**Practice Verbal Reasoning 2**

**Number of Items: 40**

**Time Allowed: 60 minutes**

**DIRECTIONS:** There are seven passages in the VerbalReasoning test. Each passage is followed by several questions. After reading a passage, select the one best answer to each question. If you are not certain of an answer, eliminate the alternatives that you know to be incorrect then select an answer from the remaining alternatives. Indicate your selection by clicking on the answer bubble next to it.

**Passage I**

We have already seen some examples of the means employed at this period to secure the maintenance of these valuable constructions, when that maintenance had to be ensured by something more than the charges incident to the ownership of the neighboring lands (trinoda necessitas), we know that it was sometimes provided through “indulgences” promised to benefactors, sometimes by the action of gilds or municipalities, sometimes also by the endowments with which one of the great would enrich the bridge founded by him. But without giving consideration to occasional gifts such as the not insignificant sum of fifteen pounds given by Thomas of Brantingham in the reign of Edward III for repairs on the bridge at Newcastle-upon-Tyne, we see that several other methods were employed with success, even with profit, such as the lawful levying of those tolls which Godfrey Pratt had arbitrarily imposed on his fellow citizens, or the collection of pious openings made at the chapel of the bridge and to its warden. The right of toll was called brudtholl (bridge-toll) or pontagium, the grantee, to whom the benefit went, bound himself in return to make all the necessary repairs.

The most detailed of the tariffs in force at certain bridges in the fourteenth century is for the year 1306, and it concerns London Bridge. It is annexed to a patent of Edward I, and enumerates not only passengers, carriages, and animals of every quality or description, but also every sort of “saleable” ware which may pass either on or under the bridge though it may seem somewhat unfair to have drawn money from shipmen towards the expenses of a structure that was their most formidable competitor. This list which is a great help in forming an exact idea of the commodities brought to London by land or by river, covers no less than four pages of printed matter including coal, timber, beer, wanes, horses, cattle, pigs, grain, sheep, butter and cheese, fish, furs and skins, metal pots and cups, millstones, silk and other cloths, etc; the place they come from is sometimes mentioned: Northampton, Flanders, Normandy. Another very curious petition, made in 1334, shows the mode of collection of voluntary offerings from charitable passers-by. The share of the clergy in the care of these buildings, the greediness with which the profitable right of collecting the gifts was disputed, and the embezzlements sometimes resulting therefrom are particularly noticeable. In many cases, the bridge was itself at once proprietor of real estate and beneficiary of the offerings made to its chapel, and sometimes also grantee of a right of toll, it had income from both civil and religious sources. Notable of these were the bridges of London, Rochester, and Bedford. John de Bodenho, chaplain, explains to Parliament that the inhabitants of Bedford held their own town at farm from the king and had undertaken to maintain their bridge. For this purpose they assigned certain tenements and rents in the town to support their bridge. Parliament gave to the town of Bedford the charge of repairs and the whole revenues enriched by so many offerings, protected by the trinoda necessitas, and by the common interest of the landed proprietors, these bridges should have been continually repaired, and have remained sound. But there was nothing of the sort, and the distance between legal theory and actual practice was great. When the taxes were regularly collected and honestly applied, they usually sufficed to support the bulldog; however, many of the wardens were far from honest. Henry III granted the farm of the revenues of London Bridge to “his beloved wife,” who neglected to maintain it and appropriated to herself without scruple the rents of the building. The patent was even renewed; the result was not long: the bridge was soon in ruins, and to restore it the ordinary resources were not enough.

