A SYLLABUS OF OBJECTIVE EXAMINATION STATEMENTS
IN EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY
by
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To the many students of the Advanced Educational Psychology classes of previous years, the writer is indebted for many of the test statements which are presented here.
A SYLLABUS OF OBJECTIVE EXAMINATION STATEMENTS
IN EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Of the several aspects of instruction in higher education, that of examinations is probably the least well handled. Oftentimes the actual teaching is done carefully and enthusiastically. The material is often well organized and the illustrations are numerous and pertinent. Frequently the assigned readings among texts, reference books, and magazines are well selected, and are read critically and thoughtfully by the students. Experiments and research work are usually given considerable care and large amounts of time. Often the personality and the personal influence of the instructor are excellent; and the educational, emotional, and social guidance given to individual students by individual instructors is of high quality. In contrast with these, the examinations are, generally, held to be unsatisfactory. The numerous attempts of institutions of higher learning to get away from course examinations and course grades supports this position.

Many attempts have been made to get away from the use
of marks or grades, but few if any of these have been at all successful among any large groups of pupils or students. School marks are, according to the writer and many others, necessary for use on report cards so that the pupils and their parents may know the quality of work the pupils are doing. They are necessary in the cases of pupils transferring from one school to another, and in the selection of students for institutional honors and election to honor societies. They are necessary to the administrators of large school systems and large schools in order that they may get a bird's-eye view of the instructional work being done. Research workers in the schools must have some estimate of the quality of the work which the students, individually and collectively, are doing. Guides and counsellors must rely rather heavily, in their first contacts, on the marks or grades of the pupils needing guidance assistance. Employers often are interested in the scholastic records of prospective employees. There are many other more special situations in which knowledge of student's grades are held to be of value; but even fairly accurate grades can not be given without fairly accurate examinations.

The expressed opinions of instructors and students show clearly that they do not approve of the current examinations whether or not they approve of the present
examination system. Frequently college instructors do not concern themselves greatly about examinations. They delay their preparation of examinations as an unpleasant task which requires a great deal of time which they would prefer to use in other activities. The result, usually, is poorly phrased and improperly balanced examinations which do not cover the field of the examination period either completely or by proper sampling; and the examinations lack proportionate value among the questions.

The examinations are often read and marked in a superficial way. Chance plays too great a part in the grades finally assigned to individual papers and to class averages. Frequently, instructors cannot justify the grades given to individuals except to say that the grades are their "impressions" of the worth of the work of the student. Altogether, there is little relationship between the material taught and the material examined upon. Too often there is little correlation between the grades given and the knowledge attained by the students.

In general, the examinations of the elementary and secondary schools are superior in every way to those of the colleges and universities, due largely to the influences of the standardized tests and the better training of these teachers in examination technique.

Since the preparation and evaluation of objective test
statements is a tremendously time-consuming procedure and since the duplication of effort in the preparation of these statements by individual instructors working alone would be extremely wasteful, the purpose of this thesis is the presentation of a fairly comprehensive collection of true-false examination items in educational psychology which should prove valuable to the instructors and students in this field. No matter what text the instructor uses or what his point-of-view on individual topics may be, he should be able to select from this list enough items to make alternate forms of midquarter and final examinations, properly proportioned among the subtopics, to cover the field of the examination period more thoroughly and satisfactorily than it is often done and to attain more objectivity in the grades assigned than is too frequently the case. Students may use these items for study and review. Any student who knows the answers to all or most of these items has a good knowledge of the course.

The plan of this thesis involves, first, the presentation of the problem of the thesis and the purpose of the author in presenting this particular material; second, a discussion of examination techniques; third, a fairly comprehensive list of examination items in educational psychology, arranged under topics and subtopics; and fourth, a summary of the viewpoint of the writer on examinations.
CHAPTER II
THE TECHNIQUE OF EXAMINATIONS

There are two general classifications of examinations, although they are not entirely exclusive. These are the "old-type", the traditional, or essay examination; and the "new-type" or the objective examination. Neither type is inherently good or inherently bad although the "new-type" faddists have made many extreme charges against the traditional examinations which later and calmer judgments have not sustained as necessary features of the traditional examination form as a type. On the other hand, many examinations in the form of the new-type examinations can not be evaluated as satisfactory examinations by any of the criteria of judging examinations. Either the traditional or the new-type form is useful, when it is well handled, and neither is as valuable as it should be, when carelessly or ignorantly used. Like so many other things, an examination is no better than its user.

The criteria by which an examination should be judged may be listed as:

A. Suitability to the students to whom it is given
I. Age
II. Training

B. Correspondence of the length and difficulty of the examination and the time allotted for its completion
C. Reliability
D. Validity
E. Economy
   I. In time and physical effort for the students
   II. Ease and rate of scoring
   III. Objectivity of scoring
   IV. Use of clerks in scoring
   V. Availability of the test for future use
   VI. Alternate forms
F. Evaluation of the items of the test

Evaluating the traditional or essay examination first because it is the older form, one finds that it has been used with more or less success for centuries. The claims for superiority of this type of examination over the objective type are that it:

G. Causes the student to organize his knowledge of the subject and think for himself
in the manner in which he must do these things outside of the classroom

H. Gives him training in English composition
I. Uses recall memory rather than recognition memory, and
J. Gives him greater freedom of judgment and expression and makes the subject matter more truly his own.

In reply, the critics of the traditional examination claim that (G) this form of examination is a memory endurance contest in which the students strive to remember as much of the information given to them in lectures as they can and place it upon their papers in as nearly the form in which it is received as they can in order to win approval of the instructor. For this reason, the critics claim that the essay type of examination need not, and very often does not, cause the students to organize their knowledge or to think for themselves.

The critics of this form of examination claim (H) that it not only does not give training in the usages of good composition but that it inculcates into the students bad habits of expression due to the conflict between ideas and form and to the extreme haste which is usually a part of examinations. They say that the instructor who wishes to
improve the English usage of his students could do this so much better by means of papers which can be prepared in a more leisurely manner and re-read and corrected for form of expression as well as for content.

The critics of the traditional examination charge that (I) recall memory is not superior to recognition memory as earlier psychologists thought. It has been demonstrated experimentally that over months and years, students trained in recall memory do not retain more than students trained in recognition memory. They claim, in addition, that the use of recognition gives finer measurement of knowledge than the use of recall does; and that the new type examination reduces the element of chance by avoiding a mental blocking or the oversight of some important subtopic on which the student is well informed but which he fails to recall under the stress of the examination.

The claim (J) that the essay examination gives the students greater freedom of judgment and expression and makes them more thorough masters of the subject is not, according to the critics of the essay examination, sustained by the experimental evidence in this field or by the opinions of many unprejudiced observers. They claim, for their own advantage, that well-phrased objective test items may require as much or even more thought than the essay examination
does. They claim, too, that the essay or traditional examination has the following weaknesses or faults:

K. The questions are not of equivalent length, value, or difficulty

L. The questions do not cover the field properly or even sample it well

M. The phraseology of the questions is often so vague that it gives no clew to the answer desired and the time limit of the examination precludes the complete answering of one question to say nothing of the customary ten. This is especially true of questions beginning with "What about--" or "Discuss--"

N. The papers are difficult to grade; require expert assistants if the instructor does not grade then himself; the marks given are general impressions only; the grades assigned vary from instructor to instructor and from grades given to a question or examination by the same instructor at different times; an instructor cannot "justify" a grade given to a paper if the student seeking to learn the reasons for receiving a certain grade requests the
the reasons; and the papers are often graded with disproportionate value given to quality of English composition, quality of handwriting, and general neatness.

0. The labor of writing exhausts or irritates the students so that they can not or will not give a fair sampling of their knowledge.

To these criticisms of the essay or traditional examination, the proponents of this form reply that all of these charges may be true at times, but that they are not inherent parts of this form of examination. In this, the writer of this thesis believes them to be entirely justified, in both theory and practice.

He believes that an essay or traditional examination may be made (A) quite suitable in length and difficulty to the age and the training of students regardless of what these ages and amounts and degrees of training may be. He believes that an essay examination may be (B) satisfactorily reliable in that, upon retests, it will arrange the same group in the same order of achievement. This is more than ever true when the instructor works out carefully the different ideas which should fall within the answer to the question and attaches to each of these a numerical value. In marking the test papers, the instructor or trained
assistant keeps this key before him and whenever he finds one of these ideas, he notes on the test paper the value which has been assigned to that idea. The complete grade then becomes only a matter of addition. Moreover, any other person trained in the field of the examination and using this key would give the paper a grade very similar to that already given to it. In the same way, re-markings by the same instructor would be very similar.

The writer believes, further, that an essay or traditional examination may have (D) high validity through the use of questions which are carefully selected samplings of the material taken up in the class periods during the time which the examination is to cover. The validity of an examination is often defined as the degree to which the examination measures what it is designed to measure. In the same way, questions may be made which are of equivalent value or not being of equivalent value themselves, may be weighted so that they are of equivalent value. If the procedure outlined in the preceding paragraph is followed, the sums of the partial values become the values of the different questions of the examination. Some experience and some readjustment of material may be necessary to make the sum of all of the partial values approximate one hundred. This is not arduous although the use of one
hundred is not necessary or even particularly advantageous.

Essay or traditional examinations may be (E) economical of (E-I) student's time and physical effort if the examinations are made to be of suitable length, if bluffing and padding by students are discouraged, and if students are permitted to use topical headings and outline forms instead of indiscriminate and unorganized writing. This increases the (E-II) ease and rate of scoring greatly and, obviously, increases (E-III) the objectivity of the scoring, especially in conjunction with the form of key described earlier in this paper. This plan permits the (E-IV) use of trained clerks or assistants in the scoring or marking of the examination papers. It makes the examination (E-V) available for future use and allows the (E-VI) composition of alternate forms of equivalent length, difficulty, and content. It enables the instructor to justify a grade given a particular student and to evaluate (F) the items of the examination by recording the number and the average quality of the students who failed to mention or to express clearly their thoughts about each of the partial ideas used in the key.

Through the use of this method of evaluating the examination, the instructor should be brought to fuller realization of the importance of the careful correlation of his ordinary classroom work and his examinations. In other
words, in the opinion of the writer and several experts, there is no large inherent superiority in the objective examination over the essay examination except in the larger number of separate test items and the saving of time and effort in taking and in scoring the examination of the objective type.

Instead of questions, the new type or objective examination uses positive statements. These statements or items may be of many different forms, but are usually grouped under five principal forms. These are the true-false, the completion, the multiple choice, the pairing, and the analogy.

The true-false item has several popular forms. It has received a number of criticisms, most of which are not, in the opinion of the writer, at all unanswerable. One form of the true-false statement is

T F Columbus discovered America.

In this form, the student encircles the "T" or the "F" according to his belief that the statement is true or false or clearly more true than false or vice versa. Another form of this item is:

T P F Columbus discovered America.

In this form, the student encircles the "T" if he
believes the statement to be clearly true or the "F" if he believes it to be clearly false. If he believes it to be neither clearly true nor clearly false, he encircles the "P" which stands either for "probable" or "possible", according to the instructions given for the particular examination. Another form is similar to the first except that each statement has a vacant line below it on which the student is to rewrite, entirely or in part, each statement that he marks "P" in such a way that he makes it true according to his belief.

The advantages claimed for the true-false form of statement or item are:

P. Large numbers of them may be marked quickly and easily by students, at least as far as physical fatigue is concerned.

Q. The large numbers of them that may be used in an examination allow for finer measurement and form a more thorough review of the material.

R. The number of these items assigned to any subtopic of the test is an indication of the instructor's estimate of the importance of the subtopic.
S. They may be altered in form easily so that they resemble closely the form in which the material was presented to the class or they may require thought to see the connection or application.

The critics of this form of examination statement claim, to its disadvantage, that it favors guessing and superficial preparation by the students. They claim that a student can achieve a mark of fifty per cent without even reading the statements. Experimental evidence does not sustain either of these claims in practice because the statements may be made out carefully so that they are real measures of information. The claim that guessing will give a score of fifty per cent holds only for large numbers of chance selections, five hundred being a minimal number. Very few examinations contain as many as five hundred statements. In the early days of objective examinations an effort was made to overcome the asserted effects of guessing by using the formula $T-2W = \text{Score}$ or $R-W = \text{Score}$, but later studies showed that the best score was the number of statements marked correctly. The use of the TPF form or of the form in which all statements marked false must be rewritten does away with the complete acceptance of fortunate guesses as correct knowledge.
The completion or verbal gap or fill-in form of statement is widely, and often badly, used. It is a valuable form of examination statement, however, especially with definitions, rules, and formulae which students have been told to learn verbatim. An example of this form of statement is:

Columbus is most famous for his discovery of ______.

The selection of statements from texts and their use as completion statements apart from their context is bad practice because these statements usually express partial ideas instead of being rather self-contained. In the use of completion statements not more than one word in five should be omitted and, preferably, not more than one in ten except in material which the students have been told to memorize in some exact form. In the marking of this form of statement, any adequate word used to fill in the verbal gap should be given full credit except in material which is to be memorized exactly. To mark the statements otherwise is to favor the influence of chance in grading and to instruct through docile memorization instead of learning and thinking. In the earlier days of the use of this form of statement, a great deal of importance was given to the influence of weighting the individual gaps and the words or phrases used to fill them in. Later study seemed to show that the added
accuracy did not justify the added arithmetic computation. The use of weighted answers is generally held to be an optional matter at the present time.

The only criticisms of this form of statement were the general ones that many of the statements used did not have much meaning apart from their contexts, that so many words were omitted that the skeleton remainder gave no clew to the desired answer, and that students were expected to fill in arbitrarily specified words or phrases and were given no credit when other and equally acceptable words and phrases were used. These are, obviously, faults of the constructor and are not inherent in the form of statement.

The multiple choice or multiple response or best answer form of statement is not as widely used as the true-false and completion forms. It is longer and requires more reading by the student and more space on the paper. It measures intelligence to too large an extent to be entirely fair to the unusually dull but industrious student; but this effect is not great enough to render it unusable with any considerable number of students. An example of this form is:

Columbus discovered helium
Australia
America
the law of gravity
Another and more serious objection to this form of statement is the difficulty of its preparation. Each of the choices for answers must seem reasonable to anyone who does not know the material but only one may be correct. The others must be clearly wrong. This is a difficult goal to achieve.

Again, the criticisms of this form of statement by its opponents are general and to the effect that many of these statements were poorly prepared. This must be admitted as true but it is not as much an indictment of the form of the statement as it is of the constructors of the tests.

The pairing or matching form of statement, like the multiple choice, is difficult to prepare well and favors the more intelligent student over the duller but possibly more industrious one. An example of a matching statement is:

(1) Columbus  ( ) Pacific Ocean
(2) Balboa  ( ) New York Harbor
(3) Cook  ( ) Mississippi River
(4) Hudson  ( ) America
(5) Fernandez  ( ) Australia
(6) Ponce de Leon
(7) Sir Francis Drake

In the preparation of a matching item, the best technique
is that of having one and only one word or phrase in one column related to a word or phrase in the other column. There should not be fewer than five words or phrases in the shorter column nor more than ten. If the examiner wants more items, he should make additional statements. In practice, the matching statements are usually the most poorly prepared because they seem so easy to prepare, and are not. This form of statement is well adapted to subjects in which a large number of somewhat isolated facts are to be learned, e.g., history or geography, although its usefulness is not limited to these subjects by any means. Weighting of the parts of a pairing statement is held to be unjustified because the added accuracy of measurement, if there is any, is not commensurate with the added labor involved.

The analogy statement is probably the most difficult form of the objective examination statements to prepare well. An example of this form of statement is:

Columbus : America :: Cook : AUSTRALIA, BERING SEA, STRAITS OF MAGELLAN, MALAY PENINSULA.

This is read as: Columbus is to America as Cook is to Australia or Bering Sea or Straits of Magellan or Malay Peninsula. One of the last four phrases is to be underlined as being related to Cook in the same way that
America is related to Columbus. As in the multiple choice form of statement, only one of the last three, four, or five words or phrases may be used to complete the statement correctly. The others must be clearly but not obviously false. In practice, the analogies form of statement has not been used widely in classroom tests although it has been used extensively in standardized intelligence tests. It would probably be used more widely were it not for the difficulty of the preparation of the statements.

The objective examination can be so prepared that it meets satisfactorily all of the criteria by which a good examination should be judged. Both the difficulty of subject matter and of phraseology can be modified to cause the examination to be (A) suitable to the ages and degrees of training of the students to whom it is given. The objective examination lends itself easily to adaptation to (B) the length of time available in an examination period. It can be made satisfactorily (C) reliable and (D) valid if it is given reasonable time and care in its preparation. Probably the second greatest value of the objective type of examination is its (E) economy of time and effort for both the students and instructors. In the examination room the students may cover (E-I) a great deal of either memory or thought material in a short time and with a minimum of effort. Objective examinations are (E-II)
easily and quickly scored if they are well prepared, and may be scored by assistants without special training in the field. Many classroom tests used in the larger colleges are printed and are arranged with open and closed circles on the backs and fronts of the pages. Each student has a paper punch and punches out an open or closed circle as he believes a statement to be true or false or as he chooses one response of the multiple choice statements. In the scoring of a student's paper, the instructor merely counts the open or the closed circles not punched out on the back of each sheet and this gives the score without further effort.

Obviously, the objective examination which is scored by means of a stencil or a key will be objective (E-III) in its scoring, once the stencil or key is made. Almost any one (E-IV) who is reasonably careful can score these tests accurately and quickly, and the instructor can give his time to things which he can do more advantageously. In a similar way, once an objective test (E-V) has been reproduced by some mechanical device, the copy at least is available for further reproduction. Before it is used repeatedly, however, alternate forms (E-VI) should be prepared and the items of the test (F) should be evaluated. The former is a somewhat tedious task requiring the expenditure of some time, but it is not otherwise difficult.
In the evaluation (F) of the statements of a test, the procedure is to administer the proposed test in a rather longer form than one plans to use it to students who have had suitable training and who have a suitable amount of time available for the examination. After the copies have been marked, they are taken item by item and the number of misses and the number of passes on each item are tallied in two groups -- those from the upper half of the class in total score and those from the lower half of the class in total score. If from sixty to ninety per cent of the class, especially the upper half of the class, mark the statement correctly, it is accepted as satisfactory. If more than ninety per cent of the class miss it, on the one hand, or mark it correctly on the other, the statement must be rephrased or thrown out, or a notation made to give the point of the statement more or less time during the instruction period. The reason is that such a statement does not differentiate among the students or measure their comparative degrees of knowledge. If fewer than sixty per cent of the class fail to mark an item correctly, it is made easier in its phraseology or a notation is made to give it more attention in the instruction period. If more members of the lower half of the class than of the upper half mark a statement
correctly, it is probably a "catch statement" and should be thrown out.

An excellent method (F) of evaluating items is that of putting each item on a ruled file card with several spaces for the dates on which the statement is used in examinations, other spaces for the number of misses or passes from the upper and the lower halves of the classes, and for a cumulative percentage column of correct markings which it has received. While this evaluation of objective examination items is somewhat laborious, it does add to the satisfaction of the instructor in knowing that he has a good examination and to the satisfaction of the students in knowing that their marks are accurate comparisons of their work with the work of similar students in the same field. Perhaps the greatest value of the evaluation of these examination statements is the improvement of the teaching as a result of the study of the examinations by the instructors. Furthermore, when students believe that their grades are accurate indications of their accomplishments, the student-instructor relationship is improved and the morale of the class is improved.

In summary, neither type of examination is inherently greatly superior to the other, but the writer believes that the objective examination has several qualities which make it somewhat better than the traditional type of
examination.

On page fifteen of this thesis, the formula $T - 2W = \text{Score}$ is used. In this formula, "$T$" stands for the total number of statements whose answering was attempted. "$W$" stands for the number of statements answered wrongly. This formula might have been written, $T - 0 - 2W = \text{Score}$. In this formula, "$T$" stands for the total number of statements, "$O$" for the number of statements unanswered or omitted, and "$W$" for the number answered wrongly. Either formula is commonly accepted, although some confusion has arisen of the meanings of "$T$" in the two formulae.

A large part of the material of this chapter was taken indirectly from the well-known works of Drs. C. W. Odell and G. M. Ruch in this field.
CHAPTER III

THE SYLLABUS OF OBJECTIVE EXAMINATION STATEMENTS

This chapter contains approximately five thousand objective examination statements in the field of educational psychology. They have been gathered from many texts by many students in this subject. The list is not exhaustive, in fact, the number of statements under some of the subtopics is distressingly small. On the other hand, the assorting of these questions was, of itself, no small task. The attempts of the author to evaluate these statements by estimate and to edit those that needed it most have been fatiguing and time-consuming. The list of statements is many times longer and better proved by use than any other lists in its field. However, not all of the statements have been proven by the method of evaluation from student's markings. Someone else may carry on the work from this point.

The list is divided into subheadings which are listed alphabetically. Where there are several sub-subheadings under one subhead, these, too, are alphabetical within the subhead. Many times, a statement could have been placed as well under another, or two or three other, subheads as well as under the one in which it was placed. To duplicate these items would have
made the list too long. There seemed no better way to do than to place these items under single subheads, often-times, somewhat arbitrarily.

ABILITY GROUPING

Classifying Pupils According to Abilities

T  F Ability grouping and homogeneous grouping are synonymous terms.

T  F Practically all pupils who are average in chronological age for their grades are dull normal in intelligence or below.

T  F Any child who is two or more years retarded in grade school should be placed in a special-type class or in an institution for the feebleminded.

T  F Any child who is two or more years retarded in the grades should be given an examination in personality make-up.

T  F As a rule, the number of pupils in the slow group is less than the number in the fast, or gifted, group.

T  F The brighter pupils require more concrete material and intensive drill than the duller pupils because they are inclined to be superficial.
T  F  Ability grouping can be handled through promotion by subjects even in the elementary school.

T  F  Greater flexibility of promotion of pupils works a hardship on the duller pupils in loss of time and in emotional discouragement.

T  F  Different ability groups in the same subject should not be taught in one room by one teacher.

T  F  Boys needing strong disciplinary measures should be given mostly industrial arts and agriculture courses because the teachers of these courses are usually able to manage unruly boys by physical strength, if necessary.

T  F  Dull or delinquent girls should be given a great deal of home economics work because they can do this even if they can not do the work of the academic subjects.

T  F  About ten per cent of the pupils enrolled in public schools are so inferior mentally, physically, educationally, or socially, that they should be placed in special classes.

T  F  Over-age, dull, large pupils are frequently moral and social menaces to their smaller and brighter playmates.

T  F  In many small school systems, all special class pupils are merged with the slow groups.
T F Teacher's estimates are much better than tests for the selection of pupils for special classes.

T F Teacher ratings form one of the best bases for classifying pupils into ability groups.

T F Intelligence tests are not sufficiently reliable for use in the final selection of pupils for special classes.

T F Achievement tests aid in the placement of pupils in ability groups.

T F In the slower group the mental age is the first consideration.

T F Ability grouping has its basis in the intelligence tests.

T F If the results of a general intelligence test -- or tests -- figures in the ability grouping then the divisions should be as follows: slow, I.Q.'s 70-90; average 90-110; fast, 110 up.

T F The results of a battery of general intelligence tests would constitute a very reliable basis for the division of the pupils of an eighth grade into A and B sections.

T F Intelligence tests would be sufficiently accurate to classify pupils definitely into groups if intelligence was the only factor to be considered in placement.
T F In the establishment of ability groups, the results of the intelligence tests and achievement tests should be the exclusive criteria for pupil placement.

T F Ability grouping is not feasible unless intelligence and achievement test scores are available.

T F The intelligence quotients among girls' groups are much more nearly similar than among boys' groups.

T F Boys choose their playmates with considerable reference to intelligence quotients.

T F Analysis of previous school marks is a most reliable basis for ability grouping.

T F The opportunity room is a special class for the dull and retarded pupils.

T F The opportunity room has been used very frequently as a dumping ground for disciplinary cases.

Justification and General Considerations of Ability Grouping

T F Ability grouping is a logical first step in the attempt to take care of individual differences.

T F Ability grouping is a means of selecting the worthwhile students from those who are not.

T F Ability grouping finds its justification in increased efficiency in teaching and learning.
T F Ability grouping is hardly possible in high schools.
T F Saving time in completing school work is the principal objective of ability grouping for bright pupils.
T F More creative work is possible for pupils under the ability grouping plan.
T F Schools have penalized the dull pupil in order to advance the bright pupil.
T F One importance of ability grouping is the recognition of the unsatisfactoriness of rigid classification of pupils.
T F In the main, senior high schools are making more thorough provision for ability grouping than are junior high schools.
T F There is a decided tendency for any given school pupil to do approximately the same quality of work in all of his school subjects.
T F Any given class of unselected school pupils will very likely display a wider range of ability in spelling than in any other subject.
T F Special classes in schools are used only for the very gifted or the very dull.
T F There is a direct relationship between retardation in school and poor types of homes.
T F Tutoring of retarded and accelerated pupils is a provision for individual differences more adapted to use in small schools than in large ones.

T F The present day high school student body is, as a whole, more homogenous than was the high school population of fifty years ago.

T F A timid or neurotic child should generally be placed in a working group which has slightly less ability than he.

T F Although the bright pupils are the future leaders of the community, they have been more neglected than the dull pupils.

T F The best method of making the system of ability classification flexible is one of the greatest of administrative problems.

T F A flexible program is required if ability grouping is to be used successfully.

T F Ability grouping is quite useless unless it is accompanied by proper changes in method and administration.

T F More than half of the high schools in our country make adequate provision for ability grouping within classes.

T F The ideal size for a school wishing to make the best use of ability grouping should be one of from 2500
to 3000 enrollment.

T F In general, there is not a wide enough range of abilities among college students enrolled in a single course to justify placing them in ability groups for the sake of economy in learning.

T F The ability grouping movement has been handicapped greatly by the inertia of many high school principals.

T F In ability grouping, in grade placement, and in individualized instruction, the problem of acceleration versus enrichment of material demands consideration.

T F If a majority of the pupils in a given grade remain in the same school for nine months of a school term, one ability grouping made in the fall of the year should be all the grouping needed for that school year.

T F Ability grouping has been handicapped greatly because of insufficient clerical assistance for the school principals.

T F The Winnetka Plan, the Morrison Plan, the Dalton Plan, individualized instruction, long-period assignment, the project method, the laboratory plan, the problem method, the contract plan, and differentiated assignments are schemes of instruc-
tion primarily based on ability grouping.

T  F  Ability grouping solves completely the problems of individual differences.

T  F  Grouping makes for economy in the cost of education.

T  F  Ability grouping will break up the present class room organization.

T  F  Ability groupings create class distinctions.

T  F  Ability grouping is financially possible only in large high schools.

T  F  The physiological age should be carefully considered in placing pupils in ability groups.

T  F  In moving a pupil from one grade to another, it is necessary that one consider only the scholastic ability of the pupil.

T  F  Experimentation has shown that in school work classification by chronological age is the most satisfactory way.

T  F  No pupil should remain in an opportunity room more than six weeks at one time.

T  F  The opportunity room of an elementary school is a special class for the assistance of pupils who are out of step with the achievement of their classes because of special conditions other than dullness.
Results of Ability Groupings

T  F  Ability grouping is very likely to produce a large number of cases of mediocrity in the average group.

T  F  Ability grouping is unlikely to produce much feeling of inferiority among slow pupils.

T  F  Ability grouping is more advantageous to the low and average pupils than to the brighter ones.

T  F  Grouping pupils by ability tends clearly to make the bright ones snobbish and the dull ones depressed or sullen.

T  F  Ability grouping allows more pupil initiative and individuality.

T  F  There are fewer personality maladjustments under the ability grouping plan.

T  F  In ability groupings the dull pupil has an increased chance for success.

T  F  Ability grouping creates monotony for the dull pupils because they do not get to do the extra things.

T  F  In general, the slow pupils derive more benefit from ability grouping than do average or fast pupils.

T  F  Ability grouping allows learning at a rate suited to the individual pupil.
TF Competition among pupils is lessened in ability grouping.

TF The dull pupil is forced beyond his capacity in ability groupings.

TF The lazy pupil will find encouragement and be stimulated more by working in a group brighter than himself than in a group duller than himself.

TF Low mentality groups will accomplish as much as the higher groups if given sufficient time.

TF Ability grouping has rightfully been called undemocratic.

TF In a system using the ability grouping, the brightest pupils receive the most attention.

TF High school pupils tend to form their own groups in accordance with ability.

TF In general, the most capable one-third of the pupils are advanced too rapidly and the least capable one-third too slowly for their optimal progress in school.

TF The bright pupil has an increased opportunity to develop his interests when in an ability group.

TF Ability grouping is very likely to produce a good many bigots in the fast group.

TF Bright children are less likely to develop superiority complexes when they are placed among other
bright children.

T F Pupils in the highest ability group present fewer adjustment problems than those in the duller groups.

T F Ability grouping solves the problem of adapting instruction to individual differences.

T F Variation of instruction requiring more work from the brighter pupils is usually a better scheme than promotion of these pupils to the next higher class.

T F An enriched program is not as well suited to the needs of the brighter pupils as a simplified program is adapted to the needs of the duller pupils.

T F Ability grouping must be accompanied by differentiated courses.

T F The standards for promotion should be the same for all ability groups.

T F Disciplinary problems are fewer when pupils are grouped according to ability.

T F Patience is the principal qualification necessary for the teacher who handles low ability groups.

T F Bright children will live up to their highest possibilities through ability grouping.

T F The teacher can use almost exactly the same subject-matter in lessons in the X, Y, and Z groups.

T F Ability grouping is a means of adapting instruction to individual differences.
The teacher who tries to keep a class of pupils together in subject matter without knowing their intelligence and achievement test scores is probably wasting the time of both the dull and bright pupils of the class.

Ability grouping allows for specialization by teachers and pupils in accordance with special ability.

In ability groupings the teacher is enabled to give more drill to the slower group.

Ability grouping decreases the work of the teacher.

By grouping pupils according to ability, the school circumvents the mischief-makers very largely because they are usually the children markedly above or below the averages of the grade in which they are located.

The curriculum needs to be graded more exactly in terms of mental age development of the pupils under ability grouping than in heterogeneous classes.

Certain character traits are outstanding in each group of pupils classified on an ability basis.
ACCELERATION OF THE GIFTED

T  F  Acceleration of the bright pupils is a form of curricular enrichment.

T  F  Bright pupils seldom furnish their own curricular enrichment of their own accord.

T  F  Superior children are caused to work nearly to the limits of their capacities usually.

T  F  Even under compulsory education, the superior child has had, generally, a different curriculum from the average or dull child in the same school.

T  F  The compulsory education laws which have brought large numbers of pupils of low intelligence into the schools have caused considerable injustice to the superior pupil.

T  F  Ten per cent of the public school pupils could save at least two years out of the eight grades by proper promotion and classification.
ACHIEVEMENT QUOTIENT

Characteristics of A.Q.'s: Determining A.Q.'s

T  F  The achievement quotient is an ideally accurate concept.

T  F  A.Q.'s are suitable for computation for pupils on the high school level.

T  F  The optimum achievement quotient is close to 100.

T  F  A person's A.Q. is found by subtracting his mental age from twice his subject age.

T  F  The A. Q. is a fair mark which evaluates pupils' accomplishments in terms of pupils' abilities.

T  F  The A. Q. is obtained by dividing the achievement age by the chronological age.

T  F  When a pupil's achievement is commensurate with his intelligence, he receives an A. Q. of 100.

T  F  The A. Q. is a medium in which pupils can keep records of their work.

T  F  The A. Q. is a measure of achievement relative to the pupils capacity to learn.

T  F  The A. Q. is a valuable educational index between intelligence and achievement.

T  F  The A. Q. is a score indicating the amount of gain in information that a child has made in one year.

T  F  The A. Q. is too difficult to determine and too elusive in meaning for use by most teachers.
T F When conditions are so arranged that abler pupils are held to better accomplishments, the result is an increase in their A. Q's.

T F The correlations computed between intelligence scores and school marks show that the relationship is growing closer each year.

T F The A. Q's tend to form a normal curve of distribution centering about 100 as a mean.

T F Pupils who dislike school, who are lazy, or who have not had the opportunities to learn have A.Q's under 100.

T F The A.Q. is a measure of effort or motivation or opportunity.

T F A pupil's intelligence limits his I. Q. but not his A. Q.

T F Environment is an important factor in causing a high or low A. Q.

T F Reliability and validity are difficult factors to control in determining the A. Q.

T F The requirements for the bright pupils are less rigorous than they are for the dull pupils who receive the same A. Q.

T F It is hardly possible for a pupil to have an A. Q. much higher than his I. Q.

T F The A. Q. is constantly subject to greater errors.
than regular test scores are.

T F Achievement quotient, accomplishment quotient, and accomplishment ratio are synonymous terms.

T F The chronological age rather than the mental age is taken into account in determining the A. Q.

T F Opportunity is not considered a factor in causing low or high A. Q.'s.

T F Achievement quotients cannot be obtained from scores from classroom tests.

T F The A. Q. is an accurate basis for grade placement.

T F For accurate A. Q.'s, standardized tests with accurate age norms are essential.

T F Achievement quotients show the ratio between what pupils are capable of doing and what they actually do.

T F The A. Q. is the most exact measure of the efficiency of study.

T F The A. Q. can not go above 100.

T F Encouragement of pupils has little effect upon their A. Q.'s.

Application or Use of A. Q.'s.

T F A child marked in terms of his own ability rather than in terms of class performance will have more encouragement to do his best no matter whether he is bright or dull.
T F It is more important to know the magnitude of a pupil's achievement than to know the relation of his achievement to his intelligence.

T F The relationship between intelligence and scholarship would be higher if the bright pupils worked up to their capacities.

T F Chronological age scores should rarely, if ever, be employed in connection with high school measurements.

T F A marking scheme based on achievement quotients would prove of little value to a pupil after he had left the school.

T F The A. Q. is successfully used as a measure of motivation.

T F The A. Q. has become a great aid as a teaching device and can be used effectively with individual pupils.

T F Two grades or two schools might be compared in efficiency by use of the A. Q.'s.

T F The teacher is on much safer ground when using the A. Q. of a group than when using individual ratings.

T F The A. Q.'s may be used to compare schools as well as individuals.

T F The A. Q. alone should be used in determining grade placement.
T F The achievement quotient serves as a valuable indication even if it is not wholly accurate.

T F The achievement quotient is the ratio of what a pupil does to what he might or could do.

T F A high achievement quotient means that its possessor has used his inherited capacity to excellent advantage.

T F A fairly satisfactory measure of a pupil's general achievement can be obtained by testing his reading and arithmetic skills.

T F Achievement age is used to mean a pupil's score on an achievement or subject-matter test expressed in terms of the chronological age of the average pupil attaining the same score.

T F Accomplishment quotient is synonymous with attainment quotient.

T F If a child is bored by his school work, his A. Q. becomes less.

T F If a child is being held back in class work by those who are less gifted than he, his A. Q. is superficially increased.

T F The achievement quotient of a class is an index of the quality of the teaching.

T F The A. Q. measures industry and persistence indirectly.
T F The achievement quotient is directly proportional to the E. Q. and the I. Q.

T F The A. Q. is found by dividing the E. Q. by the I. Q.

Miscellaneous Questions Appertaining to A. Q.

T F The higher a pupil's I. Q. is, the lower his A. Q. must be.

T F The low correlation between A. Q.'s and I. Q.'s is due to improper classification of pupils.

T F The C. A. has little or no effect upon the relationship between the I. Q. and the A. Q.

T F The brighter pupils have to do more to get the same A. Q. rating than do the duller ones.

T F A group with a lower initial A. Q. will gain more than one with a high initial A. Q.

T F Dull and bright pupils may compete on a parity to bring their A. Q.'s as high as possible.

T F It is an advantage to the pupil to know his A. Q.

T F Ability groupings would tend to lower the A. Q.'s of the accelerated pupils.

T F In the lower school classes, lack of ability is a more important cause of failure than it is in the higher classes.

T F A pupil is better off if he does not have to make
the utmost use of his abilities.

T F Pupils may be overstimulated through use of the A. Q. so that they worry and become hysterical.

T F The greater the intelligence of the pupil, the less probable it is that he is actually accomplishing what one is justified in expecting him to accomplish.

T F A bright pupil may be leading his class and still have a low A. Q.

T F It is not possible for one to have a higher A. Q. than E. Q.

T F A. Q. tests seem to worry pupils more than other kinds of tests.

T F The A. Q. is never fair to the lazy pupil.

T F The A. Q. of a pupil who enters school at too early an age will probably be affected adversely.

T F As the reasoning processes in a child mature, his A. Q. is certain to increase.

T F Some safe prediction of a pupil's future success can be made by judging the way his achievements measure up to his capacities.

T F The A. Q. must take into account the M. A. and the rate of mental growth in relation to the level of instruction.

T F Employers are more often satisfied with employees
of lower I. Q. and higher A. Q. than with those of higher I. Q. and lower A. Q.

T  F Since the adoption of the A. Q. for use in the schools it has been found that subject-matter variation among the pupils is less than was generally believed before its adoption.

T  F If a teacher can show, by means of the A. Q. that her pupils progressed at their normal rates, she can defend her teaching methods clearly and with assurance.

T  F The A. Q. is an unfair device of measurement because it requires the pupil of lesser mental ability to do as well as the other pupils of his age who are better endowed.

T  F A pupil's intelligence limits his I. Q. but not his A. Q.

T  F The A. Q. alone can be used in determining grade placements.

T  F The A. Q. gives the most definite measure of the merits of a pupil that we possess.

T  F Environment is an important factor in causing a high or low A. Q.
ACHIEVEMENT TESTS

Introductory Questions

T F Intelligence is the sole determinant of achievement.

T F Aptitude does not insure achievement.

T F Achievement refers to the quality and quantity of school work done by pupils.

T F Achievement tests are designed to give an objective measure of mastery.

T F Measurement of certain types of achievement is attempted by indirect methods.

T F Achievement tests assume that each pupil is provided with a reasonable opportunity to demonstrate his ability in the field being measured.

T F Achievement, as measured by achievement tests, is a stable inherited trait.

T F It is possible that certain members of the fourth grade may have achievement scores in a subject equalling or exceeding the scores of certain members of the eighth grade.

T F In most achievement tests, the sampling of the field is based upon the objectives of the school rather than the interests of the pupil.

T F The validity of a test is conditional upon the degree to which associative relationships can be
specified.

T F The achievement of a pupil at a given time is not fully described unless his position on the curve of forgetting for that material is specified.

T F Tests which have several equivalent forms make possible the measurement of progress several times a year.

T F The number of items in a test has no bearing on its reliability.

T F A valid test is necessarily a reliable one.

T F The quality of work done by teachers is shown better by the teacher's marks than by achievement tests.

T F Superintendents can judge different schools under their jurisdiction better by personal visitation than by achievement tests.

T F Though it is valuable to know the comparative efficiency of pupils with those in other cities, it is more important to know the individual differences and achievements among the pupils with whom one works.

T F Better comparisons between individuals and between school systems in different cities are obtained without standardized tests.

T F More standardized educational tests have been
developed in the college field than in the secondary school field.

T F More satisfactory results are obtained from measuring achievement in college than in high schools.

T F It is difficult to make effective objective tests for high school subjects.

T F Objectivity of scoring has little effect on the reliability of a test.

T F There is, in general, little need to supplement all-around achievement tests by intelligence tests.

T F Measurement of achievement should precede the use of the supervision-of-study method.

T F Batteries of tests have been devised for survey purposes.

T F Standardized achievement tests are designed to measure the individual's proficiency as compared with standard pupils of his age and grade.

T F The use of comprehensive standards of achievement in evaluating the work of pupils is a very new procedure.

T F By means of achievement tests, student's achievements may be measured in objective and impersonal terms.

T F Achievement test batteries are designed especially
for the discovery of strong and weak points in pupil knowledge.

T F Achievement tests should bring about the developing of objective and impersonal methods of examining and scoring.

T F Achievement depends to a large degree upon the C. A.

T F Achievement tests measure both the knowledge and ability of pupils.

T F Practically every elementary subject can now be measured by reliable and valid scales.

