in the dataset should be relevant and should represent a measurement that has associated uncertainty. Lottery numbers, and license plate numbers are not expected to follow Benford's Law. Finally, it has been suggested that the dataset should contain large quantities rather than small quantities [8, 11]. Despite such guidelines, there are many examples of sets of numbers that violate at least one of these guidelines. Benford's law, such as the Fibonacci Numbers [12], and most geometric sequences do not follow Benford's Law [13]. There are now numerous published examples of mathematical series and datasets that do follow Benford's Law [13]. These include geological streamflow rate measurements [14], hadron widths [16], numerous statistical distributions [17, 18, 19], and business invoices and tax returns [8, 9, 20], as well as the data studied by Benford [3]. The precision with which various types of data have been shown to follow Benford's Law has led to its widespread application for forensic accounting and auditing, while this application represents by far the most active (and commercial) application of Benford's Law. There are nonetheless serious practical concerns regarding the validity of this practice [9, 23]. Benford's Law has not yet found robust applications in computer design and scientific calculation errors [5], although from early on there have been suggestions that it could be applied in these areas. It has often been a sense that Benford's Law is purely mathematical, rather than a physical law.

will never find practical applications [24]. Others argue that the law thus has tremendous potential for future applications [9].

Because only certain datasets that correspond to real phenomena Benford's Law, we trust that knowledge of this fact could be applied predictive ends—as opposed to *a posteriori* diagnostics. In considering guidelines for datasets that are expected to conform to Benford's Law of answers to end-of-chapter questions in introductory physics and as a possible Benford's Law candidate. In fact, prior research has found an abundance of small-value numbers in grade school math textbooks: arithmetic and multiplication, and has suggested a possible link to Benford's Law. In this article, we test this hypothesis, and find the set of introductory answers to conform well to the logarithmic distribution of leading digits.

Confirmation that quantitative answers to a wide range of “problem chemistry follow Benford's Law immediately suggests a practical (if application: examination questions that are meant to assess knowledge physics and chemistry should be similar to those found in the practical textbooks. Thus, multiple-choice testbanks that are created to provide a tool might also follow similar leading-digit trends found in the textbooks. true, then perhaps the implication that over 60% of the answers to multiple-choice exam questions are anticipated to have a leading digit of 1, to gain an advantage by physics-ignorant but test-wise students. To an ignorant student can resort to complete guessing on a multiple-choice question has an expected baseline for guessing that is based on the number of options in the question. A student has a 33% chance of getting any given question, a 25% chance in a 4-option question, and a 20% chance in a 5-option question. Students might employ a slew of test-wise strategies to boost this baseline strategy—which is often derided by professors but may have some merit [28]—involves preferential selection of middle options. This manifests as avoidance is colloquially known as “when in doubt, choose C!”. This strategy (like most others) is based on poor test construction, and is easily foiled by Benford's Law-based attack on a multiple-choice testbank would be based on the assumption that it is more likely that the incorrect options (distractors) will be selected in such a way that each yields a uniform first-digit distribution. In demonstrating that answers to end-of-chapter textbook questions conform to Benford's Law distribution, we discuss considerations for which a Benford's Law-based attack on a multiple choice testbank is expected to gain an advantage over random guessing. We then proceed to analyze the distribution of leading digits in an actual multiple-choice testbank, and go on to find that when we attack the testbank, the ubiquity of the Benford distribution in fact secures the bank against

Finally, we discuss how the rounding off of numbers to a pedagogically reduced set of significant figures is expected to alter the distribution of leading digits away from Benford's Law and demonstrate that a modified distribution yields even better fits to testbank data in physics.

Methods and Results

Data Collection

To select an appropriate representative sample of physics and chemistry books were chosen based on ready availability on our bookshelf and popularity in undergraduate physics education:

- “Physics for Scientists and Engineers: A Strategic Approach”, (Pearson Education, 2013) is a highly popular introductory physics approach that is based on recent physics education research.
- “Sears and Zemansky’s University Physics”, 10th edition, by Young and Freedman (Addison Wesley Longman, 2000) was a popular calculus-based physics textbook a decade ago, with emphasis on physics education fundamentals.
- “Fundamentals of Analytical Chemistry”, 7th edition, by Skoog et al. (Saunders College Publishing, 1996) was a favorite intermediate undergraduate chemistry textbook for one of us (ADS), and with anticipation of useful quantitative chemistry end-of-chapter problems.