1. According to the passage, one person to whom a pontagium was granted was
	1. Thomas of Brantingham
	2. Godfrey Pratt
	3. John de Bodenho
	4. The wife of Henry III
2. All of the following are mentioned in the passage as methods of financing bridge maintenance except
	1. tolls
	2. trinoda necessitas
	3. endowment by wealthy persons
	4. grants from the King
3. The author implies that London Bridge
	1. was supported by allotted tenements and rents of the city
	2. did not suffer from the same kind of dishonest wardenship as other English bridges
	3. carried the same kind of commercial traffic as the river it spanned
	4. was in excellent repair during the reign of Edward III
4. According to the selection, the petition made in 1334 requested that
	1. the King put a stop to clerical embezzlement of bridge revenues
	2. the King grant to the town of Bedford the farm of their bridge revenues
	3. a special grant be made for the repair of London Bridge
	4. the passage does not detail the contents of the petition
5. The author cites the 1306 tariff list of London Bridge as a source of information on
	1. the kind of abuses of toll rights that were responsible for poor bridge maintenance
	2. the destruction of river shipping by land traffic in the fourteenth century
	3. modes of toll collection from passers-by
	4. the kinds of supplies fourteenth-century Londoners consumed
6. The author implies that fourteenth-century methods of obtaining bridge revenues
	1. collected adequate funds to maintain the structures
	2. were responsible for the ruin of London Bridge
	3. were changed during the reign of Henry III
	4. could not raise enough money to maintain the structures

**Passage II**

What then are the questions a modern reader must ask himself when he is reading a later seventeenth- or eighteenth-century poem, play, or novel? The first question, to be answered more or less precisely according to circumstances, is the matter of context. Since Augustan literature is socially committed in a way no other body of English literature has ever been, the modern reader must be at least dimly aware of each work’s original cultural implications if he is to understand what it is about. Most of the Augustan poems that get into the anthologies - Dryden’s

“Alexander’s Feast” for example, or Pope’s “Elegy to the Memory of an Unfortunate Lady,” or Grays: “Ode on the Death of a Favourite Cat” - owe their place there to their contextual detachability. They are not the period’s best poems, and by the side of Marvell’s or Wordsworth’s lyrics they tend to have a rather shabby or trivial look.

Even considered as a tour de force, Dryden’s “Secular Masque” is greatly superior to “Alexander’s Feast” but whereas that is a self-sufficient and self-explanatory poem, “The Secular Masque,” which is essentially the seventeenth century’s verdict on itself, requires a reader who can transport himself back mentally to the year 1700. Again, Pope’s “Epistle to Miss Blount on Her Leaving the Town after the Coronation” is a much better poem than his “Eligy” but its full appreciation depends on an easy familiarity with the London-versus-country tradition of Restoration comedy. (The geographical ambivalence derived from the squirearchy’s habit of spending some six months every year in London or Westminster and the other six months on their country estates.) And Gray’s “Favourite Cat,” engaging though she is, has none of the satiric power of his “On Lord Holland’s Seat Near Margate, Kent,” which uses an outdated style of landscape gardening to discredit with damning effect a corrupt politician who has been “dropped”:

Art he invokes new horrors still to bring:

Now mouldring fanes and battlements arise,

Arches and turrets nodding to their fall,

Unpeopled palaces delude his eyes,

And mimics desolation covers all.

A second question that must always be asked the English Augustans is a stylistic one. As Donald Davie has put it in his brilliant *Purity of Diction in English Verse*, a study which lays forever the old ghost of “poetic diction,” the dominant impression created by Augustan poetry is “that words are thrusting at the poem and being fended off from it, that however many poems these poets wrote, certain words would never be allowed into the poems, except as a disastrous oversight. “ The Victorians dismissed this stylistic chastity of the eighteenth century as verbal prudery; the contrast with Shakespeare or even Browning was obvious and appeared final. But art is necessarily selectivity and the only question is the mode or level at which the selection is operating. Thus in drama or the dramatic monologue the dramatis persona’s vocabulary is only limited - has only to be limited - by the character he is supposed to embody. But the typical Augustan, whatever his medium, aimed first of all at concision and concentration, a maximum verbal density in which every word is immediately recognized as necessary, and the reader was only left to fill out the verbal implications.