T F The inaccuracy of teacher's marks led to the development of standardized educational tests.

T F With good teaching and hard work, all pupils can attain a sufficiently high standard of accomplishment to deserve promotion in any course.

T F A chief fault of the essay examinations is its weakness as an incentive.

T F Since a test is valid only when it measures what it is supposed to measure, many essay examinations were not valid because they measured quality of handwriting and neatness as much as anything else.

T F Achievement tests furnish an excellent means of measuring the pedagogical age of the child.

T F Objective examinations allow more material to be covered and more complete information about the
pupil's knowledge to be secured.

T  F  Objective examinations tend to increase the influence of variable conditions.

T  F  The measurement of the amount of instruction retained by pupils is more feasible than the measurement of the results of instruction because it can be done directly.

T  F  The best achievement tests measure functional knowledge directly and clearly.

T  F  Achievement tests are of considerable value in a guidance program.

T  F  Achievement tests can be used to measure the value of different methods of presentation of subject matter and to show the superiority of the better over the poorer methods.

T  F  Existing standards of school achievement are better adapted to the brighter pupils than to the duller.

T  F  The establishment of definite achievement norms by means of definite measurements has meant a more precise knowledge of educational aims.

T  F  The establishment of accurate norms by means of definite measurements has meant a more precise estimate of definite aims of attainment.

T  F  The great mental activity found among some of the insane usually shows up well on achievement tests.
T  F  Achievement tests scores are based upon one's general life experience.

T  F  The so-called written problem is often a test in reading skill rather than of arithmetic training.

T  F  Wide variations in the school performances of pupils in the same grades have been done away with since the advent of standardized achievement tests in 1920.

T  F  The measurement of the amounts of material learned under various conditions is essential to the development of good educational methods.

T  F  Compositions (themes) are measured on rating scales based on judgments of least perceptible differences.

T  F  The most able pupils in each grade in initial tests show greater gains on standard tests during the course of the year than the least able pupils.

T  F  Achievement tests endeavor to measure the special knowledge derived from special training.

T  F  Subject achievement tests are more useful as prognostic than as diagnostic tests.

Construction and Use of Achievement Tests

T  F  Standardization of procedure with achievement tests is important as it helps to make results comparable.

T  F  Makers of achievement tests have found it difficult to find the educational aims for most of the subjects taught.
T F Makers of achievement tests have found it relatively difficult to specify the associative relationships included in one specific ability.

T F One of the difficulties encountered in the construction of achievement tests in the content subjects lies in the fact that minimum essentials are difficult to determine.

T F Progressive teachers are using achievement tests to stimulate pupil's interest and desire for improvement.

T F One of the chief functions of all achievement tests is diagnosis of subject-matter weaknesses.

T F Tests should be given only when there is a definite problem to solve.

T F It is the purpose of an achievement test to rate a pupil's ability to learn rather than to ascertain what he has learned.

T F Achievement tests are never used to test motor attainment.

T F Age and grade norms are seldom provided for achievement tests.

T F Objectivity of scoring has little effect upon the reliability of a test.

T F The reliability of a test refers to the extent to which it tests what it is supposed to test.
T F A subject achievement test measures the amount of the subject that has been learned.

T F It is more important to know the magnitude of a pupil's achievement than to know the relation of his achievement to his intelligence.

T F A norm is the score which an average pupil is expected to make on an achievement test.

T F Achievement tests furnish definite proof that children fall into permanent and definite groups that should be taught as ability or x-y-z groups.

T F Achievement tests are seldom used as means of determining changes in subject-matter to be taught.

T F Achievement test norms should be worked with exactness to the second or third decimal places.

T F Achievement tests are often constructed in units which are comparable and uniform.

T F Essay type achievement tests can be equal to objective type achievement tests in reliability and validity.

T F High marks on achievement tests are not always criteria of great capacity.

T F A given pupil will vary a great deal on the same test given repeatedly.
T F The average scores on achievement tests are independent of chronological age.

T F Achievement test results show that there is little relation between immediate memory and school attainment.

T F Achievement test results are usually inaccurate because every child has a different background so that some have advantages over others.

T F The results of achievement tests may be utilized by a teacher to point out the weak spots in her teaching.

T F High school pupils should not be taught anything about test construction.

T F The use of time limits of any kind on achievement tests are unfair because time limits penalize the slow pupil.

T F The measurement of academic abilities only is accomplished well by means of achievement tests.

T F Before the advent of achievement tests, the best 60% of the pupils in a grade could be exchanged with the poorest 60% of the next higher grade without changing the average of either grade.

T F The oftentimes elusive and hazy goals of education are perceptibly focused for the child if he knows the results of his achievement tests.
ADOLESCENCE

Nature and Theories of Adolescence.

T F The junior high school plan is well adapted to pupils of adolescent age.

T F The wise administrator can take advantage of the instincts and emotions of youth to improve pupil development during secondary education.

T F Savage tribes ignored the adolescent period entirely.

T F Groups of adolescents should be segregated.

T F The period of youth or adolescence begins and ends earlier in the Caucasian than in any other race.

T F The adolescent should have strong home domination in order to keep his emotions in check.

T F To deny all feelings that provoke pleasure in adolescence is to court adolescent misbehavior.

T F Only during recent years has the adolescent period been recognized.

T F There is no wide variation in the time of onset of adolescence.

T F To meet the needs of adolescents, a wide range of elective subjects should be offered in high schools.

T F Educators are not concerned with instincts during the adolescent period.

T F Education should seek to feed the interests and
capacities peculiar to adolescence.

T F Younger pupils should be made to conform to the provisions of the school system, as this aids them in stability during their adolescence.

T F Adolescence is a natural period of development and should be considered in a matter-of-fact way.

T F More interests and wholesome activities should be furnished the adolescents and less and less misinformation given and unnecessary talking done.

T F Adolescents should be led to believe that more is expected of them than really is.

T F Children should really be excused from school attendance during adolescence.

T F The differences in chronological age at which the adolescent period starts offers a real teaching problem in secondary schools.

T F The differences between adolescence and childhood are in kind rather than in degree.

T F Adolescence is the period of greatest imagination for most people.

T F Generally speaking, there are no new emotions developed during adolescence.

T F Adolescents are often idealistic and realistic alternately.
T F Daydreaming has never produced a single worthwhile unit of work for the world.

T F The use of creative imagination in daydreaming is essential to successful thinking.

T F All development of the imagination may not be based upon sensory experiences.

T F The fostering of illusions is not characteristic of adolescents.

T F The adolescent is intensely interested in the world of physical phenomena.

T F Adolescents have unbound faith in their future success.

T F Boys and girls can not be handled to best advantage in the same groups during adolescence.

T F Adolescents prefer that their group activities be closely supervised.

T F The adolescent is far better off if he can be sustained by social suggestion than if he is overturned by it.

T F During adolescence the child becomes aware of new special aptitudes and sees his work and himself in an entirely new light.

T F Boys of the adolescent period prefer women teachers to men teachers, other things being equal.
T F In the transitory period between childhood and adolescence, drill and mechanical learning devices should be relaxed gradually and replaced by appeals to interest.

T F Early in the adolescent period, the child usually decides definitely on a life vocation which usually carries through into reality in adulthood.

T F Racial influence does not influence the time of the onset of adolescence.

T F Climate had little influence upon the age at which adolescence takes place.

T F Since adolescence marks the transition period from childhood to adulthood the young person should be trusted as an adult as far as possible.

T F Since maturity is the main difference between pupils, grades and methods of teaching should be fitted more closely to the pupil's stages of growth than to any other difference.

T F Marked changes in mental attitudes are not limited to the adolescent period.

T F Adolescents do not, as a rule, care for the advice of the family regarding their vocation choices.

T F A pupil's attitude toward work and superior methods of work fluctuates more widely during adolescence than at any other time.
The period of adolescence appears gradually.
Adolescence is confined almost entirely to emotional development.
Adolescence should mark the close of the emotional weaning of the child.
Adolescence is the natural period for the awakening of many emotions, such as friendship, love, patriotism, and religion.
A heightened emotional condition is prevalent during adolescence.
The expressions of emotions are little changed during adolescence.
Strong emotions are characteristic of adolescence.
Melancholy is not a noticeable characteristic until the period of adulthood is reached.
The religious beliefs and conversions of youth are inspired by original, deliberate, and reflective thought.
The adolescent experiences of a person and their conditioning largely determine all that the future will have in store for the person.
Emotional maturing does not take the same form for the girl as for the boy.
The age of the child at which an emotion first appears is determined easily and clearly.
T  F  During adolescence boys are likely to be extremely careless or extremely careful about their personal appearances.

T  F  The play interests of children remain the same throughout adolescence.

T  F  Physical activity plays little part in drawing adolescent boys together.

T  F  As a rule, the members of a "gang" are likely to be of about the same intelligence.

T  F  The influence of school pupils upon each other is slight during adolescence.

T  F  Spontaneously organized societies are usually of greater appeal to adolescents than those organized by older persons.

T  F  Mystery and ceremony do not appeal to adolescents.

T  F  During adolescence membership in groups fails to attract.

T  F  Not until the period of adolescence is closed does the individual realize his place in the social system.

T  F  A boy or girl, upon entering adolescence, realizes vaguely that he or she is no longer a child.

T  F  The sex instinct develops slowly during the adolescent period.
T F Co-education contains great possibilities for teaching the worthy ideals which one sex should entertain toward the other.

T F Adolescence should be prepared for by some sex instruction.

T F We can build strong moral characters in our adolescents through the study of morality and the discussion of moral precepts.

T F Sympathy along with gregariousness manifests itself most clearly during adolescence.

T F The social drives of the adolescent are given new impetus through sexual impulses which have been given new direction.

T F Maturity brings with it control of the impulses and desires for the sake of the ends to be realized.

T F Children at the age of adolescence are not definitely moral or immoral.

T F Sex domination is not thought of as much during adolescence as at later periods of life.

T F A major problem of training in adolescence is the supervision of the sublimations and the substitutions made.

T F Among adolescents, worthy interests may be used in the sublimation of unworthy ones.

T F Adolescence is a period during which maladjustments
of mental life are most likely to occur.

T  F  In compliance with the saltatory theory of instincts, the mind grows by leaps and bounds during adolescence and thus defies fatigue.

T  F  Belief in the saltatory theory makes adolescence a very definite step in human development.

T  F  The saltatory theory is known as the theory of gradual and uniform development.

T  F  The theory of saltatory development, "to proceed by leaps", is believed by most psychologists.

T  F  Memory ability increases fairly steadily from infancy to adulthood and then remains fairly constant until senescence.

T  F  Memory ability is very evidently better before adolescence than after.

T  F  Mental growth during adolescence is different in general from growth during any other period.

T  F  Mental growth during adolescence is widely different from mental growth during earlier or later years.

T  F  Native ability can be changed by training during adolescence more widely than it can be changed at any other time.

T  F  Genius, including that of music, is first expressed during adolescence.
T  F  The psychological changes that come during adolescence are well known.

T  F  The power of expression of the adolescent is much greater than his ability in appreciation and understanding.

T  F  A good mind will not, of itself, handicap the adolescent in the development of an effective personality.

T  F  Growth in general intelligence probably ceases before general physiological growth does.

T  F  Most people reach their lifetime mental age during adolescence.

T  F  In early childhood the end of achievement is remote, not immediate.

T  F  A noticeable trait of adolescence is that the child is keen in his observation of people but negligent of things.

T  F  Adolescence means a "new birth" because the higher and more completely human traits first appear at that time.

T  F  Adolescence brings a need for a definite outlook on life and an interpretation of the world.

T  F  Adolescence brings a definite change of interests.

T  F  Growth and development are essentially continuous and gradual during adolescence.
T F There is a maximum development of personality during the early periods of adolescence.

T F Eagerness for social recognition does not appear until after adolescence.

T F Bones and muscles are the chief factors in growth during adolescence.

T F Physical growth is greatest during the first two years of adolescence.

T F The growth of almost all of the organs of the body is retarded during adolescence.

T F High school athletics contribute their greatest values from the standpoint of moral development.

T F An increase in the rate of growth comes early during adolescence.

T F During adolescence, the rate of growth of the circulatory system exceeds its earlier rate.

T F Ossification of the skeletal frame increases sharply during adolescence.

T F Height and weight are fairly reliable criteria of adolescent maturity.

T F There is decreased uniformity in the rate of development of the units of the body during adolescence.

T F Puberty has little to do with adolescence.

T F Because of the disproportionate growth of heart
muscles during adolescence, temporary functional disturbances frequently arise.

T  F  Those adolescents who are less developed physically are almost always more developed mentally.

T  F  There is not a close positive correlation between mental or educational maturity and physical development.

T  F  The athlete who develops superior skills in the popular types of high school athletics should be provided opportunity to exercise such skills to a maximum.

T  F  During adolescence mental and physical growth go hand in hand.

T  F  Adolescence or youth extends from the time of the onset of puberty to complete maturity.

T  F  During adolescence boy's voices descend an octave and girls a few notes.

T  F  Reflex actions improve very noticeably as a result of adolescence.

T  F  With the advent of adolescence all powers, physical and mental, come to maturity.

T  F  There seems to be no special period when the child begins to reason more accurately or more frequently than he did before.

T  F  The power of reasoning first appears in the indivi-
dual during adolescence.

T F The increase in reasoning power of the youth of fifteen years is probably over-estimated because his problems are becoming more nearly to the problems of the adult.

T F Adolescence has no effect upon the reasoning power.

T F In the early period of adolescence, reasoning should take the place of control by feeling.

T F The conclusions of youth in adolescence are usually the results of sound reasoning.

T F The adolescent has little critical judgment or independence of thought.

T F The ability to deal with abstractions first manifests itself during adolescence.

T F During adolescence a person develops independence of thought.

T F Volition or will is strong and consistent during adolescence.

T F An adolescent may be overactivated by his jealousy.

T F Little work should be required of the adolescent.

T F It is rarely necessary for the adolescent to earn money for himself.

Adolescent Behavior

T F Likes and dislikes are likely to be intense during adolescence.
T F  The adolescent adheres to the styles of his elders in dress.

T F  The youth is an individualist in methods and styles of dress.

T F  Individual differences begin to manifest themselves during late adolescence.

T F  The average adolescent scorns social approval.

T F  The adolescent must receive careful guidance in the high school because he is reluctant to become discouraged.

T F  Middle adolescence is the period in which self-assertion is greatest.

T F  The adolescent lives in the present and past with respect to his plans and procedures.

T F  Environmental influence in youth does not have the determinative effects upon one's late years that intellectual influence has.

T F  While interests may be stimulated and cultivated, they are primarily a function of native tendencies.

T F  In modern civilization the adolescent is treated as a dependent but he is expected to show adult behavior.

T F  Gang loyalty in adolescents may even surpass loyalty earlier established to such ideals as honesty.
and truthfulness.

T F Whatever character weaknesses have been gaining ground during one's earlier years are usually thrown into bold relief during adolescence.

T F Psychologists are interested in the emotions of the adolescents because so many adult activities are guided by emotion.

T F The adolescent usually wants to do "big things".

T F Adolescents are almost always characterized by their frankness.

T F During adolescence, the individual seeks to find the boundaries of his abilities and the limits of what he may or may not do.

T F At the onset of adolescence, young people tend to form groups to a greater extent than before.

T F The achievement of sexual maturity brings with it an accompanying increase of emotional expression which carries its influence into all forms of activity.

T F The theory of total depravity -- that all children are born bad -- is widely accepted today.

T F The adolescent fluctuates between great individualism and extreme social servility.

T F Personality traits become integrated during adol-
escence more than they do before or later.

T F The personality traits are often developed inconsistently during adolescence.

T F The adolescent is both bashful and self-assertive.

T F The principles of character trait modification are different for adolescents from those used with others.

T F The emotional stability of the adolescent bears a close relationship to his social, educational, and intellectual maturity.

T F At the time of adolescence, the child feels that nothing he has or does is a personal matter.

T F Emotional life is intensified during adolescence by the muscular and glandular growth which is taking place.

T F A characteristic of adolescents is their desire to confide in others.

T F The adolescent experiences greater excitement, keener disappointment, and greater pleasure than the adult.

T F The call of adventure is usually stronger during adolescence than at earlier or later periods.

T F Practically all reform moves in the world have been started by adolescents.
T F One of the observable signs of the onset of adolescence is the increased egocentricity of the youth.

T F Memory for specific facts is often unsatisfactory in adolescence because of temporary confusion and emotionality.

T F The adolescent often experiences types of emotions that he has not experienced before.

T F In several respects, the adolescent is more stable than he was as a younger person.

T F During adolescence, habits are made or broken easily so that that is a good time to devote to guidance work.

T F The tendency to wander or to migrate is a characteristic of the period of adolescence.

T F Adolescence is a practical age, devoid of all fancies and vivid imaginings.

T F The adolescent should be relieved of almost all responsibility for his acts because of the strain of the period and its emotional fluctuations.

T F In adolescence, the social instincts undergo a sudden unfolding.

T F The Boy Scout movement was founded on a sound and wholesome psychology.

T F During adolescence, altruism develops rapidly if cultivated.
T F Altruism develops before the onset of adolescence.

T F A large percentage of adolescents drop out of church groups.

T F The average adolescent has very strong and definite political ideals.

T F Imitation determines the high school and college student's attitude toward study.

T F The child imitates automatically, spontaneously, and blindly whatever happens to be dominant in his environment.

Disturbances During Adolescence

T F Criminality is an attitude of an individual toward society.

T F The majority of criminals in this country began their anti-social behavior during adolescence.

T F Criminality, like insanity, is rarely due to functional causes.

T F Because the adolescent has to delay his natural drives, he is in a fairly constant condition of emotional turmoil.

T F The majority of criminals lose their way socially while they are still in adolescence.

T F It is the lack of understanding of physical changes that causes much of the maladjustment of adolescents.
T F So strong is the desire for domination that the adolescent should not remain in control over younger children.

T F Deaths from drownings, motor accidents, and fire-arm accidents increase during adolescence.

T F Long continued praise or intemperate praise of the adolescent may develop antisocial tendencies in him.

T F The adolescent should be compelled to make appearances before the public.

T F A great deal of the disturbance that occurs during adolescence comes from the disillusionment concerning unnecessary misrepresentations of life by adults to the child.

T F Adolescents are often both loyal and inconsiderate.

T F The attitude of many parents toward care of the adolescent during periods of emotional upset has been one of neglect and indifference.

T F Adolescence is a period during which the person is indifferent to whether he achieves much or not.

T F A pupil's teacher can do much to make adolescence difficult or easy for him.

T F Since the adolescent is so flighty in his ambitions, the teacher should encourage him by making his progress observable.
T F Many cases of delinquency arise from the difficulty of adjustment of the adolescent to his enlarged environment.

T F During the adolescent period, the youth finds it hard to solve individual problems.

T F Adolescence is plainly a revolutionary upheaval in a person's life.

T F Stubbornness and timidity are common during adolescence.

T F Many adolescents break down physically because they are expected to carry on the work of adults.

T F One of the predominating beliefs of the adolescent is that he is not understood.

T F More people throw over their religious beliefs during adolescence than during any other similar span of time.

T F The adolescent makes his own adjustments better if left to himself.

T F Adolescence calls for great social and emotional adjustments.

T F The reported physiological and mental changes accompanying adolescence have been frequently given more importance than they deserve.

T F Tuberculosis can be readily detected in the adolescent.
T  F  During adolescence, there are many bodily morbiditys which do not attract attention as disease.

T  F  Nervousness, respiratory trouble, and stuttering are all common disturbances of the adolescent.

T  F  During adolescence, the mortality rate and the disease rate are high.

T  F  Insanity is a common disease characteristic of the adolescent.

T  F  When growth-forces get out of balance or proportion there is disease.

T  F  It is probable that all normal individuals use escape mechanisms occasionally.

T  F  Sadistic tendencies in early life may be normal as well as abnormal.

T  F  If a child enjoys scratching, biting, or kicking a beloved playmate, he is showing sadistic tendencies.

T  F  Masochism implies excessive desire to hurt others.

T  F  There is an intimate relation between education and the development or prevention of mental unbalance.
APPRECEPTION

T F The material with which the apperceptive mass works
is made up of percepts and concepts and the re-
lationships among these.

T F The educational maxim "link the new to the old"
is easily practiced because it is clearly stated.

T F Much of the teaching according to the theory of
apperception consists of setting up problems in
surroundings with which the child is familiar
and of which he has understanding.

T F "Turning over new leaves" is very difficult be-
cause of the apperceptive mass.

T F Differences in personality are based upon differ-
ences in the apperceptive masses of the indivi-
duals.

T F Most of our concepts are too narrow to be of as
much use as they should be.

T F Apperception is the process of assimilating pre-
sent experiences into one's whole background of
experience.

T F Apperception is a learned or conditioned response.

T F Apperception is one of the processes of perception
in that it gives the sensory impressions a mean-
ing or an interpretation.

T F We see things according to our own training.
Apperception is equivalent to self-consciousness.
The whole mental life of man is a process of apperception.
It is possible to have perception without apperception.
Apperceiving ideas is an aid to memory.
Attention will be greater for observation if the new is associated with the old.
Reading is an aid to apperception only when it is comprehended.
In education it is more important to acquire the unknown than it is to proceed from the known to the unknown.
We never have an experience that does not remind us of some past experience.
When taking up new work, the first thing a teacher should do is to prepare the children for the work.
One's reaction to a specific stimulus is determined by his past experience.
Subject matter, together with the sequence of its topics and the time of its presentation, should be governed by the child's power to apperceive.
The teacher should acquaint himself with the mental development of the pupil that he may make
full use of what the pupil already knows.

T F Attitudes have no effect upon apperception.

T F The act of apperceiving occurs simultaneously with that of perception and is essentially only a degree or kind of perception.

T F Apperception in children is superficial or a one-sided apprehension of things.

T F All learning is apperceiving.

T F Perceptions which are to be apperceived must be neither too new nor too strong.

T F A percept is limited, by definition, to one object of a kind.

T F A concept is limited, by definition, to two objects of a kind.

T F The contents of one's apperceptive mass make-up is pretty largely his personality.

T F The apperceptive mass contains only facts or what are believed to be facts.

T F Apperception is the grasping of new ideas by means of present similar ones.

T F Book knowledge is an aid to apperception only when it is understood.

T F A child apperceives more quickly than does an adult.

T F Language is not necessary to apperception.

T F Reflective thinking must follow apperception.
T  F  Ideas secured by means of apperception are in turn active as apperceptive agents.

T  F  Interest is a source of successful apperception.

T  F  Sympathy is often built on apperception.

T  F  If a child understands what he reads, he apperceives the thought at the same time with the words.

T  F  Apperceiving ideas is the best aid to memory.

T  F  Apperception should be the chief aim of teaching.

T  F  Apperceptions are the same thing as sensations.

T  F  The degree of apperception is shown by the degree of clearness acquired by the image or concept.

T  F  All subject-matter taught should take into consideration the status of the child's development in apperception.

T  F  The apperceptive powers of the child can be increased by the use of planned sequence of topics in various studies.

T  F  Courses of study should be so arranged that they create strong aids to apperception.

T  F  Repetition of subject-matter may hinder apperception.

T  F  To apperceive an idea, one must first have other ideas related to it.

T  F  The apperceptive ideas of a child are best brought
out when he expresses his own knowledge freely and unhindered.

T F Perception is the product of apperception.

T F The more opportunity a child has to express apperceived knowledge, the better learned will that knowledge be.

T F If apperception is satisfactorily complete, the pupil will be able to make a clear connected statement of the subject-matter taught.

T F The theory of apperception is opposed to the doctrine of formal discipline.

T F Apperception is the process of assimilating present experiences into one's whole background of experience.

T F Appercepts or concepts are usually mixtures of truths and errors.

T F A new perception may be such that the entire apperceptive mass undergoes a change.

T F The statement that what one gets from a study is dependent upon what he brings to it is justified in terms of perceptual and apperceptual learning.

T F The accuracy of a person's reasoning depends upon the quality and quantity of his percepts.

T F Every sensory impression leaves a trace and adds to the total apperceptive mass.
T  F  All learning is a process of accumulating a more varied and refined apperceptive mass.
ASSOCIATION

T  F  Association by similarity explicitly recognizes the likenesses of objects that are not identical.

T  F  The selective influence of mental activity is often exerted before recall when opposites are given in a controlled test.

T  F  Frequency, recency, and intensity are vital factors in association.

T  F  In breaking an undesirable habit, the best procedure is to try to avoid repeating it.

T  F  Repetition of itself neither strengthens nor weakens an act, but simply affords other factors a chance to exert their favorable or unfavorable influences.

T  F  There are many associations that are not wholly or predominately ideational.

T  F  The overt speaking of a word or sentence is more easily associated with other activities than is its subvocal speaking.

T  F  There is a certain educational value in hearing a foreign language which one is seeking to master even though one has no idea of the meaning of the words.

T  F  The laws of context and of assimilation can be differentiated rather easily by psychologists.

T  F  The variation in intensity has little influence upon
the readiness with which associative connections are formed.

T  F Successive associations are much more difficult phenomena to explain than simultaneous associations.

T  F A teacher, in order not to embarrass dull pupils in a normal schoolroom situation, should strive very hard to establish some association between any kind of seriously given answers to a question under class discussion.

T  F Associations very seldom have inhibitory influences on specialized training.

T  F What human beings term "truth" is really a closely-knit system of prejudices that have always been associated with one another.

T  F Most persons establish chains of associations regarding thousands of moot questions early in life and these chains are not easily broken.

T  F It is easier for the teacher to control the associations in the extremes of the I. Q. range than in the mean of the I. Q. range.

T  F Teachers, generally, will have better success in developing wholesome attitudes in pupils regarding patriotism if they--the teachers--disassociate patriotism and the annals of our
United States wars.

T  F Success in developing definite skills in pupils, such as the ability to spell well, depends on the teacher's ability to hold the pupil to a very few associational ideas during the drill periods.

T  F It is easily possible for the person of normal intelligence to exhaust all the potential associations in a definite learning situation.

T  F In striving to understand and assimilate a new environment, the mind leans most heavily upon those concepts which have been in consciousness most recently.

T  F Interest and zeal on the part of the pupil not only give rise to stronger bonds of learning, but also make possible a greater number of different associations in any specific learning situation.

T  F When beginning the attack on a body of new subject matter, one usually learns slowly because the bonds of learning are dealing with relative complex situations.

T  F There is unquestionably more opportunity for a wide range of associational connections in the study of the multiplication tables than in the study of the colonial period of American history.
T F Every learned fact or skill must have at some time passed through consciousness.

T F Out of a bombardment of stimuli that may be experienced by a person at a given time, those that are associated with some former pleasant experience will have the advantage over the others, in consciousness.

T F There are no meaningless associations.

T F Associations are acquired, not inherited.

T F Environment is not a significant factor in associations.

T F A definite purpose is not always necessary in order to produce a productive association.

T F Neither illness nor fatigue interferes with the formation or retention of associations.

T F An educated person should always be able to make useful and effective associations.

T F Memory cannot exist without association.

T F Associations are not ends in themselves.

T F The results of a community of ideas test show little similarity in word responses.

T F Insane people rarely show a high per cent of common association reactions.

T F Even though two stimuli are repeatedly presented simultaneously, the presentation of one will not necessarily arouse the other.
The important part of learning is the new elements to be sought and the new associations to be built up.

When a child is confronted with a new stimulus, he must make a set of associations that is largely new.

A weakness of much teaching is that there is little direct comparison of the associative responses about a stimulus and the stimulus itself.

Associations between two ideas may occur through a common (identical) emotional or feeling tone.

The number of words in a language is not parallel to the number of ideas of the people of the nation.

Choice of words or of expressions is almost altogether habit.

Thinking may be original in terms of insight resulting from the associations and relationships theretofore new to the individual.

Thinking is original principally in the selection of the ideas that rise into consciousness by and of themselves.

Thinking, reading, and talking are all phases of the same psychological function.

Associations are independent of any neural bases.
T F Associations may be of all degrees of complexity.
T F Memory and imagination have their own activities independent of association.
T F Perception and apperception are carried on apart from association.
T F Thinking or reasoning is a separate psychological activity from association.
T F Humor is often based upon novel associations of ideas.
T F Associations may be made from the point of view of objective accuracy or subjective interest.
T F The ability of a person to make either conventional or correct associations can be increased by practice and effort.
T F The tendency of the brain or mind to associate is a learned tendency.
T F All mental associations of any value are made consciously.
T F Association does not depend primarily upon either interest and attention.
T F One of the aims of education is the development of abundant and proper associations.
T F Association is based physically on nerve habit.
T F All associative tendencies need a certain time to
establish themselves.

T F There are individual differences in speed of association.

T F Without association nothing would have meaning.

T F Association is not due to similarity and contrast but to contiguity.

T F Association is the grouping of our mental materials.

T F Some success has been achieved in curing stuttering by requiring individuals to practice voluntary stuttering.

Association Tests.

T F An easy, controlled association test tends to facilitate responses more than a free association test when intelligent subjects are used.

T F When a controlled association test is set for opposites, the balance of frequency, recency, and intensity are determining factors.

T F Habit of thought in the individual may be brought to light by the free association test.

T F In free association, the mind calls up all related facts simultaneously.

T F The degree to which associations have been made and have persisted can be determined by any school test.
T F An association test can be used in legal procedure in most states of this nation.

T F Complexes are often revealed by the deviation from the common responses received in a controlled association test.

T F In intelligence testing, the finding of words of opposite associations is a very valuable procedure.

T F There are no standardized tests using the simple word response.

T F A three-minute written association test could be given advantageously to grade pupils.

T F The Binet scale uses one form of free association test.

T F In a test using a continuous series of words, the sequence and the number of words in the response are of no importance.

T F Association tests should never be given to small children.

T F If a crime has been committed, properly selected stimulus words will usually cause the subject to recall the scene of the crime unless he checks their influence.
ATTENTION

Introductory Questions

T  F  A question adjusts attention toward whatever might serve as an answer.

T  F  The interest of the moment is often represented by a question in one's mind.

T  F  Vagueness of form will attract attention before definiteness.

T  F  A motif in decoration, if repeated, usually becomes more impressive than if used only once.

T  F  The small features of a landscape are noticed before the large ones.

T  F  Other things being equal, a strong stimulus will attract attention before a weak one.

T  F  Change is an important factor in maintaining attention.

T  F  The exploratory character of attention shows itself in sense organ adjustment which enables the individual to get stronger and clearer sensations from the objects which have aroused his attention.

T  F  An audience absorbed in listening to a speaker is an example of the general attentive attitude.

T  F  There are two sorts of motor reactions which occur in attention: the general attentive attitude, and
the special adjustment of sense organs.

T F A preparatory set of readiness is unnecessary as a response in attending.

T F Attention brings the person into the presence of a fact.

T F Attention may precede or may follow the act of perception.

T F There is a real distinction between sensory and motor attitudes.

T F A negative incentive or punishment speeds up reaction time about twice as much as positive incentive or rewards do.

T F Fatigue has a negligible effect upon reaction time.

T F Distractions tend to shorten reaction time.

T F The greatest disturbance in reaction time occurs when both the distraction and the stimulus to which the subject was instructed to respond affect the same organ.

T F Trained observers are not affected by distractions.

T F The degree of attention being given in reaction time experiments can be measured by the prolongations in reaction time brought about by introducing foreperiods of varying length.

T F Reaction time varies with the amount of attention being given a task.
T F Attention is one of the factors essential to the acquisition of skill and knowledge.

T F The time element is an item of minor consideration in sustained attention.

T F Among young pupils, girls show longer periods of sustained attention than boys.

T F One's efficiency in performing an act is also a measure of the attention which he has given to that type of performance.

T F The quality of exclusive attention generally increases with age.

T F It is possible to attend effectively to several ideas or conditions at the same time.

T F Attention may analyze or synthesize.

T F The process of attention is unrelated to the principles of readiness.

T F Thinking does not always involve conscious attention.

T F The activity of the nerve centers in the act of attention makes recall possible.

T F Sustained attention is considered a characteristic of the efficient individual.

T F The attention that comes as the result of strong effort gives the best results.

T F The degree of attention in a class is regarded as an index to the quality of the instruction.
T  F  Attention involves the power to exclude as well as to include.
T  F  There is only one kind of attention.
T  F  Sensory impressions or identical associations must occupy the focus of attention at some time if they are to be retained efficiently.
T  F  The lines of distinction between the three forms of attention are quite clear.
T  F  Attention to an object is almost always the result of interest in it, that is, interest creates attention rather than attention creating interest.
T  F  The relationship between attention and interest is one of reciprocity.
T  F  The use of emotional settings for emphasis is not easily overdone.
T  F  Apparently unconnected ideas, unrelated to the content of attention, flit constantly through one's brain.
T  F  The psychological relationships of interest and attention are well defined.
T  F  Social influence standardizes or regularizes the knowledge that each individual acquires of the world.
T  F  The unanswered question is one source of sustained interest that limits the field within which the
attention moves.
T  F  Attention may have three stages in its development, random, forced, and objective interest.
T  F  Attention is a selective response.
T  F  Often we are less conscious of the thing to which we are attending than to something else.
T  F  The most efficient process is not always the most conscious.
T  F  Discovery of new facts almost always precedes attention in the thinking process.
T  F  It is important that the pupils be directed and encouraged to attend to the significant details of the lessons they are studying.
T  F  There are three main types of attention: passive, active, and secondary passive.
T  F  Back of practically every act of attention is seen a more or less primitive innate tendency to action.
T  F  Arithmetic books should not contain the answers even though pupils are required to show the steps by which problems are solved.
T  F  Pupils can give their best attention to study in absolutely quiet school rooms.
T  F  The psychology of advertising is built upon the desire for attention.
T  F  Control over one's environment is often a means of
directing one's attention.

T F Only an insane person can, without long training, concentrate his attention completely in a boiler factory.

T F The power of prolonged attention to one end is greatest at the extremes of the range of intelligence.

T F As soon as a person has exhausted all of the new or comparatively new stimuli in a given situation, he ceases to react to it with pleasure and no longer pays much attention to it.

T F Attention involves the power to inhibit.

T F Thinking does not always involve the attention.

T F Attention is one of the factors essential to the acquisition of skill and knowledge.

T F There is no such state as complete inattention.

T F Attention is a rapidly shifting reaction tendency.

T F Concentrated attention is always necessary in order to perceive a thing clearly.

T F Development of skill results, partially, from selective attention.

T F It is a mistake to think that an overstimulation of emotions produces divided attention.

T F In volitional control, the most immediate stimulus directs the mental processes.
The control of attention is very easily accomplished and maintained.

Interest and attention determine the amount and quality of perception.

Ordinarily, individuals do not differ much in their powers of attention.

One's attitude may determine the direction and quality of his attention, regardless of the opinions of others.

The difference between a good learner and a poor learner is mostly one of attention.

The early education of the individual affects the character of his attention.

The attitude of attention is one of intense immobility, with the whole body oriented towards the object of attention.

Involuntary or Passive Attention

Attention is always aroused by an external stimulus.

The direction of attention is often influenced by other persons.

Interest in the matter presented is not necessarily a source of sustained interest.

Bright colors tend to arrest one's attention.

In teaching small children, it is well to use a
pointer to direct attention.

T F Involuntary attention is controlled almost wholly by instinct.

T F Voluntary attention may develop into involuntary attention.

T F Careful discrimination of cues is the result of development of involuntary attention.

T F Involuntary attention is of little practical value in the teaching process.

T F Every effort should be made to eliminate involuntary (passive) attention.

Voluntary or Active Attention

T F A definite purpose increases the efficiency of voluntary attention.

T F Most of the attention of children is active or voluntary.

T F Imbeciles never acquire the power of voluntary attention.

T F Directive and selective powers of attention are indications of intelligence and self-control.

T F The development of pupils' control of their voluntary attention is one of the less significant tasks of the educator.

T F Voluntary attention should be used rarely in school-rooms.
T  F  The individual profits more from voluntary attention than from forced attention.
T  F  Monotony tends to discourage active attention.
T  F  An individual may give effective attention to more than one stimulus at a time.
T  F  Voluntary attention to one simple object can be sustained only for a few seconds.
T  F  Most of the attention of young children is active or voluntary in form.
T  F  Conscious attention is one of the factors essential to the acquisition of skill and knowledge.
T  F  People give their attention to the roadside guideposts only when they are lost or not sure of their directions.

Nonvoluntary or Secondary Passive Attention

T  F  The ability to concentrate the attention is determined more by the age than by the experiences of the individual.
T  F  Human beings are creatures of habit and their individual spreads of attention are determined by the number of major habit systems they have built up.
T  F  Sustained attention is necessary to produce sustained interest in any subject.
T F Without attention there would be no interest.
T F Sustained attention is always a characteristic of an efficient individual.
T F If one wishes to strengthen his powers of attention, it is sufficient that he exercise it in formal situations.
T F The individual profits more from voluntary attention than from nonvoluntary attention.
T F The development of nonvoluntary attention is one of less significant tasks of an educator.
T F The interest behind nonvoluntary attention can not lie in the task at hand.
T F Nonvoluntary attention is short and comparatively effortless and is given to sudden, extreme, or certain natural stimuli.

Mental Set

T F By mental set is meant the just preceding thoughts, habit of thought, or prejudice.
T F Mental Set influences incidental attention and incidental practice.
T F Openmindedness is the most natural state of the human mind because it leads to thinking.
T F Mental set or attitude determines the neural connections that will be satisfying or annoying and
thus lays the basis for repetition or avoidance.

T F Development of appreciation of the uses of material to be learned is not important in mental set.

T F Appreciation of importance in which material to be learned is held by others is valuable in the development of mental set.

T F When a student always takes the opposite view from that of the teacher, he is said to have a definite mental set.

T F A mental set is often a preparatory reaction.

T F Mental sets can be measured because they are outward expressions of what one thinks.

T F All mental sets have certain definite pathways in the nervous system, which have been traversed so frequently that they are awaiting action.

T F Responses which are parts of a mental set are usually slower than other types of responses.

T F At the beginning of the one-hundred yard dash, a track man is physically more than mentally in readiness.

T F The emotion of joy often manifests itself because of peculiar mental sets.

T F The feelings of pity belong to a group of feelings arising from the sympathetic system rather than from a mental set.
T  F  Suspicion is a mental set characteristic of many people.

T  F  Timid people have mental sets that they are afraid to overcome through fear of public opinion.

T  F  People foolish enough to expect to see ghosts in a graveyard often mistake tombstones for ghosts that move about.

T  F  A surprisingly large number of people take medicines for ailments which they do not have.

T  F  Men in business are afraid to be jolly for fear that someone will try to borrow money from them.

T  F  In reasoning, one must first know what the problem is before he can come to any satisfying conclusion.

T  F  Women generally waste more time in seeking conclusions than men do, mainly because they waste more time on unimportant details.

T  F  The so-called "scatterbrain" cannot become a good learner.

T  F  Pupils often do better work and show better reasoning on "pop-tests" than on any other kind because they are forced to give all of their attention to the task in hand.

T  F  Great thinkers know little about the details of their outstanding accomplishments.
T  F  Pupils will almost always work better with a pupil in charge than with a teacher in the room.

T  F  Most mental sets are permanent.

T  F  When teachers ask pupils to take out clean sheets of paper, this at once makes them in readiness for a test.

T  F  Smoking after a meal is more a physical desire than a mental set.

T  F  People eat three meals a day only because it is a custom.

T  F  The mother who always expresses herself negatively is likely to instill into her child the opposite attitude.

T  F  With most voters, the political party of their choice is nothing but a certain mental set.

T  F  A mental set favors further mental activity of one sort rather than of other sorts.

T  F  By means of preliminary instruction, an individual may assume a mental set favorable to thinking of the opposites of a series of words rather than of synonyms.

T  F  One may easily analyze any mental set.

T  F  A mental set depends upon a slight arousal of certain neurones which constitute an effective predisposi-
tion toward one kind of further activity rather than another.

T  F  Impulses and states of readiness may precede acquired sets, such as studying.

T  F  Not all reactions are preceded by a state of readiness or the corresponding impulse.

T  F  There are probably impulses which depend not upon the partial activity or state of readiness of muscles and glands, but upon a slight arousal of cortical neurone concerned in ideas.