Henceforth these three books will be referred to as Knight, Young and Freedman, and Skoog, respectively. The data was obtained by parsing the leading digit (i.e. the leftmost nonzero digit) from every numerical answer. Data collection was implemented manually by parsing the answers in the texts, but with a protocol designed to eliminate subjectivity. Nonetheless, because of the general constraints of anti-spam algorithms on data sets, such as avoiding unphysical numbers and numbers narrowly confined in domain, we rejected all unitless values, as percentages, and those with units of degrees. Furthermore, the number zero is meaningless from a significant digit standpoint, so entries of exactly zero were rejected. Obviously, non-numeric entries such as pictures, graphs, equations, and text were ignored. In all, approximately 10%–15% of entries in the physics texts were rejected and 30%–35% were ignored in Skoog—the analytical chemistry text—as many as 25% of answers were rejected, largely due to being unitless or physically meaningless. In addition to these limitations, all other data was recorded. For the physics texts, we recorded leading digits of the multiple-choice numerical answers in Knight. When parsing this testbank we looked at both the correct answers and at the distractors, recording the leading digit of each. For the chemistry recording testbank entries, the same protocol was followed for textbook data; however, the number of rejected entries was only 7%. In sum, this data is presented in [Table 1](#). This data is freely available as [S1 Dataset](#).



Table 1. Obtained frequencies of leading digits in textbooks and
<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0117972.t001>

Data Analysis

The data presented in [Table 1](#) includes the theoretically-expected distributions of Benford's Law. According to [Eqn. 1](#) this distribution can be realized in any dataset because the values are irrational numbers. It can only be *approached*, and any dataset—no matter how good—will deviate from the ideal distribution. In many cases, where the invocation of Benford's Law is simply to highlight the disproportionate abundance of low-value leading digits, the suggestion of Benford's Law can be confirmed by inspection of a digit frequency histogram. Such a histogram is presented in [Fig 1](#). The distributions for end-of-chapter exercise answers from the three textbooks clearly yield a Benford-like distribution with an observed frequency with increasing leading digit value. Establishing a benchmark measure of conformity to Benford's Law has been an ongoing research topic [19, 29]. In the Benford's Law literature within the natural sciences, the chi-squared measure of statistical conformity to a Benford distribution is the χ^2 test. However, leading expertise in Benford's Law analysis finds that the χ^2 test is misused and misinterpreted [9]. The χ^2 test has been described as an "excess power" problem, wherein larger data sets require increasing the χ^2 threshold for conformity [8]. Thus, larger data sets that by inspection appear to fit better than smaller datasets will often fail a χ^2 test that the smaller data

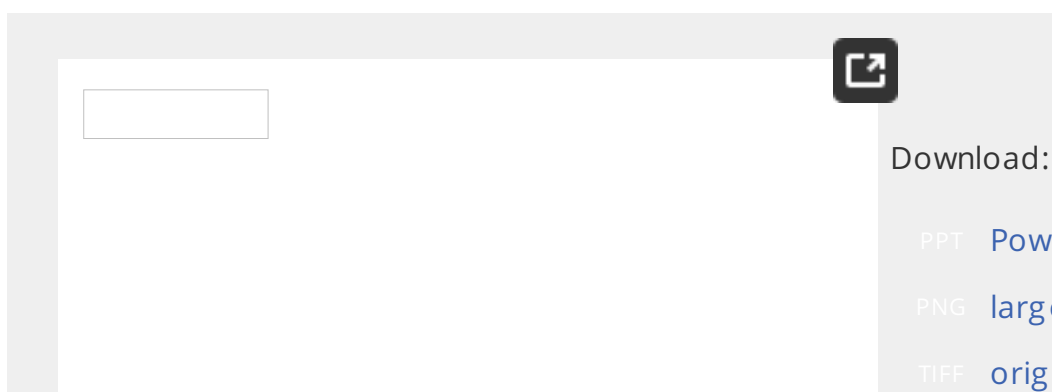


Fig 1. The distribution of leading digits in end-of-chapter exercises from two popular introductory physics textbooks (Knight, Young & Freedman) and an analytical chemistry textbook (Skoog).

The dashed horizontal line indicates uniform distribution of first digits. The black squares are the theoretical Benford's Law distribution.

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As a way to avoid problems with the χ^2 test, other simple tests have been proposed as a means of judging dataset conformity to Benford's Law. For example, Nigrini proposed using a mean absolute deviation (MAD) measure [8], and Freedman proposed using a sum of squares difference (SSD) measure [9]. MAD is a whole-test measure that simply takes the average of the absolute deviation of each digit's frequency from the ideal Benford's Law frequency. Specifically,

□

where K is the number of leading digit bins (9 for first leading digit; 90 for second digit, etc.), AP is the actual proportion observed, and EP is the expected proportion according to Benford's Law. The MAD test does not have an analytically-derived critical value. Instead, Nigrini has established empirically-based criteria for conformity to Benford's Law. [8] The suggested MAD ranges for "close conformity", "marginal conformity", and "non-conformity" are 0.000–0.006, 0.006–0.015, and above 0.015, respectively. A MAD value above 0.015 is considered non-conforming.