1. According to the passage, the main questions a modern reader must ask himself when reading Augustan literature are questions concerning
	1. the qualities of concision and concentration
	2. lyrics and verse
	3. drama and dramatic monologue
	4. a work’s style and context
2. Which of the following poets are specifically mentioned to be Augustans by the author?
3. Pope
4. Dryden

III. Browning

IV. Wordsworth

1. Gray
	1. I, II, and III
	2. I and II
	3. I, II, and V
	4. III, IV, and V
2. We can infer from the passage that the author prefers Augustan poems which
	1. are concise and concentrated
	2. are self-sufficient and self-explanatory
	3. are contextually detached
	4. have cultural implications and connections
3. The author uses the phrase “tour de force,” to mean
	1. a self-sufficient and self-explanatory poem
	2. a self-evaluation or judgment
	3. an adroit or ingenious accomplishment
	4. a masquerade
4. Which of the following poems may we infer that the author believes to be most revealing about seventeenth-century England?
	1. Dryden’s “Secular Masque”
	2. Dryden’s “Alexander’s Feast”
	3. Pope’s “Epistle to Miss Blount on Her Leaving the Town after the Coronation”
	4. Gray’s “On Lord Holland’s Seat Near Margate, Kent”
5. According to the author, the chief aim of the typical Augustan writer was
	1. stylistic purity
	2. limited dramatic vocabulary
	3. geographical ambivalence
	4. maximum verbal density

**Passage III**

In the history of economic thought, Adam Smith (1723-90), the just great figure in the central economic tradition, is counted a hopeful figure. In an important sense he was. His vision was of an advancing national community, not a stagnant or declining one. His title *An Inquiry into the* *Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations* had an obvious overtone of opulence and well- being.He covered an all but certain formula for economic progress. This was the liberal economic society in which regulation was by competition and the market and not by the state, and in which each man, thrown on his own resources, laboured effectively for the enrichment of the society.

But it was of aggregate wealth that Smith spoke. He had little hope that the distribution between merchants, manufacturers, and landlords on the one hand, and the working masses on the other, would be such as much to benefit the latter. Smith regarded this distribution as depending in the first instance on relative bargaining strength. And he did not believe it difficult “to foresee which of the two parties must upon all ordinary occasions have the advantage in the dispute.” In an admirably succinct comment on the balance of eighteenth-century economic power he added: “We have no acts of Parliament against combining to lower the price of work; but many against combining to raise it.” So in the normal course of events the income of the working masses would be pressed down and down. There was a floor below which they would not fall: “A man must always live by his work, and his wages must at least be sufficient to maintain him. They must even upon most occasions be somewhat more; otherwise it would be impossible for him to bring up a family, and the race of such workmen could not last beyond the first generation.”

But this obviously was not much. On the contrary, although Adam Smith is rarely identified with the idea, this was one of the beginnings of perhaps the most influential and certainly the most despairing dictum in the history of social comment, the notion that the income of the masses of the people - all who in one way or another worked for a living and whether in industry or agriculture - could not for very long rise very far above the minimum necessary for the survival of the race. It is the immortal iron law which, as stiffened by Ricardo and fashioned by Marx, became the chief weapon in the eventual ideological assault on capitalism.

Smith was not categorical about the iron law - he was categorical about almost nothing, and ever since economists have always been at their best when they adhered to his example. Thus he conceded that a scarcity of workers might keep wages above the subsistence level for an indefinite time. Under conditions of rapid economic growth, wages would also rise. Growth was much more important than wealth per se in its effect on wages. “It is not the actual greatness of national wealth, but its continual increase, which occasions a rise in the wages of labour. … England is certainly, in the present times, a much richer country than any part of North America. The wages of labour, however, are much higher in North America than in any part of England.”