T  F  One does not experience a conscious impulse when one is about to sneeze, yawn, or cough when he is alone.

T  F  Delay in the response to an impulse causes that impulse to become vividly conscious.

T  F  Impulses are distinctly subjective responses.

T  F  Impulses frequently introduce new conscious data.

T  F  An impulse may be an accumulation of sensations.

T  F  Instincts are seldom aroused by stimuli from within the body or from some feature of the external environment.

T  F  Even though habits may become well established, they never act in any respect like instincts.

T  F  There is a native impulse to manipulate.

T  F  Many habits are the means by which native impulses
are expressed.

T F An acquired activity may be less directly, at least less obviously, akin to a native trait and yet activitated by it more strongly than another native trait is.

T F Obstacles in the environment have little to do with inhibiting or restricting the native tendencies.

T F There may be in the body, activities of which we are unconscious, i.e., activities which arouse no noticed sensations.

T F Movement is something concealed in the muscle, from which it emerges when activated and to which it returns during inactivity.

T F The impulse to eat is produced on occasions by organic conditions, such as that of insufficient fuel in the system, or by outer stimuli, such as the sight or smell of food.

T F A satisfying state of affairs is generally if not always experienced as consciously pleasant.

T F Some conditions satisfy while others annoy because man's original nature is what it is.

T F The basis of satisfaction and annoyance is probably some fundamental organic or neural condition or change.
T F A stimulus may arouse a state of readiness for a new activity or an urge to a further or consummatory response.

T F All human learning is directed and determined by the original equipment of reaction tendencies.

T F The sensory and nervous structures are the external organs of conscious state.

T F Impulses are both native and acquired.

T F In general, the native impulses are less stable and more easily modified than the motor responses that go with them.

T F To learn through experience is a strong but wasteful human tendency.

T F The tendency to seek the novel is one instance of the impulse to learn.

T F Interest in learning is never wholly or even mainly derived from ultimate motives, but it is satisfying for its own sake.

T F Instincts provide a large number of the determining or dynamic forces in behavior.

T F Habits are not as important as instincts as dynamic factors in determining human conduct.

T F Few habits are formed solely in the service of, or to satisfy, the instinctive tendencies.

T F The native tendency to collect and to congregate ap-
pears in infancy and persists throughout life.

T  F  The native tendency to seek social approval is permanent although its forms of expression may vary greatly.

T  F  On the whole, capacities do have utility.

T  F  Reward and punishment are equal incentives in producing certain desired mental sets.
ATTITUDES

T  F  A negative attitude in learning spells its own de-
feat.

T  F  In their beginnings, attitudes are associated with
emotional experiences.

T  F  Children of lower culture classes are much more like-
ly to follow deceitful practices than those con-
sidered more cultured.

T  F  A good correlation is found between degrees of de-
ception and of intelligence.

T  F  Something more than difference of levels of intel-
ligence is needed to account for the occupational
differences in the tendency to deceive.

T  F  Family experiences and inherited tendencies play a
small part in predisposing an individual to deceit.

T  F  Age and sex factors are quite constant for cheating
attitudes.

T  F  Teacher attitudes have little or no influence on
pupil efforts to deceive.

T  F  Past experience is an important element in an indi-
vidual's attitude toward dishonesty.

T  F  Specificity of attitudes can be determined at the
present time.

T  F  Religious affiliation influences deceitfulness.

T  F  The attitudes of most of us toward persons, things,
and events are not the results of rational judgment, but are rather the results of emotional experiences over which reason has had little control.

T F Most of our ratings of ethical attitudes are based on public approval of our ratings rather than on our own opinions.

T F New attitudes may be formed and then made habitual by a study of the causes and consequences of contrasting modes of behavior.

T F Social prejudice is an attitude.

T F There is no attitude scale available which may be used with a satisfactory degree of success.

T F As much as 60% effect on attitudes may be present after an interval of 19 months from the time a child attends an impressive movie.

T F The change in attitudes caused by moving pictures is often unconscious.

T F As we grow older, our attitudes become increasingly a matter of nurture and training.

T F In the very young, attitudes are entirely a matter of nature.

T F Attitudes are influenced very little by training.

T F An attitude is the set of the mind with respect to some object or activity.
T F Participation in religious acts does not guarantee religious attitudes.

T F The child's activities strengthen his attitudes only when these attitudes have their bases within the acceptance and appreciation of the child.

T F Attitudes devolved from activities in which children engage under the impulse of their own desires are not lasting.

T F Men are more frank than women about revealing their behavior in such a matter as cheating.

T F Women are more sensitive to the consciousness of social disapproval than men are.

T F Attitudes are often developed through years of slow and oftentimes unnoticed learning.

T F Our affective attitudes are largely conscious.

T F We have few if any objective tests for affective attitudes.

T F Inhibitions, taboos, antipathies, mannerisms, and egoistic peculiarities may all be unconscious attitudes.

T F The intensity of a strain is usually realized only after the crisis is passed.

T F Every emotion involves the reactivating of the infantile attitudes.

T F Few adult personality conflicts are due to the sur-
vival of childish attitudes.

T F Emotional attitudes are the most common survivals from childhood.

T F The injury from 'the chip on the shoulder' attitude is primarily to the other person.

T F The child's mental conflict which balks his initiative is often due to a conflict of attitudes towards his parent and his teacher.

T F The critical attitude is likely to be dominant among professional men or experts in art and industry.

T F The experimental attitude is a useful one for an educator to have.

T F Sometimes the child's method of reasoning persists in adult life and accounts for many unavoidable mental contradictions.

T F The lack of social contact and of training to discover correct ideas of relativity and objective reasoning may, indirectly, cause adult ill health.

T F The mental attitude of the learner has little to do with the process of learning.

T F Suggestibility influences the ease with which thorough learning takes place.

T F One's conscience affects his mental health and individual success.

T F The scientific attitude is the highest form of
objective attitude.

T F The attitude of the public towards science is largely a subjective group attitude.

T F One's attitude toward his own sensations, perceptions, etc., may be objective.

T F The least value of the objective attitude seems to be in control of emotions and in the prevention of rationalization in emotional snap judgment.

T F The attitudes of reverence, dependence, and service represent the great influence of religion in the individual personality and in many group relations.

T F A critic usually knows so much that his conceit of knowledge becomes a handicap to his further learning.

T F Our main sources of knowledge of unconscious attitudes are observation of and experiences on normal cases or people.

T F Important attitudes in regard to the kind and method of one's work are largely unconscious.

T F Errors in human thinking are largely conscious and easily discernable.

T F Teachers have unconscious prejudices for certain pupils which will tend to make them fail to see all the errors of these pupils in comparison with others.
T F Social influences cause the growth of many of our common attitudes.
T F An attitude of dislike may be entirely unfounded from experience.
T F One's attitude toward work has little effect upon the speed of his reaction to various stimuli.
T F Poor attitudes are almost impossible to overcome.
T F One's poor attitudes usually exist in the fields in which one is not adept.
T F Among pupils, poor attitudes can almost always be traced to poor teaching.
T F The teacher's attitude toward the subject which she teaches is reflected readily by the pupils.
T F It is not a healthy situation for all pupils to possess the same attitudes toward the same subjects.
T F Mental attitude manifests itself in a physical manner.
T F When we become suspicious toward other people, we are revealing a particular attention.
T F Attitude, in one sense, is the position of the body as it suggests some thought or feeling.
T F A scientific attitude must be built over a long period of time and effort.
T F There is no difference between attitudes and ideals.
T  F  The so-called calm person is revealing a particular attitude.

T  F  Attitudes can not be transferred from one task to another.

T  F  Attitudes within a nation can be built up through traditions.

T  F  Attitudes are vague and elusive processes which carry, as if in a nutshell, the meaning of a situation.

T  F  Satisfied and annoyed feelings have little significance in attitudes.

T  F  School attitudes play an unimportant part in determining the success of a pupil in school.

T  F  The attitude of a person influences not only what he will do or think, but also what he will be satisfied or annoyed by.

T  F  Any process of learning is influenced by the attitude of the individual at the time.

T  F  Feeling has little relationship to attitudes.

T  F  Educational theory considers attitude as a vital factor in extracting the most value from the particular situation of a given lesson.

T  F  The establishment of a certain attitude as the response to a certain situation is neither facilitated nor hindered by original tendencies.
The disconnection of certain wants, interests, and attitudes from most situations offers a number of difficulties.

That attitudes can only be directed and not repressed is not absolutely proved.

One promising method for evoking an attitude is to act as if one already possessed it.

The repression of an attitude may cost more than it is worth, but it cannot damage either mental and physical health.

The fundamental forces which change attitudes are not the same as those used in changing desires and emotions.

Most people desire to acquire attitudes that will bring them pleasure.

Attitudes and emotions are easily distinguished from each other.

We involuntarily reveal to others more about our attitudes than we voluntarily conceal from them.

People in general judge and commend the attitudes of others according to the measure of their own successes in connection with these attitudes.

It is not possible for a two-year old child to have attitudes.

Attitudes are like tastes, there is no accounting
for them.

T F Attitudes are in the nature of a residue left in the nerve substance as results of many similar emotional experiences.

T F If it was possible to know all the experiences of a person, it would still be difficult to predict his attitudes.

T F The attitude of submission almost always embraces the inferiority complex.

T F Some attitudes are due to heredity; some are due to environment.

T F Statutory laws are attempts to enforce desirable attitudes.

T F Attitudes have their origins in the viscera.

T F Attitudes are concerned with stimuli, not with responses.

T F Opinions are based on attitudes but attitudes are not based on opinions.

T F Attitudes are difficult to demonstrate and observe in the psychological laboratory.

T F A teacher will learn more about a child's attitudes in the classroom than on the playground.

T F The emotional set of the learner affects the permanence of his learning but little.
CAPACITIES

T  F Correlations between early and later mental abilities are very high.

T  F The average student could accomplish his work just as efficiently or more efficiently in two-thirds or less of the time now spent.

T  F Control of attention, common principles of assimilation and retention of materials, and proficiency in reading are elements common to all types of learning.

T  F Variations from person to person are primarily differences in the strengths of various abilities.

T  F Common terminology dividing groups of persons into various clear-cut classes, such as dull, mediocre, and bright, is psychologically correct.

T  F Methods of measuring capacities are indicated by: M.A., I.Q., C.A., A.A., and E.A.

T  F The extent to which various capacities accompany one another is measured or expressed definitely by the coefficient of correlation, provided the original measurements were correct.

T  F A negative correlation exists among the abilities involved in school subjects or among the special mental functions measured by special tests.

T  F Barring certain exceptions which are rarer than is
generally supposed, one person's abilities are combined in fairly similar amounts.

T F The rule is that each person possesses more or less of all different traits, and within certain limits, roughly similar amounts of these various traits.

T F As far as definite data are available on the point, special mental functions are correlated anywhere from moderately to very closely with general intelligence.

T F Men of intelligence seldom have, on the whole, keen powers of perception, observation, and attention.

T F Intelligence is accompanied by retentiveness, varied and rapid association processes as well as incisive powers of analysis and soundness of judgment in the best thinkers.

T F The correlations between mental abilities and such physical characteristics as height, weight, size of head, lung capacity, strength of grip are either very low or zero.

T F Impressions gained from investigation show human nature to be a medley of capricious capacities which vary from year to year, but remain fairly constant throughout life.

T F Strictly speaking, it is impossible to measure directly the original capacities of human beings.
unmodified by environmental causes.

T  F  It is usually possible to live and to possess capacities without any modification of them.

T  F  The actual capacity to do work with the same degree of accuracy diminishes in the course of the school day.

T  F  The diminishing of interest or the fact of being bored by school work are not actual signs of loss of capacity to do work.

T  F  Decrease in capacity to do work and fatigue in the sense of a decrease in willingness of interest follow closely parallel courses.

T  F  Intensity of attention varies among individuals in opposition of breadth of attention.

T  F  A capacity is the potential ability to react with speed or with complex responses.

T  F  All normal humans have the same types of responses.

T  F  Most people achieve as high positions as their capacities make possible.

T  F  The nature of man has remained practically the same for the last five thousand years.

T  F  There are marked individual differences in the capacity to retain material learned.

T  F  The development of perceptual capacities seems to be determined largely by experience rather than
by inner factors.

T  F  The capacity to learn develops steadily from birth to maturity.

T  F  The capacity to learn and retain is largely acquired.

T  F  Environment affects in no way the normal development of capacity.

T  F  Exercise and training will greatly increase the capacity to learn and retain.

T  F  A special aptitude indicates the possibility or capacity for development along a particular line.

T  F  When their exercise is attended by pleasant results, capacities often develop to an unusual extent.

T  F  Americans are born with the capacity to learn English rather than any other language.

T  F  One may have the capacities to appreciate music without the capacity to appreciate other forms of art.

T  F  Differences among human beings are quantitative rather than qualitative.

T  F  Capacities are distinguished from reflexes and instincts in being specific motor responses rather than mental abilities.

T  F  One's power of imagination is not a capacity.

T  F  It is easy to test defective children as to capacities since they usually show interest and
curiosity in the tests.

T F The capacity to receive and respond to impressions lies at the basis of all intelligence.

T F Capacities are determined by the use of general intelligence tests.

T F A pupil's capacity to succeed is considered to be indicated by the score he makes on an intelligence test.

T F Mental tests measure intellectual capacity indirectly.

T F Ability is the result of training operating on innate capacity.

T F Both general and special capacities are measured by mental tests of various kinds.

T F Capacities are determined wholly by heredity.

T F The breadth of human interests tends to keep pace with human capacities.

T F The most favorable environment can bring about manifestations of a certain capacity when the capacity is absent.

T F Capacities are innate, but environment and education determine the use, if any, made of them, and the line of accomplishment which they will be directed.

T F Educational methods should be adjusted to the
capacities of the child.

T  F  The original capacities of sensation do not give us the clear sounds, colors, and degrees of heat and cold through which long experience has taught us to feel the world.

T  F  Capacities for learning enable one to play the piano after going through a course of training.

T  F  A capacity sets a definite limit to the extent to which environmental facts can bring about development in an organism.

T  F  Capacities have definite physiological bases.

T  F  The use of the term "capacity" and "ability" interchangeably is a common misuse of both terms.

T  F  A capacity is a possibility of being or of doing.

T  F  The abilities of the individual can never exceed his capacities.

T  F  The development of sensory capacities is not greatly influenced by environmental factors.

T  F  The greatest effect that environment can have on the favorable development of capacities is to provide an atmosphere where normal development can take place.

T  F  Certain capacities are well developed within a few months after birth.

T  F  Different capacities mature at different stages
in the development of the individual.

T F It is a task of education to help the individual become aware of his capacities.

T F To be a fair criterion of achievement, judgments of ability should take into consideration the capacities of the individual being judged.

T F Adequate tests have been devised to measure most of the capacities.

T F If a person's hearing is poor, no amount of practice will make it acute.

T F The capacity for development of mechanical proficiency is independent of the individual's capacity for development along lines of abstract thought.

T F Capacities have periods of development and decline.

T F Tapping is a measure of the speed of voluntary muscular reaction.

T F Practice in tapping cannot bring an increase in the rate above a certain point.

T F After organized practice in tapping, an unselected group would still differ widely in rate of voluntary motion.

T F The following distinctions can be made: ability is acquired; capacity is inherited.

T F The population is divided into two classes with
respect to mechanical capacity: those who are mechanical, and those who are not.

T  F  Exercise has a marked effect on growth of an individual in height.

T  F  There is a high positive correlation between mental growth and physical growth.

T  F  It is hard to find any case of negative correlation between desirable mental functions.

T  F  Strength is much more in proportion to weight in boys than in girls.

T  F  During the years from age seven to maturity, the person's strength increases at a more rapid rate than his height or weight.
CHARACTER TRAINING

The Nature of Character Traits

T  F  A wholesome environment is conducive to growth in character.

T  F  Character standards and moral standards and standards of mental, social, and psychological hygiene are all the same thing.

T  F  The responses that are designated as truly "character responses" are inborn.

T  F  Character and personality are synonymous.

T  F  WHAT a child does is important; but WHY he does it is more important than HOW he does it.

T  F  Morality consists largely of conventions that save time and confusion rather than contribute to the physiological, mental, and social preservation of the individual.

T  F  The doctrine of hereditary determinism in character or personality traits is definitely established.

T  F  The personality of an individual is a fixed capacity and can not be changed.

T  F  The young child's affectionate attitudes are prompted mainly by expected future advantages to be obtained.

T  F  The individual tends to have a different moral code
for every social group of which he is a member.

T F Deception is a learned reaction and increases with the age of the individual.

T F There is a high coefficient of correlation between deception and physical condition among school children.

T F Standards of conduct with an emotional attachment have a greater carry-over from situation to situation than standards of conduct resting on a purely ideational basis.

T F Anti-social conduct is often a compensation for actual or felt inferiorities.

T F Children with I.Q.'s of 80 present more behavior problems than those with I.Q.'s of 130.

T F Honesty is highly specific and there is a great degree of difference in the honesties of a given person in varying situations.

T F Lying is an indication of man's natural depravity.

T F The more intelligent the child, the less rigid his character training or teaching should be.

T F In tests of character in which pupils had opportunities to cheat, lie, and accept credit for the work of others, the children of superior intelligence appeared to better advantage than those of average or less ability.
T  F  Knowledge of the operation of the instincts is essential to thorough character training.

T  F  Character may be measured in terms of the individual's ability to resist any desire and call a halt to any activity.

T  F  Character implies a degree of consistency of response.

T  F  The sublimation of native drives plays an important part in the formation of desirable character traits.

T  F  There is a positive but not high correlation between intelligence and honesty.

T  F  The manner in which attention is called to a moral is of tremendous importance in the reception of the moral by the pupil.

T  F  Responsibility for conduct rests mostly on mental ability and mental maturity.

T  F  The great plasticity and the ease of emotional attachments of young childhood suggests the importance of this period in the establishment of acceptable character habits.

T  F  The driving power of sex should be used to socialize the individual.

T  F  Academic deportment is a more valid measure of character than popularity.
T F Emphasis on traits, virtues, or ideals tends toward a conformist rather than a creative morality.

T F Character education involves no more than moral education.

T F Any traits, ideals, or virtues must be accepted with reservation.

T F Measurement of character can now be done objectively.

T F Conformity to present social standards is a sufficient objective for character education.

T F The technical meaning of the term character is standardized.

T F Investigations and experiments have shown that knowledge of a set of ideals or standards will guarantee desirable conduct.

T F Character usually refers to behavior more than to mental attitudes.

T F Home background is a valid measure of character.

T F General ideas of rightness carry with them their specific applications.

T F Self-discipline should be the aim of all discipline.

T F Vicious adult habits are generally the result of an unwholesome adjustment in earlier child-
hood.

T F When a child possesses a great number of imitated adult habits, it is usually the result of the child's desire to break away from child conventionalities consciously.

T F Psychiatrists attribute the majority of adult mental breakdowns to childhood origin.

T F Character is shown by one's responses to the stimuli within his environment.

T F Character traits are born, not made.

T F The self-control that comes from wide understanding is the central feature of good character.

T F An instinctive tendency should never be denied an outlet.

T F Character traits are so firmly established before school age that a teacher can do little toward altering them.

T F Most lies are told as defenses.

T F Criminal delinquencies are due, often, to emotional distortions in childhood.

T F Children tend to take on the same character traits as their playmates.

T F One's behavior is a true index to the character of the individual.

T F The basis of character training lies in right habit
building.

T  F  In character building, everything depends upon the mind set at the beginning of the educative period.

T  F  Formation of character includes the cultivation of all the powers of the mind.

T  F  Defective manners and behavior are consequences of unwholesome examples.

T  F  Volitional attention is of small consequence in character training.

T  F  Negative attitudes in a child are cause for little concern because they are easily changed by later circumstances.

T  F  Character is the result of nurture.

T  F  An ideal is a conscious image made personal.

T  F  A valuation of character must be faced on its own ground.

T  F  Lack of conscious purpose does not mean haphazard character training.

T  F  In character rating, there is seldom any correlation between the pupil's estimate of himself and the teacher's estimate.

T  F  The school is helpless because the pupil knows right from wrong before entering.

T  F  Moral training is in itself immoral because the child is not free.
T F Habitual swearing is not immoral.
T F Character traits and personality traits may not be synonymous.
T F Procrastination by the child is quite often a suggested or pattern trait acquired from parents or elders.
T F A time limit, when placed upon the child's performances, tends to bring about incomplete and inaccurate methods of work.
T F The instincts are the determining factors of character.
T F A vivid imagination in a child nearly always develops into lying.
T F The character of a child is limited by his intelligence.
T F A certain degree of intelligence is absolutely essential to character.
T F The plastic nature of the child is an advantage in character training.
T F The relation between character and physical strength is zero.
T F No successful norms or standards for an estimate of character have been established but the ratings are accurate enough to be useful.
T F Vocational welfare depends upon the extent to which
education assumes its responsibility to make people conscious of the character elements involved in our changing national life.

T  F  Physical and mental health problems should be treated as separate problems in the child.

T  F  Health and hygiene habits are very difficult to learn during childhood.

T  F  Each individual possesses certain character traits in which he excels.

T  F  The endocrine glands are potent factors in shaping character.

T  F  Complexes and their compensations are significant factors in character training.

T  F  One character trait, as dishonesty, may permeate an individual's entire character.

T  F  Character is determined by the way one reacts to the society about him.

T  F  Children will rate just as high morally as they do intellectually.

T  F  Concepts of ethics cannot be turned over ready-made to pupils.

T  F  Many impulses of moral weaklings never get beyond the stage of desire.

T  F  The social motives constitute a large class in children.
T F Disposition does not involve temperament.
T F A high moral character is possible to every sane individual.
T F When self-respect is lost, character goes to pieces.
T F Character and morals are included in any determination of intelligence.
T F A moral person is not simply abstractly good, but good for something.
T F No character trait is a unit.
T F Character traits may be moral, immoral, unmoral, or a-moral.
T F Jealousy and selfishness are the most undesirable character traits.
T F Courtesy and self-control are essential moral traits.
T F A questioning attitude is better than blind loyalty to any cause.
T F Confidence and faith are traits fundamental to living.
T F To inhibit a child's impulsive urges without offering substitutes is worse than no form of guidance.
T F The wholesome emotional training of the child is more important than his intellectual training.
The Developing of Character

T  F  An emotional handicap, like self-consciousness, that originated in childhood is more easily overcome in adult or later life than had it originated later.

T  F  Since one aim of education is expression, it behooves teachers to develop that side of the pupil's personality that seems to be retarded or neglected.

T  F  Few children show numerous oscillations from low to high ratings in important traits when they are rated carefully and in comparison with the whole range of society.

T  F  Imitation is a factor in the moral action of the child.

T  F  "Let your conscience be your guide" is a reliable percept.

T  F  Ideational reactions are the only desirable ones.

T  F  Thwarting of a child's natural impulses leads to undesirable conduct.

T  F  Character can be taught.

T  F  The more often a character trait is practiced, the stronger it becomes.

T  F  Character traits are affected by emotions.

T  F  Participation has been a source of character growth
throughout the ages.

T F An exercise in occasional self-rating is valuable to pupils.

T F The effort spent in moralizing and humanizing boys and girls is comparable to that spent in inculcating skills and clarifying thoughts about the mechanics of culture.

T F Entertaining thoughts about the good life will insure good character.

T F The discussion method puts the experiences of children in terms of problems to be confronted.

T F Many character traits can be developed in connection with specific playing situations.

T F Observation of ceremony serves as a good means of controlling conduct.

T F Impulsive methods produce wrong motives in children.

T F The child's previous experience is not of especial consequence in influencing his character.

T F Discipline is a dependable method of forming character.

T F Formation of character includes the cultivation of the powers of the mind.

T F The biggest single factor in the making of character is the factor of the standards and potency of one's "social gallery".
T F School routine is unfavorable to the formation of habit as a basis for character.

T F Example is not an influential factor in character training.

T F The development of a wholesome conscience is the supreme business of character education.

T F Character education can be best taught by the teacher utilizing favorable incidents and routine practices that arise throughout the day.

T F Development of defense mechanisms tends to strengthen character.

T F Memorizing rules for good behavior insures good character traits.

T F Directed training has the greatest influence in character development.

T F Any character trait is a unit derived from several habit systems.

T F Homogeneous groupings are more conducive to desirable character traits than heterogeneous ones.

T F Hard physical work is a strong element toward the formation of good character.

T F Play has little value in character training.

T F Calling the attention of a group to an undesirable trait is an effective way to make the correct adjustment.
T F Discipline is a necessary part of character training.

T F Rewards are of little value in character training.

T F Coercion should never be used on small children.

T F Teachers should always praise all attempts to make right choices.

T F If a child can be convinced that he will be the loser if he breaks a moral law, he will not break it.

T F To establish effective character traits, a child must practice them with satisfaction.

T F Growth in character comes through practicing the right so often that it becomes a habit.

T F In order to develop a wholesome character, a child should have many responsibilities.

T F Specific elastic class assignments are potential factors in character building.

T F The principal aim of character training should be the uprooting of bad habits.

T F Children's behavior should not be judged by adult standards although the two standards may coincide in many phases.

T F No habit of behavior can be reversed until both the habit and the plan of reversal are dealt with on a conscious level.
T F All thought eventually expresses itself in action.
T F An instinct that leads a child to respond in an unsatisfactory manner should be repressed.
T F Children develop their standards of honesty, truthfulness, etc., more from the treatment which they receive from their elders than from their companions.
T F Character education for high school pupils should emphasize generalized habits more than general principles.
T F Good information about conduct and behavior insures good performance.
T F Character can only show in specific habits and definite situations.
T F The setting aside of a definite period each day for discussions and lecture on character building gives every reasonably assurance of the proper development of pupil's characters.
T F A desirable character must be the summation of a long series of specific habits and specific instances.
T F Gold stars or nickles thrust in between the act and the legitimate returns from the act rob the child of one of the best avenues of character development.
Desirable habits of social response in pupils have been shown to be more desired by teachers than mere order, conformity, and the respect for authority.

All conduct is symptomatic.

Our legal theory of the individual's responsibility for his actions is justified in light of the best information concerning the formation of character traits.

Giving correct information is the largest factor in character education.

We can learn as much by making mistakes as by acting correctly.

In guarding against errors in matters of morality on the part of the children, parents and teachers often exercise such close supervision that they defeat their own ends from the standpoint of character education because of the development of resentment or dependence.

To induce conformity to standards of conduct, we must reward such conformity as satisfaction is a vital factor in motivating behavior.

In analyzing behavior problems of children, we seldom find instinctive drives in conflict with each other.
T F The development of character depends upon the sublimation of instincts through the medium of moral sentiments.

T F Co-operation is prompted by the gregarious instinct and the mutual advantages to be obtained.

T F The acquisition of desirable character traits like the acquisition of skills and information must be motivated.

T F The essential feature of moral training is habit formation, especially emotional habit.

T F If we carefully limit the kind of behavior that can occur so that the errors are not permitted, the desired habit of conduct can be best established.

T F It is a good idea for a teacher to insert a "moral" whenever the subject-matter offers an opportunity.

T F Effective honor systems promote better feeling between teacher and pupils.

T F The success of an honor system depends upon the tact and leadership of the principal more than on the quality of the pupils.

T F The teacher of character training is more important than a good text book on the subject.

T F Character training through direct instruction in organized classes is unquestionably the most effective method.
T F To show the pupil the possible outcome of his acts, good or bad, is a good form of character training.

T F Probably no one factor is of more importance in character training than the development of the individual's willingness to assume the responsibilities for his own acts in the thoughts of others.

T F Character training is probably as important a function of the school as training in factual information.

T F Anti-social behavior is often as purposeful as socially accepted behavior.

T F The use of memory gems in character training is justified in light of the "Idio-meter action theory."

T F Effective character training demands a progressive relaxation of supervision.

T F Habits play a more important part generally in character training than does knowledge.

T F Character traits are formed through constant trials on the part of the individual in adjusting himself to his physical and social environment.

T F Reward is generally more effective than punishment in establishment of desirable behavior responses.

T F The law of effect plays an extremely important part
in the fixation of desirable character traits.

T  F  Ethical concepts with an emotional attachment have a greater transfer from situation to situation than concepts formed on a purely rational basis.

T  F  In general, the same laws operate in the forming of character as operate in other forms of learning.

T  F  If we wish to teach a child to avoid lying, we should keep him away from the opportunity to lie.

T  F  Knowledge of right and wrong is the most important factor in molding desirable character traits.

T  F  A problem of character training is to make the strong instinctive tendencies that are so marked at adolescence motives for worthy conduct instead of allowing them to lead a debased conduct.

T  F  Substitution, rationalization, and sublimation are all equally valuable in character training.

T  F  If the pupil can be interested and kept busy in a course or other field of activity, character training will take care of itself.

T  F  Character training should be a part of every course rather than a course of itself.

T  F  The teacher's attitude and general standards will do more for moral instruction than will hours of drill on moral principles.

T  F  The most important thing a teacher gives in charac-
Character training is himself.

T F Character values are best taught from regular subject matter.

T F Character education should provide decisions for the individual in each situation.

T F The individual approach is not necessary in a well organized character education program.

T F The character education program should be separate from the instructional program.

T F When we rectify character, we replace undesirable habits with desirable ones.

T F In order to develop a strong character, the child should be entrusted with responsibilities of a much older age level than his actual age.

T F When a satisfying reaction comes about as a result of an external stimulus, a habit has been begun.

T F Through the plasticity of the nervous system, the child's able to make compensatory adjustments to both the good and the bad types of environment.

T F Faults of childhood if not corrected by parents grow in strength with adulthood.

T F Since the child's learning depends upon his actually doing, the parents may commit vices before the child as long as the child is advised against
them and not permitted to participate in them.

T F Character should not be aimed at through a course taught as such but should evolve as an indirect and concomitant outcome of all teaching.

T F Character is developed in many cases even when the parent or person in charge compels the child to react against his will.

T F We should strive to develop only strong positive habits within the child.

T F Rewards, such as grades and other external awards, play an important part as incentives in producing character.

T F Character may be built up through the teaching of the proper types of unemotionalized attitudes and ideals.

T F All lies are wrongfull.

T F Punishment may not teach the lesson intended.

T F The urge for mastery may lead to most undesirable traits unless guided in the right direction.

T F Pledges, codes, and creeds are necessary to character education.

T F Teach the child the right ideals and his actions will be right.

T F Habit is a factor in both character and intelligence.
Character Training Agencies

T  F The newspapers, radio, and the street conventions undo much of the work done by the school.

T  F Native drives and urges form the real psychological basis for character education.

T  F Society and the individual may differ in ideas of moral conduct.

T  F Heredity affects character traits less than environment does.

T  F Character educators must recognize individual differences in mentality.

T  F The school is responsible for the character of its product.

T  F All school subjects lend themselves especially to the teaching of virtues.

T  F The chief purpose of a democracy is the development of character.

T  F A teacher can do much to foster the growth of worthy sentiments by being himself a worthy exemplar.

T  F The educator's duty is to encourage children to be themselves rather than to conform to a preconceived type.

T  F Bad home training severely handicaps the teacher's efforts at character building.

T  F School games furnish opportunities for observation
of the child's unrestrained disposition.

T F An alert teacher will react intuitively to every situation that arises for impressing a character habit.

T F Character is not a thing in and of itself apart from school life.

T F The teacher must have her consciousness saturated with character ideals for boys and girls.

T F Mixed morality is often taught in the home.

T F The teacher not only aids in forming character but also forms it.

T F The school is and has been an important factor in shaping the characters of children.

T F With the weakening of other moral agencies has come an additional responsibility or burden on the schools.

T F Objective studies have been shown church membership and attendance to influence the honesty of children.

T F What few studies of character traits there are in existence reveal a high positive correlation between Sunday School attendance and honesty.

T F The school should be a more potent factor in the molding the character of the child than the home.

T F The school is the only agency for improvement of
character which is under the direction of society.

T  F Because of the several different religious creeds represented in the schools, character education can not be given to all pupils.

T  F The home is the most powerful agency for character development.

T  F The school is a more important institution in character training than the home.

T  F Character building organizations, such as the Boy Scouts, have contributed greatly to honest practices in life situations by the members taken as a whole.

T  F Properly supervised extra-curricular activities offer a splendid opportunity for the development of desirable character traits.
COMPENSATION

T F Compensation is a force that works from within one, not from without.

T F Compensation is one form of defense mechanism.

T F Compensations are substitute activities.

T F Psychologically, compensation means substitution of a positive conviction for a negative or inferior condition.

T F There are two main theories of compensation.

T F Specific testing has proven the inaccuracy of the theory of compensation.

T F Curricular advice has, in the past, been given on the basis of the correctness of the theory of compensation.

T F The theory of compensation is no longer held to be true.

T F The doctrine of compensation implies that the development of a specific activity is usually, at least, accompanied by a decrease or loss in another activity.

T F The popular belief that great artists are queer proves the theory of compensation to be correct.

T F Compensation is an exaggerated manifestation of one behavior trend as a defense against another and
usually opposite trend which is painfully repressed or unsatisfactory in performance.

T F The law of compensation is that, if a person works hard enough on a given activity, he will be compensated adequately in one form or another.

T F The theory of compensation states that the possession of a number of undesirable traits is almost certain to be accompanied by a marked superiority in other traits.

T F One theory of compensation is that "if a pupil is unusually bright in one school subject he must be correspondingly dull in some other subject."

T F The theory of compensatory effort, that known handicaps often result in greater accomplishment through greater effort, has no basis in fact.

T F According to the law of compensation, if a person is robbed of one desire he acquires another.

T F Compensation is the substitution of one activity for another.

T F The theory of compensation and the theory of compensatory effort are two different theories.

T F The theory of compensatory effort states that reserves of energy not available ordinarily may be called upon when one is under a known handicap.

T F The theory of compensation, discredited for a number
of years is becoming to be generally accepted by modern psychologists.

T F The theory of compensatory effort is generally recognized as having a sound basis.

T F A teacher should not pay any attention to pupil's feelings of inferiority or their compensations.

T F The principal motive for compensation is the winning of approval of others.

T F The removal of adenoids and diseased tonsils results in almost immediate improvement in classroom accomplishment.

T F Substitute activities for thwarted desires are but mediocre expressions that lose themselves in this general business of everyday living.

T F Theoretically there is a limit to what we can do with our minds.

T F Setting the brakes on one's expression is a certain means of developing an inferior condition.

T F Some children have no chance to excel along legitimate lines, and therefore, compensate along unsatisfactory lines.

T F If the tendency to compensate for feelings of inferiority is not guided, it may do more harm than good.

T F A person who is inferior in size or strength may seek to make up for that by trying to gain unusual skill
in dramatics.

T  F  Children may be driven to self-assertion in some unapproved activity as a result of feelings of inferiority in approved activities.

T  F  One may compensate for a feeling of inferiority by transferring his desire to some other object or person.

T  F  Very frequently those people who exaggerate greatly about the importance of their pasts are compensating for a feeling of inferiority in the present.

T  F  When a child feels inferior in any way he may try to compensate for this feeling by seeking to excel in some one field of activity.

T  F  The misbehavior of a child who is no longer the baby of the family is an example of compensation.

T  F  Talking loudly is often a compensation for a feeling of superiority.

T  F  In writing an examination, a pupil may compensate in volume for what he lacks in facts.

T  F  "Bullying" is often a compensatory device.

T  F  Compensation has its best effects upon those individuals who are strong in character and will.

T  F  Variations in temperature effect the ability to do either mental or physical work less than do comparable variations in humidity with the temperature constant.
T F The blocking of emotional outlets may lead to desirable compensatory activities.

T F Teachers should always insist on finding the reason for a child's misconduct.

T F Because of a home-acquired feeling of inferiority, a child may become a behavior problem.

T F A child unusually gifted in one field is equally dull in other fields.

T F The person of great artistic gifts is generally weak in scientific ability or matter-of-fact wisdom.

T F The person of superior intellect is likely to have superior mental health.

T F The rapid worker usually makes more errors than the slower worker.

T F If a child shows signs of a feeling of inferiority he should be befriended and encouraged.

T F Rationalization is usually a better method, from the standpoint of mental health, of solving a difficult situation than compensation is.

T F Compensation is usually a better method of meeting a difficult situation than rationalization is.

T F A child of retarded physical growth (or in poor health) may develop faster mentally (or socially)
than a child who is more advanced physically.

T  F Compensation through playground misdemeanors is often expressed by the bright child.

T  F Compensation rarely assumes the form of defiance of authority.

T  F Overcompensation may result from inferiority feelings so that an individual may become especially capable along the line of his original defect.

T  F Compensation tends to express itself in terms directly opposed to the forces that originated it.

T  F It is a teacher's duty to provide compensating activities for inherent tendencies that seem to disturb the schoolroom calm.

T  F A blind person develops a more keen sense of touch.

T  F Extreme outward behavior of one sort is usually an attempt to compensate for an exactly opposite inward state.

T  F Daydreams are compensatory efforts.

T  F A blocking of bodily activities is usually compensated for by excelling in intellectual activities.

T  F Inferiority complexes are usually linked to inferiority efforts.

T  F Great achievements are often the results of compensatory efforts to overcome defects which have been felt keenly.
T  F  Compensatory efforts to overcome defects often result in unbalanced personalities.

T  F  Comparing one child unfavorably, and frequently, with another makes the less favored child work harder to try to catch up with the other.

T  F  A person who is blind acquires a special sensitivity of hearing and touch sense organs as a form of compensation.

T  F  A short man will compensate somewhat for his lack of height by admiring a tall man.

T  F  Handicaps are retained principally through neglect about overcoming them.

T  F  Handicaps are more often increased by worrying about them than they are corrected.

T  F  Most people are, apparently, peculiarly blind about their own personality handicaps.

T  F  We adopt defense mechanisms, not primarily to adjust to our difficulties but to deceive ourselves to the true nature of our affairs.

EMOTION

T  F  The psychoanalysts have emphasized the importance of emotions as driving forces.

T  F  An emotion always arises from a situation of maladjustment.
The chief distinction between emotions and feelings seems to be a matter of intensity, duration, and definiteness.

"Sublimation of emotional drives" is synonymous with "substitution of emotional drives."

Emotions are great expenders of energy.

An emotion differs from a reflex in that it involves the whole body.

We speak of flushings, palings, sinking feelings in the stomach, tensions of the arteries, and the mental states as emotion.

Emotion as a psychological term refers to a state of consciousness; that is, the complex of situations and not the bodily activities themselves.

Actors can control the emotions.

Emotions are necessary in daily life.

A complex is a unit of ideas arising from past experience which holds for the individual large emotional value.

People with different backgrounds cannot appreciate the feelings of another adequately.

The emotional life of the adult is independent of previous modification of the primary emotions.

A large part of our thinking is occupied with efforts to defend the complexes which we already possess.
T  F  Actors seldom experience the emotions which they portray.

T  F  Emotional responses may precede creative effort but cannot accompany it.

T  F  Emotion proper consists of the perception of confused and vigorous bodily changes.

T  F  On the conscious side, emotion is characterized chiefly by confusion.

T  F  Emotions appear quickly and disappear quickly.

T  F  Feelings and emotions can be influenced by the assumption of appropriate bodily attitudes.

T  F  The violent emergency emotions, such as fear or rage, involve activity on the cranial and sacral divisions of the autonomic system only.

T  F  Worry, fear, anger, and excitement have more serious effects upon one's physical health than hard work.

T  F  Stolid persons usually present fewer adjustment problems than the extremely sensitive persons.

T  F  Pleasurable emotions are associated with the sympathetic division of the autonomic nervous system.

T  F  There is a close relation between emotions and glandular action.

T  F  The internal changes which provide the major portion of the sensations that constitute the emotion are under the control of the autonomic system.
T F The distended nostrils in fear or anger permit more effective breathing.

T F Ordinarily, reactions such as respiration, circulation, digestion, and moderate activities are conscious reactions.

T F The wide-open eyes in wonder or surprise are an adjustment which provides a wide range of vision.

T F Emotional expressions do not influence the behavior of the other organisms.

T F We experience anger, fear, or sympathy without obvious motor response.

T F With anger or fear go also pronounced circulatory changes due to sympathetic discharge.

T F Changes in digestion and assimilation functions are brought about by innervation of the sympathetic system which occurs in fear and anger.

