

HOW DO GRADUATE MATHEMATICS STUDENTS EVALUATE ASSERTIONS WITH A FALSE PREMISE ?

Janine Rogalski, Marc Rogalski

Laboratoire Cognition & Activités Finalisées Université Paris8-CNRS

Institut Mathématique de Jussieu CNRS-Universités Paris 6 et Paris 7

Abstract

We present an empirical study focusing on diagnosis of graduate mathematical students' logical ability. Patterns of responses on evaluating non-computable implications are identified and related to answers in hypothesis testing (Wason's tasks). "Stable" categories either oriented by logic or by pertinence are strongly linked to success in the final exam. The category of "false logical" answers is the worse. Some issues about didactical consequences are discussed.

Introduction

Mathematical reasoning often requires to use assertions with uncertain or false premises. Such a situation is encountered, for instance, in proving the step in a recurrence, or in proofs needing "case by case reasoning", when the premise is not true for some set of parameters values. In order to master such situations, students must clearly understand the concept of implication—involving or not involving quantifiers—, master the notion of counterexample, and be fully aware of the distinction between implication and equivalence. More, taking the negation or the contraposition of a given mathematical statement requires to differentiate the implicative link from its components: premise and consequent.

To our knowledge, there were few empirical studies reported on this subject with regards to the literature on mathematical proof or on natural implication in experimental psychology of reasoning. However, some epistemological or psychological analyses can be found on this point, which all insist on the conflict between everyday reasoning on false premises and mathematical logical reasoning, or which present these situations as paradoxical ones (for instance: Legrand, 1990; Johnson-Laird & Byrne, 1991; Deloustal-Jorrand, 1999; Politzer & Carles, to appear). In a grand tour on why students cannot master mathematical reasoning, Dreyfus (1997) stressed the "shortage of research data" on students' explanations when reasoning in undergraduate mathematics. In fact, studies on reasoning emphasise global proof strategies, organisation and understanding (for instance: Balacheff, 1987; Coe & Rutven, 1994; Duval, 1999; Fischbein, 1982). Among researches which focus on details on mathematical logic used in demonstration, Radford (1985) analyses implication by secondary level students; Durand-Guerrier (1996) stresses the role of contingent assessments and the importance of predicates in logic, and not only propositions, for college students.

In mathematical curricula, logic is generally not taught as such, even if textbooks may

present it as a tool or as an object at the university level (Deloustal-Jorrand, 1999). The usefulness of logic in compulsory mathematics education is questioned for future non-mathematicians. At high-school or university levels, emphasis is put on mathematical contents (concepts and problem solving): the main idea is that learning to solve problems and proving statements is sufficient for learning to master mathematical reasoning. Our claim is that it is probably insufficient, because most of the proofs encountered in mathematical cursus, including at the university level, are mainly "going from stated as true to stated as true".

The present study focuses on what happens when such a process is disrupted.

The experimental study

Students and tasks

Students were graduate students (three or four years after *baccalauréat*), candidates from the North Region of France for being mathematical teachers at the secondary level (107 students—59 girls and 48 boys). They answered a test about their global reasoning ability at the beginning of their preparation to the national competitive entry examination. The test duration (4 hours) was sufficient to answer all the 20 questions. It was compulsory, answers were non anonymous, and students were said that the test aimed at informing the teacher on their collective logical competence.

We will here analyse 7 non mathematical or elementary mathematical items, where the task was to assess the value of an implication. In 5 cases the premise of the implication was clearly false; the two other items were the classical Wason's selection task (Wason, 1966) and the Radford's version of it (Radford, 1988). The text of these items is given in annex, with their respective positions within the set of 20 questions. Through the forward, we intended to avoid contract effects, to obtain comments, and to avoid non responses, as far as possible.

Data analysis

We will present the first step of data analysis, based on categories of responses, without taking into account detailed procedures.

Categories of responses

- Three of the questions concerned mathematical or material implications. The implication truthfulness was **non computable**. These items were coded as "*non-computable implication*". Premises were meaningful and even provoking. There were 4 types of responses: true; false; non sense (or variants); no answer.
- Another mathematical implication to be assessed was a **computable one** (" $H_n \Rightarrow H_{n+1}$ "). In a previous part of the question, it was asked to prove the implication *via* a simple computation. It is coded "*computable implication*". The premise was without direct meaning for the students. There were the same types of responses as for non-computable implications.