1. Adam Smith’s vision of the national community was that it was
	1. stagnant
	2. advancing
	3. declining
	4. hopeful
2. In Smith’s concept of society, economic regulation would be achieved by
	1. the state
	2. merchants, manufacturers, and landlords
	3. competition and the market
	4. the individual worker
3. Smith believed that in the normal course of economic events
	1. a balance would be struck concerning wealth distribution between manufacturers and workers
	2. the income of the masses of the people would gradually increase
	3. the bargaining strength of the merchants would decrease
	4. the income of the working masses would steadily decrease to the subsistence level
4. Adam Smith was in agreement with Karl Marx insofar as Smith believed that
	1. governments legislated in favor of manufacturers and against the working class
	2. individual workers had recourse in genuine bargaining strength
	3. an ideological attack was the only effective weapon against capitalism
	4. working class income is depressed to a bare subsistence level by the ordinary operation of the balance of economic power
5. The author believes that the most useful quality of Smith’s economic theorizing was
	1. his flexibility
	2. his urgent sense of despair about the inevitable economic fate of the working classes
	3. the base he provided for the theories of Ricardo and Marx
	4. his discussion of wealth from an aggregate rather than a sectional point of view
6. One can infer that according to Adam Smith, eighteenth-century American wages were higher than eighteenth-century English wages because of the
	1. American Revolution
	2. Puritan ethic
	3. far greater size of the North American continent
	4. establishment of a new economy

**Passage IV**

The three major characteristics of malignant neoplasms in humans are first, that growth is not subject to the normal constraints of the parent tissue. Second, that cancers always show a degree of anaplasia, which is a loss of cellular differentiation. Third, that cancers have the property of metastasis, that is the ability to spread from the site of origin to distant tissues. Metastasis is, however, a property unique to cancer. Furthermore, it is metastasis that in most instances kills the patient and understanding the biology of metastasis is one of the central problems of cancer research.

There is now a considerable body of evidence that most human neoplasms are monoclonal in origin. This means that the original oncogenic event affected a single cell, and that the tumor is the result of growth from that one cell. One problem with the concept of monoclonality is that it has sometimes led investigators to believe that there is a far greater uniformity of behavior of cancer than is in fact the case. In spite of the monoclonal origin of neoplasms, significant heterogeneity appears to arise during the course of development of the tumors. This has important implications for treatment and for understanding the nature of metastases.

How does heterogeneity arise? It has been postulated that the occurrence of malignancy confers an inherent genetic instability on the clonogenic cells and that, during the course of the growth of the tumor, phenotypic differences develop. Thus there is the development of mutants, some of which survive and undergo still further changes, whereas others, depending on their ability to survive hormonal, biochemical, or immunological adversity, die. The mature tumor can therefore be envisaged as being composed of cells that are monoclonal in origin, but diverse in capacity to metastasize and to resist radiation, cytotoxic drugs, and immune attack.

Normal tissues vary greatly in both the rate of cell division and the numbers of cells that are actively proliferating. An idealized representation of the way in which proliferation occurs in a normal tissue is given by stem or progenitor cells supplying a proliferating pool of cells which follow a particular differentiation pathway. These become mature cells that are held to be incapable of further division and subsequently die. While this model may apply to human cancers, it is possibly an oversimplification. Tumors probably do contain progenitor and mature cells but it is not clear whether cell renewal in a tumor comes from a small progenitor fraction. While the progeny of stem cell division go through successive divisions, their number increases, but the number of further divisions they are programmed to make declines concomitantly, and they eventually die. It is apparent that the stimulus to cell death and its mechanism is a programmed process under genetic control. A normal tissue grows and develops to a point where cell proliferation is balanced by cell death and the tissue remains static in size, unless subjected to a changing environment, e.g. hormonal influences. In a cancer, on the other hand, the regulatory mechanisms appear defective and the tumor gradually increases in size.

When normal tissues proliferate, they do so to the point where cell-to-cell contact appears to be able to exert an inhibiting role on further mitosis. In contrast, transformed cells continue to grow after they have become confluent. The nature of the cell surface glycoproteins differs from normal cells with an increase in sialic acid content, and alterations in the surface charge. The locomotor apparatus of cells (microfilaments and microtubules) become disorganized and the cells alter their shape and show membrane movement at sites of contact with normal cells. At the same time the tumor cells become locally invasive, although the biochemical basis of this property is ill-understood.

As the tumor grows, tumor blood vessels proliferate probably under the influence of tumor angiogenesis factors. One of the results of local invasion is that tumor cells can enter vascular and other channels of the body and metastasize. To do this the tumor cell must pass through the capillary endothelium and survive attack by host defense mechanisms such as phagocytic cells and so-called natural killer cells.