T F The feelings of success resulting from past performances tend to increase the amount and quality of future performance.

T F Highly emotional children should be provided with shorter practice periods in drill subjects than those provided for children with more normal emotional control.

T F Sensations may be aroused by the activities of the organism; we may feel our reactions as well as the
stimuli which arouses them.

T  F  The body is well supplied with sense organs and sensory nerves by means of which the inner responses may be felt.

T  F  Extreme emotional sensitivity is characterized only by emotional instability.

T  F  An excess of emotionality is the main characteristic of one extreme.

T  F  As learning progresses, greater poise is achieved.

T  F  Thinking, reasoning, and judgment are not disturbed by emotion.

T  F  Excitement resembles both fear and anger but differs from both because of the indefiniteness of the impulsion.

T  F  The organic changes which characterize fear, excitement, anger, and other states are very much alike, at least, in the more obvious features.

T  F  Adrenalin does not affect skeletal muscles.

T  F  The sacral division is connected with the intermediate part of the cord.

T  F  The cranial division is connected to the upper part of the cord and mid-brain.
It is possible to distinguish between heredity and environment.

The black sheep of a family is one because of mutation rather than environment.

Environment is the only character determining factor.

Environment is the product of the individual.

The environment that influences is itself influenced, and, therefore, either may be considered variable or constant.

Present environmental conditions affect posterity indirectly by selective elimination.

Physical and social environments are closely interwoven; a strict line cannot be drawn between the two.

The differences in behavior organizations are determined solely by environment.

Environment cannot improve the race although it may affect a single generation profoundly.

Environment determines which and to what extent hereditary traits shall be developed.

The child acquires the greatest knowledge of right and wrong through his home environment.

Families in which the same trait appears in children,
parents, and grand-parents are evidences that character traits are inherited and not learned.

T  F  The individual is wholly the product of environment.

T  F  In Wood's study of heredity in royalty, he postulated the influence of environment as about 60%.

T  F  Children of the same heredity who have been reared in very different environments will differ little in the psychological fundamentals.

T  F  A very limited environment will influence the brighter child more than it will the duller child.

T  F  Environment provides only the opportunity for growth and development of structure and functions already present and limited by heredity.

T  F  During the past century the Boston area produced a larger number of learned people than any similar area in the United States because the people profited greatly from the atmosphere of culture.

T  F  The mother has more influence on the environment of the child than the father has.

T  F  The child is more likely to be like his parents than like his Sunday School teacher.

T  F  Character traits are learned through association with parents and playmates.

T  F  The companions of delinquents are highly important factors in case studies.
T F Playmates do not have direct influence on the conduct of the individual.

T F All cases of delinquency trace to the environment.

T F Conflict with external environment often leads the individual to adopt a defense mechanism.

T F Adulthood characteristics are not traceable to childhood environment.

T F Emphasis upon the importance of environment typifies a fighting, forward-looking individual.

T F The social environment consists of people who behave differently toward an individual according as he is strong or weak, bright or dull, adventurous or timid.

T F The effect of a belief that environment is important in achievement is an incentive to greater and greater effort and accomplishment.

T F Individuals' unequal heredity exposed to equal environmental stimulation develop unequally.

T F The mind of man develops only through reaction to environing influences.

T F An analysis of a mind will reveal elements of its environment.

T F The measure of man's technological development is a measure of his control over his environment.

T F One type of civilization is constantly associated
with a given environment.

T F Environment influences man when and only insofar as he reacts to it.

T F The type of environment some people set up for their children only tends to turn them the other way.

T F A person raised in a poor environment will live far above his means as soon as he begins working for wages.

T F Boy's training schools tend to further criminal tendencies.

T F All aspects of a child's behavior - play, emotion, and speech - are determined by the existing environment.

T F Those who grow up under treatment that is too easy either become boisterous, very irritable, or lazy.

T F With harsh upbringing, children become either completely passive and dull, or egotistical, ruthless individuals.

T F There is no appreciable effect of environmental change upon the intelligence tests.

T F Home environment is probably the most fundamental factor leading to delinquency.

T F All behavior is determined by environment.

T F All characteristics may be altered by changing the environmental conditions under which the organism
develops, provided that we learn what conditions to change and how to change them.

T  F  Educators wish to maintain a standardized environment.

T  F  Part of the task of education is to increase the ease and effectiveness with which adjustment is made to a complex environment.

T  F  Each human being continuously changes his environment.

T  F  Eminent men are coming mostly from the cities.

T  F  Isolation and the lack of a rich group of stimuli will stifle the greatest genius.

T  F  The life a person lives is the result of his desires.

T  F  Belief in the fixity of hereditary limitations must lead to belief in fatalism.

T  F  It is possible to separate the influence of heredity and the influence on environment and to assign a proportional value to each.

T  F  No two children live in the same environment.

T  F  The best test of a normal person is whether or not he can still make social adjustments.

T  F  The chief aim of education is to fit the child to become successful in adapting himself to his environment.

T  F  The individual is the master of his own destiny and
can determine his own environment.

T F The school exerts the most effective influence in the environment of the individual.

T F The parents have more influence on a child than all other agencies put together.

T F In our conflict with environment, it is always best to do the easiest thing or the thing that will bring quickest results.

T F It is important that children should be successful in the solution of their life conflicts with environment.

T F Most cases of maladjustment can be traced to childhood environment.

T F The school should provide many opportunities for making choices and for making wholesome social adjustments.

T F Prevention of maladjustments may be accomplished by wholesome social guidance programs.

T F The most important cause of mental disintegration comes from the attempt to deceive oneself or to a failure.

T F Knowledge creates and discovers new elements in environment.

T F In all higher civilizations, the changes which the culture has made upon environment are more notable
than the changes the environment has made upon the culture.

T F Utilization of environment is a culture achievement.
T F Culture makes environment insignificant.
T F Significance of environmental factors changes with technological trade and political relations.
T F A river or other waterway may separate peoples or be used as a means of communication.
T F Many diseases with a possible hereditary basis are also a matter of environmental influences.
T F A controlled environment is more important for girls than for boys.
T F Conflicts in the environment of elementary children should be avoided.
T F One's environment depends to a large extent on one's physique.
T F More people go insane in isolated localities than in cities.
T F An unchanging environment is healthful for children.
T F Children have little difficulty adjusting themselves to country life.
T F Isolated communities have a changing environment.
T F The general environment of two localities may be entirely different even though separated only by a railroad track.
T F The automobile has done much toward making the environment of the average people similar.

T F It is possible to account for all the factors which influence one's environment.

T F We see, feel, hear, and act in a certain manner because of heredity.

T F Alcohol may affect posterity by the killing of the weak germs and by leaving the more vigorous stock.

T F Descendants of parents that live under noxious conditions clearly show more hereditary defects than descendants of similar parents that live under favorable conditions.

T F Eye color may be altered through environmental action.

T F Hormones not supplied by the genes may be supplied from the outside and prevent an individual from being an imbecile or cretin.

T F The difference between dark and light complexions may never be assigned to environment.

T F As the conditions of life become more favorable, more and more of the defective individuals are preserved and allowed to propagate.

T F From the early times to the present, man has modified the range of his environment.

T F The more complex life of the higher cultures reduces
the possibility of many crimes which were possible in the primitive cultures.

T F The progeny of alcoholized parents are on the whole superior to those from parents not subjected to alcohol.

T F A child should be protected from social relations when his experience is not sufficient to enable him to make the necessary adjustments.

T F Manifestation of crime is due solely to hereditary factors.

T F Some children are innately bad.

T F What a man learns or does is largely a matter of what he is stimulated to do and rewarded for doing.

T F All phases of culture have developed out of the old natural environment as a result of man's attempt to make more successful adjustments to it.

T F No matter what you are, you can be changed by environmental conditions.

T F Man can adapt himself to his environment and he can adapt his environment to himself.

T F Physical education is one of the most fundamental moral forces.

T F One of the most potent influences favoring pupil honesty is the teacher.
OBJECTIVE EXAMINATIONS

T F The achievement quotient is found by dividing the E. A. by the M. A.

T F A test is reliable when it measures what it aims to measure.

T F The objective type of examination takes less time to prepare than the essay type.

T F Partial credits are usually given in the objective type of examination.

T F Other things being equal, the longer the examination the more valid and reliable the results.

T F The objective test, not necessarily standardized, should be valid.

T F In the construction of true-false questions, it is better to first construct true statements and then change half of them to false statements.

T F Usually too many spaces are used in a completion test.

T F In a matching test, both columns should have the same number of items.

T F The results of scoring of objective examinations are seldom the same.

T F Questions should be constructed so as to permit only one correct answer to each.

T F Each statement in an objective exam should be in-
dependent of every other statement.

T F Objective examinations should never be given orally.

T F Objective examinations can be used only to measure a pupil's achievement.

T F Various types of examinations should be given in order to avoid monotony.

T F Tests should be so constructed that there will be a regular sequence of true and false questions.

T F Statements should be so worded that they can not be interpreted as ambiguous.

T F Each blank in a completion test should call for a single idea.

T F If the questions are so stated that they are either true or false, partial credits can be avoided.

T F Directions about the form and the place to record answers should always accompany an objective test.

T F In selecting questions for an objective exam, there should be at least 25% more items than will actually be used; this will provide for the culling out of the poorest items.

T F To be worthwhile, objective exams must be valid.

T F A disadvantage of an objective test is that it places a premium on factual knowledge.

T F Locality, motivation, methods of teaching, and
practice affect norms.

T  F  There is little chance element in a matching test.

T  F  A "Standard" represents the median score that a
sample group actually makes on the test.

T  F  Any examination is a limited sampling.

T  F  The brightest pupil in the class should be able to
answer all questions in an objective examination.

T  F  The questions in an objective type of examination
are arranged with no consideration as to diffi-
culty.

T  F  The only adequate preparation for the making of an
objective examination is a study of the whole
course.

T  F  The scoring of the objective examination is largely
influenced by the examiner's opinions and attitudes.

T  F  The objective examination is a flexible instrument.

T  F  The objective examination resembles a standardized
test in its construction.

T  F  Ratings which compare the individual with a group
are less valuable if the group is large.

T  F  There is danger that the objective examination may
emphasize mere information rather than logical
thinking.

T  F  Through the use of objective examinations, the
results of teaching among various instructors can be measured.

T F The advantages of the new type of test outweigh its disadvantages.

T F The objective examination encourages guessing.

T F The objective examination probably does not measure the ways in which knowledge actually will be used as well as the traditional examination.

T F The objective examination cannot put a premium on thinking.

T F The objective examination is usually more comprehensive than the traditional examination.

T F The total score made by the pupil will be more accurate when several forms of statements are combined.

T F It is almost impossible to make the completion form of objective test absolutely objective.

T F The element of chance is not so great in the multiple choice as in the true-false test.

T F Compound sentences should be avoided in true-false tests.

T F Guessing is advised in a true-false test.

T F The new type of examinations suit knowledge-subjects best.

T F The new type of examinations should, in most instances,
replace the traditional type examinations.

T F Objective examinations aim to test only one type of outcome at a time.

T F Factual or informational type questions are better adjusted to the essay type examinations.

T F The student who is a good penman is favored by the essay-type examination.

T F The written essay-type of examinations tend to encourage a certain amount of bluffing.

T F New type objective examinations should be given after the completion of each unit of the teacher's course of study.

T F "Non-standardized" objective tests are called new-type examinations.

T F Objective examinations serve as a stimulus for more intensified studying.

T F Testing by means of the new-type examinations makes for more uniform educational standards of accomplishment.

T F Character traits are easy to measure by means of objective examinations.

T F The old-type examinations are less subject to grading differences in the subject of mathematics than in any other subject field.
T F The objective type of examinations tend to slight penmanship and grammar.

T F Objective type examinations are better suited to the elementary than high school use, where fundamental knowledge versus skills is more important.

T F Essay type questions are more valid than objective type questions.

T F The ease of scoring objective-type examinations compensated for the increased amount of time used in their construction.

T F Authorities are well agreed as to the relative reliability of the different forms of objective tests.

T F Recognition questions are better suited to high school pupils than recall questions.

T F In some cases, it is permissible to use negative statements in objective examination.

T F All forms of the objective examinations are subject to a certain amount of chance element in the student answers.

T F It is easier for the teacher to meet the course of study objectives through the objective examination.

T F A standardized test is always more valid for classroom use than a non-standardized test.

T F Diagnostic tests are used to predict a pupil's success in a field in which he has not studied.
T F There are five principal types of achievement tests as follows: general survey, diagnostic, rate, power, and quality.

T F The intelligence test is a form of standardized test.

T F A standardized objective test has standards of achievement known as norms.

T F Spelling should not influence the score on an objective type examination other than in English.

T F Due to a broader sampling, the objective type examination makes possible a greater number of questions of varying degrees of difficulty.

T F Better provision is made for individual differences by use of the objective examinations.

T F The majority of high school teachers of today are well trained in the construction of objective tests.

T F A standardized achievement for group use should have a reliability of .0195 or slightly higher.

T F Objective examinations must place maximum emphasis upon memory and minimum emphasis upon thought.

T F Objective examinations are less popular for use in motivation than subjective examinations.

T F Objective examinations show a lesser degree of fairness to the individual pupil than the subjective examination.
T F The guessing factor should be allowed for in the scoring of examinations, i.e. the final score to equal the number of right minus the number of wrong questions.

T F Some types of objective examinations encourage guessing on the part of the pupil.

T F Raw scores are of no value until the teacher interprets them in light of some standard.

T F Teacher's ratings vary as much as 50% on the grading of a single subjective paper.

T F Nationwide use of objective tests will increase the reliability of teacher's marks.

T F A standard is the same as a norm.

T F A "test" and a "scale" is the same thing.

T F Any examination is a limited sampling.

T F The new type of examination takes little time for writing, therefore there is more time for thinking.

T F The objective test does not take away all possibilities of favoritism.

T F The essay type of examination is more thorough than the objective type.

T F The new type of test can measure memory only.

T F An objective test will yield a far more extensive sampling of the pupil's knowledge than will the old type.
The new type of examination gives absolute freedom from personal opinion in scoring.

Objective examinations are tests of recognition rather than of spontaneous recall.

One of the limitations of the objective examination is that it is open to guessing and chance.

In general, the new type of examination forces the pupil to face the question where the old type encourages bluffing.
EXTROVERSION AND INTROVERSION

T  F  The general health of extroverts seems to be better than that of introverts.

T  F  The introvert may be inclined to "mix" into things that do not concern him.

T  F  The extrovert tends to marked interest in concrete things and situation.

T  F  The emotional tone of the extrovert shows a rich, many-sided emotional life, full of ups and downs.

T  F  The introvert is often markedly religious.

T  F  The tendency of extroverts toward odd and careless dress is quite noticeable.

T  F  In experimental study, introverts show a slight tendency to be somewhat less suggestible than extroverts.

T  F  Unchecked spontaneity versus restrained deliberation pictures the general trend of extroversion and introversion in regard to motivated choice.

T  F  The speed of reaching a conclusion on an emotional basis tends to be somewhat slower in extroverts than in introverts.

T  F  The motor output of introverts under speeded scores is quite definitely lower than that of extroverts.

T  F  There is no difference in the dynamic energy dis-
played by the extroverts and the introverts.

T  F  A willingness to 'take a chance' is quite noticeable in introverts.

T  F  In experimental study it has been found that there is a difference in intelligence scores, with the extroverts receiving the higher marks.

T  F  Extraversion is thought of as a tendency facilitating social contact making, while introversion is thought of as a tendency impeding social expression.

T  F  In accelerated pupils, the extroverted pupils usually received the best marks.

T  F  There is no substantial relationship between introversion or extraversion and school marks.

T  F  Pupils that are one year retarded are more introverted than pupils who are normal.

T  F  Introverts have a stronger affection for members of the opposite sex than for those of their own sex.

T  F  Introverts express themselves better in speech than in writing.

T  F  Introverts have severe ups and downs of moods with no apparent cause.

T  F  Introverts usually are suspicious of the motives of others.

T  F  Introverts usually limit acquaintances to a select few.
T  F  Neither introvert nor extrovert behavior is greatly affected by I.Q.

T  F  Introverts usually respond more slowly than extroverts.

T  F  There is a marked tendency towards extroversion in H.S. pupils holding positions of prominence as class officers, etc.

T  F  Interest is a better measure of introversion and extroversion in girls than in boys.

T  F  Boys are more extroverted than girls, (Freyd).

T  F  Practically all the studies concerning concepts of introversion and extroversion have been made during the past ten years.

T  F  The best balance between introversion and extroversion can be attained only in the periods of childhood or adolescence.

T  F  Once an introvert, always an introvert.

T  F  An extrovert as such can be taught to reflect, to weigh, to judge, and to pause before taking action.

T  F  A petted or only child, a person of a minority group, and a person with physical defects are more likely to be introverts than extroverts.

T  F  The extrovert is more readily susceptible to hypnosis than the introvert.

T  F  Conditioning to either intro- or extroversion takes place very early in the child's life.
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T  F  The extrovert dwells largely in a realm of imagination creating inwardly a more desirable ideal world rather than adjusting himself to the real one.

T  F  The introvert dwells largely in a realm of reality fitted to his own self objectively.

T  F  The mental images, thoughts and problems of the extrovert find ready expression in covert behavior.

T  F  Introversion is the tendency for the interest to shift from the object to the subject.

T  F  The extrovert is chiefly recognized by his responding to stimuli with feeling and action.

T  F  There is a positive relationship between intelligence and introvert tendencies.

T  F  Most people are ambiverts.

T  F  Extroverts are more given to imagination than introverts.

T  F  Introversion may come about as an attempt to compensate for actual or felt inferiorities.

T  F  The extrovert is usually more self-sufficient than the introvert.

T  F  It is possible for the introvert to develop extrovert tendencies.

T  F  The introvert is more given to the development of compensatory attitudes.

T  F  The introvert is more likely to severe connections
with reality.

T F The extremely extroverted person obtains all his satisfactions by mental imagery.

T F Introverts make friends more easily than extroverts.

T F Extroverts are more in danger of mental disorders than introverts.

T F There is little or no relationship between introversion or extroversion and scholarship.

T F Free association tests have proven valuable for determining introvert and extrovert tendencies.

T F A curve showing the amount of introvert or extrovert tendencies in a large unselected group will reveal a bi-modal distinction.

T F The extrovert is usually better adjusted to the world and to the people in it.

T F Introversion in its extreme form borders on certain types of insanity.

T F Cases that can be accurately described as introvert or extrovert represent marked deviation from normality.

T F Introversion and extroversion are really opposite types of the confidence response.

T F Extroverts are commonly given to self-deprecation.

T F The introvert lives in a subjective world.

T F The extreme introvert is usually hesitant about mak-
ing important decisions.

T  F  The teacher who expects the children to love her demonstratively thinks too much about herself and too little about the children.

T  F  A debater will probably rationalize more if he is debating on the side which he believes.

T  F  The desire to win may make a debater rationalize because he is strongly extroverted.

T  F  One stimulus may bring about almost entirely different responses from the introvert and extrovert.

T  F  The introvert, unquestionably, receives the greatest enjoyment from reading a good novel, seeing a good movie, or hearing good music.

T  F  The only true extrovert is the completely altruistic person.

T  F  The American system of education and of economics are fundamentally of a nature that produces a maximum number of self-centered individuals.

T  F  The use of school marks accentuates the introvertive tendencies of the very bright and the very dull pupils noticeably enough to render them a dis-service.

T  F  Marked self-confidence and marked self-consciousness are both forms of egoism.

T  F  A child can learn nothing while in a state of notice-
able self-consciousness or introversion.

T F The so-called captain of industry is an example of vigorous extroversion.

T F Practically all boys and girls pass through a time of harmless daydreaming in which they are either conquering heroes or suffering martyrs.

T F Introversion is a less desirable state of mind than extroversion of the same degree.

T F Pollyanna was an extrovert because she was such a whole-souled optimist.

T F Pouting is an expression of a state of introversion in contrast to extroversion.

T F The term ambivert has been coined to cover the very small group of persons who are neither extremely extroverted nor introverted.

T F An understanding of psychological types opens the way for a better understanding of psychology in general.

T F Studies indicate that there is a gradual increase toward introversion on the basis of age, grade, and grade at age from younger to older children.

T F Educators are not able to consider introversion and extroversion in their present ill-defined state as factors when considering individual adjustments.

T F In normal life a compromise exists between extro-
version and introversion with extroversion tendencies slightly dominating.

F The introvert-thinking type of person becomes a good teacher because, while teaching, his thoughts are engaged with the actual material and will not be satisfied with mere presentation.

T F Authors who have written on the question of introversion-extroversion are impressed with the probable presence of a hereditary predisposing factor.

T F Determination of the young child's type tendency serves as a guide to later emotional and social training.

T F There is a marked relationship between scholarship and introvert-extrovert tendencies.

T F Subjective and objective attitudes are not the same as introversion and extroversion.

T F Sex differences in temperament are parallel with extrovert-introvert tendencies.

T F A reliable scale for the measurement of introversion-extroversion has been perfected.

T F In the field of educational and experimental psychology, a growing emphasis is being placed upon the factors of personality other than intelligence.
Psychoanalysts describe the "libido" as the physical energy present in all living cells.

It is possible to recondition an extrovert.

One becomes more extrovert or introvert by reason of his interests.

One's interests are dictated by his being an extrovert or introvert.

The ministerial profession attracts extroverts.

Organic defects often produce introversion.

Adolescents tend to be extroverts.

Great authors and scientists are most often extroverts.

"Teacher's pets" are good examples of extroverts.

A source of character formation is the manner in which one responds to conflict.

Extroversion is a more desirable tendency than introversion.

If a small child shares his toys with a neighbor child, the act shows that he has extrovert tendencies.

Either introversion or extroversion is a result of early environment.

An extrovert would make a better social worker than an introvert of equal degree.

An extrovert is more practical than an introvert.

To an introvert, self is secondary.
T F Sensitive people as a whole do not seem to be extroverts.

T F Body size influences the condition of introversion and extroversion.

T F People holding public offices are more likely to be extrovert types than introvert types.

T F On the whole, extroversion is a more healthy condition than an equal degree of introversion.

T F Training may cause a child to be an extrovert adult.

T F The condition of facing difficulties actively is called extroversion.

T F A clubwoman accepting more social engagements than she can manage reasonably is, in a sense, an extrovert.

T F An extrovert is likely to be self-sufficient in time of danger.

T F Men of great dominance of will are seldom able to see themselves accurately and objectively.

T F The intelligence of an extrovert is usually rated by people as higher than it is by test scores.

T F The accomplishments of an extrovert are usually overestimated.

T F Mental conflicts trouble the extrovert little and he seems to have nothing to repress or avoid.
FATIGUE

T F The feeling of weariness from the school day should be ignored or reproved by the teacher, as it is an illusionary condition.

T F The fatigue of the school day is more the result of worry than of work.

T F Fatigue from work is an illusionary factor in the ordinary school day.

T F Many times, feelings of mental fatigue come about as a result of competing ideas or desires.

T F There is a significance to the term "Blue Monday," as we consider working efficiency.

T F Under normal conditions of humidity, the highest degree of efficiency for work is possible between 65 and 69 degrees F.

T F Mental fatigue is distinguished from physical fatigue largely on the basis of degree of complexity.

T F Achievement is higher the first period of the school day than at any other.

T F Feelings of fatigue may be most acute at the periods of highest efficiency.

T F Feelings of physical fatigue are by no means a reliable evidence of mental efficiency.

T F Two or three hours of continuous mental work at
maximum effort will almost always show a decrease in efficiency of 50% or more.

T  F  Feelings of fatigue and decrease in interest are indicative of a state of decreased efficiency.

T  F  Feelings of fatigue are, in a large measure, sensations from muscles, tendons, and joints.

T  F  Often boredom rather than fatigue, is the cause for diminution of work.

T  F  The assertion "ordinary school work is not difficult enough to produce any considerable fatigue" is justifiable.

T  F  Wavering attention is always a sign of pupil fatigue.

T  F  The muscles used particularly in school work are easily fatigued.

T  F  Lack of attention to school work is usually fatigue.

T  F  The term that one is "tired by" certain work represents a certain stage of fatigue better than the one "tired of."

T  F  Fatigue is the diminution in the efficiency of making some required connections which comes from making them too continuously.

T  F  High temperature and the condition of the humidity rather than low oxygen content and presence of much expired matter, seem to be the cause of discomfort and loss of attention.
T F The full curve of efficiency is more pronounced in muscular work than in mental.

T F Both the amount done and the number of errors increases as the school day progresses.

T F A muscle may be too fatigued to lift a particular weight, but still easily lift a lighter weight.

T F Fatigue operates as a defense function.

T F Suggestion has been found to increase the ability of an individual to do a task even after fatigue has set in.

T F A variation of light and heavy types of work leads to higher efficiency.

T F Illumination or color of the bright or glaring types tend to produce eye fatigue.

T F As the day progresses, there is little increase in feelings of dissatisfaction in the performance of one's work.

T F In some cases, the change to a quiet place for work is as effective as a rest period.

T F Carbon dioxide is very conducive to fatigue.

T F Lactic acid, the poison causing muscular fatigue, is eliminated less readily in a room of high carbon dioxide content.

T F Mental fatigue usually precedes physical fatigue.

T F Loss of sleep as well as doses of alcohol or drugs
will decrease the efficiency of the muscles.

T  F  The fall in the curve of efficiency is more pronounced in muscular work than in mental work.

T  F  It is hardly probable that disciplinary problems and behavior problems of a school could be fatigue problems.

T  F  Desks and seating facilities have no influence upon mental fatigue in the school room.

T  F  We are fatigued by what we do not do.

T  F  In the measurement of the fatigue of the school day, the amount done correctly is a better index than the number of errors without consideration of amount attempted.

T  F  Even when obvious mental fatigue exists, its effects are rendered negligible, except in exhaustion, by interest, necessity, or suggestion.

T  F  It is possible to increase tissue tolerance to fatigue toxins by gradually increasing the lengths of the periods of activity.

T  F  Other things being equal, work done under artificial lighting cannot equal work done under natural lighting.

T  F  Positive displeasure in a task may go hand-in-hand with a high degree of proficiency in its performance.

T  F  The child of six years should be given a rest period
following each one-half hour of work in the classroom.

T  F  Gymnastic periods may accomplish the same result as rest periods.

T  F  Our present factory system which employs division of labor is more conducive to fatigue than the older system of alteration of tasks.

T  F  The variation in muscular performances increase with age in the two sexes.

T  F  Children whose anabolic rate is rapid, have the ability to recover rapidly from over-exhaustion in physical exercise.

T  F  Noises which have a constant rate of wave frequency are more fatiguing than noises of varying intensities.

T  F  From the standpoint of accomplishment, overtime work is worth about one-half as much as normal work.

T  F  Going without sleep is at least four times more serious than going hungry.

T  F  Examinations, whenever possible, should be administered during the first period of the school day.

T  F  The less fatiguing academic subjects should be taught during the later hours of the day.

T  F  Children of high school age should receive nine or
ten hours of rest every night.

T F Muscular efficiency is greatest on a glycogen diet found in carbohydrate foods.

T F Pupil motivation is a greater problem around 10:00 a.m. than during any other time of the day.

T F For each period of overwork, the time necessary to eliminate fatigue increases as the length of that period squared.

T F Periods of rest or disuse tend to eliminate mental and physical fatigue, as well as discourage incorrect habit connections.

T F Stimulants administered following periods of overwork increase the total capacity and efficiency for work.

T F Short periods and changes in school work are advisable so as to keep the pupil from becoming fatigued.

T F There is little to urge against long continued work of the same sort, other than it might cause the work to become uninteresting.

T F The effect of continuous work by isolated neurones may be observed experimentally.

T F Mental fatigue is in part the result of muscular work and is identical with muscular fatigue.

T F Mental work usually involves the activity of muscles as well as the neurones of the central nervous
system.

T F Muscles show much more resistance to fatigue than do nerves.

T F Certain chemicals may be injected into the body and increase muscular efficiency but not increase mental efficiency.

T F Age has nothing to do with fatiguability.

T F The first period in the afternoon should be reserved for tasks requiring effort of concentration.

T F The more difficult the task, the longer and more frequent should be the rest periods.

T F Pupils should heed the first warnings of fatigue because of the lessened efficiency due to fatigue.

T F It is possible for the pupils to do as good work at the end of the school day as at the beginning.

T F A soft even light in the school-room will help prevent fatigue for the pupils and teacher.

T F Poor ventilation has little to do with fatigue in the school room.

T F The cure for fatigue is rest.

T F A definite knowledge of success or error helps the child to overcome the feeling of fatigue which occurs if the child does not understand what is expected of him.

T F The teacher is able to judge the fatigue of the
children by her own fatigue.

T F Pupils in the lower grades should have little variation in type of work studied.

T F To overcome fatigue, young children need rest periods after strenuous exercise as well as after strenuous mental drill.

T F For over-excitement and worry from mental work, wise formation of habits is the prevention and cure.

T F A certain amount of mental work is healthful.

T F Mental work is nothing more than getting the required responses to certain stimuli and certain situations.

T F A headache produced by five hours of mental multiplication will serve to reduce efficiency in writing poetry.

T F Inactivity does not necessarily restore the energy.

T F Due to fatigue, work grows much less satisfying or more unbearable, but not much less effectual.

T F Fluctuations in the amount of fatigue are the same in all subjects.

T F There is a rapid relearning, with consequent rise in score during the first few minutes of a practice period.

T F "Warming up" of the mental processes is just as important before mental action as warming up of muscles before muscular action.
In ordinary mental work one does not work at his maximum, therefore, a spurt is possible.
The amount of fatigue is measurable by the increase in time required as work continues.
There is little drop in efficiency of mental multiplication between the second and third hour of continuous work.
Experimental evidence indicates that auditory ability will decrease in efficiency after a period of an hour.
The most fruitful methods of measuring mental efficiency have been in using types of mental calculation such as addition and multiplication.
Adults when urged to do their best work can perform as efficiently in hot, stale air as under optimum ventilation.
Achievement is higher the first hour of the school day than any other hour.
Feelings of fatigue may be most acute at the point of highest efficiency.
There should be more attention given to mental fatigue than to muscular fatigue.
Short periods and changes in school work are advisable as to keep the pupil from becoming fatigued.
FORGETTING

T  F  Active forgetting is very useful and harmless as a process.

T  F  Forgetting is slower after active recitation.

T  F  Skills which are merely a reorganization of the native muscular reactions into new patterns are less easily forgotten than entirely new ones.

T  F  Forgetting is a native capacity dependent upon the retentiveness of nervous structure.

T  F  The innate capacity for forgetting is largely a function of the nervous system.

T  F  Forgetting takes place only during a state of inactivity.

T  F  Forgetting is an 'active process of reacting' through selection.

T  F  Forgetting is the result of a series of neurons bringing about changes in the synapses and making the passage of the nerve impulse more difficult or incomplete.

T  F  Modifiability of nervous structures is the foundation of forgetting.

T  F  Modifications in the nervous system produced by use are not retained in completeness for unlimited time.

T  F  We carry around with us the machinery to make the reactions but not the reactions themselves.
T F Retention is a resting state in which a learned reaction remains until the stimulus arrives that can arouse it.

T F Brain connections are largely our retention machinery.

T F The law of atrophy through disuse is applicable to learning.

T F The recall method and the recognition method are both ways to measure forgetting.

T F It has been shown that different methods do not agree in the types of forgetting curves they show.

T F Thoroughness of learning is the only factor influencing the rate of forgetting.

T F The kind of material learned influences retention.

T F Forgetting is slower after unspaced study than after spaced study.

T F The special brain condition produced in learning an act fades away with long continued inactivity.

T F Nothing once known is ever forgotten.

T F Without forgetting a large number of states of consciousness we could not remember at all.

T F Skill is more easily forgotten than information.

T F The effect of disuse is cumulative.

T F The degrees of retention range from 100% to zero.

T F If it takes one just as long to relearn a poem as it did originally, the retention has been zero.
The time one is able to save in relearning a poem is a measure of the retention.

The general curve for retention and forgetting has as yet not been determined.

The curve of forgetting can be determined by other methods than the saving method.

The curve of forgetting will not actually run to the zero line after an interval of from two to four months.

The typical forgetting curve does not hold true of reactions which have been drilled in thoroughly and repeatedly.

The typist may recover the ground lost in a lapse of practice of a year, in two hours of fresh practice.

Experiment does not substantiate the saying that quick learners are quick forgetters.

A lesson learned quickly because of clear understanding is retained longer than one imperfectly understood learned slowly.

Alertness plays an important part in learning.

High pressure learning gives the biggest results in all subjects for all people.

Forgetting probably takes place through the disuse of linkage or synapses in the brain cortex.

High school pupils do not need to organize their
methods of study because their assignments are
short enough that they can remember them anyway.

T  F  Other things being equal, the more different associa-
tions one uses in learning material, the longer
will retention be.

T  F  Lack of self-confidence is one reason why some pupils
do not do well in examinations.

T  F  As a rule, one forgets more readily what he has ob-
served than what he has learned formally.

T  F  One never forgets completely the material learned in
a course or class.

T  F  Material learned to the point of the physiological
limit is forgotten slowly.

T  F  Native ability in retention can be improved considera-
bly through the use of mnemonic devices.

T  F  Most of the forgetting that occurs takes place in
the first twenty-four hours.

T  F  The shapes of the curves of forgetting vary with the
ages of the learner, principally because of com-
petition for attention and interest.

T  F  The shapes of the curves of forgetting vary with the
degree of previous learning.

T  F  Most quick learners are correspondingly quick to
forget.

T  F  The shapes of the curves of forgetting vary with the
difficulty of the material learned.

T  F  The curve for "sense" and for "nonsense" materials are quite similar.

T  F  It is possible to avoid forgetting.

T  F  Forgetting is slower when relationships and connections have been made than when learning by rote.

T  F  Whole learning and part learning show no difference in the retention curve.

T  F  The ease of conduction over a synapse is lessened as the period of disuse increases in length or as the completion of ideas increases.

T  F  The special brain condition produced in learning an act fades away with long continued activity.

T  F  Whether a pupil retains well is not important after he leaves school.

T  F  A large amount of repetition is not essential in complete retention.

T  F  There is one most economical way for each person to learn all kinds of materials.

T  F  Odors may be the cues on which retention depends almost entirely.

T  F  Thinking over important points before one goes to sleep is a good means of preventing forgetting.

T  F  Conflicting associations have no influence upon forgetting because one either knows or does not
know the correct answer.

T F Overlearning is one way of delaying forgetting.

T F Since there are so many poor teachers in high schools, it is fortunate that pupils do forget.

T F As senility begins, one forgets first the happenings of his earlier years.

T F Unpleasant occurrences are forgotten much more readily as a whole, than pleasant occurrences.

T F Quick learning is followed by quick forgetting if the learning was superficial or of small overlearning in the first place.

T F In his work on forgetting, Ebbinghaus found that he lost as much in the first 20 minutes as in the following thirty days.

T F The effects of summer vacations seem to include very great loss of subject matter.

T F There is a gradual loss of retention with the lapse of time.

T F Meaningful material is more rapidly forgotten than nonsense.

T F Forgetting is rapid immediately after the end of learning and becomes slower as time passes.
GENERAL PROBLEMS

T F A large part of the problem of Educational Psychology is the discovery of incentives that will call forth all of the available energy of the pupils to the tasks at hand.

T F Formalization of the schools can be avoided only by constant care at the present time.

T F The danger of formalization in the schools is past.

T F The first task in any undertaking should be that of definition of field and delimitation.

T F One of the principal fields of Educational Psychology is made up of principals of selection of subject matter.

T F One of the principal topics within Educational Psychology is human relationships.

T F Psychology, as a subject of study, does not come into close contact with any other subjects.

T F "Useful changes" to be made by education mean more than increased skill in making a living.

T F The changes to be made by Education should be determined by the philosophers and sociologists.

T F Educators are agreed upon the specific purposes of education.

T F Science is not unkind, but it is impersonal.
T F Information based on observation must be accurate and unbiased.

T F The technique used most commonly to test out the effects of various classroom methods is the questionnaire.

T F The experimental method attempts to control all of the factors in a specific situation and to vary one in different directions in order to note the resulting effects.

T F The experimental method must be more reliable and penetrating than the anecdotal or the questionnaire methods.

T F Most of the people to whom questionnaires are presented fill them in completely and carefully.

T F Many colleges will not permit their students to send out questionnaires unless these are countersigned by a member of the faculty.

T F Social psychology is made up principally of the study of causes and effects of individual differences.

T F The modern systems of handwriting, reading, etc., are principally commercial enterprises.

T F Education is suffering from a surplus of mediocre and ill-conceived investigations and publications.

T F All individuals should be given all of the most suit-
able education for their abilities and interests that they can assimilate and use profitably for themselves and for society.

T  F There is no one kind or amount of education suitable for everyone.

T  F By definition, education has been limited to the production of morally and socially acceptable changes in the individual.

T  F All education of importance takes place in schools.

T  F Speed in education may become hysteria easily.

T  F Because of the force of tradition the form and emphasis in psychology is much less valuable to the study of education than it might be.

T  F General psychology has emphasized too much the individual apart from the social aspects of development and interactions.

T  F Psychology has dealt too largely with the normal group of individuals and neglected the abnormal.

T  F Education is the process by which the individual learns the difficult art of adjusting his frequently discordant desires to his none too benign environment.

T  F The prevalence of charlatans, especially in psychology and the closely related fields, makes it
incumbent on students of the subject to learn to
distinguish between quackery and fact as quickly
and thoroughly as possible.

T  F Educational psychology is interesting but useless
if it is not brought into application on the
learner.

T  F The applications of educational psychology are
limited rather sharply to the school children.

T  F The analysis of psychological factors has progressed
far more rapidly than their resynthesis.

T  F An important part of educational psychology is the
technique of assisting pupils to set objectives
for themselves which they can attain and which
will be of value when attained.

T  F An important part of educational psychology is the
comprehension of pupil needs and the importance
of these needs to the pupil.

T  F Education may be defined as the means by which
society aids the individual in the process of
adjustment to the world in which he finds himself.

T  F Educational psychology is primarily a study of
school methods.

T  F Educational psychology is the application of all
known facts of mental life to the guidance and
and understanding of the activities of the child.

T  F  Unless the child continues to study school material after he leaves school, most of the values claimed for school training are lost to him.

T  F  Educational psychology should be made to include knowledge gained from any psychological source whatever.

T  F  The basis of reasonable and proper guidance remains in intelligence test results even today.

T  F  Guidance will become a science rather than remain an art.

T  F  If a child manifests certain basic abilities and tendencies during childhood, these will remain relatively dominant in his adult life.

T  F  Study of the sequences of child interests furnishes us important clues to the later fields of interests.

T  F  Enormous wastes of the energies of men exist because of the maladaptations of the individuals to their tasks.
GUIDANCE

Definition, Field of, and Need for Guidance
T F Two pupils of equal ability may face different problems in planning their educational programs.
T F Curriculum makers, specialists in methods of teaching, specialists in guidance, and others are urging the provision of educational opportunities adapted to the needs of the individual.
T F If there is little or no variation in the pupil's abilities, the importance of the type of activity is greatly lessened.
T F The lack of ability in untrained guidance workers to do constructive work has served to discredit the guidance movement in many communities.
T F Vocational guidance includes all forms of guidance and therefore all other guidance should be developed from the vocational standpoint.
T F Education is essentially and wholly an individual process.
T F Standards of good conduct never change.
T F Our schools at present are organized in such a way that all those who are best fitted to obtain an education can do so.
T F Guidance is based upon the fact that human beings need help.
T F The need for guidance is usually confined to the poor and to those who need to leave school early.

T F The vocational objective for any child is determined by the natural group in which he lives.

T F The economic depression has had little effect upon the guidance program.

T F Most persons can pursue only one occupation with a good chance of success.

T F Intelligence tests are of utmost importance in vocational guidance.

T F School subjects should reflect the social and industrial activities of the community.

T F Vocational education is the same as vocational guidance.

T F The best plan for guidance places the initiative on the child.

T F The task of guidance for any pupil ends when he secures a job.

T F The social aim of vocational life is more important than the individual one.