- Two items were two versions of **Wason's** selection task, coded as "*Wason*" (W1 and W2). There were 4 types of responses: all correct; W1 correct & W2 non correct; W2 noncorrect & W1 correct; other or no answer. Two errors were particularly interesting from the point of view of the research of counterexamples: missing the non-Q card (with 7) in W1 and evaluating the procedure 2 as nonconclusive in W2. They were coded "non-Q missing".
- The last item was a situation of **social contract** ("*The teacher's sweets*"): "If P then I will do Q", then P is not satisfied and Q is nevertheless performed. Four types of responses were identified: logical true; modifying the context to make P true; contract not respected; other or no answer.

Pattern of responses in evaluating assertions with false premise

The second step of analysis consists in defining patterns of responses on the three similar items (non-computable implication), and expressing their relationship with the other ones, and with the success to the final mathematical competitive exam.

Seven patterns were identified:

- **Logic** perspective, **stable** (LS): 3 "true" logical correct answers; 10 students.
- **Logic** perspective, **unstable** (LI): two "true" answers; 9 students.
- **Pertinence** perspective, **stable** (PS): three "non-sense" answers denying pertinence to the question; 9 students.
- **Pertinence** perspective, **unstable** (PI): two "non-sense" answers; 14 students.
- **Non-conditional** answers (NC): three "false" answers (with or without explanation: "*because P is false*"); 22 students.
- **Non-conditional** answers, unstable (NCI): two "false" answers; 23 students.
- Answers with **no-dominant** type of answer (SD); 20 students.

Given the global results, the probability to find a dominant pattern (all but SD) if students answered independently to each item would be quite lower than the observed percentage, while the probability to find SD patterns would be higher.

Results

Global results

They are presented, for implications with false premise, in Table 1, and for Wason's tests, in Table 2.

Table 1. Number of students given each type of answer depending on the questions

	True	non pertinent	False	other
<i>triangle</i>	15	38	46	8
<i>lights</i>	13	33	51	10
<i>labyrinth</i>	29	24	48	6
$Hn \Rightarrow Hn+1$	57	17	20	13
<i>the teacher's sweets</i> *	31	37	11	28

* For this item, the "non pertinent question" answer was dominantly "modifying the context in

order to make the premise true"; the answer "contract not respected" is put under "assertion false".

The two first items were quite similar. For the "labyrinth" item, there were more "correct" answers and less "nonpertinent" ones: it could be possible that some of the students missed the premise falsity because they "forgot" the rule of movement.

Table 2. Number of students given each type of answer on Wason's tasks

	Correct	non-Q missing	other errors	no answer
<i>Wason 1</i>	51	40	13	3
<i>Wason 2</i>	77	20	5	5

There were more correct answers with the Radford's version (W2) than with the Wason's selection task (W1). In fact, 43 students (40,2%) gave both correct answers; 34 correctly evaluate the procedures for testing the rule and made errors in the selection task, while only 8 were correct for W1 and made errors for W2.

Relationships between type of questions

Figure 1. Percentage of students with a correct answer to the computable assertion, depending on their patterns of answers to non-computable implications.

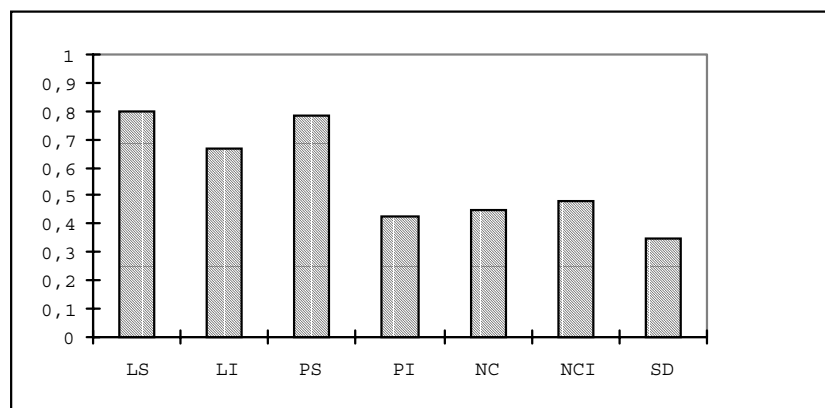
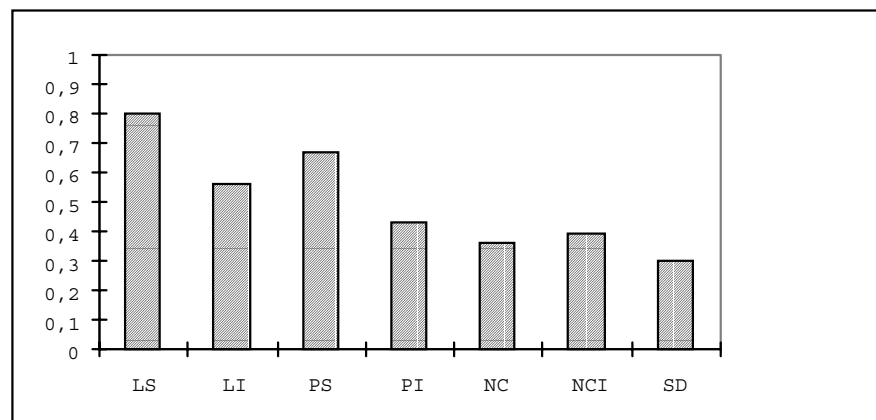