1. Which of the following statements is not supported by the passage?
	1. Most human neoplasms are monoclonal in origin.
	2. The cells that comprise a tumor can be very different from each other.
	3. All cancers grow uncontrollably.
	4. The capacity for metastasis varies with different types of cancer.
2. According to the passage:

I. metastasis is a property that distinguishes cancer from non-cancer.

II. the cell surface glycoproteins of cancer cells have increased salicylic acid content

compared to normal cells.

1. the microfilaments and microtubules of cancer cells become disorganized.
	1. I is correct.
	2. II is correct.
	3. I and II are correct.
	4. I and III are correct.
2. Which statement can be inferred from the passage:
	1. Cancer is brought about by many cells turning malignant at the same time.
	2. Natural killer cells and phagocytic cells may be able to prevent metastasis.
	3. Immunological therapies are one of the most effective cancer treatments.
	4. Tumors are able to grow regardless of how little blood supply there may be.
3. Which of the following statements is supported by the passage:
	1. Cancers grow very rapidly.
	2. Chemotherapy is often used to combat metastasis.
	3. Prevention is better than cure.
	4. Cancer cells lose contact inhibition of cell division.
4. The most appropriate title for this passage would be
	1. Cancer Treatment
	2. Cancer
	3. Cancer Biology
	4. The Causes of Cancer
5. Which of the following statements is not supported by the passage?
	1. Stem cells are the least differentiated cells in a tissue.
	2. Unlike their progeny, stem cells are not programmed to die.
	3. Stem cells are the only cells in a tissue that can divide.
	4. Natural cell death is under genetic control.

**Passage V**

The poet and critic W. H. Alden once wrote, The critical opinions of a writer should always be taken with a large grain of salt. For the most part, they are manifestations of his debate with himself as to what he should do next and what he should avoid. While Alden denies the applicability of a poet’s critical theories to poetry in general, he emphasizes the usefulness of those theories as a key to the poet’s own work. In this paper, I have used the criticism of Donald Davie as a gloss on Davie’s own poetry, taking the criticism not necessarily as an objective description of the real workings of the poetry but, as Alden might suggest, as an indication of Davie’s goals as a poet.

Over the twenty-odd years of Davie’s career, these goals have undergone no fundamental change. The style of poetry Davie described as his ideal in his critical essay Purity of Diction in English Verse, published in 1953, is the style Davie’s own poetry still aspires to in his most recent work. The changes in Davie’s poetry over the years have been directed toward not an abandonment but

a fuller realization of the goal he envisaged in the early fifties, which he summarized as, in Eliot’s phrase, the perfection of a common language. Calvin Bedient, who regards Davie’s critical theories as wrongheaded, sees Davie’s best poetry as a tacit repudiation of those theories; Davie’s finest lyrics, according to Bedient, were written in spite of, not because of, his critical ideas. For Bedient, the growth of Davie’s poetic skill reflects his gradual escape from the influence of his own poetic ideals. But a more careful reading of Davie suggests that, on the contrary, Davie’s best poems are not ones in which he deviates from his stated poetic ideals but rather those in which he comes closest to embodying them; and this he has done with increasing frequency in his recent work. The canons of Davie’s criticism are basically four:

1. Poetry should be pure in diction, which involves, primarily, economy and restraint in the use of metaphor. The poet, according to Davie, is concerned with purifying as well as expanding the language; that is, not only must he coin new ways of seeing the world (new metaphors and images), but he must also preserve and refurbish the old ways. Good poetry does this through the use of rhythm and sound and through vivid, specific nouns and verbs that help to revivify the meanings buried in dead metaphors and images.
2. Poetry should adhere closely to the twin models of, on the one hand, prose and careful conversation and on the other, the usages of the great poets of the past. The poet must be wary of drastic innovation without a strong reason.
3. Poetry should use, as far as possible, the syntax of ordinary language.
4. Poetry should handle its meanings as clearly and explicitly as possible, drawing distinctions that are at once subtle and lucid. Poetry should be intelligent as well as passionate.