T F Educational guidance is too elementary a procedure for high school or college students.

T F Teachers deal too generally with knowledge and too little with activity.

T F Adjustment is not the work of the counsellor.
T F The need for guidance is greatest in the junior high school.
T F Habit formation is more important than decisions leading to educational paths.
T F Guidance should begin during pre-school years.
T F Guidance is being carried on all through the school, therefore, special counsellors are not necessary.
T F Children in many homes have training instead of guidance.
T F Pupils who plan to conduct businesses of their own do not need guidance.
T F Teachers who are antagonistic toward guidance are showing fear of something new or resentment of the examples of guidance which they have met.
T F Advisors often make problems of guidance more difficult for pupils because their advice is so hazy.
T F High school guidance should not even touch upon religious topics.
T F Without vocational guidance the pupil will be unable to select the vocation for which he is best suited.
T F Guidance is necessary in college because the requirements and the opportunities are too complicated for the student to understand thoroughly.
T F Poor guidance in the school is responsible for much
of the crime among high school pupils.

T  F  Most high schools do not furnish any form of guidance.

T  F  The term, guidance, is limited to vocation selection when the term is used correctly.

T  F  Accurate and skillful advisors are needed more than ever in the high schools because so many kinds of occupations are open to present-day pupils.

T  F  Guidance as it is done by many schools is only a fad.

T  F  Guidance is considered as only a fad by many educators of the present.

T  F  Pupils usually choose the high schools and colleges which they attend on the basis of proximity.

T  F  Educational guidance is not a problem of much significance during the elementary school period.

T  F  A pupil should make his first choice of probable career during the fifth grade.

T  F  It is desirable that the guidance person also have other non-guidance responsibilities.

T  F  There is a need for better articulation of guidance in the junior and senior colleges.

T  F  Home-room advisors are practically incapable of giving any form of guidance.

T  F  Information from a follow-up program as appraisal of the school program is desirable.
There should be supervision of initial employment as an aid to the individual.

Supervision of employment is outside of the field of guidance for schools.

Placement is hindered by the release of a large number of trainees at one time at the close of the year.

Effective counselling requires possession of information about educational and vocational conditions and about the individual being dealt with.

Parents frequently encourage inappropriate ambitions.

It is difficult to scale down a pupil's ambitions.

Predictions of success are not absolute but in terms of probability.

Individuals are equally capable in all types of activities.

The danger of improper guidance is greatest with untrained and beginning advisors.

Guidance does not relieve the pupil of responsibility for his own efforts.

Children seldom choose the occupation of their father.

Choice of vocation is an essential element in the distribution of pupils into various preparatory fields.
T F Numerous sources of information are required to give adequate understanding for guidance.

T F Exploratory courses offer an opportunity for pupils to orient themselves.

T F A systematic study of occupations is needed in guidance work.

T F Guidance is not the whole of education.

T F Supervision of instruction is a form of guidance.

T F Normal diagnosis of pupils and pupil's needs is not guidance.

T F Guidance is similar to disciplinary control or oversight of social conduct.

T F The emergence of the guidance program in the school is a logical outgrowth of forces in a democratic society.

T F Phrenology is an adequate guidance system.

T F The changing status of society has a negligible influence on the type of guidance necessary.

T F Advancing specialization makes guidance more imperative.

T F The vocational phase of guidance is a minor one.

T F Without guidance it will be impossible to attain the democratic school.

T F Guidance is one of the several essentials of a democratized secondary school.
TF The influx of youth into our secondary schools makes guidance a necessity.

TF Guidance is a fancy of educators that will pass like many other things.

TF The term guidance is synonymous with education.

TF There are many other organized agencies which are prepared to give adequate guidance beside the schools.

TF Vocational guidance is designed only to prevent wrong choices of vocations.

TF Many successful people have never had formal guidance of any kind.

TF The first requisite of guidance is motivation of the person guided.

TF A careful analysis of the needs of an individual is the first step in guidance.

TF Not intelligence alone, but the entire personality, should be evaluated in the choice of a life work.

TF Educational guidance should concern itself not only with entrance requirements for college but also with the selection of the college for entrance.

TF Beginning teachers fail more often on the personality side than on the subject-matter side of training.

TF Guidance consists of the selection of ends to be at-
tained in vocational fields rather than in the personality and emotional fields.

T F The changing status of women has made their guidance more imperative.

T F One's vocation and avocation should be integrated and differentiated.

T F The claim that placement is not primarily a school function is a plain admission that guidance is and will remain in the realm of chit-chat.

T F Vocational guidance should consider the avocational interests and abilities of the individual in order to get at the vocational interests.

T F Children need to be counselled and prepared for making emotional adjustments to life problems.

T F A child should be permitted to develop along the lines of his own personality and to shape his own destiny if this is at all possible.

T F A wise counsellor should work especially with failing pupils.

T F Guidance is most necessary for those students who leave school at the eighth grade.

T F The schools are in a strategic position for guiding young people.
T F The first job of guidance should be to find the general ability of the individual.

T F An object of vocational guidance is to teach the student that all honest labor is worthy.

T F The school should not assume responsibility for training in selection of leisure time activity.

T F The field of guidance deals with phases of life with which no subject in the curriculum is concerned.
Techniques and Sources of Guidance

T F An adviser may frequently be warranted in informing an individual that he can or cannot succeed in a given activity.

T F The distribution of scores on tests which measure the different abilities of the pupil approximate the normal curve.

T F Whenever the teacher helps the pupil in the learning process, guidance is present.

T F The home is the best social agency for guidance.

T F In the complexity of modern life, it is difficult to determine the real effects of a given act, and this is what makes right decisions so hard.

T F Conscience is an infallible guide in deciding what is right to do.

T F Each pupil is particularly fitted for one vocation and should be guided to find it.

T F Pictures and films are of little practical use in vocational guidance.

T F A child should never be permitted to fail in anything he does.

T F Actual student government is the best method of guidance in citizenship.

T F The goals toward which they point should be the con-
trolling factor$ in all acts of guidance.

T F Pupils who have no normal guidance supplement their actual knowledge of vocations considerably from their imaginations.

T F Guidance problems should be handled by the teacher who has had the most college training or who has read most widely in this field.

T F Guidance is best accomplished by a few good talks on each of the few real fields of this work.

T F A good program of school activities is an excellent form of assistance in guidance work.

T F Definite decisions about the fields which individuals should enter can be made from the results of tests now available.

T F Intelligence tests are still the best single guidance device.

T F Effective placement requires a preliminary program of guidance.

T F Working with the individual is a vital element in guidance.

T F A mental testing is usually included in a set-up of adequate guidance although it really contributes little.

T F School marks are valuable in guidance.

T F Talks by outstanding people in various occupations
often assist in a guidance program.

T F Part-time and evening continuation classes are excellent means of adult guidance.

T F There is a desirability of utilizing the life career motive in stimulating the maximum effort and performance in the work of the school.

T F Aptitude tests have become of great value in the prognosis of individual ability in specific vocations.

T F In a guidance interview, it is essential that the child should trust the counsellor and feel that he is understood.

T F If one has the ability to make a correct analysis of advisement needs he will be able to direct a successful guidance program.

T F Emotional drives are the prime factors in determining the direction of one's activities.

T F A written detailed itemized record of the individual is necessary in guidance procedure.

T F The personal interview is an important part of guidance work.

T F In an interview, the statements which are made spontaneously are generally more authentic.

T F Interviews should be used only for securing information.
T F Adequate guidance can be given only when all data which bear on the question are assembled.

T F Tests are of value only in diagnosing points of strength and weakness.

T F The greatest hope for scientific guidance lies in the use of tests.

T F Guidance information should always be comparative.

T F In the interest of guidance, a school should give several tryout courses.

T F Tests of general intelligence are the only really necessary tests to be used in guidance.

T F In any good plan of vocational guidance mental tests are always employed as an analysis of student abilities.

T F Information concerning abilities as a basis of guidance requires the use of at least two tests.

T F It is a definite function of the guidance program to assign pupils to ability groups.

Results of Guidance

T F Counseling, to be really significant, must finally eventuate in the better distribution and adjustment of individuals rather than groups.

T F Vocational choice determines what the individual reads and how he spends his leisure time.

T F Guidance helps the individual to adjust himself.
As the individual becomes more independent he becomes more progressive.  
Right conduct is determined by the effects on the action and not by the motives of the actor.  
A son usually chooses the occupation followed by his father.  
Girls' choices of occupations are more permanent than boys'.  
Try-out courses can be given in too few of the many callings to be of much practical use.  
Effective guidance will eliminate the withdrawal of pupils from school at the eighth grade.  
Guidance in school is useless unless the home cooperates.  
The principles of individual differences is overemphasized in guidance work.  
Since the school is only one of the agencies influencing the child, not much can be expected from educational or vocational guidance.  
Try-out courses are a waste of time because industrial workers do not choose their vocations.  
More students are entering colleges as a result of educational guidance.  
Educational guidance tends to make pupils too independent.  
Guidance is necessary for the physical as well as
the mental and social health of the pupils.

T F Vocational placement is the culmination of a program of guidance concerning vocations.

T F A pupil's capacity for success in his chosen field is great influence in guidance.

T F One can give adequate guidance to pupils even though school marks are not accurate.

T F Educational guidance is of no value unless the pupil is placed in activities suited to his abilities.

T F Information gained from intelligence tests enables a counselor to give some specific positive advice for guidance purposes.

T F The culmination of guidance efforts is suitable placement.

T F Exploratory short unit courses are too expensive for most schools.

T F Leadership guidance enables individuals to become student leaders.

T F Vocational maladjustments and much industrial unrest may be eradicated through more efficient guidance work.

T F Character education is primarily a matter of wise guidance.

T F Environment exerts a strong influence on the types of occupations that people enter.
T F Up to the present time guidance has been found to have little influence upon the number of failures in the various subjects.

T F There is danger in guidance that adults will so stamp their personalities upon the student that he will not develop naturally.

T F If a child is under a thorough system of guidance from his first year in school, no remedial or corrective work will be necessary with him.

T F An adequate program of guidance should aim to relieve the pupil of responsibility for making his own plans.
HEREDITY - MENTAL

T F The problem of mental inheritance is no longer a question of fact but of degree.

T F The increase of I.Q. of the orphan children of Freeman's study was due to an increase in the potential ability.

T F Freeman's study of foster children showed clearly that adoption of children into homes from orphan's homes increased their intelligence noticeably.

T F Terman's study of foster children showed that the foster children resembled their foster parents more than their true parents if they had been adopted as long as five years.

T F Children of the same parents are usually more nearly similar mentally than they are physically.

T F The distribution of mental traits shows that abilities range without break from the lowest to the highest.

T F Pupils of the same parents tend to vary around the central tendency of their ancestors in mental ability.

T F Men gifted with high abilities rise easily through all obstacles caused by inferiority of social rank.
T F Men of advantageous social position can achieve eminence without an endowment of high natural gifts.

T F Wood's study of royalty supports Galton's law of parental inheritance.

T F The story of the Jukes is unique in the United States, and other countries and could be duplicated with difficulty if at all.

T F Personal ability determines the environment more often than environment determines the ability of the persons born in it.

T F The coefficient of correlation between pairs of unrelated and unselected persons for resemblance in both physical and mental traits is about plus .30.

T F The coefficient of correlation among brothers and sisters in personality traits is about zero.

T F Siblings resemble each other more in factors that are affected by school training than in factors which are not affected by school training.

T F Children of the same family hold about the same rank in school marks in comparison with the other children in the school.

T F Equal opportunities for all people would produce equal abilities for all.
A startling fact about the most noted men of the world's history is their relatively mediocre estimated I.Q.'s.

Much that parents have acquired in psychological fields during their lifetimes is transmitted to their young—in addition to that transmitted over the generations through the germ cells.

Not only is general capacity for development but actual ability in specific fields of interest known to be inherited.

No neural pathways that are sufficiently extended and connected to be ready to act are found in the newly-born child.

It is not conceded that general mental ability is inherited, even by all psychologists.

Enough scientific observation has been recorded to show that traits appearing in children after their birth are almost wholly learned.

Resemblance in mental traits is in direct proportion to the degree of blood relationship.

The fact that mental weakness appears in successive generations in the same line of inheritance is a valid indication of the influence of heredity.

Definite and fixed hereditary limits are established with the union of the sperm and egg cells to produce
the zygote.

T  F  Environment, whether prenatal or postnatal, is never the same at any two times.

T  F  Individual mental inheritance is not sharply distinguished from social inheritance.

T  F  Heredity is the tendency for an embryo to resemble its forbears.

T  F  Mental heredity is little influenced by factors such as type of nourishment, amount of glandular secretions, disease, and infections.

T  F  Germ cells called genes which are the aggregate components of chromosomes, determine individual characteristics.

T  F  Heredity may be modified through experimental alteration of the genes.

T  F  The structures determining behavior include the nervous system, the sense organs, the muscles, and the glands.

T  F  The physical basis of all education lies in the nervous system.

T  F  The activity and the contents of the higher centers of our nervous systems are determined entirely by heredity.

T  F  The sensory, motor, and connecting neurones are all identical in structure.
T F The size of the brain is an important factor in intelligence.

T F The resistance of the neural synapses determines the ease of new learning.

T F The plasticity of the synapse is determined by both heredity and environment.

T F Honesty is a mental quality having a focalized location in the brain center.

T F The native equipment of the human race is universal, when considered from the standpoint of gross structure.

T F In a democratic nation we are all born free and with equal composite mental abilities.

T F The existence of individual differences was not realized until 1905 when Binet and Simon introduced their measuring device.

T F There are yet schools of psychology which believe the differences between individuals to be entirely the result of environment and training.

T F It is possible to rear two children under identical conditions of environment in the home.

T F The coefficient of relationship of both mental and physical traits of brothers and sisters is very high.

T F Feeblemindedness is a unit character of the dominant
type.

T  F  It is hereditarily impossible for a child of superior abilities to be born into a family all of whom are of inferior ability.

T  F  Men who are largely aided by social advantages almost always achieve eminence.

T  F  The predetermined differences in the primary germ-cells largely make for a wide range of intelligence.

T  F  The resemblance in physical characteristics among brothers and sisters has a correlation coefficient of about .50.

T  F  The first and second children of a family have a closer correlation of mental abilities than either has to the third child of the family.

T  F  Identical twins have a closer correlation of mental characteristics than have fraternal twins.

T  F  The more gifted pupil profits less through classroom work than the less gifted pupil.

T  F  Country life, by and of itself, is more productive of ability than city life.

T  F  We can distinguish readily, by means of our present testing procedures, between native and environmental influences as determiners of individual capacities.

T  F  The present system which has the immigration office
uses in measuring the intelligence of prospective immigrants does not show fairness to these people.

T  F Intelligence and native ability are more important than training in a specific field.

T  F The specific test method of measuring intelligence gives greater scientific promise than the Binet Test.

T  F The most fundamental general principle of heredity is that "Like begets like."

T  F Variations do occur in all laws of mental heredity.

T  F According to the theory of ancestral inheritance, the two parents contribute only one-half of the inherited abilities to their children.

T  F The I.Q.'s of some 70% of school children will not be altered more than 6 to 9 points through a change in their environment.

T  F In dealing with the child in the school, the two factors of heredity and environment should be treated as two distinctly different influences.

T  F A person of comparatively low intelligence can become a very satisfactory street car operator through careful training.

T  F There is no question but that some kinds of feeblemindedness, epilepsy, and insanity are inherited.
T F Heredity seems to have little influence in determining nervous and phlegmatic temperaments or judicial and calculating temperaments.

T F Laziness in some persons is due to inheritance and cannot be cured.

T F The wandering instinct is a fundamental instinct and is typically inhibited in intelligent adults among civilized peoples.

T F Sons are nomads only when their mothers belong to nomadic stock.

T F In marriage selection, it is quite certain that unconscious temperament plays an important part.

T F Our actual personalities are determined in the germ cell.

T F Genius is rarely associated with an unsuitable nervous organization which sometimes takes the form of insanity, epilepsy, or alcoholism.

T F The tendency to moral obliquity or rectitude seems to be inherited.

T F Neurasthenia seems to be more clearly determined by inheritance than either hysteria or psychosthenia is.

T F The fatalistic attitude has had great influence in retarding remedial measures for mental disease.

T F General paresis in the organic group is not pre-
veritable in any way.

T F The psychiatrist is more concerned with heredity than finding the facts of causation.

T F It has been found that eminent men listed in the biographical dictionaries are related as one in five.

T F It is estimated that one per cent of the population of the country is as likely to produce a genius as the other 99%.

T F The intelligence of the Germanic stock is, on the average, markedly superior to the South European.

T F The intelligence of children of professional parentage is about on the same level as that of the children of skilled laborers.

T F The differences of abilities shown by children correspond in a large measure with the statuses of their parents.

T F The Wedgewood-Dalton-Darwin family is an example of the inheritance of superior traits.

T F Age is an important factor in studying the likenesses of mental traits in twins.
imagery

T F Sooner or later the forms of behavior which one continues to image will become a reality.

T F Thinking cannot go on without the intervention of imagery.

T F We shorten the process of thinking by allowing a single image to stand for all the individual images.

T F A highly productive imagination must have a broad basis of perception to draw from.

T F A person who has always been blind may have visual imagery.

T F A hallucination is an image taken for a sensation.

T F Feelings and emotion are impossible without imagery.

T F Thought and imagery are mutually stimulating.

T F Imagery may bring about feelings and moods that cannot be accounted for directly.

T F The imagery of a small child is often very inaccurate.

T F It is possible to recall facts without visual imagery.

T F An image may be as satifying as an actual sensation.

T F Individuals differ in the vividness or realism of their memory images.

T F A sensation or a group of sensations recalled by a
substitute stimulus is called a mental image or a memory image.

T F Images are revived experiences essential to memory.

T F The revival of imagery reduces the mental grasp and hinders comprehension.

T F Without the revival of imagery there could be no consistency and uniformity in the motor responses and hence no ultimate mechanism in the form of habit.

T F The visual imagery of a six-months old child may result in the use of body, head, eye, arm, hand, and finger reflexes.

T F Images of reproduced words are primarily those which the subject prefers to use and are only secondarily influenced by the mode of presentation.

T F The imagery of persons on a witness stand is highly reliable.

T F When images are present in thinking or other mental processes, they function as symbols only.

T F As soon as meanings become clearly defined and ideas proceed smoothly, images tend to appear in the focus of consciousness.

T F Poetry containing much imagery is not necessarily easier for a pupil to learn than one devoid of
images.

T F Emotional re-awakening is frequently mistaken for imagery.

T F Vividness and clearness of images can be improved by practice.

T F Children with the most fertile imagery have the highest intelligence.

T F Children frequently project themselves into their own imagery.

T F There is no kinaesthetic image apart from its use.

T F The reason that an insane person frequently has hallucinations is because of highly developed imagery due to emotional tension.

T F A person who can recall visual images will prefer drawing and geometry.

T F Children who predominantly visualize may be somewhat slower, but they are far more accurate.

T F Images of things are often aids to knowledge and sources of much pleasure.

T F There is a close correlation between the imagery of one sense and that of other senses.

T F It can be definitely determined that a cat is lacking in imagery.

T F A man solves a problem through the use of images
while a cat used trial and errors.

T  F  The visual response may be held over after the stimulus is removed.

T  F  Frequency of recall is a basis of good imagery.

T  F  A rich imagery in all the senses is a valuable asset educationally.

T  F  Individuals with well developed auditory imagery is likely to have vivid visual imagery.

T  F  A hallucination is a memory image taken for a present objective fact.

T  F  It is impossible to have images of abstract ideas.

T  F  Training may change an inherited memory type.

T  F  Motor activity is made possible through imagery.

T  F  Musical ability probably depends upon the possession of auditory imagery.

T  F  Eidetic imagery is subjective rather than strictly photographic.

T  F  Verbal imagery is rare.

T  F  Imperfect attention at the time of perception causes the image to be imperfect.

T  F  Individual may be so absorbed in his own fears or desires that images become real to him.

T  F  A large proportion of adults are eidetic, that is, have eidetic images.

T  F  An image may be confused with actual sensation.
T F A memory image usually fits into the objective situation present to the senses.

T F An eidetic image is recalled from a state of retention by some cue or stimulus.

T F A primary memory image differs from a recall memory image in presenting more sensatory detail and permitting details to be observed that were not observed during the actual sensation.

T F An eidetic image is a primary memory image, or an "echo," persisting a short time after the stimulus has ceased.

T F One can observe facts in a memory image that were not observed in the actual presence of a thing.

T F Most images are as real as the actual sensory experience.

T F A visual image may cause the mouth to "water".

T F It is usual for a person to have images of a certain sense.

T F All thinking is in terms of a reinstatement of some movement.

T F It is possible to have only a kinesthetic image of a fact.

T F Any sort of fact that can be observed can be recognized later, or recalled, when a cue is given.

T F There are two major forms of imagery, verbal and con-
T  F  Mental images are recalled sensations.
T  F  Imagery bears little relationship to memory or to thought.
T  F  One may have visual, auditory, and kinesthetic imagery at the same time.
T  F  Situations which have been observed through the eyes must return in the form of visual imagery.
T  F  One individual's images of different groups of objects and situations are usually about equally vivid.
T  F  Images are about as vivid and as frequent in one person as in another.
T  F  Images may be defined as mental photographic imprints.
T  F  Many images are composites of specific objects or situations.
T  F  Simple brooding in one's imagination can hardly bring about any creative discovery.
T  F  Imagery is more vivid among children than among adults because the adults have repressed their imagery as a weakness.
T  F  Vivid images return oftener and last longer than ordinary images.
T  F  In teaching, stimuli should be arranged to appeal
to several departments if possible.

T F The predominance of one sort of imagery to the virtual exclusion of all others in the thinking process is the exception rather than the rule.

T F In childhood, the proportion of visual images is greater than at any time in the life of the individual.

T F Random imagination may serve as a substitute for creative activity.

T F Thinking can, and does, go on without the intervention of imagery.

T F The function of teaching is to replace as rapidly as possible the more cumbersome/object imagery with word imagery.

T F Imagery is often accompanied by emotion or feelings.

T F Auditory stimuli are seldom capable of arousing visual imagery.

T F All persons possess all types of imagery in equal proportions.

T F The classifications of persons into visiles, motiles, and audiles is fundamentally misleading and incorrect.

T F Imagery may serve as a familiar background for, but cannot be said to be essential to, meaning.

T F Each individual has his own favorite type of imagery.

T F Children are often unable to distinguish between per-
cepts and images.

T F The concreteness of the imagery increases with the age of the individual.

T F The importance of imagery in learning is over-emphasized at the present time.

T F Without very thorough analysis most people are unable to name their predominant imagery types correctly.

T F Vivid imagery seems to be very important in valuable incidental practice.

T F Several imagery departments usually contribute to the recall of a situation or object.

T F The imagery department in which material is recalled varies with the economy of effort in each situation.

T F The sensory department to which material to be learned is presented influences greatly the degree of retention.

T F Material which is to be learned, should, as a rule, be presented through several sensory departments but not simultaneously.

T F The sensory department in which material to be learned is received determines the type of imagery in which it must be recalled.

T F Persons of pure imagery types are found rarely.
T  F  All material to be learned should be presented in one particular sense department in the cases of certain special but normal individuals.

T  F  The imagery and sensory department in which material to be learned is presented influences the retention of that material greatly.
INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Variation in human capacities - Correlations in human capacities

T F Every organism has characteristics which distinguish it from every other member of the species.

T F Individuality is expressed by even rate of heart beat, speed of digestion, or physical endurance.

T F Individuality is as greatly pronounced in the lower animals as in the human.

T F Educational psychology deals only with the extent, causes, and significance of individual differences.

T F Environment and training, like nature, tends to distribute acquired traits along a normal distribution.

T F Any classification of persons into types is essentially arbitrary.

T F Individual variations can all be classed under the following general divisions: race, sex, family, age, environmental, and educational.

T F There is but little evidence of superiority of one race over another.

T F Sex and race differences are much less than is commonly supposed.
T  F  Environment can destroy inherent tendencies in man.
T  F  Intellectual ability and emotional stability are positively associated.
T  F  The average man is hypothetical.
T  F  The school should have a diversity in its objectives and methods comparable with the diversity in human nature.
T  F  Individuals differ in the general processes of reasoning.
T  F  Differences between races are chiefly linguistic.
T  F  The school is interested in children's mental differences only.
T  F  Hereditary influences are due to dominant and recessive characteristics.
T  F  The intellectual differences in individuals are due to the size and number of the brain cells.
T  F  Food habits have no effect on the mental development.
T  F  Children differ in emotional stability.
T  F  The teacher should vary instruction to fit individual needs.
T  F  Individual differences are purely physical.
T  F  Environment is the greatest factor in causing individual differences.
T  F  Children differ in emotional stability.
T  F  There is no definite relation between intelligence
and crime.

T  F  The social standing of the family does not affect the individual emotionally.

T  F  Adjustment of sex differences is a most difficult problem in planning education.

T  F  Specialization in various fields is possible because of individual differences.

T  F  Differences in capacity for education vary widely.

T  F  Pupils with high mathematical abilities are always high in language abilities.

T  F  Too many pupils leave school early because no adjustment has been made for individual differences.

T  F  Personality traits vary less than intellectual traits in individuals.

T  F  Differences in the characteristics of blood help in the detention of crime.

T  F  Sub-normal people have a different "look."

T  F  Finger prints are useful because of the infallibility of the theory of individual differences.

T  F  The differences between feeble-minded persons and others are quantitative but not qualitative.

T  F  Boys learn faster than girls.

T  F  Environment is as great a factor in determining growth as heredity.

T  F  Practice in any function increases individual
differences.

T  F  Differences between members of a social group are
greater than differences between different members
of the same group.

T  F  Differences in speed of responses indicate differences
in mental ability.

T  F  The higher mental capacities are, on the whole, close-
ly correlated.

T  F  A negative correlation exists among abilities in
school subjects.

T  F  Handwriting has no correlation with intelligence.

T  F  Tests do not measure native intelligence entirely
apart from environmental influences.

T  F  Children from well-to-do families usually mature
earlier than others.

T  F  Because a person is poor in mathematics, one has a
right to say that the person will make a very in-
efficient statistician.

T  F  One who is good at thinking things out usually does
not have much manual dexterity.

T  F  A student of engineering is seldom capable of being
a good student of English.

T  F  Knowing only the average ratings of a child on 24
traits, one could predict roughly what his I.Q.
would be.
T  F  The correlation of obedience, unselfishness, and emotional self control with intelligence is low.

T  F  The correlation of social adaptability with intelligence is high.

T  F  Bright children tend to be socially queer or social outcasts.

T  F  A sense of humor usually shows a high correlation with intelligence.

T  F  Persistence has a positive correlation with intelligence.

T  F  Power to give sustained attention shows little correlation with intelligence.

T  F  Heredity causes differences as well as likenesses.

T  F  The Dalton and Winetka plans were inaugurated to adapt school work to individual needs and abilities.

T  F  Brothers and sisters are usually more like each other than they are like either parent.

T  F  Superior mental functions are definitely related to healthy bodily functions.

T  F  Stature or body size is entirely the resultant of the balance between the functions of the glands of internal secretion.

T  F  Specific types of mental disturbances are associated with specific brain areas.

T  F  At the time a child enters school the limits of his
mental development have been determined.

T  F  Size, form, and proportions of the body have no effect upon the psychic behavior of the individual.

T  F  The endocrine secretions have a great influence both upon the normal growth and the normal functioning of the brain.

T  F  Abstract intelligence implies a broadly adaptive capacity for learning.

T  F  Innate and learned motor activities take the form of habits and skills.

T  F  Acquired reactions are built up through modification of the reflexes and instincts.

T  F  The ease and rapidity of memory work depends upon the formation of new associative connections.

T  F  Sensory capacities depend on the quality of the structure of the end organ, plus the quality of the connecting fibers.

T  F  Motor capacities are known to be practically all hereditary.

T  F  The degree of reflex actions to noises of the same frequency is fairly constant in all individuals.

T  F  The extent to which man produces artificial changes in his environment is an index to his intelligence.

T  F  Differences among humans are qualitative rather than quantitative.
T F All known differences in human beings follow the curve of normal distribution.

T F Practice increases the differences in performance of the poorest and the best initial performers on a simple task.

T F Practice increases the differences in performance of the poorest and best initial performance on a complex task.

T F Differences in ability in school subjects are usually due to training more than to heredity.

T F In many schools the poorest pupils in the eighth grade were found to be equal to performance only to the best pupils in the third grade. (Ayres)

T F The best pupil in a subject was found to be twenty-five times as good as the poorest pupil in that subject in the same grade. (Ayres)

T F Any trait varies over an enormously large range among the members of the human race.

T F Equal amounts of practice tend to increase differences in skill and achievement rather than to decrease them.

T F Modern psychology has shown that individual differences are almost startlingly larger than they were believed to be earlier.

T F In comparison with heredity, maturity and environ-
ment play only a small part in producing individual differences.

T  F  Absolute freedom of electives in high school is justifiable on the basis of variation in combinations of capacities in the different pupils.

T  F  An individual's abilities are rarely in similar combinations at different periods of his life.

T  F  There is no satisfactory list of individual differences at the present time.

T  F  Opportunity rooms should be maintained to teach the manual skills to the dull children or those who do not do well in the academic subjects.

T  F  Those who are destined to achieve distinction and success usually begin to do so at an early age.

T  F  Lack of just one of the basic factors of achievement or distinction would not bring about failure even though the lack was extensive.

T  F  Individual differences grow more pronounced as the child grows older, no matter what the environment may be.

T  F  It is true that ability "runs in families."

T  F  Binet found that girls from 5 to 20 years of age are slightly superior to boys of the same ages.

T  F  About 60% of the best pupils of a grade could be exchanged for a like per cent of the poorest pupils.
of the next higher grade without much change in class ability.

T F The thyroid gland is a direct factor causing individual differences.

T F Heredity determines to what extent the limits of development are reached.

T F People having a common heredity are alike in physical traits.

T F An individual who is above average in one trait must be below average in another.

T F Bright children tend to be below average in physical efficiency.

T F There is slight difference in the innate mental capacities of the sexes.

T F Superior children are socially unusual or abnormal.

T F A dull child may show a marked ability along certain lines.

T F There is considerable difference between the mentalities native to the various races.

T F Individual effort is a factor causing individual differences.

T F There is less individual difference in high school than in grade school.

T F Superiority of the Nordic stock in mental ability is due to environment rather than to heredity.
There is a high correlation between mental abilities and the physiological age of children.

Supervised study is a desirable means of meeting individual differences.

To meet individual differences, a flexible program is essential.

The use of achievement tests has helped to solve the problems of individual differences.

Individuals differ considerably in their native tastes and more in their acquired tastes.

A liking for sweets and fragrant odors is native.

A liking for lemonade, black coffee, or olives is acquired.

A liking for bright colors is native.

Self-assertion may find play in a group through domination of others and resisting of domination from others.

Thwarted self-assertion accounts for many of the dislikes that develop between members of a group.

Red-green colorblindness is present in 5 to 10% of men.

Man is only relatively an intelligent animal.

Brightness or dullness can be measured by the intelligence quotient.
T F Two-thirds of all people are "common people."

T F A child is seldom more mature in some things than in others at a given age.

T F Development of human abilities commonly proceeds at the pace at which it starts.

T F Superior organisms on the whole, continue to develop for a longer period of time than average or inferior organisms.

T F Those individuals who are destined to be superior seldom show their superiority until they are near the age of puberty.

T F The brightest child in a class is likely to be the smallest child in the class.

T F Children as a whole are more likely to be alike in physical structure and motor ability than in intelligence.

T F Early abilities are predictive of later abilities.

T F When initial differences of mental ability are large, the effect of equal training is to reduce them.

T F Human development moves gradually rather than by leaps and bounds.

T F Capacity sets the limits of achievement.

T F In some lines of work, total output is decreased by the addition of more intelligent workers.

T F Talents for drawing and music show little relation to
ability in general.

T F Actual capacities result from the qualities of the organism.

T F The inheritance of mental traits conforms to Mendel's law to the same degree that eye color does.

T F The variations in capacities in school subjects are probable due to native ability.

T F By proper promotion and classification, one pupil in every nine could save two years in eight in school.

T F Occasionally an individual shows a wide variation from his own average such as a special aptitude for mathematics.

T F Specialization of capacities seems to appear in much the same way as intelligence.

T F Gaps between capacity and achievement can be eliminated by proficiency in instruction.

T F The capacity to learn and retain develops gradually from birth to maturity.

T F Variations in mental traits seem to occur according to the law of chance.

T F There seems to be less variation in writing quality than in mathematical reasoning.

T F Child prodigies are generally specialized in one mental trait.

T F There are more instinctive actions in man than in the
lower animals.
T  F  Taken as separate groups, the deviation from the central tendency in intelligence is equal in men and women.
T  F  Environmental influences are of minor concern in determining the individual's mode of response and performance.
T  F  Smell and taste are relatively unimportant senses from the educational point of view.
T  F  If a person can distinguish any colors at all, he can distinguish red.
T  F  Individuals differ in respect to every human trait.
T  F  Mentally superior children are, as a group, physically superior.
T  F  Girls' and boys' growth curves are parallel.
T  F  Adolescence begins at twelve and ends at twenty, thus covering the "teens."
T  F  Gregariousness causes boys to seek the company of the opposite sex.
T  F  Boys and girls enter the adolescent period at practically the same age.
T  F  Physical maturity is evidence of mental maturity.
T  F  Western children as a group write poorer compositions than Eastern children as a group.
T  F  A very small percentage of secondary school pupils
have physical handicaps.

T  F  Physical disabilities and emotional disorders are quite often associated.

T  F  The Winetka Plan is designed to care for individual differences.

T  F  Health education must deal with individual differences if it is to meet its objectives.

T  F  People are justified in saying that they have no capacity for learning arithmetic.

T  F  Differences in appreciation and discrimination are not thought of as individual differences.

T  F  The longer formative period of learning in boys serves to endow them with greater and richer stores of accumulated knowledge than girls have.

T  F  The formative period or time for increasing the rich store of knowledge and experiences is shorter in women than in men.

T  F  To be efficient, education should take into consideration the nature of individuals.

T  F  Dexterity in the pursuit of foreign languages insures a corresponding amount of success in English.

T  F  One who is interested in science must have a liking for mathematics.

T  F  Two individuals will react identically to the same stimulus.
CORRELATION OF HUMAN TRAITS

T F It has been quite conclusively proven that there is a correlation between genius and functional insanity.

T F If the individuals who rank high in one trait rank low in the other, there is no correlation.

T F Genetic psychology is made up of studies of the peculiarities and abnormalities of humans.

T F There are few, if any, grounds for the assumption that there are antagonisms among the moral traits.

T F The normal curve of distribution shows the frequency with which each amount or strength of a given trait occurs in a given group of individuals.

T F Variations in psychological and biological traits occur according to the law of compensation.

T F It has been demonstrated definitely that there is a close correlation between good rote memory and good judgment.

T F Marked negative correlations exist among the abilities involved in school subjects.

T F The sensory capacities of an individual are closely correlated.

T F Antagonisms do not exist among desirable and useful mental traits.
T F Correlations among traits of different levels are higher than among traits of the same level.

T F The similarity of siblings are shown by means of correlations of abilities and achievements.

T F A correlation of -.20 means that a high rank in one of the traits is usually accompanied by a high rank in the other trait correlated.

T F The correlations among sensory and motor reactions are much larger than those among mental reactions.

T F The range and the mean are the same thing.

T F The correlation of psychological traits among siblings is about .50.

T F The correlations of mental traits among siblings is about -.55.

T F Measurement of human traits usually proceeds from zero by arbitrarily established steps.

T F The low coefficients of correlation found among the various classroom subjects in early studies is due almost entirely to the operation of the law of compensation.

T F A high degree of mechanical ability is usually accompanied by a narrowly average degree of general intelligence.

T F The correlation between general intelligence and special mental abilities is high because of the
part-to-whole relationship.

T F Interpretation of correlation coefficients is not difficult if one has worked out the coefficient himself.

T F Correlations among results of laboratory experiments are usually low and in frequent disagreement in the results of different investigators.

T F Human nature is not a medley of capricious capacities which vary from year to year but is a fairly consistent combination of abilities that endure throughout the life of the individual.

T F Correlation is a measure of the relationship between two traits in the same group of individuals.

T F Perfect negative correlation means that the individuals have exactly the same rank in each of the two traits.

T F If a correlation is to be measured accurately, the tests should be repeated several times under all sorts of conditions.

T F There is a low correlation between the immediate retention for disconnected materials and the ability to learn connected material.

T F Research has shown quite certainly that the higher mental capacities are, on the whole, rather closely correlated.
TF Intellectual and scholastic abilities are for the most part not closely correlated.

TF Each person possesses more or less of all different traits.

TF In adults, the correlations of mental abilities and physical characteristics are very high.

TF Correlations that have been made between ability in two traits have shown that negative correlations are seldom found.

TF Desirable traits are, for the most part, positively correlated.

TF The relations of traits differ in individuals as truly as do the amounts of a trait.

TF All brilliant people are emotionally stable.

TF Correlation rather than compensation is the rule throughout all forms of mental ability.

TF The heterogenity of the groups compared makes little difference in the interpretation of their correlation indices.

TF There is a strong tendency for a strong intellectual tendency to be associated with a superiority along other lines.

TF In judging human traits we tend to underestimate the brilliant and overestimate those of low mentality.

TF The development of abilities is gradual.
T  F  Differences which seem to exist in abilities are often explainable in terms of interest.

T  F  Males have a greater spread of abilities than females.
DISTINCTS

General and Introductory Items

T  F  Certain mental processes such as memory begin their development earlier than other mental processes such as reasoning.

T  F  In order to be logical, the elementary schools should base their curriculum on the meeting of the primal needs of the race in the order of the development of the ability of the race to meet these needs.

T  F  Fear is always acquired.

T  F  Emotions must have outlets always.

T  F  Original tendencies may persist for different lengths of time after their appearance.

T  F  Dislike for bitter substances is instinctive.

T  F  Anger is apparently satisfying.

T  F  Tendencies to fight are developed and learned after a person associates right from wrong.

T  F  Fear is the strongest instinct we have.

T  F  Metabolic toxins are constant factors in diverting our instincts.

T  F  Stimulants and drugs have a manner of diverting the instincts.

T  F  Pain may be present in a satisfying instinctive situation.

T  F  The animal has as many primary instincts as the human.
A redirection of instinctive tendencies often averts a calamity for an individual.

Experiments and statistics show that the strength of various traits is fairly constant throughout life.

Behaviorists regard instincts as precise and machine-like, few in number, and as being exhibited in their purity only in infants.

The number of instincts and the amount of learning involved in their activity is a matter of debate.

An instinct may be defined from the neurological side as an inborn neural connection between sense organ and muscle.

Impressions need not occupy the focus of consciousness in order to be learned effectively.

The energizing power of instinct makes itself felt largely through its control of the attention processes.

There can be no education without the instinctive and emotional activity of the child himself.

Mental capacities are generally more directly and concretely involved in acquisition of knowledge and skill in school subjects than instincts.

We can draw no sharp line between learning and instinct.

Skilled movements are combinations and specializations
of unlearned movements.

T F All learned activities develop out of unlearned behavior.

T F Instinct depends upon previous learning.

T F The individual cannot separate himself entirely from the past because of the nature of his organic structure which is the result of biological adaptation.

T F The fact that infants in all countries learn about the same things at about the same ages disproves the tabula rasa theory.

T F A teacher should try to arrange her materials in an order similar to that in which the children's interest in them appears.

T F The more instinctive an act is, the more emotion it is likely to develop.

T F Instincts do not operate perfectly without learning.

T F There is modification from instinct to acquired habit when consciousness of purpose enters into an act.

T F No other animal is so dominated by his instincts as man.

T F When the environment ceases to make demands upon intelligence the mental functions deteriorate and leave the control of the organism to the instincts.

T F The acquired elements in character are formed under
the dominance of the instincts.

T  F  Finitity of instinct is a statistical rather than an individual fact.

T  F  The instincts which man possesses are too elementary and too biological to be primarily determinative of his social adjustments.

T  F  Without instinct, social conditions would be so disorganized that we could not perceive society as a logical whole.