Figure 2. Percentage of students with correct responses to Wason's selection tasks, depending on their patterns of answers to non-computable implications.



Patterns of answers presented similar relationships with the correct answer to the computable implication and to the correct answers to the two Wason's tests. Both stable logic and pertinence perspectives (LS and PS) ensured success, while answers without dominant perspective (SD) led to the worst results.

However, a further analysis showed that 80% of LS students succeeded both the Wason's tests and the computable implication, while the other categories were all

under 45% of success (17 %for NC, NCI and SD groups).

Mathematical and material implications versus social contract statements

Figure 3 presents the relationship between the responses to non-computable implications and the logical answer to the social contract item.

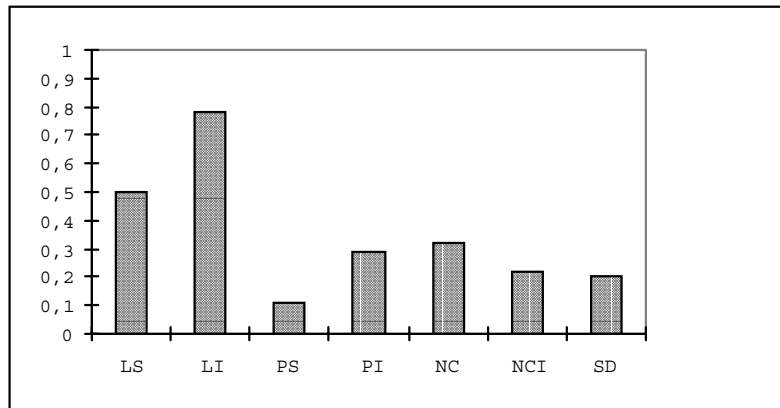


Figure 3. Percentage of students with a correct logical answer to the social contract question, depending on their patterns of answers to non-computable implications.

Logical answers to the social contract question were low (less than 30%), except for students giving logical answers (stable or incomplete) to the mathematical and material implications (globally: 63% of logical responses to the social contract item). The lowest percentage (10%) was observed for students answering with a (stable) pertinence perspective (PS).

Reasoning about false premises and mathematical success

The following table indicates the percentage (and number) of students passing the written test (first step of the competition), and the percentage of students who succeeded in this competition (and entered a teacher training institute: IU FM).

Table 3. Results to the competitive examination

	National level	Regional level	Tested students
Attending the competition	7780	638	107
Passing the written test	28,4% (2212)	28,8% (184)	38,3% (41)
Fully succeeding	12,4% (968)	12,2% (78)	18,7% (20)

With regards to their success in the national competitive examination, the students in our study were above the national and regional levels. This must be taken into account for evaluating the generality of the results.

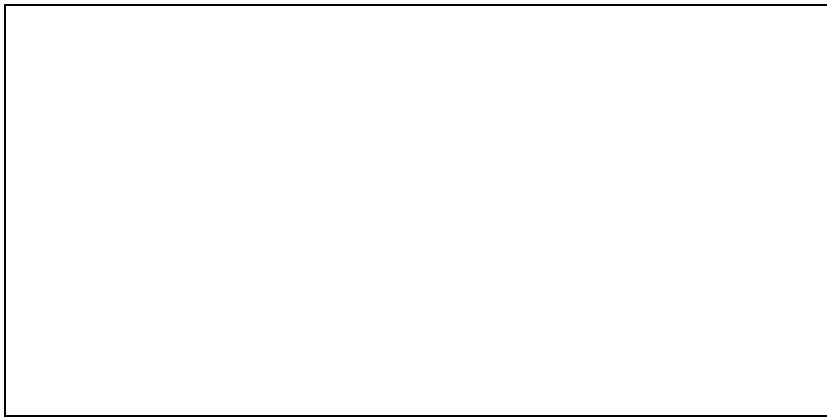


Figure 4. Percentage of students succeeding the written final exam, depending on their patterns of answers to non-computable implications.