Davie makes it clear that poetry that follows these canons may not be the only real poetry, or even the best poetry; as he points out, this kind of prosaic strength is most characteristic not of great poets but of good ones, and Davie lists Gower, Greville, Denham, Goldsmith, Jonson, and Cowper as examples. But it is this company of solid, intelligible, honest poets that Davie aspires to join, and it is by their standards that we must accordingly judge Davie’s work.

1. In the passage, the author is primarily concerned with
	1. illustrating and defending the basic critical theories set forth by Davie.
	2. demonstrating that the style of Davie’s poetry is a repudiation of Davie’s critical theories.
	3. showing the relevance of Davie’s critical writing to an understanding of Davie’s poetry.
	4. indicating how Davie’s poetry both fails and succeeds at bearing out Davie’s critical theories.
2. It can be inferred that the author’s attitude toward Calvin Bedient’s evaluation of Davie’s critical theories is one of
	1. frank disagreement
	2. reluctant agreement
	3. bemused uncertainty
	4. partial acceptance
3. The author of the passage and Calvin Bedient are in agreement on the idea that Davie’s poetry
	1. represents an attempt to escape from the influence of literary theories.
	2. embodies Davie’s own critical ideas.
	3. helps to clarify Davie’s critical theories.
	4. has improved in quality over the course of his career.
4. The author is interested in Davie’s 1953 work Purity of Diction in English Verse primarily for the light it sheds on
	1. the work of the poets Davie admires.
	2. Davie’s literary ideals.
	3. Calvin Bedient’s analysis of Davie’s work.
	4. Eliot’s influence on Davie’s criticism.
5. The remainder of the paper from which the passage is excerpted is most likely to contain
	1. a more detailed explanation of Davie’s critical theories.
	2. an assessment of the validity of Davie’s critical standards in the study of English poetry.
	3. an analysis of Davie’s poetry in the light of his own critical theories.
	4. an in-depth analysis of the works of the poets listed in the last paragraph.

**Passage VI**

A Polish proverb claims that fish, to taste right, should swim three times: in water, in butter, and in wine. The early efforts of the basic scientists in the food industry were directed at improving the preparation, preservation, and distribution of safe and nutritious food. Our memories of certain foodstuffs eaten during the Second World War suggest that, although these might have been safe and nutritious, they certainly did not taste right nor were they particularly appetizing in appearance or smell. This neglect of the sensory appeal of foods is happily becoming a thing of the past. Indeed, in 1957, the University of California considered the subject of sufficient importance to warrant the setting-up of a course in the analysis of foods by sensory methods. The book, Principles of Sensory Evaluation of Food, grew out of this course. The authors hope that it will be useful to food technologists in industry and also to others engaged in research into the problem of sensory evaluation of foods.

The scope of the book is well illustrated by the chapter headings: “The Sense of Taste”; “Olfaction”; “Visual, Auditory, Tactile, and Other Senses”; and “Factors Influencing Sensory Measurements.” There are further chapters on panel testing, difference and directional difference tests, quantity-quality evaluation, consumer studies, statistical procedures including design of experiments, and physical and chemical tests.

An attempt has clearly been made to collect every possible piece of information which might be useful, more than one thousand five hundred references being quoted. As a result, the book seems

at first sight to be an exhaustive and critically useful review of the literature. This it certainly is, but this is by no means its only achievement, for there are many suggestions for further lines of research, and the discursive passages are crisply provocative of new ideas and new ways of looking at established findings.

Of particular interest is the weight given to the psychological aspects of perception, both objectively and subjectively. The relation between stimuli and perception is well covered, and includes a valuable discussion of the uses and disadvantages of the Weber Law of Sensory Perception in the evaluation of differences. It is interesting to find that in spite of many attempts to separate and define the modalities of taste, nothing better has been achieved than the familiar classification into sweet, sour, salty, and bitter. Nor is there as yet any clear-cut evidence of the physiological nature of the taste stimulus. With regard to smell, systems of classification are of little value because of the extraordinary sensitivity of the nose and because the response to the stimulus is so subjective. The authors suggest that a classification based on the size, shape, and electronic status of the molecule involved merits further investigation, as does the theoretical proposition that weak physical binding of the stimulant molecule to the receptor site is a necessary part of the mechanism of stimulation.