T  F  Instinct patterns must be inherited.

T  F  Instinctive tendencies involve only a single reaction system.

T  F  Learning is an important factor in the responses which replace purely instinctive reactions.

T  F  The native tendencies of a person are the origin of his effort or the springs of his action.

T  F  The inherited equipment of the human being is the foundation upon which education must be built.

T  F  The dam theory of instinctive energy is now more of an explanation of the arousal of interest and curiosity.

T  F  The basic instinctive forces may be modified by learning.

T  F  The theory of infallibility of the instincts to guide human conduct is based on the age-old
experimentation and selection by nature and the retention of what is best.

T F The emotional response to a suddenly appearing situation may be quite different from the response had the situation been anticipated.

T F The strength of the emotion varies directly with the degree of difficulty necessary to overcome the obstacle causing it.

T F Desires or instinctive manifestations are almost constant in the same individual over a period of time.

T F Desires vary according to the individual rather than according to some abstract scale of importance.

T F Emotions vary according to the strength of the thwarted desire.

T F Instincts may be defined as combinations of congenital responses unfolding serially under appropriate stimulation.

T F Heredity sets a lower as well as an upper limit to achievement.

T F Belief in the unrevivability of instincts was fostered by the timidity of older people in entering competition with younger people who had acquired greater proficiency through practice.

T F The unrevivability of instincts because of disuse means the unwillingness of the individual to under-
go the period of practice necessary to achieve the proficiency desired.

T F Instincts should be regarded as specific tendencies rather than as general responses or tendencies to achieve certain ends.

T F If a child manifests certain instincts strongly, these instincts will be relatively dominant throughout life.

T F All of the instincts are present in the infant, either actually manifested or potentially.

T F Competition in the classroom is entirely out of place.

T F The belief that there is only one dominant instinct is only a matter of definition.

T F Where there is a conflict between the instincts and the social organization, the social organization should be examined carefully to see if it is at fault.

T F Large or sudden modifications of the instinctive behavior usually produce personality difficulties.

T F If an instinct once disappears from observable manifestation, it is lost irretrievably.

T F Each instinctive tendency has its influence in favoring some lines of activity and opposing others.

T F Instincts are not always ready to act.

T F Instincts may be thwarted by acquired habits, ideals,
beliefs, and conventions.

T F An instinct may be prevented from acting for some time without causing any annoyance.

T F Individuals differ greatly in the degree to which they are annoyed by the thwarting of their wants.

Recapitulation, Catharsis, Culture Epochs.

T F Each instinct has its time for maturing.

T F Facts seem to indicate that recapitulation takes place almost wholly after birth.

T F Primitive tribes in the human race have progressed uniformly through the distinct cultural epochs.

T F Hall's contention that man never plays anything racially new is, according to common observation, true.

T F The child, in his play, goes through at certain ages, the animal, savage, nomad, agricultural and tribal life stages.

T F The functional recapitulation has ceased long before the child begins his education.

T F Recapitulation accounts for the development of the animal organisms in the later stages of their growth.

T F The fact that infants in all countries first express about the same desires at the same ages disproves the theory of recapitulation.
T F The theory of recapitulation is almost entirely one of anatomical development.

T F Whether the life cycle of the individual repeats in miniature the life cycle of the race or whether it is the recurrence of an order of development which has been repeated in all individuals from the beginning is a specious question.

T F The recapitulation theory of instincts is useful if it is not refined too thoroughly.

T F The theory of recapitulation applies only to changes that occur in the anatomical structure of the individual.

T F The facts that a boy will dig a cave, shoot a bow, and work on a radio during the same day is a refutation of the theory of recapitulation of instincts.

T F The theory of recapitulation of instincts has no value as an educational concept.

T F The theory of recapitulation of instincts applies to changes which occur before birth only.

T F All of the demonstrations of recapitulation occur before birth.

T F Advocates of the saltatory theory of instinct development depend principally on questionnaires for their data.
T F The theory of catharsis of instincts is supported by the principal of overestimation of importance of acts or objects about which there is unsatisfied curiosity.

T F The theory of catharsis of instincts runs counter to the laws of habit formation.

T F The theory of catharsis of instincts was developed as a result of faulty observation.

T F The theory of catharsis of instincts confirms the law of habit formation.

T F The culture epochs of the individual follow about exactly the culture epochs of the race.

T F The culture epochs theory is the educational application of the theory of recapitulation.

T F Since primitive society was much simpler than our present civilization, the young can comprehend simple concepts before he can more complex ones—and this gives consideration to the culture epochs theory.

T F The culture epochs theory teaches "teach the child his activities in the order in which his interests in them appear."

T F The culture epochs theory advocates the belief that the various periods and interests of childhood have no functional or organic connection with the
present.

T F Even though the child and the race are each keys to the culture epochs of the other, the utility of many of the racial trends is obsolete for the child.

T F The utility theory expresses the belief that only those behavior characteristics which have proved useful to the race have been preserved in the individual.

T F When more research on the order of appearance of interests has been completed, the culture epochs theory will again assume its rightful importance.

T F Present day education is built around the culture epoch theory.

Reflexes and Manifestations of Instincts

T F There is an original blind tendency to take portable objects to one's habitation.

T F Walking is instinctive.

T F Various small animals are able to swim at birth due to instinctive tendencies.

T F The simple reaction of the knee-jerk is a common instinct.

T F Activities often operate without any connections with native tendencies.

T F Psychoanalysts regard instincts as vague and con-
stantly changing in their motor aspect.

T F The present concept of instincts is to regard them as specific responses with inherited neural mechanisms which will be set to action by specific stimuli or situations.

T F Instincts may be aroused by either internal or external stimulation.

T F An instinctive act may involve the whole muscular system of the body.

T F A reflex reaction is more simple than an instinctive reaction.

T F The difference between instincts and reflexes is largely a difference in complexity.

T F Instinctive reactions are performed without any effort on the part of the individual.

T F Many activities take place which do not depend upon native tendencies.

T F Perhaps the most important role of instinct in education lies in motivating and energizing the learning processes.

T F The instinctive elements in learning a school subject are seldom simple reflex actions or undeveloped connections.

T F All instincts may be thought of as basic motives to action, even when the action itself is unlearned.
T F Such responses as breathing, swallowing, coughing, and sneezing are spoken of as instinctive.
T F Few of man's action patterns conform to the typical instinct reaction pattern.
T F Instinctive performance does not adapt itself to its surroundings.
T F Instincts can be made to appear very stupid when conditions are made abnormal.
T F The spider's web is a beautiful example of instinctive action.
T F In a succession of instinctive actions, the completion of each activity sets the next one off.
T F Some of the clearest examples of complex reactions are found in the instincts.
T F Play is not the result of biological inheritance.
T F A reflex involves only one set of muscles.
T F The differences between the reflexes and the instincts are complexity and emotional attachment.
T F The tendency to self-preservation embraces every act possible to the organism.
T F The maternal instinct is one of the strongest in any organism.
T F Every instinctive action is known to be purposeful.
T F If modified, an instinct operates independently of voluntary control and without foresight of ends.
T F Instinctive responses are qualified by the structure and organization of the organism.

T F Walking is not usually listed as a type of instinctive behavior.

T F There is no sharp line of demarcation between reflexes and instincts.

T F Instinctive responses differ from reflex acts in being more complex and in having characteristic emotional accompaniments.

T F An instinct is a basic motive to action.

T F Locke's tabula rasa theory states that all of the instincts are potentially or actually present as powerful forces in the new-born infant.

T F The development of learned behavior out of instinctive behavior is often so gradual as to be at present at least indistinguishable.

T F As long as one's desires find a reasonably prompt satisfaction, not their attainment alone but the activity involved in their attainment promotes a feeling of well-being.

T F Many instincts manifest themselves through imaginary experiences or through reading of experiences which are not available to the individual at the time.

T F Many instincts do not manifest themselves directly because of the absence of opportunity.
Many instincts do not manifest themselves observably because of the competition of other instincts.

The relative strengths of the various instincts remain fairly constant throughout life.

Tendencies toward the manifestations of the various instincts differ greatly in different individuals.

Fear and anger are two of the commonest instincts.

Instinctive reactions may be appealed to directly, in the learning of school subjects.

Instinctive reactions are not improvable by practice.

To "work with nature rather than against it" is sound advice.

Instincts should be followed as infallible guides of human conduct, as they are the oldest of the complex human factors.

Emotions, Character Training

Any emotional outburst is without any intellectual phase.

All emotional outbursts due to conflicts are evidence of an infantilism which has not been outgrown.

In a complex social order, an emotional outburst is non-adaptive in that it is uncoordinated and is out of line with most of one's learned reactions.

The imperfections of adaptation of the instincts to the present social organization are many and
momentuous.

T F Moral concepts that are contrary to the instincts are purely artificial and should, therefore, be abandoned.

T F Redirection of the instincts is the basis of all character training.

T F Sublimation of the instincts is the basis of all character training.

T F The presence of a trait in the higher primates is an infallible sign that the trait is instinctive.

T F Social environment has no effect upon the instinctive development.

T F The school environment should supplement the home environment of many problem cases.

T F Tantrums are more likely to be voluntary responses rather than emotional responses.

T F Emotions are produced directly by instincts.

T F Education is interested in suppressing the instincts.

T F Instincts are of secondary importance in the motivation of social conduct.

T F The schools do not deal with the instincts and their manifestations as well as society-at-large does.

T F Schools should not interfere with or rule the instincts as much as they should work with and guide them.
T  F  A strong wave of emotion may occur after hours or days have elapsed since an obstacle or danger has been met.

T  F  Schools offer a great many obstacles to acclimation of the pupils and should give considerable attention to the emotions which these obstacles may arouse.
INTEREST

T  F  Interest is an adjustment to work.
T  F  Interest in a task makes one more sensitive to the
      errors in its performance.
T  F  Interest in a task makes for greater satisfaction in
      correcting errors than would otherwise be the case.
T  F  Interest makes for more association responses.
T  F  Interest makes for more relevant associations.
T  F  Interest in a field and ability in that field are
      correlated about plus 1.00.
T  F  Interest is motivation to attention in one or another
      direction through stimulation of likes and dis-
      likes.
T  F  Attention almost always precedes interest.
T  F  Interest appears only when there is a relating of the
      old with the new.
T  F  Interest involves a feeling of the worth of the ob-
      ject or activity.
T  F  Interest is often without an object.
T  F  Interest is not lasting unless it continually finds
      some element of novelty.
T  F  We are interested in only what we have learned to
      be interested in.
T  F  There is a reciprocal relationship between interest
and attention.

T  F  Objects and processes borrow interest from their relation to our personal welfare.

T  F  Extreme ease of accomplishment adds to the interest in this accomplishment.

T  F  Interest usually has a future reference and implication.

T  F  Obstacles which appear unsurmountable are likely to be annoying.

T  F  To be interesting, a process must present some difficulty and some promise of success.

T  F  In the education process, a child's interest must be sometimes considered an end as well as a means to an end.

T  F  Interest in an object comes only when the object takes on meaning.

T  F  For the sake of interest subjects should be taught in relation to a child's present experience.

T  F  Interest attaches more readily to means toward ends than to ends themselves.

T  F  Interest attaches more strongly to remote than to immediate ends.

T  F  Self is the center of interest.

T  F  Early interests are prophetic of later interests.

T  F  Adult interests are artificial in the sense that
they center around objects more remotely con-
nected with the satisfaction of the instinctive
drives than do the interests of the child.

T F Many tasks take on interest when they are discovered
to have a relationship to interests already present.

T F There is little relation between degree of interest
and capacity.

T F We pay attention only to those things in which we
are interested.

T F We attend to those things in which we are interested
without excess effort.

T F Too much hard work on a subject will soon lessen
accomplishment.

T F Any course which can not be made to interest a class
should not be taught.

T F Interest may result in too strenuous effort on the
part of some high school pupils.

T F Pupils should be prepared for the hard knocks of
life by being required to do occasional disagree-
able. work.

T F Interest cannot be developed in algebra.

T F Our interests are determined largely by our environ-
ments.

T F It is easy to interest pupils in the study of the
natural history about them.
Teachers should feel that their teaching is not successful if the pupils do not show increased interest after a month or so.

General lack of interest in a pupil is often due to poor health.

Interests in sports is stimulated by a willing team.

In general, grades do not interest high school pupils.

Interest in mental tasks almost always decreases more rapidly than interest in physical tasks.

Some parents are not interested in their own children.

Interests have been shown to be symptomatic of present and future capacity or ability.

Early interests are passing whims and are in no way prophetic of later interests and abilities.

There can be a separation of interest and attention.
INTELLIGENCE AND TESTING

Definition and Nature of Intelligence

T F Intelligence is denoted by ease of making and breaking habits.

T F When an I.Q. becomes higher or lower as the result of a retest, it usually means that the intelligence has changed accordingly.

T F Cases of irregular educational development may appear without being occasioned by similar variations in mental development.

T F The innate mental capacities develop fairly steadily like height, reach a maturity sometime in the teens, and set for each individual a limit of achievement.

T F Interest in handling things or managing people rather than interest in observation is a distinct characteristic of intelligence.

T F Achievement is assured by capacity.

T F Achievement is the return on capacity wisely invested in education.

T F Native capacity sets a limit to the kind, difficulty, or complexity of mental functions that can be acquired, and it sets a limit to the rate and permanence with which acquisition, within these limits,
may go on.

T  F  Algebra and geometry as now taught, for example, are beyond the mental capacities of many high school students.

T  F  One of the most common marks of intelligence is to have patience with details based upon a grasp of their meaning, or importance.

T  F  Learning is a process of acquired reaction.

T  F  Because of our liberal educational policies the American people are more intelligent than any other race.

T  F  Truancy is usually the result of low mentality.

T  F  Over-size and over-age pupils should not be moved up in elementary school.

T  F  Intelligence is considered to be a trait.

T  F  Intelligence is a single unity.

T  F  A child's intellectual capacity will always grow.

T  F  Twins are similar in their intelligence.

T  F  Binet was especially interested in testing normal and above normal intelligence.

T  F  Interest in intelligence tests has been gradually decreasing since 1920.

T  F  The assumption that innate mental potentialities remain constant is very reliable.

T  F  Gesell found in his study of identical twins that
advantages of early training are permanent.

T F There are definite standards of appreciation in art and music.

T F The best pedagogical procedure is to create in each individual the desire to be the best one in the class.

T F Training or education of a child cannot speed up his process of maturation.

T F The adolescent is superior in ability to learn to what he will be between the ages 25-45.

T F Mental and physical growth is now thought to be continuous and not saltatory.

T F A good social heritage can offset a poor biological heritage to a limited extent.

T F Intelligence continues to grow from birth to maturity.

T F Cubic capacity of the brain is an index of intelligence.

T F Talent and genius are identical terms.

T F Social influence is more important in achieving eminence than is intellectual ability.

T F Wood's study of royalty showed that the eldest sons of the royal families were among the most eminent individuals of the nations because of their superior training.

T F An individual who has strong will can attain eminence
from any environment.

T F The essential element of intelligence is memory.

T F The essential element of intelligence is imagination.

T F Many pupils who are over-age for their grades are not below normal in intelligence.

T F The intelligence of the diffident pupil is often overestimated.

T F Will-power and degree of intelligence are inversely proportional.

T F Some people cannot learn anything.

T F The ease with which the neural system may be modified by experience is one way of thinking of intelligence.

T F The statement that "Intelligence can never be measured directly" is true or false according to one's definition of intelligence.

T F Pupils of the same mental ages must have the same I.Q.'s.

T F The C.A. is almost never the same as the M.A.

T F All children have the same capacity up to the age of two.

T F Growth in mental ability in early childhood is due primarily to maturation of the nervous system.

T F Growth in problem-solving ability in mature years is
due more to experience than to continued maturation of the nervous system.

T  F  Studies of the influence of adenoids and diseased tonsils upon intelligence need to distinguish between ability to work and willingness to work.

T  F  The ability to shift from one mental set to another easily and completely is an evidence of intelligence.

T  F  American workers on mental tests tend to emphasize depth of thought while the English workers tend to emphasize speed of thought.

T  F  Learning, after c.a. 15-6 is done by means of organization and selection of subject-matter and experience.

T  F  Mental maturation has little correlative effect on conduct.

T  F  Intelligence is less a factor in character traits, such as cooperation, than it is in quickness of observation.

T  F  Intelligence above a certain minimum need not be supported by other personality factors for one to be successful.

T  F  There is quite a high correlation between I.Q.'s of children and the degrees of education of their parents.
T F Even the ability to think in a sustained and logical manner is based upon training in thinking.

T F Intelligence can be described satisfactorily in behavioristic terms.

T F It is a duty of the teacher to discover causes for slowness in pupils and remedy them whenever possible.

T F The school should be organized in such a way that no child need repeat a grade.

T F The same factors which are involved in reasoning are also involved in the taking of an intelligence test.

Test, Testing, and Results of-

T F In the selecting of children to form a homogeneous group, the M.A. rather than the I.Q. should be used as a measure.

T F A good intelligence test should indicate native ability to adapt one's self to new situations, to see the problem, hold it in mind, and reason out the solution.

T F Intelligence quotients, when charted for the American class of people, will follow the normal curve of distribution about as closely as any other trait.

T F Each high school teacher should give I.Q. tests to his pupils.
T F A teacher should never coach pupils for a test.
T F One's I.Q.'s will never vary over five points.
T F We consider an I.Q. of 100 to be about average intelligence.
T F Binet I. Q. tests are not capable of measuring adult intelligence.
T F Mental tests were first developed for the study of gifted children.
T F Individual tests cost less in time and money than group tests.
T F Binet revised his scaled test twice.
T F Terman uses sixteen as the C.A. in computing the I.Q. of anyone sixteen years old or older.
T F General intelligence tests attempt to measure the degree of potential ability which an individual possesses.
T F Individual intelligence tests are generally more reliable than group tests.
T F Group intelligence tests are more difficult to give than individual intelligence tests.
T F Studies by Jones and Conrad show the peak in growth of intelligence to be between 18 and 21.
T F Individual intelligence tests are generally more analytical than group tests.
T F Terman advises the presence of a parent during the examination of children.

T F Terman does not consider immediate recordings of responses essential.

T F The Stanford-Binet examination begins with the third year of age.

T F Year 12, on the Stanford Revision, has a possible score of 24 months.

T F A thorough examination (intelligence) should include at least one year of tests in which there is no failure and at least one year in which there is no success.

T F It is probable that in school-room practice, one is likely to err by under-estimating the individual's capacity.

T F Physical activity is a fair guide in estimating intelligence.

T F Binet is the author of the "Stanford Revision of the Binet Scales."

T F In calculating the I.Q., the age at the nearest birthday is used as the C.A.

T F Terman advises considerable coaxing and cross-questioning of those being examined for I.Q.

T F A "scaled" test is one which has several types of norms.
T  F  There is no test for year eleven in the Stanford Revision.
T  F  The need for non-verbal tests was realized first during the World War.
T  F  Binet used his first intelligence test before 1900.
T  F  There is no group of tests for the year 13 in the Stanford Revision.
T  F  The intelligence testing movement was slowed up during the World War.
T  F  Speed is a relatively insignificant factor in intelligence.
T  F  Intelligence can only be measured by a wide sampling process.
T  F  The intelligence tests measure types and degrees of intelligence as well as general intelligence.
T  F  Terman's study of foster children shows that they resemble their foster parents in degree of intelligence to a high degree.
T  F  The experimental type of mental tests is useful as a laboratory study in the more elementary psychological functions.
T  F  The first generally useful intelligence tests were developed by the psychologist Stern in 1895.
T  F  The experimental type of mental test is a measure of
the general adaptability of one's mental operations.

T F Provided that the test used is standard and that the tester knows his test, and can establish rapport, the I.Q.'s of an individual from tests given over a series of years will vary very little.

T F The first experimental tests of intelligence in the United States were those of Otis in 1910.

T F The Binet test or scale is a group test and measures the abilities of many children at one time, provided that they are able to write fairly rapidly.

T F Word-knowledge (ability to define and use correctly) is probably the best single measure of intelligence.

T F Intelligence tests are useful principally in the selection of the low grade feebleminded.

T F The laboratory type of intelligence test has proven itself most useful.

T F The I.Q. does not follow the curve of normal distribution.

T F If the intelligence tests given to a child are well selected and well given, the I.Q. of the child is almost always constant within six points.

T F Laboratory tests, such as dotting, have shown consistently a very good general relationship to degree
of intelligence.

T F The final bases of estimation of intelligence are economic and sociological performance.

T F Intelligence as measured by standardized tests does not seem to be affected by the removal of tonsils and adenoids.

T F The problems in a mental test should be dependent for their answers upon knowledge which children pick up for themselves and which is available to all of them.

T F The standardization of a test is less important than its construction.

T F Intelligence test programs enable the teacher to discover whether pupils are retarded because of unfortunate circumstances, physical defects, or low mentality.

T F If a child receives a low score on a group intelligence test, he may have been ill, distracted, or have failed to cooperate.

T F Even though pupils try to do their best on each of several kinds of tests, they will vary their responses from time to time.

T F The standardization of a test means making it conform to the current ideas of the field.

T F Degree of muscular control is an indication of degree
of intelligence in children one or two years old.

T F Experimental tests are based on the amounts and kinds of events through which one has been and his perceptions and memories of them.

T F An intelligence test given and interpreted by a psychologist is of more value than one given and scored by a tester.

T F Intelligence tests measure ability to deal with ideas rather than ability to deal with persons or things.

T F Intelligence tests are designed to measure the capacity of the mind without measuring its content.

T F Many persons are temperamentally unfitted to give mental tests.

T F One's social background can be determined by means of mental tests.

T F Ability to adapt one's self to one's environment can be measured as accurately as general intelligence can be by means of scales or tests.

T F College intelligence tests should be given so that the student may be guided into suitable fields.

T F Social ability tests are among the best for students.

Use and Applications of the I. Q.

T F The pupil's I. Q. is more important in his grade placement than his educational age.
T F Intelligence tests are useful in vocational guidance.

T F The same methods of teaching which are best for I.Q.'s of 130 and over are also best for those of 100.

T F Intelligence contributes more to success in life than any other factor.

T F In college, as in the lower schools, the correlation between intelligence and quality of work is positive and fairly high.

T F The I.Q. indicates the rate of mental growth.

T F The value of the I.Q. for purposes of prediction depends upon the fact that it is found to be fairly constant from year to year.

T F Many teachers try to teach pupils material they cannot comprehend.

T F In elementary school pupils should be advanced up to their mental ability.

T F Pupils of average intelligence will profit more by being advanced than to be held back.

T F An I.Q. of 75 or more is essential for any youngster who will benefit from school.

T F We should not hold back the dull pupils in school, as it only furthers their discouragement.

T F To hold up the dull pupil in school is only a waste of good school money.
T F The child with an I.Q. of 90 is usually retarded.
T F Skeletal development measured by precise X-ray photography yields fairly high correlations with intelligence.
T F School misconduct is more common within the groups of lower and higher intelligence than within the average group.
T F Inferior ability on the part of the student to compete with the group is the major cause of deliberate truancy.
T F Homogeneous grouping does an injustice to the backward child.
T F Our present-day curriculum is better adapted to the intelligence of the superior child than that of earlier years.
T F The most important factor of success in school is intelligence.
T F The brightest pupils in a grade achieve more in proportion to their capacities than the less intelligent individuals do.
T F Degree of intelligence and degree of school achievement show little relationship.
T F Individuals with I.Q.'s of 100 do not often attend college.
T F Mental maturity of pupils must be regarded in changes
in the curriculum.

T F Degrees of intelligence and of industry are usually parallel in the individual.

T F One of the large problems of the school is the proper adjustment of rate and complexity of work to the natural abilities of the pupil.

T F Average children remain average from year to year.

T F Low I.Q.'s do not occur in the best families.

T F The feebleminded cannot rise nor be lifted to a higher level.

T F There seems to be no noticeable relationship between intelligence and morality.

T F The lowest grades of intelligence—the idiot and the imbecile—have no ability to anticipate the results of their acts.

T F Very few intellectually retarded pupils can do class work in an honest, reliable, and steady manner day after day.

T F The I.Q. indicates the child's rate of growth in intelligence or ability to learn.

T F All pupils of the same I.Q. classification tend to achieve the same quality of results in classroom examinations.

T F The federal immigration office finds the I.Q. of immigrants to guide them into suitable vocations.
T F It is safer to predict failure from a set of low test scores than success from a set of high test scores.

Kinds of Intelligence

T F Present experimental findings warrant the conclusion that there is a close relationship existing between physical traits and intelligence.

T F Intelligence is not a single quality or power but a complex of abilities.

T F We can say positively that there are racial differences in intelligence.

T F When one used the "socio-economic" criteria for determining a pupil's intelligence, he may find his decision affected greatly by the pupil's environment.

T F Mental maturity is another name for general intelligence.

T F Social intelligence is probably due more to environment than is either mechanical or academic knowledge.

The Superior Child

T F Teachers often make lazy loafers out of bright pupils.

T F Troublesome bright pupils should have more work to do.

T F As a group, the intellectually superior children are inferior physically to the average group.
T  F  The superior child mentally is more likely to have neurotic disturbances than the average child.

T  F  Geniuses learn without effort.

T  F  The most intelligent people are not always the most financially successful.

T  F  An intelligent child is more likely to see relations between old and new situations than the average child.

T  F  The brightest children are always most interested in the school work.

T  F  The mentally gifted children have higher average heights and weights than feebleminded children.

T  F  Discouragement is more effective as a stimulus to effort to the bright child than to the dull child.

T  F  All persons of 140 I.Q. or higher desire and achieve eminence in the public attention.

T  F  The youngest child in any class is usually the brightest.

T  F  The gifted child is usually the last one to be reached by any special aid that education may devise.

T  F  The selection of gifted and superior children is a rather easy problem.

T  F  Teacher's judgment may be relied upon to a greater degree than any other method of selection of mentally superior children.
T F It has been found from experience that the more intelligent people are less socially adaptable.

T F It has been found possible for a person to have too much intelligence to be successful in certain vocations.

T F Children of superior intelligence, when graded with those of the same age, usually become mischievous, lazy, and bored with school work.

T F "It may be of greater value to society to discover a single gifted child and aid in his proper development than to train a thousand dullards to the limit of their capacity."

T F Those children of superior intelligence, being able to progress twenty-five per cent more rapidly than the average, are found to set the pace in our schools.

T F There is a substantial correlation of superior intelligence with social adaptability and leadership, with ability to get along with and manage people.

T F Super-normal intelligence among children is not incompatible with delinquency, but delinquents of high intelligence are rare.

T F The intelligent individual is usually a distinctly modest person.
T F Superior intellects reach their highest point at about the same age as inferior ones.

T F The genius is characterized by the ability to discover the factors in a situation which are not apparent to the average person.

T F The teacher of average intelligence can adequately meet the demands of the superior high school pupil because of her age and broad experience.

T F The degree of social development in the precocious child closely parallels his intellectual development.

T F The instincts show a higher degree of development in the more intelligent individuals.

T F A real leader of men must be highly intelligent.

T F Mental superiority tends to decrease as age increases.

T F Bright children often feel inferior to those less well endowed.

T F Many intellectually gifted persons have so many interests that they do not stick to any one long enough to produce results commensurable with their abilities.

T F A brilliant intellect may achieve much even with a feeble drive behind it.

T F A genius will fluctuate greatly in his abilities from
day to day.

T F If bright children are to be allowed to skip a grade, the most rapid advancement should be before the fifth grade.

T F An enriched curriculum is of greater value in the education of the average child than in that of the gifted child.

T F There seems to be a marked tendency for mentally superior children to come from mentally superior parents.

T F The gifted child finds difficulty in adjusting himself to his associates.

T F Social leadership is a factor noticeably lacking in children mentally superior.

The Dull Child

T F The dull child does not generalize early.

T F It is a kindness to push a child upward into a higher academic class even though he may be at the tail-end.

T F The dull normal have I.Q.'s ranging from 70 to 90.

T F Handwork is an approach to the mental life of any child.

T F The dull child should be given little vocational education.

T F The dull child benefits more from group than from
individual study.

T F The dull child profits from his mistakes as readily as the normal child does.

T F The dull child needs approval from the teacher more than the bright pupil does.

T F The emotionally unstable child learns as fast as the emotionally stable one.

T F The dull child is not equally inferior in all respects.

T F The dull have as much right of suffrage as the bright.

T F Even with sympathetic direction dull pupils can not acquire those specific habits of conduct which will enable them to succeed fairly well.

T F Children of low intelligence need careful drill on the formation of neural connections between specific situations and just as specific responses.

T F Lack of ability accounts for the grade placement of most of the average pupils.

T F The dull child lacks in number, size, and completeness of associative series.

T F Dull children are usually deficient in social intelligence.

T F Dull children are a serious problem to society for they usually mature physiologically before they...
can know enough to become properly adjusted to the world.

T F The dull child usually exercises less presight than does the normal or bright child.

T F The dull and the feebleminded can be educated to a certain extent if the material is simple and the teaching method is inspirational.

T F The feebleminded can be detected readily through their physical defects and their general appearance.

T F The mentally defective develop normally until their maximum development is reached and there their progress halts rather rapidly.

T F Through careful training the feebleminded may be brought near to normality.

T F A child's intelligence limits his educational accomplishment.

T F While intelligence tests have been useful in discovering the dull pupils, they have not been successful in discovering the bright children.

T F Typically, the delinquent child is a dull child but not all dull children are delinquent.

T F Individuals of low intelligence often excel those of high intelligence in simple responses.

T F Delinquencies appear among the feebleminded not be-
cause the impulses of the feebleminded are necessarily stronger, but their inhibitions are weaker.

T F Many geniuses were mentally slow as children.

T F There is always a specific cause for retardation in school.

T F The dull child is often an unhappy child.

T F The mentally low approach motor norms more closely than intellectual norms.
LANGUAGE

Speech

T  F  The motor speech area is opposite the preferential hand.

T  F  Children understand a language before they can speak it.

T  F  Deaf children may learn to talk by means of sight and feeling the vibrations of the throat.

T  F  Blind children have greater difficulty learning to speak than those who can see.

T  F  Understanding of language depends upon the sensory areas of the brain.

T  F  Articulate speech depends upon the health of the respiratory and vocal organs as well as upon the brain.

T  F  Speech is a psycho-physiological function.

T  F  Speech and acquired language is found only in man.

T  F  Emotional instability is often manifested by the speech of an individual.

T  F  Speech is a hereditary function.

T  F  Primitive languages have few sounds.

T  F  Voice inflection may change the meanings of words or sentences.

T  F  Each section of a country may have distinctive word
or phonetic forms.

T/F The cry is the starting point of all animal voice sounds.

T/F Persons who stutter should acquire large vocabularies in order to secure greater confidence.

T/F A disregard for the proper use of language in school work outside the English classes is not noticeable.

T/F An American child born in France will have difficulty in learning to speak French.

T/F The function of speech is not hereditary in men.

T/F A method of correcting bad speech habits might be by practicing the bad habits voluntarily under certain specified conditions.

T/F By the age of five years the average child has acquired all the basic speech forms used among adults.

T/F As the child grows older, a greater proportion of his conversations with children of his own age are directed toward modifying their behavior.

T/F A study of what the child says in various situations enables adults better to understand the child himself.

T/F Whether adults use "baby-talk" to children makes no difference in the way children learn to articulate.
T  F  The quality of language heard by the child makes little difference in the progress of speech made by the child.

T  F  Children learn largely by imitation the selection of certain sound combinations.

T  F  Language to the child at first is a tool to be used rather than an accomplishment to be shown off.

T  F  There is a definite and sharp boundary between wordsaying and word-using.

T  F  Usually several months pass between the word-saying period in the infant and the time when word-using is readily established as spontaneous self-expression.

T  F  In children who are mentally backward, speech may be delayed.

T  F  The psychology of language considers oral speech only.

T  F  Unspoken language can not be as forceful as spoken language.

T  F  Tonal quality and inflection should be used in oral speech only for embellishment.

T  F  Speaking is thinking aloud.

T  F  A child should be encouraged to use new words to develop his vocabulary.
T F Pain, anger, and fear affect articulate speech.
T F Teachers should recognize the causes of speech disorders.
T F A child with any impediment of speech becomes a problem child.
T F Speech habits of children should be checked and corrected by the teachers.

Grammar and Written Language - Language Ability
T F Memory is essential in learning and using a language.
T F Environment and experience affect language achievement.
T F Reading, writing, spelling, grammar, and rhetoric should all be taught as one subject.
T F It is easier to write one's thoughts correctly than to speak them correctly.
T F Very little of the technical grammar taught in school functions in later life.
T F An emotional outburst may be classified as a form of language rather than as a true emotion.
T F A complete analysis of all the physiological processes involved in language functions would require an enumeration of all the elements in reading, writing, and spelling.
T F Thinking and language are not closely related.
School instruction in language should trend toward being of an individual nature.

Language has to do with the reception of ideas, in contrast with the expression of ideas.

Nerve impulses have little to do with language.

Language is thinking by means of symbols.

Language used to express ideas depends upon the thinking that goes on in the mind.

There are slight differences in language abilities among pupils.

Ideas, varied experiences, and wide reading are essential for a fluent command of language.

New words and forms of expression are gained from reading, hearing, and practice or application of language.

The study of other languages aids very little in the writing of English.

The knowledge of technical grammar develops the correct use of English.

Language forms are habits which are imitated and learned through constant repetition.

Childhood is the best time to teach foreign language.

To copy masterpieces in studying composition would
kill originality of pupils.

T F The most original persons are also the most imitative.

T F For improvement in language ability, there should be specific attention to and specialized drill in the function to be developed.

T F Written composition is most likely to confuse past tenses.

T F Drill in written composition will carry over into oral composition.

T F There are fewer grammatical errors in written language because they are more noticeable.

T F Writing for a school paper is an excellent means of securing interest in written composition.

T F News items and other school paper items should be limited to the members of the English classes.

T F The teacher should encourage original poetic expressions.

T F Fictitious situations make better composition topics than actual ones.

T F Language is an active instrument for assorting and rearranging expression.

T F A person may have a good style in oral composition and a poor style in written composition.

T F Language is not words; it is thinking by means of
symbols.

T F The amount of time devoted to grammar has been greatly reduced in late years.

T F Language forms are not psychological habits.

T F To be original in writing, in the true sense, is almost impossible.

T F The pupil who writes the most themes profits the greatest.

T F Thought cannot take place without language.

T F Gesture languages cover only things visible.

T F Languages are growing by means of borrowing of words and the making of new words from old roots.

T F A complex social order calls for a complex language.

Vocabulary

T F Each industry has a distinct vocabulary.

T F To read a description and then put it into one's own words will materially increase one's vocabulary.

T F Knowledge of languages other than your own is not of great importance in vocabulary increase.

T F Pupils should acquire vocabulary and diction and style from reading and studying masterpieces in literature.

T F The ordinary Latin course greatly increases the English vocabulary.
LEARNING

T F In the study of distribution of training in animal learning, it has been found that the most efficient learning is obtained by rather long continuous practice sessions.

T F Learning consists more largely of analysis into parts for the selection of a response than of memory.

T F Reasoning is a degree and quality of learning.

T F Reasoning is mental trial and error.

T F Reasoning is a separate psychological act from learning.

T F Much learning begins with a problem or a difficulty.

T F All learning begins with a stimulus.

T F To know what to forget is almost as important as to know what to remember.

T F In the early stages of learning, the association of the essential elements is disturbed easily.

T F A principle or an object is learned when fleeting or partial cues serve for its correct and easy identification.

T F All learning progresses at the same rate in a given individual.

T F Distributed practice is overwhelmingly superior to continuous practice in the economy of learning.
even short selections.

T F The superiority of distributed practice over continuous practice is due, in large part, to "unconscious cerebral activity."

T F The superiority of distributed practice over continuous practice in learning is due to the avoidance of fatigue.

T F "Practice makes perfect" is only partially true.

T F Effort in practice determines the value of the practice to a great degree.

T F Self-interest or personal value determines the value of practice to a great degree.

T F Comprehension of underlying principles always enhances the value of practice in learning.

T F Belief that one cannot learn a subject often renders one incapable of learning it.

T F In typewriting, certain words prove to be "demons" because of bad earlier performance.

T F The expert performer often reverts to the elementary procedure of the novice when the material is unusual or difficult, e.g. in a learning experiment.

T F A cause of improvement of typing during periods of no practice is the disappearance of the confusion due to boredom and strain.

T F Progress in learning a complex act is largely the
result of the fusion of lower order habits into higher order habits.

T F Zeal and effort in learning have no effect on the rate of learning.

T F Zeal and effort in learning have little or no effect upon retention.

T F One of the most important factors in success in learning is attitude.

T F Definite knowledge of amount of achievement facilitates the rate of learning and, for this reason, standardized tests should be given frequently.

T F In the early periods of a learning act, speed is more to be sought than absolute accuracy.

T F The efficient thinker is more patient with futile and misleading ideas than the inefficient thinker is.

T F Incidental attention and practice is effort given to a task which one is interested in and involves a minimum of effort and will power.

T F The importance of incidental practice in learning has been considerably overemphasized.

T F A large part of the problem of educational psychology is the discovery of economical methods of learning.

T F Progress in learning is independent of the fusion
of lower order habits into higher.

T F Speed and accuracy usually improve together in purposeful practice.

T F Background knowledge is often of more value than immediate effort in the solution of a problem.

T F A great difficulty in learning is the establishment of causes and effects.

T F Interest in one's own improvement in learning usually reacts unfavorably upon one's rate of progress, because it causes confusion and divided attention.

T F Material that is presented dramatically is usually best remembered.

T F In learning, one should work hard only when one feels like working.

T F The habit of success influences greatly the voluntary effort of learning.

T F Learning advances noticeably only during the activity of the learner.

T F Generalizing on the rate and progress of learning has been based upon the acquisition of skill rather than on analytical types of learning.

T F Mental rehearsal of a performance has no value in learning.
In memorizing, active recitation is much more effective than reading the passage to be learned.

Analysis and assimilation are important in learning.

One should practice learning a certain thing in the form in which it will be called for later.

Most of the elementary steps in any learning program are rote memory and devoid of much interest or meaning.

The most simple and the most complex learning have the same number of general divisions but these are of unequal complexity within themselves.

Association is the basis of learning.

One of the principle difficulties of applying what has been learned is that of selection of the significant elements in the situation.

Much of what is called new learning is the re-arousal of old learning.

Learning is fundamentally the acquisition of new stimulus-association-response series.

Learning rate is the rate of forming of new or partially new associations.

The determination of the optimal length of practice period is closely related to that of the optimal frequency of the practice period.

The point-of-learning is the point at which new learn-
ing commences.

T F Reviews of material that has been learned should be carried on at increasingly lengthened intervals.

T F Reviews of material that has been learned should be made whenever memory of the material has started to fade.

T F Zeal in learning and interested learning are identical.

T F Vagueness of directions to learner about the learning problem is a frequent cause of slow or superficial learning.

T F The experimental group in a learning experiment is the group which is given no specific training.

T F Before learning can take place, resistance in patterns of synapses of the nervous system must be overcome.

T F Unless an individual desires to solve a puzzling situation, he will be unable to do so.

T F In most learning curves, there is a very slow rise in the earlier stages of the learning achievement.

T F Efficient learning means that the learner gains full control of the meaning of the material studied irrespective of the amount of time consumed in the learning.

T F The principles or laws of learning do not apply to sensory-motor learning.
The laws of learning apply more clearly to the learning of children than to the learning of adults.

If a pupil knows that he will be called upon to recite a lesson as soon as he says he has learned it, he will learn it much more thoroughly than he otherwise would.

Whatever the method of learning used, review from time to time is necessary if the knowledge or the skill is to be retained.

Reasoning, more often than not, involves a noticeable amount of trial and error.

We employ reason only when our ordinary habits and innate tendencies prove inadequate to the meeting of a problem.

A pupil's reasoning can not be accurate unless he has at his command a body of relevant facts.

The process of generalization consists largely of learning to react to certain elements and to neglect others.

The number of pupils in a classroom does not change the learning situation.

Equal opportunity produces equal achievement in learning.