Likewise, SSD too is an empirically-based whole-test measure that takes the sum of the squares of the deviation of each digit's frequency from the ideal Benford's Law frequency. Specifically, this is given by

□

Like the MAD test, the SSD test does not have an analytically-derived critical value. Instead, Kossovsky's suggested SSD conformity criteria for "perfect conformity", "marginal conformity", and "non-conformity" are 0–2, 2–25, and 25–100, respectively. A SSD value above 100 is considered non-conforming [9].

Results

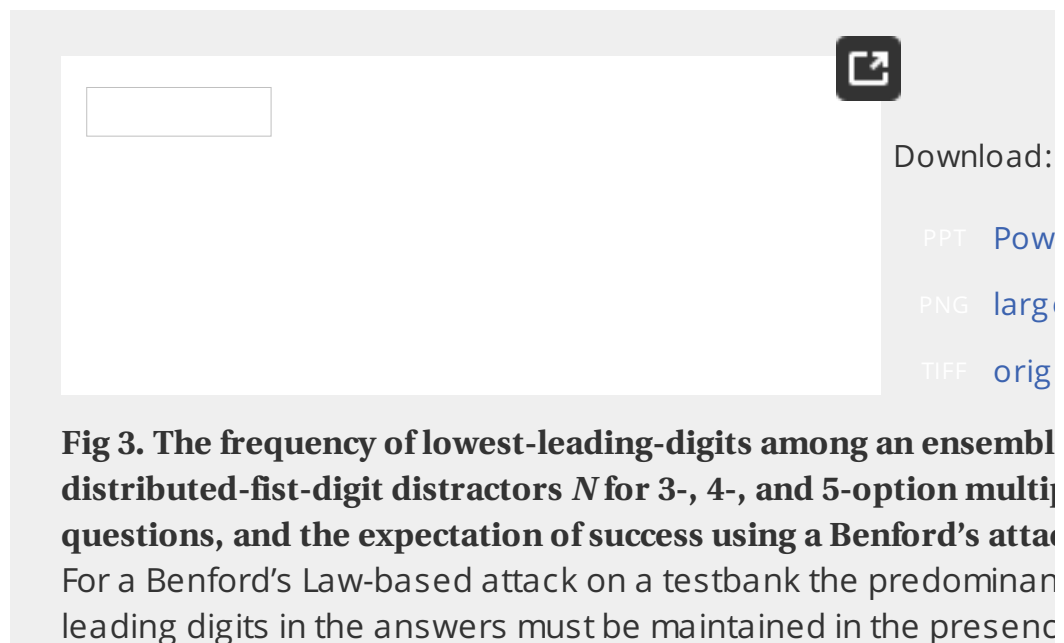
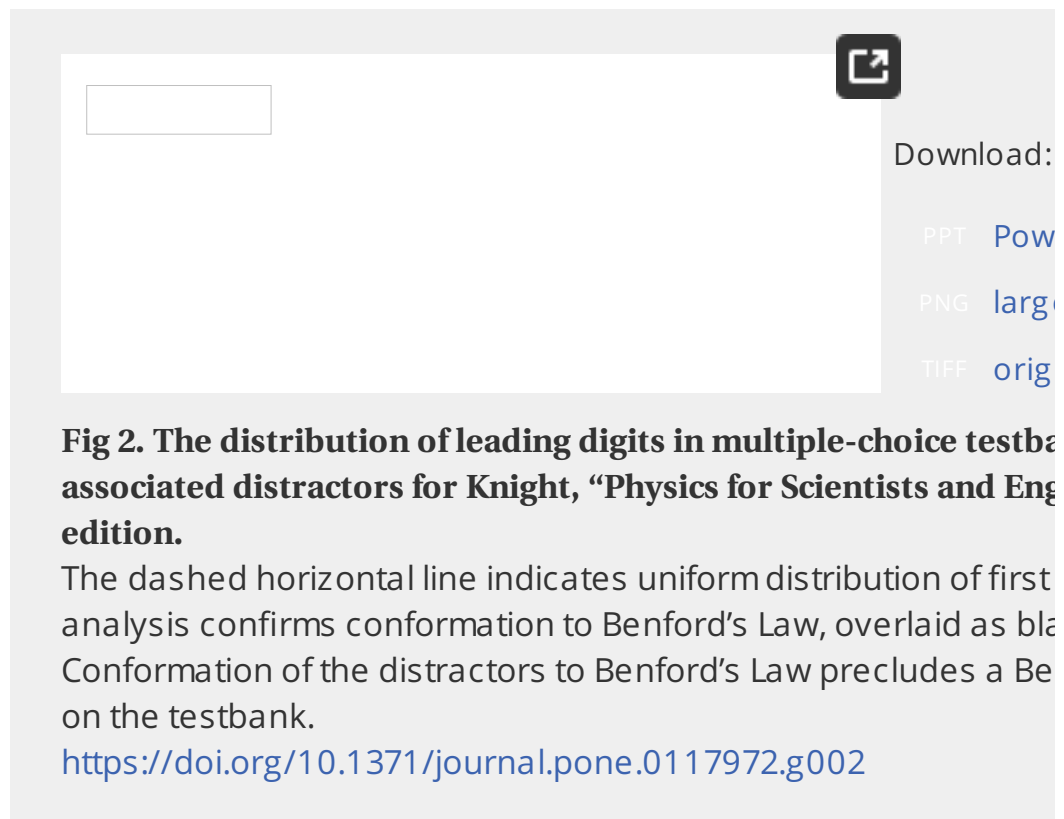
The three textbooks varied in the number of available entries for analysis. Knight and Young both contained a sufficient number of entries and domain of data to warrant analysis. Skoog provided the smallest data set with a total of 294 entries, with several chapters having no usable entries. In total, however, the data sets from this book spanned 60 orders of magnitude. Knight and Young both provided large data sets, with 1644 and 2155 entries in 42 and 39 chapters, respectively. The domain of physics questions in these books spanned over 170 orders of magnitude. [Table 1](#), Knight closely conforms to Benford's law (MAD = 0.0050; SSD = 9), Freedman (MAD = 0.0094; SSD = 9) and Skoog (MAD = 0.010; SSD = 9) all show acceptable conformity. A visual inspection of the distribution histogram for Knight also strongly suggests close conformity. Thus we conclude that, in general, multiple-choice questions in physics and chemistry textbooks follow Benford's Law.