Figure 4 presents the percentage of students passing the written test depending on their patterns of answers to non-computable implications. The best results were observed for students responding from a stable perspective of logic (LS) or pertinence (PS) (70% success); the worst results concerned the students with coherent non-conditional responses (NC: less than 10% success). Students presenting variability in their answers (LI, PI, NCI and SD) were slightly above the national mean (between 30% and 50%).

Discussion and conclusion

Students' answers concerning assertions with false premise and hypothesis testing, and students' success to the final mathematical show interesting relations. Both students centered on logic and on pertinence presented similar success. Only students who focus on logic answer logically to the social contract question. The model: "implication is false when premise is false" appears to be the worse for hypothesis testing and mathematical success.

The results on Wason's tasks have to be underlined: our results not only confirm Tweney and Yachanin results (1985) on the fact that scientists rationally assess conditional inferences better than non scientists, but also that graduate mathematics students can do better than the university physicians members tested by Wason.

These diagnosis results are partial elements of a more complete study (on the 20 questions of the test) which might enable us to analyse the various difficulties —and successes— of mathematical graduate students in logical processes used in mathematics.

The long term purpose of understanding how students process at a fine grained level of their mathematical logic is to identify what could be efficiently taught in this field, while keeping in mind the shared goal expressed by Thurston: the most important is not to prove but to understand mathematics.

The main issue is to improve the logical tool, in agreement with Hanna and Jahnke (1993) who defend the position that "a curriculum which aims to reflect the real role of rigorous proof in mathematics must present it as an indispensable tool in mathematics rather than the very core of that science" (p. 879).

References

- Balacheff, N. (1987). Processus de preuve et situations de validation. *Educational Studies in Mathematics*, 18, 147-176.
- Coe, R., & Ruthven, K. (1994). Proof practices and constructs of advanced mathematical students. *British Educational Research Journal*, 20, 41-53.
- Deloustal-Jorrand, V. (1999). L'implication. Quelques aspects dans les manuels et points de vue d'élèves-professeurs. *Petit x*, 55, 35-70.
- Dreyfus, T. (1997). Why Johnny can't prove. *Educational Studies in Mathematics*, 28, 85-109.
- Durand-Guerrier, V. (1996). *Logique et raisonnement mathématique*. Thèse de Doctorat. Université Claude Bernard Lyon 1.
- Duval, R. (1991). Structure du raisonnement déductif et apprentissage de la démonstration. *Educational Studies in Mathematics*, 22, 233-261.
- Fishbein, E. (1982). Intuition and proof. *For the Learning of Mathematics*, 3, 9-24.
- Hanna, G., & Jahnke, H. E. (1993). Proof and application. *Educational Studies in Mathematics*, 24, 421-438.
- Johnson-Laird, P.N., & Byrne, R.M.J. (1991). *Deduction*. Hove and London, UK: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Legrand, M. (1990). "Circuit" ou les règles du débat mathématique. In *Enseigner autrement les mathématiques* (pp. 129-161). Paris : Commission Inter-IREM Université.
- Politzer, G., & Carles, L. (to appear). Belief revision and uncertain reasoning. *Thinking and Reasoning*.
- Radford, L. (1985). *Interprétation d'noncés implicatifs et traitements logiques. Contribution à la faisabilité d'un enseignement de la logique au lycée*. Thèse de l'Université de Strasbourg.
- Tweney, R.D., & Yachanin, S.A. (1985). Can scientists rationally assess conditional inferences? *Social Studies of Sciences*, 15, 155-173.
- Wason, P. C. (1966). Reasoning. In B. M. Foss (Ed.). *New horizons in psychology*. (Vol.1). Harmondsworth: Penguin.