One will always show great improvement in a task if he practices it persistently.
T F The ability to learn is an acquired characteristic.
T F All distractions should be eliminated in the classroom because it retards learning.
T F Adults learn much by observation.
T F One never grows too old to learn.
T F Learning ceases at about the fortieth year.
T F Learning will exceed the physiological limit by exerted effort.
T F Guidance is not necessary in learning.
T F One learns more in short-time practices than in long-time practices.
T F Learning cannot be measured.
T F Children are capable of learning more quickly and effectively than adults.
T F Attention is more essential than attitude in the learning process.
T F Any process of learning is conditioned by the mindset at the time.
T F After learning is apparently complete, added repetition will not strengthen the tendency to retain.
T F Emotion has slight effect on the permanence of learning.
T F Learning capacity increases up to maturity, then gradually decreases.
Curve of Learning and Hierarchy of Habits

T F Overlearning is not essential in college work.

T F Overlearning is the practice which is carried on after the material has been learned quite thoroughly.

T F Learning is, in a certain sense, a fortification against forgetting.

T F During the process of learning, changes in the combination of connections are constantly going on.

T F Whenever any habit becomes fixed, the changing of it causes annoyance.

T F Certain habits are elementary constituents of all other habits within a hierarchy of learning.

T F Learning some one fact may involve knowledge of a score of new facts in the shape of its relation to the facts previously learned.

T F Apparently there are types of learning in which continued training brings increasing returns.

T F It is hardly possible that the curve based on acquisition of skill in ball-tossing may be of the concave type.

T F Progress can go on indefinitely at the original rate.

T F A learning curve may be either concave or convex.

T F The rate and progress of learning can be expressed in terms of time required per unit of work.

T F Factors, such as incentives, bodily conditions, and interests show fluctuations in the learning curve.
T F Most functions learned in school are relatively simple.

T F Learning of animals differs from that of man only in degree.

T F When we have reached the point past which no more improvement can be expected, we have reached the physiological limit.

T F The idea of a hierarchy of habits is applicable to complicated as well as simple learning.

T F Every type of learning has an optimum length and frequency of learning or practice period.

T F The aim of practice is to make the neural connections automatic.

T F In plotting a learning curve, we usually plot progress against accuracy.

T F There is a probability that many of the learning curves that appear concave were not extended far enough to reveal their true forms.

T F As the expert stage is approached, the learning curve is almost horizontal.

T F Lower order habits tend to merge into and lose themselves in higher order habits.

T F Learning curves based upon the acquisition of facts, as in history or geography, are probably of the concave type.
T F The measurement of reduction of cues is represented on learning curves only as it affects performance.

T F Most of our knowledge of the rate of learning is, at present, based upon the measurements of the acquisition of sensory-motor skills rather than facts and intellectual habits.

T F It is possible to measure the amount of stimulus necessary to produce results in reasoning.

T F The lowest step of a hierarchy of habits is learned thoroughly and completely before the learner goes on to the second step.

T F The initial rapid rise in the learning curve is due, in large part, to the simplicity of the first steps, in gaining a new set of associations.

T F The progress of all learning follows the typical learning curve.

T F If one takes the first steps in a learning problem slowly, he is more likely to progress faster later.

T F Few persons reach their physiological limits in any activity.

T F The increased performance of the expert is valued unduly because of rarity.

T F The physiological limit is the limit of the willingness of the learner to make effort in a learning experiment.
In the acquisition of muscular skill, the rate of acceleration becomes negative with continued practice.

Learning curves of complex functions are usually concave.

The rate of learning, as shown by the curve of learning, becomes more rapid as learning progresses.

The initial rapid rise in the curve of learning is due largely to the elements of novelty and interest.

The initial rapid rise in the curve of learning is due, in part, to the use of skills acquired previously.

Physical learning need not be done by means of the trial and error method.

Learning may be positive or negative.

We only learn by doing.

Habit-formation is occurring visibly by the fourth week of life.

Habit-formation is only another term for learning.

In the acquisition of muscular skill, as typing, the expert soon becomes entirely free from the necessity of use of elementary procedure.

In the acquisition of muscular skill, kinesthetic perceptions are much more important than visual perceptions.
In the acquisition of muscular skill, e.g., typing, sustained conscious control of the muscular movements is necessary for progress.

The more often a neural connection is made, the stronger it tends to be.

Plateaus

Plateau levels are necessary accompaniments of the learning process.

Plateaus are apparently not universal in all types of learning nor are they found in the same types of learning for all persons.

Vigorous application to the task during the plateau stage will the more quickly result in an upward swing of the curve.

Plateaus are not found in all kinds of learning by all persons.

A plateau may mean that the learner has adopted a method that will not carry him any further and that a new technique is necessary for further progress.

Plateaus are found in the practice curves of all people engaged in the same kind of learning.

The monotony of the plateau period requires the careful and extensive use of incentives to maintain the learning effort.
A curious feature of the typical plateau is the suddenness and abruptness of its ending.

Persistence is a great asset in overcoming a plateau in the curve of learning.

More learning may be taking place during a plateau than at any other time.

Plateaus in the curve of learning may be the result of effort necessary to overcome certain difficulties in special procedures or minor acts.

Plateaus in the curve of learning may be due to effort required to overcome bad habits of performance acquired earlier.

Plateaus in the curve of learning may be due to persistence in seeking to perfect lower habits when one should be advancing to higher order habits.
LEFTHANDEDNESS

T F Ambidexterity should not be the ultimate aim in manual skills.

T F Changing children from left-to right-handedness should be done slowly and with as little emotion as possible.

T F The children of left-handed mothers are more often left-handed than the children of left-handed fathers.

T F Most persons are at least slightly ambidextrous.

T F Hand preference seems to have a very close relationship with general interests.

T F Lefthandedness is known to be a native characteristic.

T F Mirror-writing occurs only in left-handed children.

T F There is a close relationship between speech disturbances and change of hand action.

T F Four per cent of people are left handed.

T F Change in one type of manual activity has a definite effect on other manual activities.

T F There is a definite relation between the type of manual behavior a person employs and his native intelligence.

T F There is no reliable difference between the school achievement of left-handed groups and that of right-handed groups.

T F Left-handed groups are not so well adjusted to school
situations as right-handed groups.

T F Change of hand in writing does not make the child less dominant in his preferred hand.

T F A right-handed group will show greater hand strength than a left-handed group.

T F Visual dominance is the probable cause of handedness.

T F Most children under the age of one year are ambidextrous.

T F Handedness is indisputably a matter of habit only.

T F Left-handed parents are likely to have left-handed children.

T F Handedness is determined by visceral weight distribution.

T F Handedness follows eyedness.

T F After a child has entered the first grade, it is too late to change his handedness.

T F Left-handed children can not write as plainly as right-handed children.

T F There is no relationship between left-handedness and psycho-neurotic traits.

T F There is a larger per cent of left-handed boys than left-handed girls.

T F There is a greater per cent of left-handedness among mental defectives than among normal persons.

T F Individuals who remain left-handed are generally
those whose motor development has been retarded.

T  F  The child should be allowed to use the hand which seems most natural for him.

T  F  By interfering with the handedness of a child, you may interfere with his speech.

T  F  All children should be trained to the fullest use of both hands regardless of whether they are right or left-handed.

T  F  Left-handedness is due to the greater weight of the right brain hemisphere.
Tests and Grades

T  F  Achievement tests should be used for diagnostic purposes.

T  F  The child should not be told the result of his test.

T  F  Standardized tests improve instruction in a subject.

T  F  A definite testing program should be adopted by schools.

T  F  The revised standard tests are so constructed that anyone can administer them successfully.

T  F  The greatest value of the test lies in grade placement.

T  F  The size of the school or the grade has no direct bearing on the score of the pupil.

T  F  Pupils of the same achievement should be placed in the same class.

T  F  The normal is the average or typical achievement of the group being tested.

T  F  The measure of the achievement is the achievement age (A.A.) or the educational age (E.A.)

T  F  There is no relation between the child's intelligence and his achievement.

T  F  The chronological age is not a factor in achievement.

T  F  The achievement quotient shows the relation between achievement and capacity.

T  F  The achievement quotient is affected by interest and
effort.
T F The higher the I.Q., the greater the achievement.
T F The achievement quotient is obtained by dividing the achievement age by the chronological age.
T F The ratio between achievement and capacity is high.
T F Achievement age develops parallel with mental age.
T F All of the mental growth of the child is revealed by the achievement tests.
T F Statistical methods are necessary to standardizing tests.
T F The successful operation of a school demands an accounting of the work of the pupils.
T F Standardization of marks is not necessarily advantageous.
T F The manner in which marks are distributed varies enormously from teacher to teacher and from school to school.
T F There is a decided variation among teachers in the evaluation of the same school subjects.
T F Precision in marking is no more assured for a mathematics paper than for a language paper.
T F Marks are an incentive to study.
T F A pupil's future success can be predicted from his school grades.
T F The use of results of tests in evaluating the teacher is unfair to the teacher.
T F School marks are of more value to the administrator than to the pupil.

T F As children progress from one school level to the next, reports of their marks should be given to them less frequently.

T F Primary pupils have very little understanding of the meaning of school marks.

T F The ideas behind the use of school marks are entirely consistent with the Gestalt psychology.

T F Attempts at cheating are generally in inverse ratio to the severity of the marking used.

T F In post-school life, very little of one’s success is attributed to memory ability.

T F Practically all school marks are measures of the amount of factual material learned by the pupils.

T F The same grades when based on the same system of marking mean the same qualities of work in the different schools of the nation.

T F The most desirable form of attention can be attained only with difficulty in pupils who are encouraged to work for marks as marks.

T F The use of formal grading systems unquestionably sets up a conflicting group of motives and goals in the majority of pupils.
T F No child should ever receive a failure grade in any school subject as this may crush his spirit and lead to a habit of failure.

T F To accept 70% as a passing mark and to set all lower marks as failing is not justifiable psychologically.

T F Since school marks are permanent records, a teacher should not give either high or low marks to stimulate pupil efforts.

T F The relationship between intelligence test scores and school marks grows as close as pupils progress through school.

T F A set of directions should accompany each test even though pupils have taken that type of test before.

T F The determination of what shall constitute success is arrived at readily.

T F The first step in the construction of an achievement test is the determination of the things to be measured.

T F Completion test items given by many instructors are puzzles rather than achievement tests.

T F Quality of work cannot be measured on a true-false test.

T F The correct attitude is essential in taking any kind of a test.

T F It is probable that the material of instruction in
schools will soon be so graded that there will be no scholastic failures.

T F The statement -- 79% of the boys reach or exceed the median of the girls in arithmetic computation -- is a misleading form of comparison.

T F The average grades of different schools may vary enormously but the grades given to a single paper by a number of teachers are fairly uniform.

T F The use of frequent short examinations is superior to infrequent long ones only as a means of insuring study and self-checking by the pupils.

T F The best means of scoring true-false items is that of counting the number right.

T F The so-called guessing of pupils on true-false items often is a measure of the difference between recall and recognition.

T F The essay examination can not be marked objectively.

T F The multiple-choice statement requires little time to prepare and covers a great deal of material.

T F Examinations should be looked upon by the pupils as reasonable contests or as sporting events.

T F Examinations should be looked upon by the pupils as serving primarily the purpose of self-evaluation.

Teacher's Marks

T F An investigation has shown that men instructors favor
the young women students in their grades.

T  F  If very many pupils in a class receive failing marks
the teacher is at fault.

T  F  The average teacher discriminates against boys to the
extent of 5 points in 100 in the grades given.

T  F  The marks of teachers of a subject in the same
school are usually more varied that the marks of
teachers of this subject in different schools.

T  F  Teacher's judgments of the quality of achievement
of classes are based upon impressions of a few
outstanding members of the class.

T  F  Teachers who grade severely get more and better
work from the pupils than those who are not so
severe in their markings.

T  F  A teacher who is really extraordinary can raise
the attainment of all the pupils in the class
so that none will deserve to fail.

Scholastic Ability

T  F  Young pupils receive higher marks than older pupils
for the same quality of class work.

T  F  Wide deviations of grades from the normal curve of
distribution should be infrequent even in a
class of only 25 pupils.

T  F  The average achievement of classes varies widely from
year to year.
T F Marks given to 100 or more pupils should follow the normal curve.

T F Since the nation insists upon compulsory school attendance, the schools will have to fight hard to attain and maintain the highest scholastic standards in the schools.

T F Later success can be predicted satisfactorily from college grades.

T F The practice of giving school marks is fairer to the bright pupils than it is to the dull pupils.

T F There is a direct relationship between retardation in school and undesirable conduct.

T F In many cases, there are low correlations between the intelligence test scores and the school marks of pupils because they do not use the capacities which they have.

T F College grades can be predicted satisfactorily from high school grades.

T F Pupils of high scholastic attainments rarely succeed outside of school.

T F Pupils of high scholastic attainment are rarely leaders of their fellow-pupils.

T F Pupils emphasize the topics and forms in a parallel fashion to the emphasis given these topics and forms in school marks.
T  F  A pupil who is scholastically superior in one subject is usually about equally superior in other subjects.

T  F  Scholastic ability fluctuates considerably in any given individual during his educational career.
MEMORY

T  F  A person may forget a whole period of time as a defense reaction against responsibility for acts committed during that period.

T  F  Paramnesia is false memory of things that never occurred.

T  F  Memory is always given a more or less definite setting in time and space.

T  F  The best way to remember facts is to systematize and interrelate facts into a coherent whole.

T  F  Very stupid persons may have excellent rote memories.

T  F  The process of committing to memory is very susceptible to training.

T  F  Rapid reading is better than slow reading when committing facts to memory.

T  F  Persons who memorize quickly forget quickly.

T  F  Experiences which arouse intense emotion are better remembered than those which do not.

T  F  Sheer capacity to memorize is improved my memorizing.

T  F  Children of the ages from ten to twelve have greater ability to memorize than they have at any other age.

T  F  Artificial mnemonic devices are almost essential in the study of such subjects as history.

T  F  Analysis and comprehension are important in retention.

T  F  Background knowledge is important in the retention of
an experience.

T  F  Impressions must usually occupy the focus of attention if they are to be retained effectively.

T  F  The memory of the average adult for both logical and rote material is superior to the memory of the average child of any age.

T  F  The memory of the average adult in either immediate or permanent retention is superior to the ability of the average child of any age in these activities.

T  F  The retention of newly learned material is dependent upon the chemical sensitivity of the neurons.

T  F  The normal individual tends to forget pleasant events and to remember unpleasant events.

T  F  One impression or the experiencing of an event is not enough to cause it to be remembered permanently, no matter how vivid it may have been.

T  F  The amount of material retained is practically independent of the clearness of understanding of the material.

T  F  Forgetting begins almost at the instant that learning ceases.

T  F  A large number of isolated and small experiences or pieces of information may be recalled easily and accurately if they have been well systematized.
There appears to be a general memory function.

Selective memory of a high order of merit seldom appears before middle age.

Devices commonly used for remembering separate items are called mnemonic devices.

Things are easier remembered if there is no logical relationship between them.

Training in one kind of material does not greatly improve the speed of memorizing a different kind of material.

The term memory might be used to denote any living of an experience as a whole or in some of its parts even though we are not conscious of having experienced it before.

The three main features of the memory process are retention, reproduction, and recognition.

Experiences which are often repeated tend to impress themselves upon the memory.

The unimportant items of an experience are often retained easier than the important ones.

Those things which interest us or work on our feelings are likely to be retained.

Mere retention and reproduction of a name is sufficient to impress one with the real memory of it.

No amount of repetition will replace good teaching.
and attentive study.

T F Memory is the revival of a mental fact in imagination.
T F Individual differences in memory are very rare.
T F There is no single memory center in the brain.
T F Memorizing by wholes is more satisfying than by parts.
T F Reflective or logical memory is selective.
T F Memory is only a degree of learning.
T F Memory refers only to facts and attitudes and not to muscular skill.
T F Memory is more the selection of ideas as they arise rather than active and directive recall.
T F Good mental and physical health are dominant factors in memory.
T F Overlearning to any degree is a waste of time.
T F One's ability to remember depends upon the quality of his inherited brain tissue.
T F About the easiest test of memory is recognition.
T F Partial recall is a defect of memory.
T F Mental gymnastics will strengthen memory.
T F Memory is improved by training the apperceptive powers.
T F The two basal elements of memory are impression and association.
T F Young people seem to depend more upon impressions
than associations for recall.

T F It is possible to recall every minute detail of an experience.

T F All types of memory are equally important.

T F Often the reproduction of learned material is best after an interval has elapsed between the learning and the recall.

T F Effective memorization seems to increase up to maturity.
MENTAL DISCIPLINE

T F School subjects having content (specific training) value cannot have disciplinary (general training) value.

T F All of the criticisms that have been directed at Latin as a school subject apply equally as truly to all of the subjects taught in the high schools and colleges.

T F Study of the sciences trains pupils in general precision of movements and thoughts.

T F Every school subject can have disciplinary value.

T F School subjects pursued by the great men of the past will almost ensure greatness to the pupils who study them now.

T F The content value of a subject should be the principal reason and the disciplinary value the secondary reason for studying that subject.

T F The study of algebra and geometry increases one's ability to reason.

T F Latin and mathematics are known as disciplinary subjects.

T F As a result of disciplinary subjects an individual will deal with any intellectual problem more efficiently than if he spent his time on other
Subjects.

T  F  Subjects considered as disciplinary were included in the curriculum for practical purposes in the past.

T  F  Subjects can be legitimately kept in the curriculum only for their intrinsic value, not their disciplinary value.

T  F  The formal discipline theory was based upon a false psychology.

T  F  School training has for its principal purpose the teaching of pupils methods of learning rather than teaching them facts.

T  F  School training has for its principal purpose teaching pupils to select and to develop logical systems of thinking rather than teaching them more or less isolated facts.

T  F  School training has as one of its principal purposes, the development of sustained attention.

T  F  Most classes would be better taught if they were taught more by the rule-of-thumb method.

T  F  The academy was the first American type of school to draw away from the formal discipline type of education.

T  F  The study of the classics can be made widely interesting.

T  F  Latin and Greek are satisfactory media for mental
discipline values.

T F All high schools pupils above the lowest twenty percent in intelligence should be required to study Latin.

T F The more uninteresting a subject is the greater the disciplinary value.

T F Limitation of the study of Latin to pupils from the wealthier and more cultured homes is an undemocratic procedure.

T F A subject which has disciplinary value is one which increases a person's achievement in reasoning.

T F Subjects having great disciplinary value are more valuable for all pupils than those having great social value.

T F The liberal use of sarcasm keeps even the most unruly pupils under control and hard at work.

T F Formalization in the school began with or during the Renaissance.

T F Most misbehavior of pupils in school is due to malicious motives.

T F Most of the disciplinary difficulty of the classroom is due to the urge for mastery.

T F The young delinquent is usually above average in intelligence.

T F More teachers fail as teachers because of the inabi-
lity to meet disciplinary problems satisfactorily than from any other cause.

T  F  Most disciplinary trouble is due to lack of social education among members of a class.

T  F  There is a direct relationship between misbehavior and retardation in school.

T  F  If life will not demand of the pupil the use of the particular functions used in algebra, then the time spent studying algebra is wasted.

T  F  Good teaching exercises, develops, and strengthens the mind.
MENTAL HYGIENE

Introductory

T F A substitute outlet is effective only to the extent that it is related to the drive.

T F A love which is not satisfied on the personal level may be fulfilled in the warmth of religious devotion.

T F A common course of behavior is for a person to make an emotional reaction and then use reason to try to justify it.

T F Fact-thinking can be brought about by teaching.

T F Emotions often swing our reason into line.

T F We do not care about defending ourselves in our own eyes as long as we can fool the public.

T F We can accept no motives as completely pure or unmixed.

T F Intellectual precocity renders the individual more subject to mental disease.

T F A fear of incapacity to meet future demands will result in inferiority feelings.

T F Success builds confidence.

T F Chess is too strenuous a game to consider as a mental relaxation.

T F Teachers should endeavor to build self-confidence in the quiet pupil.
T F The school is wholly responsible for the mental health of the child.
T F Feeblemindedness is incurable.
T F The only reason a person does anything is dissatisfaction.
T F Unhealthy mental conditions are usually the result of one single factor.
T F Whether or not a child is liked by his classmates is an indication of whether he is mentally healthy.
T F One's childhood experiences are emotionally tinged to the extent that they reflect in the adult's actions.
T F If children's interests determined the curriculum, fewer maladjustments would be found in the school.
T F Punishment meted out to the pupil should be as gravely considered as anything he is taught.
T F The teacher should consider outbursts of temper as a habit used at home to gain desired ends.
T F Failure to make a satisfactory adjustment to the circumstances of life is a common contributory cause of juvenile delinquency and insanity.
T F A child's social education can be safely left until he has reached high school age.
T F Parents may sometimes be justified in misrepresent-
ing a situation to a child in order to gain a desired result.

T  F  Clear thinking is necessary for mental health.
T  F  Fear can never become a habit.
T  F  Healthy mental conflicts indicate wholesome growth.
T  F  The occasion for the use of a defense mechanism is some sort of discomfort.
T  F  Mental health can be measured accurately.
T  F  Knowledge lessens fear of mental disease.
T  F  Self-analysis should be an important activity of every person.
T  F  Concentration is important both for education and mental hygiene.
T  F  Daily responsibility is an asset for children.
T  F  Self-consciousness is harmful and easily developed in children.
T  F  A child must learn that things cannot be had merely because he desires them.
T  F  A hygiene program is largely one of prevention.
T  F  Undesirable and unsocial habits should be corrected in the child rather than in the man.
T  F  Mental hygienists believe that the years one to eight are fundamentally important.
T  F  The nursery-school is an application of preventive mental hygiene to the pre-school child.
T F Behavior problems are dealt with in mental hygiene.

T F Character education is in part dependent upon an understanding of mental hygiene.

T F Mental hygiene is the art of keeping the mind healthy.

T F Many a man is limited in his achievements by his idiosyncrasies in tackling his problems.

T F Feelings of inferiority may find no compensatory outlet and may become fixed.

T F The friendship and confidence of the adult is an excellent remedy for feelings of inferiority in a child.

T F An organic defect almost always causes a child to acquire a feeling of inferiority.

T F It is very difficult to destroy the future efficiency of the child.

T F A psychopath is a person who tells fortunes.

T F Inferiority complexes are not as frequent as the common use of the term would indicate.

T F Very great emphasis on the development of the personality with less concern for the accuracy and completeness of knowledge may result in one's finding later in life that he has no "depth" on which to draw.

T F While a physical weakness may not cause a disturbance of a person's mental hygiene, it is often
a contributing factor.

**T F** Continued failure as a *cause of inferiority complexes* has, probably, been overestimated.

**T F** It is not the thought of inferiority, but the actual inferiority, that causes one to seek to cover up a weakness by an exaggeration of some other trait or ability.

**T F** If a child can maintain an openly combative attitude toward a difficult situation in which he finds himself, he will, probably, come through it unharmed or even benefited in terms of mental hygiene.

**T F** Physical defects and weaknesses are almost never the cause of mental hygiene difficulties.

**T F** Teachers should not attempt to practice mental hygiene in their classes but should call in a specialist for all cases.

**T F** Children do not worry over financial matters dangerously.

**T F** Noticeable feelings of inferiority in children almost always continue throughout the lifetime and usually lead to abnormality or insanity.

**T F** Carefully preserved psychological divisions may be made by a person so that he believes that he adheres to each of two opposing beliefs and still holds himself to consistent and logical.
T F Teaching a child that it is unmannerly to be afraid, may lead to more grave mental and emotional conditions because of the fear of showing fear.

T F No teacher should act in such a manner that a pupil can become angry with him with even childish justification.

T F Children sometimes entertain fears or terrors without the knowledge of their parents or teachers.

T F Morale, in a school, is obtained by setting reasonable standards of performance rather than by setting very easy tasks.

T F Worry is noticeably pleasurable to people who are normal in every way.

T F Worry may be merely a habit.

T F Worry is a substitute reaction for overt action.

T F The appreciation of anyone will do when a child cannot gain the approval of a desired group.

T F Every child, to be happy, must excel the average in something.

T F The child who is disregarded by other children should have the best efforts of the teacher in assisting him and the group to correct the situation.

T F Environment that is poor is usually the result of poverty rather than of poor mental hygiene.
Teachers should try to correct personality defects in pupils even though the pupils are indifferent to their own defects after these have been made evident.

Teachers should try assiduously to correct personality defects in pupils even though the pupils appear to resent this interest in them.

An important part of the work of the teacher is helping pupils to make proper adjustments, mentally and overtly, to thwarting.

If society were able to regulate itself in such a manner that the individuals in it could attain most of their desires with a fair expenditure of energy, the individuals would be normally developed contributors to that society.

Mental hygiene is the development of more rational reactions in the place of more emotional or imaginative responses.

Behavior changes made unwillingly may be resisted entirely unconsciously.

Large sudden modifications of the instinctive reactions usually produce personality difficulties.

Mental hygiene is not effective unless given in a formal setting and in an impressive manner.

A healthy mental attitude can not be maintained
unless the child has a reasonable amount of success in his work.

T F The child with a sense of inferiority is often a disciplinary problem.

T F Children should be taught to strive for distant goals.

T F The mental training of a child should be withheld until he enters school.

T F To many people who discuss mental hygiene, reality means the unpleasant or the obscene things that some people meet.

T F A parent should try to be his child's pal at all times.

T F A parent should not take time to listen to a child's nonsense.

T F In dealing with people whose mental hygiene is not good, one should always be calm and considerate of their feelings.

T F Many times there is conflict between the child's training at home and at school.

T F Thinking about a problem may be a better solution than attacking it vigorously under the maxim of facing reality.

T F Ignoring the feelings and emotions of others usually develops a superior and coherent personality.

T F An error in the programs of some writers on mental
hygiene is "Attention should be given to the present problem to the exclusion of the past and future."

T F Environment plays little part in the mental hygiene development of the child.

T F Mental hygiene advances adolescence as the most important age in the life of the individual.

T F Mental hygiene is losing caste among many people because of the superficiality and viciousness of some of its exponents.

T F Unless an older person has the loyalty of a child, he cannot influence the mental hygiene of the child.

T F The personality of the teacher is one of the largest factors in the mental hygiene of the small child.

T F The child should not be allowed to develop any tendencies of dependence on others as this disturbs a satisfactory condition of mental hygiene.

T F When one finds that his desires and abilities are in conflict, he must drive his abilities and efforts onward until his desires are achieved, if he is to maintain a satisfactory condition of mental hygiene.

T F The more numerous and severe the conflicts of desires and abilities in one's life, the greater
must be his personality development.

T F The solution of conflicts of desires and abilities seems to be necessary to development of personality.

T F Indirect reaction is a rather emotional response to a minor stimulus.

T F Introversion is the proportionally larger tendency of one to withdraw into the realm of his own imagination to avoid the unpleasant or the rigorous affairs of life.

T F The good parent shields the child in everything that he can.

T F The years - ages one to six - are the most important in the establishment of an outlook on life.

T F The use of mental hygiene is a new device in the teaching profession.

T F More or less constant critical comparison of a child with other and superior children spurs him on to greater effort in accomplishment.

T F The Pollyanna attitude is one of predicting future profit from present discomfort.

T F The sour grapes attitude is one of assumed contempt for things which we can not have or do.

T F "Identification" means the formation of correct associations between names and events.
Rationalization

T F Rationalization may cause different personality traits to predominate at different times in a person.

T F In rationalization, only false reasoning occurs.

T F When we rationalize, we may be unaware of the real motive.

T F Rationalization is characteristic of popular thinking.

T F Rationalization is one of the survivals of childhood found in adults who refuse to "grow up."

T F A permanent habit of rationalization reduces one to pseudo-insanity.

T F Rationalization is often the seeking of some principle by means of which one's actions may be made to seem in accord with social acceptability.

T F Rationalization is often a means of solving an internal conflict.

T F We rationalize to protect our weaknesses against invasion.

T F Rationalization does not interfere with a person's education.

T F Rationalization gives ease from reality.

T F Objective controls in civilization hinder rationalization.

T F The belief in the theory of predestination is just
rationalization.

T F Our conscious selves are unaware that the fabrication of our unconscious motives is self-easing and self-excusing.

T F We may overcome, somewhat, a tendency to rationalize by teaching people to start with conclusions and then to find facts to justify them.

T F Race prejudice is a rationalization of our own wish to be superior.

T F Rationalization is closely connected with the formation of complexes.

T F Rationalization frequently starts from an intense desire in conflict with another desire.

T F Rationalization is often confused with stubbornness.

T F The motive behind a rationalization is never good.

T F He who makes a virtue of his individualism and sets it up as a life philosophy for others is rationalizing his own contrariness.

T F The giving of confidences is characteristic of the rationalizer.

T F The rationalizer has an impersonal interest in public affairs.

T F One never excuses himself so often that he gets to believe in his excuses.

T F If one is confronted with difficulties beyond his
power, he is likely to evade the issue and rationalize.

T F To avoid rationalization, one should avoid difficult situations.

T F Rationalizers often get satisfaction through their emotions which are substitutes for achievements.

T F Rationalization employs evasion.

T F One who is rationalizing accepts the idea that his beliefs and facts are inconsistent but continues his beliefs.

T F When compelled to take facts into account, the rationalization of them conceals their natural significance.

T F Rationalization may be closely connected with insanity.

T F Hate is often a form of rationalization.

T F The rationalizer acknowledges to himself that there are other motives for an act than he tells about.

T F Thinking that proceeds by hiding something may be rationalization.

T F In rationalization, thinking is based on a wish.

T F By rationalization is meant the ability to do abstract thinking or the ability to see relationships which may exist between things and to put them to new or complex uses.

T F Pure laziness is a potent cause of rationalizing.
An objective scientific attitude is the only way that one can keep from rationalizing and at the same time maintain essential mental harmony.

One may, occasionally, have serious emotional or mental controversies within himself in which rationalization may become essential as the best means of arriving at a workable integration.

To rationalize is usually an admission of defeat -- consciously or unconsciously.

Many people who rationalize do so in order to strive to maintain their feelings of superiority in the face of evidence to the contrary.

Rationalization is necessary for human consolation because it softens the sharp blows that most people must meet.

There is nothing subtle about the rationalizing process.

Rationalization is a good way to meet criticism from one's self and from others.

Rationalization is a good habit to acquire because it is a good way to prevent procrastination.

Rationalization is most helpful in establishing good study habits.

Examinations provide frequent causes for rationalization as well as rational thinking.
T F The study of literature affords numerous opportunities for the gathering of illustrations of rationalizations and projections.

T F An individual can always recognize when he is rationalizing.

T F Education causes people as a whole not to rationalize.

T F Rationalization is nearly always a complex and prolonged process.

T F Rationalization is not particularly harmful if one can smile at one's vagaries while rationalizing.

T F Rationalization is wilful self-deception.

T F Rationalization is the mixing of correct and fallacious reasoning to justify one's desire or explain a past awkwardness.

T F Rationalization is the excusing of acts that have been or are about to be done against one's better judgment.

T F Personal desires are selective factors in rationalization.

T F Refusal to acknowledge demonstrated shortcomings is one form of adjustment to them.

T F Rationalization often takes the form of projection of blame for one's faults upon others or the environment.

T F In rationalization, the importance or desirability
attached to some act or object is not in proportion to that attached to the act or event by one's associates.

Projection - Daydreams

T F Fairy stories are bad for children because they do not deal with realities.

T F Daydreaming may be wholesome for it may result in constructive activity or in personal ambition.

T F A characteristic of a person needing mental hygiene is the tendency to evasion and retreat.

T F Daydreams may be made into real deeds and acts of achievement.

T F When daydreams are completely or almost completely substituted for reality, their possessor is in the realm of insanity.

T F When daydreams are indulged in only mildly, they may be beneficial.

T F The substitution of daydreaming for reality is not usually harmful.

T F Some fantasy or daydreaming is not only delightful but a necessity for every normal person.

T F Projection in one's imagination may be useful in the study of history or geography.

T F Projection is a form of expression of the instinct of self-assertion.

T F Projection is a form of expression of the tendency
to self-preservation.

Sublimation and Substitution

T F Sublimation of the instincts and emotions nearly always results in personality difficulties.

T F Self-control is gained through substitutions.

T F Sublimation is of vital importance in schoolroom management even though it is given as a command.

T F Freud has brought sublimation to bear one way or another upon almost every human experience.

T F Compensation, rationalizing, and sublimation are mutually exclusive.

T F Education is in great part instruction in sublimation.

T F Dining room manners are a sublimation of the primitive hunger impulse.

T F The real function of sex taboos is to restrain the sex impulse and lead it to sublimation.

T F Sublimation is in effect adaptation to environment.

T F Sublimation is probably limited for the most part to early childhood.

T F In the neurotic personality, sublimation has failed to take place.

T F The sublimation of anger and hatred will generally result in excessive daydreaming.

T F The advice "count ten before speaking" when angry is a piece of practical common sense given in the interest of sublimation.
T F Sublimation is restricted to the domain of the unconscious mind.

T F Most persons are capable of sublimation.

T F Sublimation means the substitution of forms of expression which are more compatible with the developing ideals and standards.

T F Substitution usually precedes sublimation.

T F Substitutions are harder for the person of many interests to make than for the person of few interests.

T F Substitution and sublimation are practically synonymous.
MOTIVATION

T F Pupil motivation is probably the most difficult task of the teacher.

T F Punishment alone is a better motivation than reward alone in the schoolroom.

T F Motivation in school work means vitalized effort.

T F The sexes respond differently to the same motivation.

T F Motivation may be used to eliminate the feeling of fatigue.

T F Motivation should never be used in the development of positive habits.

T F The teacher must be motivated in her work before she can motivate the class.

T F Any motivation response involves a nervous impulse.

T F Feelings are probably the fundamental drives to motivation.

T F Motive is readiness to attend and respond.

T F Motivation may be personal or social.

T F Group motivation involves interest of the individuals involved as well as the interests of the group in which the individuals are members.

T F All voluntary activity is not motivated.

T F Motives differ inherently from one another in a
quantitative manner, that is, in the efficiency of performance which they produce.

T F Motivation is closely dependent upon fundamental operations of the instincts.

T F Good motivation implies not only apparent interest in the classroom but pursuit of the subject outside of the classroom.

T F A task is almost always greeted by motivated workers if they comprehend the task and recognize its harmony with their desires and needs.

T F A motive is an organic state already present when a given stimulus arrives.

T F The altruistic motive results in decreased efficiency.

T F The competition motive causes an increase of efficiency, particularly in younger groups.

T F Practice alone is ineffective in learning if the motivation brought about from knowledge of results is absent.

T F In a learning situation in which encouragement is given to one group, discouragement is given to another group, and no comment is made to the third, the discouraged group will show least improvement.
T F Feelings of dislike toward a subject or an activity render acquisition of skill in the material of that subject difficult.

T F Interest should be satisfied and developed primarily through the consciousness of achievement.

T F More work is accomplished under the stimulus of having a set task than working without a definite aim.

T F The intensity of the team motive, as in a relay race, at school, can be measured by the child's actual speed of running.

T F Admission of absolutely unmotivated work is admission of response without stimulus.

T F The intensity of motives can be determined finely by measuring their product, that is, the speed and quality of performance.

T F Progress according to performance is a strong incentive toward better work.

T F Efficiency of work under competition is consistently lower than under cooperation.

T F Increase of fatigue expresses itself in three ways: a decrease in evenness of performance, a decrease in efficiency, and in more restricted attention to the task at hand.

T F Incentives are external influences, while motives are
internal influences.

T F Fear of punishment is a negative incentive to attentive effort.

T F The strongest incentive a learner can have is the satisfying of a real feeling of need.

T F Pupils at the head of a class are stimulated more by report of poor performance than by report of success.

T F Definite knowledge of success and of error in learning causes depression and loss of interest among nearly all learners.

T F Reward and punishment are better than reward alone in the classroom.

T F In order for a stimulus to be effective, the motor arc must be open.

T F A tendency to respond readily to personal needs with little regard for others is desirable.

T F Praise and reproof both seem accumulative in their results when used as incentives, i.e., the more praise or the longer it is continued, the greater the effect.

T F Rivalry among pupils will appear rarely unless incited by the teacher.

T F An activity which is interesting on its own account furnishes its own drive, once it is fairly initiated.
T  F  Almost any activity that can be directed to an end by an individual is interesting on its own account.
T  F  Tropisms are of more importance in the lives of lower animals than in the life of man.
T  F  The quality of the interaction between an individual and his group affects his cooperation with the group.
T  F  The student with the "stick to it" attitude will always make good.
T  F  Effective work or work that is leading to some end which has been set is closely akin to play.
T  F  To be interesting, a procedure must present some difficulty and some prospect of a successful outcome.
T  F  Since there is greater output when there is definite aim, there is also greater fatigue, and in the same proportion.
OBSERVATION

T F Observations can be made apart from interpretation.

T F The amounts of material observed by different persons within a given limit of time do not vary to any great extent.

T F Grouping of objects is of slight advantage in observation.

T F Simple powers of discrimination do not increase much during adolescence.

T F To a large extent, observation is interpretation.

T F A child's observations are more likely to be inaccurate than a mature person's are.

T F The range of observation depends upon the span of attention, quickness of assimilation of items, retentiveness, and the previous knowledge about the facts to be observed.

T F The pupil with a wide scope of apprehension and observation is more likely to be confused than one with a narrow scope of observation.

T F Under present conditions of learning, there is seldom an opportunity for comparing directly the observations as received in the mind with the original stimuli as actually presented to the sense organs.
T F Much of the difficulty of learning given material is due to inaccuracy and error in the observation of the material.

T F Range and accuracy of observation are fixed and unimprovable.

T F The mental selection of stimuli to attend to has a great deal to do with what one perceives or observes.

T F Perception and observation depend alone on what is presented to the sense organs.

T F Width and accuracy of general observation are indications of degree of intelligence.

T F The range of observation depends primarily upon the quickness of assimilation of items.

T F Inaccuracy of report is generally the result of poor memory for events which were observed rather accurately in the first place.

T F The schools should insist on great accuracy and attention in observation.

T F The range of observation differs enormously among children.

T F The ability of children to observe and to report in a detailed and accurate manner can be improved.

T F The range of observation is greater with grouped objects than with ungrouped objects.

T F Reports of children are especially subject to the
effects of suggestion.

T  F  The preparation phase of the Herbartian method is justified in the light of present knowledge of perceptual learning.

T  F  A child is quite critical of the accuracy and completeness of his own reports.

T  F  A questionnaire increases the accuracy of report.

T  F  In adolescent children the accuracy of report increases much faster than the range of report.

T  F  The degree of willingness to take oath to a report is parallel with the accuracy of the report.

T  F  Pupils should be trained to observe all stimuli with complete comprehension and accuracy.

T  F  Inaccuracies of observation are due more to sensory defects than to perceptual deficiencies.

T  F  One is likely to infer missing details of an observation, hence to alter it to match his beliefs or habits of thought.
PERCEPTION

T F Perception deals only with past experiences.

T F Every sensation is followed by definite perception.

T F The term,apperceptive mass,designates the combination of factors from past experiences which contribute to present perception.

T F Illusions do not follow the orderly uniform or lawful procedure of the process of perception.

T F The objects that we handle and touch and work with produce in us, the clearest perceptions.

T F It takes a collection of stimuli to arouse a perception.

T F The cortical regions adjacent to the sensory areas are necessary for perception.

T F It is impossible to arouse two or more perceptions alternately while the sensation remains almost or quite unchanged.

T F All perception is sense perception.

T F Sensation arouses perception and perception arouses thought.

T F Agnosia is the loss of the ability to "know" or perceive.

T F In the same sorts of perception,equal relative differences are almost always equally perceptible.
T F Apparently the only way to perceive intelligence is to see a person in action, preferably under standard conditions, where his performance can be measured as in an intelligence test.

T F Through the senses, we perceive the motives and intentions of other people, their sincerity, goodness, intelligence, and many other traits.

T F We may have before the eyes simply a sign of some fact, but perceive the fact which is the meaning of the sign.

T F Perception is always both an isolation and a grouping response.

T F Perception of the whole has an advantage over perception of the parts.

T F The law of selection operates in the process of perception.

T F Perception is one step in observation.