The first-digit frequency distribution for the companion multiple-choice questions is presented in [Fig. 2](#). The keyed-responses (i.e. correct answers) conform to Benford's Law, yielding a MAD value of 0.011 and an SSD value of 11.

the answers to numerical multiple-choice exam questions are antic leading digit of 1, 2, or 3. As mentioned above, a Benford's Law-base choice testbank would be guided by the assumption that it is more options (distractors) are semi-randomly selected in such a way that first-digit distribution. Then the question remains whether the later the keyed response will provide more low-digit options than an ens distributed distractors. The frequency of each *lowest-leading-digit*, i distractors can be given by

□

where N_k are the standard binomial coefficients (often read as " N choose k ") and the probabilities are presented in Fig. 3, for each of a 3-, 4-, and 5- option questions overlaid with the Benford-distributed correct response.



distractors. Despite the fact that for 4- and 5-option questions the collectively more likely to have the lowest leading digit, a Benford group is nonetheless expected to yield an advantage over a random strategy (inset). In the case of a test with 3-option questions—where the keyed responses are Benford distributed and the two distractors are uniformly distributed—the Benford attack is expected to yield a passing score of 53% (inset). <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0117972.g003>

From Fig. 3, we see that, while for a 3-option test the lowest leading digit is more likely in the Benford-distributed keyed responses than in the combined probability of the two distractors, at least one distractor in each 4- and 5-option item is expected to have a lower first digit than the keyed response. These considerations would still not entirely negate the advantage of a Benford's Law-based attack on a set of multiple-choice questions. This is demonstrated by comparing the probability of finding the correct answer by choosing the lowest leading digit to the probability of finding the correct answer by choosing the lowest leading digit in a group of N uniformly-distributed-first-digit-distractors and a Benford-distributed keyed answer, with random guessing in cases where the lowest leading digit is not the keyed answer, given by

□

where P_i^B are the Benford probabilities as given by Eq. 1. This expression is that presented in a recent note by F. M. Hoppe [31], and is plotted for multiple-choice questions in the inset to Fig. 3. Using Eq. 5 we find that such a strategy improves the test score over random guessing: For a 3-, 4-, or 5-option test, the scores are 53%, 44%, or 38%, respectively. Compared to blind-guessing scores of 33% and 20%, a Benford attack promises a significant advantage. The expected passing score in a 3-option exam is particularly noteworthy considering the recommendations that this is (psychometrically) the most desirable item [32].