Annex. The logical test proposed to students consisted on 20 questions (11 mathematical ones, nine requiring no mathematical knowledge). Among them, seven asked to evaluate the value of an assertion or of a rule. The text of these questions is given below, with their number. The test began with the following forward: "Mathematical sentences, assertions, in the following exercises are often expressed in an naive, not formalised form, as it is done in an everyday mathematical text, or even in everyday conversation. It is deliberate, and you have to feel free in your answers, which may (must !) include many comments, and even propose "this question is a stupid one!". In italics the context of the analysed question.

Computable assertion with false premise

I. Given $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$, let (u_n) be the sequence defined by : $u_0 = \lambda$, $u_{n+1} = 2u_n + 1$.

Let H_n be the assertion " $u_n^2 \nmid f(2^n; 3) - 1$ ".

- (a) Is the implication " $H_n \Rightarrow H_{n+1}$ " true for some n ? for every n ?
- (b) Compute explicitly u_n as a function of λ and n [one may write $u_n = v_n - 1$].
- (c) Show that if $\lambda > -\frac{1}{2}$, all assertions H_n are false.
- (d) If $\lambda = 10$, what can be said about the assertion " $\forall n, H_n \Rightarrow H_{n+1}$ "?

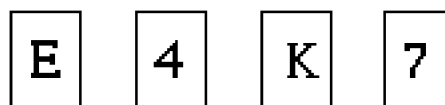
Non computable assertion with false premise: item 1

III. What do you think about the truthfulness of the following assertion:

"Every not flat triangle of the plane, whose mediatrices are not concurring, is an equilateral triangle"

Wason's selection task (W1)

IX. Cards are given, with a letter on one face and a number on the other one. One must test the possible rule: "behind a vowel there is an even number". For this purpose, a sample of 4 cards is disposed on the table; what is seen is represented just on the right. What card(s) is/are to be turned on in order to know if the rule is confirmed on this sample?"



Radford's version of Wason's task (W2)

XV. A set of numbered balls are in an urn. Balls are black or white. The following question is "do all white balls in the urn get an even number?"

Four procedures are considered for answering the question:

- procedure 1 : balls with an even number are taken out of the urn; then their colour is considered;
- procedure 2: balls with an odd number are taken out of the urn; then their colour is considered;
- procedure 3: white balls are taken out of the urn; then their numbers are considered;
- procedure 4: black balls are taken out of the urn; then their numbers are considered.

For each of these 4 procedures, choose among the two options:

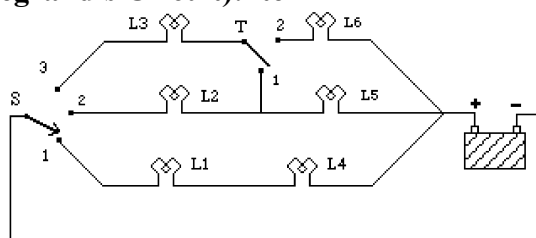
- (a) the procedure will certainly enable me to answer the question;
- (b) there is a chance that the procedure does not enable me to conclude.

Non computable assertion with false premise (Legrand's Circuit): item 2

XVII. An electric circuit consists of six identical lamps denoted L1, L2, L3, L4, L5, and L6, and two switches S and T; S may take three positions: S1, S2, or S3, and T may take two positions: T1 or T2.

(a) What may be said about the truthfulness of the following assertion: "if L1 is turned on or if L6 is on, then L3 is on or L4 is on"?

(b) What may be said about the truthfulness of the following assertion: "If L1 is on and if L3 is on, then L2 is on and L5 is not on"?



Social contract question

XVIII. In a primary school, the teacher gives a problem to the pupils and says: "search this problem at home; tomorrow, if somebody was able to solve it, I will give you sweets". The following day, no pupil has been able to solve the problem. The teacher distributes sweets to the pupils. They protest: "It is not just, we were not able to solve the problem, we get no right to sweets!". Mocking, the

teacher answers that she perfectly respected the contract... What are your comments about this story?

Non computable assertion with false premise (Durand-Guerrier's Labyrinth): item 3

XIX. Somebody, called X came through the labyrinth (on the right), from the entrance (entrée) to the issue (sortie), without going twice through the same door. Rooms are called A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K, L, M, N, O, P, Q, R, S, T.

For each of the seven following sentences, say if it is true, it is false, or if it is impossible to know:

- (1) *X went through T ;*
- (2) *X went through N ;*
- (3) *X went through M ;*
- (4) *if X went through O, then X went through F ;*
- (5) *if X went through K, then X went through L ;*
- (6) *if X went through L, then X went through K ;*
- (7) *if X went through S, then X went through T.*