T F Ability to perceive differences in tones and in shades of color probably does not increase during adolescence very much.

T F Little is definitely or conclusively known about the exact age at which various sensory-motor skills can be acquired most effectively.

T F Boys are superior to girls at all ages in kinesthetic perception.
Learning is fundamentally the acquisition of new sets of stimuli-association-response series.

It is more important to acquire the unknown than to link the new to the known.

What one perceives depends entirely upon the normality of the operations of his sense organs.

What material one learns, and the way he learns it, depends upon what and how he perceives or observes.

Generalizations should be given the child first so he will build up his perceptions accurately.

Every sensation is followed by a definite perception.

When perception cannot be clearly understood, the term intuition is used.

Phrenology is a type of character perception.

All perception is sense perception.

Adults generally perceive what they expect to perceive.

Perceptual learning of printed words is not conditioned by experiences.

A number of stimuli is necessary before perception can take place.

Synthesis is of little importance in perception.

In the development of percepts and ideas two processes are going on simultaneously.
T  F  Ideational elements of the non-sensory sort are found in the development of perception.
T  F  The act of perception is usually more prompt in children than in adults.
T  F  Examinations of typical definitions given by children reveal that muscular activity is prominent in their perceptual experience.
T  F  A perception may be changed so that the individual will make altogether different responses.
T  F  Perceptual responses are always learned.
T  F  Perceptual learning is quite different than a conditioned reflex.
T  F  Random movements of the child play little part in the development of the perception.
T  F  Perception takes place in the child at the beginning of life.
T  F  Perception is the consciousness of objects present to the senses.
T  F  A child's first perceptions are probably unitary.
T  F  Errors in both auditory and visual perceptions are important causes of weakness in reading.
T  F  Sensations and previously established relationships combined give us the contents of our perceptions.
T  F  A table as we see it and as we perceive it is identical.
T F Sensations and reproductive brain processes combined give us the contents of our perceptions.

T F In practical perception, the stimulus may be reduced considerably and still arouse its proper percept.

T F The finer perceptual discriminations of the adult as compared with those of the child can be accounted for, mostly, by the increase of sensory acuity with age.

T F The limit of perceptual learning is physical skill through neuro-muscular control and co-ordination.

T F A perception may involve sense departments other than the one stimulated at the moment.

T F It is possible to improve the ability to perceive more accurately.

T F Children are prone to define objects of their perceptual experiences with reference to the utility of those objects.

T F Continuity of pattern is a factor of advantage in learning.

T F Similarity in elements assists in grouping them.

T F Proximity of elements favors uniting them into a pattern.

T F Incoming stimuli are interpreted by the associative
process aroused in the mind.

T F The range of information in a large part depends upon the environment the child has had.

T F The selection of the essential cues in a situation for guidance in the choice of a response is done unconsciously.

T F The selection of the proper cues within a situation as the items to which to respond is one of the most important factors in human behavior.

T F We respond almost always and almost entirely to situations without any effect from analytical elements within the situation.

T F Minor, seemingly accidental, cues determine often that we shall perceive a stimulus in one or another way.

T F A vague impression which may be easily disturbed and modified by other stimuli is seldom present.

T F A stimulus may have varying degrees of accuracy.

T F Ideals become effective ideals only when they lead promptly to action that is accompanied or followed by satisfying effects.

T F A clear idea of honesty is acquired in the same way that ideas of squareness and angles are arrived at, by analyses and eventual abstraction.
T F The child of five or under can hardly notice the facial and body expression of the adult very accurately.

T F Illusions are always the results of faulty perceptions.

T F A hallucination and an illusion may be the same.

T F There are dangers in dwelling a long time on concrete material in the training of pupils of low intelligence.

T F Things that arouse unpleasant feelings seem to be better known than those that arouse pleasurable feelings.

T F In the case of the expert wine-tester, the ability to discriminate is primarily due to increased acuity of the gustatory system.

T F The range and accuracy of perception can be increased by training.

T F Analysis and synthesis are two of the most important activities in learning.
PHYSICAL DEFECTS

T  F  Poor sight is usually associated with feeblemindedness.
T  F  A child who dislikes reading should have his eyes examined.
T  F  Intensive use of the eyes should always be followed by a rest period for them.
T  F  Nearsightedness is usually an acquired condition.
T  F  Poor hearing is often associated with feeblemindedness.
T  F  Truancy is occasionally indirectly traceable to visual defect.
T  F  Colorblindness may be due to environment.
T  F  Probably the greatest danger from defective vision is that it causes emotional upsets and feelings of inferiority.
T  F  The quality of the paper used in books affects the rate of reading more than the fatigue from reading.
T  F  Visual defects do not increase with successive years in school.
T  F  Whipple found that about 26% of pupils with good vision did unsatisfactory work, while 38% of pupils with defective vision did unsatisfactory work.
T  F  Most schoolrooms of the present day have insufficient amounts of natural illumination.
T  F  Visual defects increase with age regardless of attendance of schools.
T F Visual defects are more common among European school children than among American school children.
T F Most cases of visual defect are incurable.
T F The visual system is probably more important in learning than the auditory system.
T F Intelligence tests indicate that deaf children are generally retarded two or three years.
T F A physical handicap, such as deafness, is usually counter-balanced by keener intelligence.
T F Teachers should be able to identify the early symptoms of all of the common contagious diseases.
T F If a school employs a physician, the teacher need not concern herself about the health of the pupils.
T F One per cent of all children have organic heart diseases.
T F Insanity and genius spring from a common cause.
T F A teacher should never show pity for a child who has a physical defect.
T F All handicapped children should be placed in the opportunity room.
T F A child of high I.Q. is usually of high physical development.
T F It is usually a mistake to separate a handicapped child from his own group.
T  F  Physical education can do little for the pupil who is not physically perfect.

T  F  Deaf and blind children, in general, fall below norms in intelligence tests for normal children.

T  F  Sensory and physical defects have no important influences on school progress.
PLAY

T  F  Mental play may be carried on at the same time that
    the muscular work is being carried on.
T  F  Humor is largely mental play.
T  F  Play may be almost entirely physiological or almost
    entirely mental.
T  F  Competition is the most prominent element in the play
    of children of seven to twelve years old.
T  F  The silent inactive presence of an adult dampens the
    spontaneity of children.
T  F  An ideal of supervised play consists of entertaining
    the child.
T  F  Play is reminiscent of the life cycle of the race
    rather than anticipatory of personal experience.
T  F  Play needs careful direction and frequent interference.
T  F  Play finds different forms of expression at different
    age levels.
T  F  There is functional enjoyment in doing things without
    compulsion.
T  F  Play is a preparatory exercise for later serious undertakings.
T  F  An adult's work may be play to him.
T  F  The play impulse may lead one to a desire to achieve.
T  F  The many contacts that a street urchin has in a
tenement district is conducive to better imagination than the isolated condition of the farm child.

T F Environment in which to utilize a few playthings is not as essential as many playthings.

T F A plaything should not restrict the imagination.

T F A plaything should look as much like the real thing as possible.

T F Destructive antics of a child at play may be the symptoms of a profound urge to create and to find out what is what in the mysteries about him.

T F A child is maladjusted in his play activity when he tears toys apart, pulls the cat's tail, or pulls legs off grasshoppers.

T F If a child is to have a well-balanced development, it is expedient to use his play life.

T F Play has a socializing influence.

T F Child play reproduces on its level the struggles and achievements of social life.

T F Girls are less conservative in their play life and show less variability than do boys.

T F Extremely solitary children should be identified so that remedial work may ensue.

T F The bulk of the play life of the child is subject to marked variation effected by seasonal changes.
T F Play and teaching are incompatible; in order to give a child a chance to act out his own nature one must leave him alone.

T F As soon as the individual escapes from the domination of age, he tends toward cooperation as the normal form of social equilibrium.

T F For very young children, a rule (in a game) is a sacred reality because it is traditional; for the older ones, it depends upon mutual agreement.

T F There is a community of interest for persons of widely different ages in some play activities.

T F Play is an isolated phenomenon with few variables.

T F In a group of public school children, juvenile delinquents would show a marked interest in "Wild West" shows over that shown by Boy Scouts.

T F Children, in reproducing games, tend to characterize their particular environment.

T F Spontaneous breakup of a game is more characteristic of large groups, while smaller groups tend to disperse gradually.

T F The child's toys should keep pace with his mental age.

T F The possession of many toys by a child is conducive to good emotional, intellectual, and social development.

T F Play behavior is much less bound by the laws of reality than is non-play behavior.
An auto truck that winds up with a key and goes by itself is more enjoyable to a child than one he can manipulate himself.

When a child treats a piece of wood better than a real doll it is an indication that he does not yet distinguish between reality and unreality.

Gifted children have fewer hobbies and enthusiasms than the average child.

The training of a child up to about two years of age should be directed mainly in establishing good habits of solitary play.

A child should not be allowed to play outdoors in rainy weather as it will endanger his health.

A child should not be expected to return his toys to a definite place when he is through with them.

Evaluation of the play life of the child should be made one requisite in the construction of the curriculum.

Play trends which characterize a given age group are the result of sudden and sporadic changes.

Older persons are more conservative in their play behavior than are young persons.

The most important characteristic of play behavior is continuity rather than periodicity.

The play lives of pre-adolescent girls and boys have
many elements in common.

T F As chronological age increases, the sexes tend to engage more frequently in the same activities.

T F City life probably operates to suppress certain natural modes of expression (notably singing and whistling).

T F Rural life affords more opportunity for participation in certain organized mature group activities.

T F Negro children, as a whole, are more social in their play than white children are.

T F Pedagogically retarded children turn to social plays and games more frequently than normal or accelerated.

T F Social participation in play involves certain well marked types of discipline from within.

T F Play in the classroom is just sugar-coating and is a waste of time.

T F No muscular or mental effort is carried on during play.
SPECIAL ABILITIES

T  F  People with marked special abilities, as a rule, do not adjust well to social conditions.

T  F  Environment is a more important factor than inheritance in special abilities.

T  F  The "Jack of all trades" has no special ability.

T  F  The fact that many members of one family are doctors or ministers proves that special abilities are hereditary.

T  F  The improvement of one ability may help or harm others.

T  F  All artists work in obedience to moods.

T  F  Sensitivity to music implies special ability to become a musician.

T  F  A child who is color blind will not have special ability in drawing.

T  F  Psychology and education do a great deal to alter the amount and relationship of innate mental endowment.

T  F  Ability is capacity plus the skill acquired by practice.

T  F  Authorities are agreed that special abilities are due to early experiences in that field.

T  F  Enrichment of the curriculum is desirable for pupils of superior mental ability.
T F Extreme intelligence tends to disqualify one as an executive leader.

T F Mechanical ability correlates closely with intelligence.

T F Mental endowment is conditioned by ancestry.

T F There is little or no sex difference in the majority of mental traits.

T F There are more feebleminded boys than girls in institutions.

T F The boys are more numerous in the highest I.Q. ranges, in actual numbers and in percentages, than girls.

T F Differences of intelligence within the sexes are slight.

T F The median correlation received between different school grades is about .55 in high school.

T F Pupils of low intelligence receive as high test scores in special ability tests as do pupils of high intelligence.

T F Investigations have shown that correlation between general intelligence and special abilities is high.

T F The correlation between general intelligence and special abilities tends to indicate that special abilities are innate.

T F The purpose of aptitude testing is to determine those
subjects in which a pupil needs remedial teaching.

T  F  Chances that a pupil will achieve in accordance with his prognostic tests score are no better than four out of ten.

T  F  Aptitude tests should be given to the individual while he is in college rather than while he is in high school.

T  F  Interest blanks have shown little value compared to aptitude tests.

T  F  Teachers should insist that pupils choose that line of work in which they show highest aptitude test scores.

T  F  Mere capacity does not insure achievement.

T  F  Inventors of machinery rate high as abstract thinkers.

T  F  Abilities vary according to sex, age, heredity and environment.

T  F  Youth is more creative and maturity is more critical and reflective.

T  F  The truly creative artist must have the will to keep up the "long, grueling enterprise".

T  F  Serious damage may be wrought in the home because of lack of sympathetic understanding of what is going on in the child's mind.

T  F  A person with only one or two talents may be wasted
because of a system not suited to him.

T F The "artistic mind" is antagonistic in its organization to the "scientific mind."

T F Special endowments, talents, or abilities are the result of prenatal influences or the wishes and environment of the mother.

T F There is a compensatory distribution of abilities and defects in every individual.

T F Individual pupils undoubtedly advance more rapidly and easily in some subjects than in others.

T F Specific mental traits are known to be inherited.

T F Almost all special abilities are closely correlated with a superior degree of intelligence.

Sex Differences

T F Every small town should have a girl's basketball team.

T F Boys, on the average, are more conscientious than girls.

T F There is no difference in the rates of intellectual development in the sexes.

T F Women are more sympathetic than men.

T F The male sex is more variable than the female, furnishing more than their share of geniuses.

T F Boys have more temper tantrums than girls.

T F There is very slight difference in reason and memory
in the sexes.

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<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>Women are interested in people and men in things.</td>
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<td>T</td>
<td>In general, the father will give a girl more good advice than will the mother.</td>
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<td>T</td>
<td>Women live longer than men.</td>
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<td>T</td>
<td>Men teachers are best because they lead the pupils more honestly.</td>
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<td>T</td>
<td>Women as a rule are more neat and accurate than men.</td>
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<td>T</td>
<td>Boys remember facts better than girls do.</td>
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<td>T</td>
<td>The male has a stronger desire to master than does the female.</td>
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<td>T</td>
<td>What we may call sex difference may be the result of customary expectation of sexes.</td>
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<td>T</td>
<td>Boys surpass girls in all motor tests and manipulation tests, even handwriting.</td>
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<td>Memory tests give results which favor girls in comparison to boys.</td>
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<td>In general, any sex difference is small in comparison to the individual differences within sexes.</td>
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<td>T</td>
<td>Sex differences are more pronounced just before adolescence.</td>
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<td>T</td>
<td>That women are more emotional than men is a debatable questions.</td>
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<td>T</td>
<td>Girls manifest the instinct of pugnacity more directly than do boys.</td>
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T F Boys are much superior to girls in the accuracy and length of reports given.

T F Boys are markedly superior to girls in the associative process.

T F A principal field of difference between girls and boys is in resistance to suggestion.

T F Social pressure has been of little importance in the selection of principal fields of thorough study of boys and girls.

T F Both boys and girls are more severely critical of achievements of boys than of girls.

T F The superior grades of boys as a group over girls as a group are due primarily to their broader experience outside of school.

T F Girls as a group possess different amounts of the various instincts from boys as a group.

T F Separate classes giving material that is extensively different should be held for boys and girls in high school.

T F Women have a narrower range of intelligence than men have.

T F Women are superior to men in intelligence.

T F Women excel over men in tests based upon linguistic fluency.

T F Women discriminate between colors better than men
because they wear brighter colors.

T F Women are more sensitive than men in the discrimination of slight differences in small weights.

T F There is evidence to show that some persons are about equally competent in all types of activities.

T F There is evidence to show that some persons are relative incompetent in some activities but excel in others.

T F Trait differences in one individual are greater than individual differences in a group for one trait.

T F The most efficient person in a group is between three and four times as efficient as the least efficient.

T F The high school grade is the best predictive basis for college success.
STUDY AND SUPERVISED STUDY

T F To overcome inertia toward studying one should begin work.
T F General advice on how to study is the most profitable.
T F The laboratory type of study adapts itself to observation, manipulation, and interpretation of experimental data.
T F The analytical or reasoning type of study is best adapted to subjects requiring a great deal of reading.
T F There is a great waste of time and energy in so-called studying in school because of lack of control of attention and of a definite schedule of study.
T F The length of the study period bears little relationship to the quality of the achievement produced.
T F Pupils who read several texts in the same field usually become confused in their thinking.
T F Students usually read their texts too critically.
T F Extensive connotations and permanent retention of bodies of facts come only from consideration of the material from time to time.
T F Meanings which do not appear at first in study may do so later and help to give permanence and extension to the perceptions already formed.
T F The advantage of reciting to one's self during study is much more important in immediate than in delayed recall.

T F If a pupil has little background to which to attach new material, it is unreacted to and unlearned in a similar degree.

T F There are certain mysteries in methods of study that are not commonly available to students for their use.

T F The inability and unwillingness of pupils to outline material studied is a serious fault of present methods of study.

T F The analytic type of study is most useful in subjects covering a large amount of material.

T F The rapid reader gains more ideas from the printed page in a given time than the slow reader.

T F In studying, one should prepare the material in the same order in which it will be called for.

T F The average person's reading ability can be increased at least 50%.

T F Failure to read rapidly and comprehendingly is a common fault in studying.

T F Frequent reviews are valueless if the material was learned in the first place.

T F Failure to select the crucial ideas for remembering
is a common fault of pupils.

T F Material that is understood is remembered easily.

T F One studies better if he is surrounded by small regular distractions.

T F Studying is largely a waste of time if one does not want to study.

T F Control of attention is one of the most common difficulties in studying.

T F The reading type of study throughout a school career accounts for less than 1/3 of the total study.

T F Supervised study periods may be determined by the initiative of the brighter pupils.

T F One of the most valuable things that a school can do for a pupil is to teach him to study effectively.

T F A well-selected aim, with the class properly motivated, affords reasonable assurance of a well-studied lesson.

T F The responsibility of a well-directed study period lies with the teacher who prepares and motivates the assignment.

T F Preparation for work during the supervised study period should be made during the assignment portion of the recitation that precedes the study period.

T F The supervised study period should concern itself
with aiding the pupil to assimilate the previous lesson.

T F The technique of proper study methods should be introduced no earlier than the eighth grade.

T F The best situation for pupil guidance and for mental hygiene is the supervised study period.

T F Supervised study allows the teacher time to mark papers, make out reports, and read education books.

T F Supervised study has reduced the number of failures in classroom work in almost every school which has tried it.

T F The activity in learning in the study period is more important than the length of the period.

T F The adoption of supervised study in many schools has not improved the scholarship on the pupils of these schools.

T F Since lessons vary in length and difficulty, a study schedule that will be effective is only theoretically possible.

T F Active, energetic drill can be sustained independent of drill devices.

T F Guidance in study habits is not feasible because pupils can learn only in proportion to their abilities.

T F A mimeographed outline of assignments is a impracti-
cal teaching device.

T F In wide reading, as of good literature, one need not copy new words or phrases or new use of words in order to acquire easy and correct use of them.

T F Oral reading needs more emphasis as training for debate and public speaking.

T F Rate of reading needs more emphasis than comprehension of reading.

T F The rate of reading is independent of movements in the mouth area.

T F Printed material that can be "skimmed" should never have been printed.

T F Speed of reading is affected greatly by the interest of the reader.

T F The differences in ability between poor readers and good readers disappear almost altogether when the material to be read is disconnected material.

T F Rapid readers retain a smaller proportion of the ideas read than the average readers of equivalent intelligence and industry.

T F Schools place too much emphasis on silent reading in comparison with oral reading.

T F All eminent students have been found to be rapid readers.

T F Large gains in the speed of reading may be made in a relatively short practice period.
T  F  Extensive reading has little effect on the thoroughness of reading.
T  F  Extensive reading has little effect on the rate of reading.
T  F  Speed of reading depends more on the quickness of arousal of associative brain processes than on the sensory and neural processes of getting the material to the brain.
T  F  Increase in the rate of reading depends in a large measure on the catching of phrases during the eye-movement between fixations.
T  F  Increase in rate of reading depends in a large measure on the extension of the range of visual apprehension.
T  F  The comprehension of ideas obtained from reading is assisted greatly by pauses for mental reviews of material read.
T  F  Speed of reading and comprehension of reading cannot be improved during the same practice period.
T  F  Correlations between general reading ability and each of the elements entering into this ability are positive and high.
T  F  The eyes move steadily along the printed line as one reads.
T  F  Control of the external muscles of the eyes determines largely the rate of reading.
THE TEACHER

T  F  The good teacher seldom has discipline trouble.

T  F  The interest of the teacher in his subject and in
the task of teaching is a potent factor in securing student interest.

T  F  The teacher should be dignified and not mix socially
with the pupils.

T  F  The teacher should have a businesslike attitude.

T  F  The teacher should have a hobby.

T  F  The teacher should avoid friendships pushed upon her
that might be detrimental to her position.

T  F  The neutral type of teacher is the best type.

T  F  The teacher should at all times avoid factional
strife.

T  F  Carriage and posture are important for the teacher
because of the power of suggestion.

T  F  Address or personal impression is an important fac-
tor of a teacher's personality.

T  F  The teacher should always be considerate of other's
feelings.

T  F  The teacher should reflect the presence of a posi-
tive and creative virtue.

T  F  The teacher must be understanding and sympathetic.

T  F  The teacher should wear red and other bright and eye
cheerful colors.

T F To always be heard, the teacher should speak loudly and distinctly.

T F Assured and confident physical control expressed in erect posture and alert movements suggests mental strength and alertness.

T F Insincere teachers cannot inculcate virtues of truthfulness and fair dealing.

T F Bluffing, when uncertain of facts, is never advisable for the teacher.

T F A tactful teacher can stimulate enjoyment of things which she has not enjoyed herself.

T F The teacher should be severe and critical at times yet able to arouse pupils to their best cheerful effort.

T F The best teachers are above the average in mentality.

T F Teachers can learn more about the personalities of the pupils by observing them during play than by observing them in the classroom.

T F Teachers succeed very often in spite of poor classroom order.

T F Few women teachers should be allowed to teach during the ages of 40 to 50.

T F Teachers who seldom smile seldom succeed.

T F Men teachers are less likely to be partial than women
teachers.

T F A parent is usually a better teacher than a non-parent.

T F Pupils learn most from teachers they like most.

T F Clothes are of little importance as a factor in a teacher's success.

T F It is quite probable that the teacher who frequently changes teaching positions is an undesirable teacher.

T F The one most important qualification of a good teacher is high scholastic standing.

T F The teacher who purposely patronizes her administrative superiors probably has an inferiority complex.

T F It is more valuable for the good teacher to know something of school administration in order to maintain a proper perspective than for an administrator to know much about teaching methods.

T F The good teacher emphasizes the development of methods of meeting many types of difficulties as well as the acquisition of subject matter.

T F The formal study of psychology contributes little to the effectiveness of the teacher's personality.

T F The good teacher makes his measurements of pupil accomplishment ostentatiously in order to stimulate
the pupils to greater effort.

T  F  The good teacher measures the results of the pupil's efforts at rather frequent intervals.

T  F  The best teachers make use of almost all of the pupil's instincts in teaching him.

T  F  The skillful teacher appeals to the instincts of the pupils principally to exhaust and repress them.

T  F  A principal mark of the good teacher is the generous provision of supplementary interest material.

T  F  The good teacher is jealous of time in the classroom.

T  F  The personality of the teacher is the largest single factor in the subject matter interest of the pupils.

T  F  The so-called "personal touch" in teaching is a valuable attribute.

T  F  The quality of the teaching makes little difference to the quality and amount of learning of the brighter pupils.

T  F  Motivation of classroom work lies entirely up to the teacher.

T  F  The successful teacher utilizes text-book material far more than other media of subject matter.

T  F  For the sake of increasing efficiency in thinking
and behavior, as they affect the children, the teacher should plan work that is difficult for them and must be completed to the same degree by all members of the class.

T F Budding adolescent girls (11-13) require more skillful teachers than girls on either side of that age group.

T F The alert teacher will not seek outside the school environment for activities that will furnish opportunities for vitalizing subject matter until she has exhausted the available material in the school.

T F The lack of respect for authority in a classroom is often the result of the teacher's attitude toward the class.

T F The loyalty of the pupils must be won before there can be much co-operation between the pupils and the teacher.

T F An attitude of calmness on the part of the adult when character defects appear in the child is an asset.

T F The development of orderly associations should be fostered in children by teachers through the use of clear instruction in the assigning of definite tasks.
T  F  Many teachers have for their sole aim in teaching
the discipline of the student mentally and
physically.

T  F  A supervised study group will obtain results slight-
ly inferior to a home study class in spite of the fact
that the latter spends about 2/5 as much time
again upon the work.

T  F  Teacher personality is important in the effective-
ness of supervised study.

T  F  Teachers should see that pupils understand what they
are to assimilate so that they will be more likely
to retain it permanently.

T  F  A successful teacher is able to hold the attention
of all the class.
TEACHING PRACTICES

T F "Discovery methods" of teaching can mean at most only active search for information.

T F The old-time pedagogy was all wrong.

T F Pupils should not be marked on their spelling, writing, or punctuation in work outside of the classes in these subjects.

T F The method rather than the interest of the teacher in teaching spelling is responsible for the progress of a spelling class.

T F Three-fourths of the grade in composition should be based upon the written work in other classes.

T F Pupils lose 50% of the work of the preceding grade during the three months of the summer vacation.

T F There is no place for opportunity rooms in a modern school.

T F Almost any bright college or university graduate can teach any high school subject.

T F Recitation of the advance lesson should usually be preceded by a short review of the preceding lesson.

T F A preview of an advance lesson is the only satisfactory method of lesson assignment.

T F Proper method of assigning lessons is a very common skill among teachers.

T F The "survey method" of laying out projects is usually
wasteful of time and emotions of pupils.

T F The "developmental lesson" is wasteful of time and interest in the hands of all except the best teachers.

T F Efficient teaching methods will insure a transfer of training in ability in school subjects.

T F A good teaching method is to determine the needs of the student before drawing up a plan for class work.

T F Textbook instruction is not detrimental to the student's initiative.

T F The Dalton plan breaks up the traditional course of study into a series of jobs.

T F The use of visual aids is a device for more satisfactory methods in the teaching field than the printed page.

T F The Winnetka system of teaching is planned upon the piece-work basis.

T F The traditional recitation plan of teaching is the least effective device for preparing for social adaptation.

T F The deductive method of teaching leads from the known to a generalization.

T F The questions-and-answers method of classroom discussion is one method of covering much subject matter.
T F A problem-solving attitude on the part of the teacher is an asset in assisting pupils to learn.

T F The project method has been proven to be more efficient in English instruction than that of class assignments.

T F Good methods of teaching will have to be based on the manner in which the mind learns most economically.

T F Project teaching has made great improvement since 1918 in agricultural instruction and will undoubtedly be improved further.

T F The laws of learning conform to all methods of teaching employed by teachers.

T F Methods of teaching vary with the subject matter.

T F It is imperative that checking should be taught and required until a pupil can add single columns of ten digits without over one wrong answer in 20 columns.

T F There is no difference in learning ability of the "take-away" as compared with "addition" subtraction.

T F Shorter drill periods may have an advantage over long drill periods in the learning.

T F Children of greater intelligence seems to have no noticeable advantage over those of lesser intelligence in their powers of mental association.
Qualifying factors in arithmetical ability are attitude, mental age, and chronological age.

Ideal English education should be based on the varying abilities of the individual pupil and their individual differences in the use of English.

School material should be adapted to the pupils for whom it is intended, even though this violates grade standards for material.

When pupils are grouped in classrooms according to their I.Q., there are marked differences in the quality of work done by the several sections of the same class.

Teachers often fail to take into consideration differences in learning ability.

Homogeneous grouping of pupils as an attempt to adapt the curriculum to individual differences is rapidly gaining favor.

A classroom situation which allows voluntary contributions from the pupils is usually more valuable as a teaching method than one which does not.

Rightly carried out, the socialized recitation plan substitutes mutual helpfulness for individual competition.

Under the socialized recitation plan, the students seldom consider a topic or problem of concern to all.
T F The temperature of a room is much less important than the ventilation.

T F Elementary school pupils should be allowed to choose their own seat locations in the classroom.

T F "Eligibility rules" are likely to be compromises between academic teachers and extra-curricular activities instructors.

T F All pupils should receive passing grades in the subjects which they pursue to the end of the course.

T F In general, pupil interests and abilities have had little effect upon curricula of high schools.

T F There should be no distinction made in the nature of the diplomas granted to pupils who complete the secondary school curriculum of a given school.

T F The only "raw material of experience" a child has comes from his personal experiences.

T F Diversification of the program of studies into special curriculums generally begins with the 7th grade.

T F Objective tests are detrimental to a child's development because they do not require positive knowledge.

T F The philosophy of present secondary education is tending toward social adjustment.

T F The "regurgitation of lessons" results in a blunting of initiative, originality, and self-reliance.
T F The general trend today is to include only grades 7, 8, 9, in the junior high school.

T F If given more time, the dull children will grasp the same amount of subject-matter as the more gifted.

T F The public schools should coordinate its program with the educative function of the church.

T F Such institutions as divorce, the church, preparedness, and speak-easies should not be included in discussion of subject-matter in elementary grades.

T F The primary function of the school is "residual."

T F The needs of the pupils need have no particular effect upon the teaching methods.

T F Subject matter to be really pertinent to a child must challenge his efforts.

T F In psychiatric and psychotherapeutic principles are displayed the real sources of character formation.

T F The test and measurement movement has not demonstrated scientifically the existence of wide individual differences in children of the ordinary school grades.

T F Continuously facing reality, so that one finds an emotionally toned life which lies in the realm of fact and not in the realm of fantasy, is a cardinal principle of mental hygiene.

T F Children should be given the opportunity to express their instincts and emotions in wholesome ways thru
work, play, and rest.

T F Some definite work, either physical or mental, should be required of each pupil each working day.

T F A basic principle of mental hygiene for schoolroom use is attention to the present situation to the exclusion of worry concerning either the past or the future.

T F Experiments indicate that by a moderate amount of definite practice, with conscious effort to improve, the speed of reading may be increased from 50% to 100% without the loss in the comprehension on the number of ideas read.

T F About 1/4 of university students read less rapidly than the average 8th grade pupil.

T F Frequent reviews are time wasting.

T F One of the chief sources of waste in studying is the reluctance in beginning an intellectual task.

T F Lessons are similar in the problems they present in effective study.

T F The analytical or reasoning type of studying involves a relatively small amount of text work.

T F The laboratory type of studying consists of the manipulation of apparatus, observation of material, the recording of observations, and experimental data, and the interpretation of these facts.
T F Teachers may be influential in helping the pupil to develop more economical methods and habits of studying.

T F Much of the difference in learning is due to the difference in methods of teaching.

T F Schools giving more time to arithmetic did not obtain on a whole any higher efficiency than those devoting less time to it.

T F Special pressure in school work necessarily leads to success, and conversely, lack of pressure necessarily means failure.

T F Additional training in oral expression is not one of the most helpful forms of language work for pupils of lower I.Q.'s.

T F Methods of teaching rest fundamentally upon the psychology of learning.

T F The procedure of learning in general can probably not furnish the process and technique of learning school subjects.

T F The main thing in education is not to proceed from the known to the unknown but to acquire the unknown.

T F Loss, or lack of interest in the subject-matter, is a potent factor with which even good teachers must contend.
T F It is not wise for the pupil to know his successes.

T F A teacher should aim to gain the pupil's confidence.

T F Attitudes are negligible acquisitions of the pupil and are little influenced by the teacher.

T F The teaching effectiveness of an instructor may be improved by a change in the teaching method used.

T F The personal ideas of a teacher may affect her teaching practices.

T F Pupils should be able to apply and to successfully express in action before teaching.

T F Teaching is no longer regarded as the broadcasting of information and testing to see if it has been assimilated.

T F It seems that much would be gained in teaching through a redivision to suit the convenience of the various subjects.

T F The lines which mark off the various fields of subject matter will not be ignored when organizing it for teaching.

T F If subject matter is to be arranged so as to permit most effective teaching, it will be organized into projects.

T F If the activities of secondary education are to be determined through an analysis of life activities, they will be in terms of projects.

T F Old methods are being refined and new techniques
developed.

T  F  The survey method has many interesting educational possibilities.

T  F  Cooperative work isn't educative in the highest sense unless it puts a premium on thinking.

T  F  Adult standards can be diluted for school children.

T  F  It is not essential that the teacher understand the pupil's interests, motives, and points of view.

T  F  Failure to recognize the nature of pupils spells, nine times out of ten, failure of the activity.

T  F  Organization should be effected to take care of a real rather than an imaginary problem.

T  F  The newspaper-magazine method is a helpful one in current event studies.

T  F  Material should be organized around a few important topics.

T  F  Current industrial, social, and political problems are inadequately treated.

T  F  We have satisfactorily worked out a method of arousing feelings of joint ownership and responsibility for civic institutions.

T  F  Activities fostering individual effort and competition are being supplanted by those encouraging cooperative effort.

T  F  Classroom methods which put a premium upon partici-
participation in group activities likewise aid in realizing the citizenship aim.

T  F  The question-and-answer method is being replaced by socialized recitation.

T  F  Once a teacher has determined his objectives for the teaching of any subject, he can proceed with every reasonable assurance that he will attain them.

T  F  The spiral plan of instruction has the pupil return several times to the several types of material but on different levels of difficulty.

T  F  It is worthwhile for teachers to know the material that is to be taught the children next year in order that they may give these pupils both preparative and background materials.

T  F  Intensive drill limited to five minutes a day, has very little effect upon improvement, e. g., in ordinary arithmetic computation.

T  F  If the use of a project is to be successful, it must be carried out by the person who planned it.

T  F  Active drill in a subject has a tonic effect on the total work of the subject.

T  F  A class can be animated over a lesson even though the teacher shows a lack of animation over a considerable length of time.

T  F  An excellent method of teaching is that of gaining illustrations from the pupils.
T  F The use of definite methods of teaching usually has great influence on the quality of teaching.

T  F The different methods of teaching have great influence on the acquisition of skill by the less able pupils.

T  F Procedure from the known to the unknown is not difficult for the experienced teacher.
TEMPERAMENT

T F Distinct types of temperament are found to be rare.
T F All people attempt, with more or less thoroughness, to classify the people whom they meet into types.
T F People can be divided into "types" easily and according to natural differences.
T F All persons display evidences of all four of the ancient types of temperament at different times.
T F The commonly accepted evidences of temperament are more often evidences of selfishness, self display, and boorishness.
TRANSFER OF TRAINING

T F The identical items theory covers all transfer.

T F Attitudes or points of view may be transfer elements.

T F Certain subjects seem to have greater value than others in teaching pupils to think and reason.

T F Intellectually inferior students have obtained appreciable transfer value from their foreign language study.

T F The study of Latin tends to increase the size of English vocabularies only insofar as English derivatives of Latin words are concerned.

T F Educational interference or damage may result from transfer.

T F The meeting of new situations demands transfer.

T F Almost any study involves elements which have been mastered in other connections.

T F When identical elements are encountered in two separate tasks, the transfer of training is great.

T F Training can never be transferred in a minus quantity.

T F There is a transfer of training from the mechanical level over into the abstract level.

T F Improvement in addition has a positive transfer value over into multiplication.
T F Transfer of training, when possible, varies little in amount in the inferior and the superior student.

T F A habit of success in one field will transfer readily into another field.

T F Interference results when we attempt to transfer old habits.

T F Identical elements as habits, knowledge, ideals, and attitudes are transferable into other fields.

T F Fatigue often improves transfer of training in the higher mental levels.

T F Old skills transfer with comparative ease over to new skills.

T F Students of today are better taught and less trained than formerly.

T F If only the abler pupils specialized in dramatics and physical education, these subjects would seem to make good thinkers.

T F Intelligence is a large factor in transfer of training.

T F More transfer-of-training probably takes place in the simpler perceptual processes than in the more complex thought and reasoning fields.

T F Identity of procedure or of method is one of the important factors of transfer.

T F There may be considerable transfer-of-training be-
between two activities that contain few identical elements.

T F Negative transfer of training is distinctly rare.

T F Theoretical explanations have been found to be of little value in transfer-of-training effects on skills even when they accompany the muscular training.

T F Greater transfer of training is likely to occur when there are larger numbers of identical elements than when there are smaller numbers.

T F The existence of identical elements in two activities insures transfer-of-training if they are studied by the same people.

T F Learning to get the ideas from reading has perceptible transfer-of-training effects upon the ability to memorize nonsense syllables verbatim.

T F In transfer-of-training experiments by parallel groups, there are two end-tests which part of the subjects take and a training series which all take.

T F All mental traits are so closely related that the marked improvement of one trait affects the quality of performance of the other traits perceptibly and immediately.

T F The selection of applicable general principles to
new situations is a phase of both transfer-of-training and general intelligence.

T  F  The scientific, logical brain activity of mankind is to the ordinary brain activity as the ordinary brain activity is to that of the lower animals.

T  F  Narrowly perspective training produces the same weaknesses of activity that are characteristic of animal thinking or behavior.

T  F  One of the great differences between animal and human intelligence is the ability to transfer principles of action from one situation to another dissimilar situation in which the principles are applicable.

T  F  Students of educational psychology agree fairly well on the amounts of transfer-of-training effects from different activities.

T  F  The development of an emotional set toward quality and rate of achievement may carry over to many or all activities of the pupil.

T  F  The teaching of ideals of performance may carry over to many or all activities of the pupil.

T  F  In some transfer-of-training experiments, the improvement in the activity not practiced has been greater than in the activity practiced.

T  F  The instances of negative transfer which have been
found to lie mostly in the sensory and motor fields.

T F Subjects taught in high schools should be limited rather narrowly to their utility in making a living.

T F If one denies the general transfer-of-training effects, he denies the value of attendance at school.

T F Transfer-of-training effects are limited to a conscious recognition of the identical elements.

T F Transfer of training effects can be taught directly as relationships.

T F The formalism of the instruction does not influence the amount of transfer of training.

T F The degree to which learning is carried has little influence on the amount of transfer-of-training effect.

T F The average of results of investigations of transfer of training from one mental function to another is about 25%.

T F One's choice of the ultimate values in education depends upon his attitude toward the transference of training.

T F Feelings, emotions, likes, and dislikes may transfer from one situation to another as well as information,
The amount of transfer of training depends considerably upon the method of teaching.

A large amount of transfer-of-training should take place through the technique of study.

Application and generalization of principles usually cause transfer.

Degree of mastery of a subject by a pupil has little effect on the amount of transfer-of-training he may make.

The transfer of training effects from the study of sciences is greater than from any other subjects.

There is little relation between the amount of English taken and the quality of language used.

The transfer effects of training in grammar to improvement in language usage are about zero even with the more intelligent and interested pupils.

No one believes that the classical subjects can be good training for business.

The clarity of presentation and consequent understanding of subject matter affect the amount of transfer.

The degree of organization of subject matter affects the amount of transfer-of-training.
T F The transfer effects of training in neatness in one classroom to neatness in another classroom are about zero unless the general ideals of the values of neatness are developed.

T F The transfer of training effects from arithmetic computation to arithmetic reasoning are large.

T F The influence of improvement or of superior work in one school subject may result in improvement, no change, or of hindrance in another school subject.

T F Cross-education takes place principally in the brain rather than in the muscles.

T F Cross-education is brought about mostly through improvement in observation and general comprehension of principles.

T F Cross-education is training effected on one side of the body through exercise of a similar part of the body on the other side.

T F Cross-education effects are about 70% of the amount of improvement made through practice of the side exercised.

T F The mental discipline which results from training in mathematics is of value in any field.

T F Formal discipline means the carrying out of a task because one dislikes it.
T F Every complex activity can have disciplinary value.
T F The Latin students are usually better in English, due to transfer of training factors.
T F A great weakness of the cultural training was the scarcity of competent teachers.
T F Since the beginning of the present century, cultural training has occupied a secondary position.
CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY

1. This thesis presents a fairly comprehensive list of fairly well proven true-false examination statements in educational psychology.

2. It presents a brief survey of the techniques of making and of scoring examinations of both the objective and traditional types.

3. It should prove useful to instructors and to students in educational psychology in the preparation of and the preparation for examinations.

4. The list of examination statements presented here should be proved by practice, should be made more varied in statement forms, and should be extended considerably in number if it is to be made as valuable and as thorough as it should be.

5. Examination practices and knowledge of examination techniques should be improved at all levels of instruction in schools.

6. Students should come to understand examination techniques to be pleasant proofs of knowledge, impersonal, accurate, and of the general nature of a high-grade contest among equals.

7. Good examinations are likely to cause improved teach-
ing and vice versa.

8. If examination morale is good, general class morale is likely to be good and an atmosphere of true culture and learning for learning's sake is promoted.