We attacked the Knight testbank by selecting the option with the lowest leading digit among items with identical lowest leading digits, and compared the results to the keyed response. The majority of questions were of the 4-option type, and yielded a score of 24.6%; i.e. no better than chance. The explanation for this strategy lies in the first-digit distribution of the distractors. As shown in Table 1, the testbank distractors also closely conform to Benford's Law, and thus the strictest MAD criteria. Thus, the fact that the keyed responses are Benford-distributed is marginalized by the likewise distributed distractors.

Discussion

As we have shown, typical physics and chemistry questions, as a group, do not follow Benford's Law for leading digits, as do both the keyed responses and the distractors in an introductory physics testbank. Uniformly-distributed random numbers do not follow Benford's Law, but rather have uniformly-distributed leading digits.

the effect of rounding is to diminish the expected number of 1s and frequency of all other digits. We present a modification to Eq.1 that rounding, where N_{SD} is the number of significant digits to which a value is rounded, where $N_{SD} = 0$ represents the traditional case of no rounding:

□

For numbers rounded to three or more significant digits the distribution is nearly identical to Benford's Law. However, in the case of values rounded to one or two significant digits, there is a small but significant modification of the distribution. For numbers rounded to only one significant digit, the distribution varies drastically from Benford's Law to the point where the occurrence of the digit 1 becomes more probable than the digit 9. Table 2 summarizes this result. It shows that a dataset comprised of values rounded to two significant digits passes both the MAD and SSD tests of conformity to Benford's law, but a dataset rounded to a single significant digit would fail to conform to a Benford distribution. This suggests that the conformity of the underlying phenomena (i.e. the un-rounded data) is not Benford's Law. We observed that approximately 30% of entries in the testbank are rounded to one significant digit. Thus, perhaps for the testbank a more appropriate distribution than that given by Eq.1 should be given by a hybrid distribution of Eqs.1 and 6. When compared to this hybrid distribution, we obtain a MAD value of 0.0045, which is slightly better than the MAD value of 0.0045 of this full testbank conforming to unmodified Benford's Law. Likewise, the SSD reduces from 3 to 2, matching the data's fit to the hybrid distribution. Thus, we are likely observing the effect of rounding on our data, and this effect is expected to be a factor in the leading-digit distribution of a similar dataset where rounding to one or two significant figures is common.



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Table 2. Effects of rounding on Benford distribution.
<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0117972.t002>

Summary and Conclusions

We recorded the leftmost significant digit of the answers to every question in two popular introductory physics textbooks, an intermediate and advanced textbook, and a large introductory physics multiple-choice testbank. The results show that the answers to multiple-choice questions conform to Benford's Law. The fact that the answers to multiple-choice questions follow this trend suggested a means by which the testbank could be

subject-ignorant but test-wise student. We find that among a set of answers), each having uniformly distributed leading digits, the Benford keyed response could be used to pass a 3-option test. Nonetheless, the information to “guess” the correct answers in a real testbank we find themselves conform to Benford’s Law, thereby securing the testbank. The fact that the distractors are Benford distributed does not, however, were engineered intelligently, but simply suggests that they do not have distributed random values. Thus, we expect any such testbank to be against a Benford’s Law based attack. We observed that physics test items are often reported rounded to two significant digits, and we hypothesize this fact may have impacted its distribution of leading digits, modifying Benford’s law and primarily yielding a relative dearth of leading 1s. We expect our demonstration of Benford’s Law in end-of-chapter textbook answers to be counter-intuitive, just as math educators were surprised that grade school answers are biased toward small addition and multiplication facts [25, 26]: most answers are that the leading digits of random values, and the numbers in arithmetic problems, be uniformly distributed. Armed with the knowledge that answers to test questions follow Benford’s law, one trifling piece of advice we can give to the test-taker follows: at the end of a long constructed-response examination, if you have time to double-check the answers to all of the questions, spend time on the questions that yielded final answers that have the largest leading digits; questions with answers with leading digits 7, 8, or 9 only 15% of the time. You should not see any advantages of using Benford’s Law will only pay dividends if you are not set, and thus any advantages in test-taking would be, at most, marginal.

Supporting Information

S1 Dataset. The full raw data and example statistical analysis file.

Worksheet “Data” includes raw data and summary counts/proportions for the five principle sources described in the article. Worksheet “Stat Analysis” includes an example of the data analysis performed on one of the data sources. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0117972.s001>
(XLS)

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Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: ADS DD. Performed the experiments: ADS DD. Analyzed the data: KBI ADS. Contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools: ADS DD. Wrote the paper: ADS DD.

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