Apart from taste and smell, there are many other components of perception of the sensations from food in the mouth. The basic modalities of pain, cold, warmth, and touch, together, with vibration sense, discrimination, and localization may all play a part, as, of course, does auditory reception of bone-conducted vibratory stimuli from the teeth when eating crisp or crunchy foods. In this connection the authors rightly point out that this type of stimulus requires much more investigation, suggesting that a start might be made by using subjects afflicted with various forms of deafness. It is, of course, well-known that extraneous noise may alter discrimination, and the attention of the authors is directed to the work of Prof. H. J. Eysenck on the “stimulus hunger” of extroverts and the “stimulus avoidance” of introverts.

1. The author uses a Polish proverb at the beginning of the article in order to
	1. introduce, in an interesting manner, the discussion of food.
	2. show the connection between food and nationality.
	3. indicate that there are various ways to prepare food.
	4. bring out the difference between American and Polish cooking.
2. The author’s appraisal of Principles of Sensory Evaluation of Food is one of
	1. mixed feelings
	2. indifference
	3. faint praise
	4. high praise
3. The writer of the article does not express the view, either directly or by implication, that
	1. more sharply defined classifications of taste are needed than those which are used at present.
	2. more research should be done regarding the molecular constituency of food.
	3. food values are objectively determined by an expert “smeller.”
	4. psychological consideration would play an important part in food evaluation.
4. The authors of the book suggest the use of deaf subjects because
	1. deaf people are generally introverted
	2. all types of subjects should be used to insure the validity of an experiment.
	3. they are more objective in their attitude than normal subjects would be when it comes to food experimentation.
	4. the auditory sense is an important factor in food evaluation.
5. Which of the following can be inferred from the chapter headings of Principles of Sensory Evaluation of Food as cited by the passage?
	1. The sense of smell is less important than the sense of taste.
	2. The sense of taste is less important than the sense of smell.
	3. The sense of taste is less important than the sense of sound.
	4. The sense of touch is less important than the sense of smell.
6. The famous Guide Michelin includes ambience in rating the quality of restaurants. The author of the passage would likely
	1. prefer that only food be considered in rating restaurants.
	2. object that French cooking should not be the standard for the world.
	3. be uninterested in the opinions of restaurant foods.
	4. agree to the inclusion of ambience in the rating system.

**Passage VII**

It is almost a definition of a gentleman to say he is one who never inflicts pain. His benefits may be considered as parallel to what are called comforts or conveniences in arrangements of a personal nature: such as an easy chair or a good fire, which do their part in dispelling cold and fatigue, though nature provides both means of rest and animal heat without them. The true gentleman, in like manner, carefully avoids whatever may cause a jar or a jolt in the minds of those with whom he is cast – all clashing of opinion, or collision of feeling, all restraint, or suspicion, or gloom, or resentment; his great concern being to make everyone at their ease and at home. He has his eyes on all his company; he is tender towards the bashful, gentle towards the distant, and merciful towards the absurd; he can recollect to whom he is speaking; he guards against unseasonable allusions, or topics which may irritate; he is seldom prominent in conversation, and never wearisome. He makes light of favors while he does them, and seems to be receiving when he is conferring. He never speaks of himself except when compelled, never defends himself by a mere retort, he has no ears for slander or gossip, is scrupulous in imputing motives to those who interfere with him, and interprets everything for the best. He is never mean or little in his disputes, never takes unfair advantage, never mistakes personalities or sharp sayings for arguments, or insinuates evil which he dare not say out.

From a longsighted prudence, he observes the maxim of the ancient sage, that we should ever conduct ourselves towards our enemy as if he were one day to be our friend. He has too much good sense to be affronted at insults, he is too well employed to remember injuries, and too indolent to bear malice. If he engages in controversy of any kind, his disciplined intellect

preserves him from the blundering discourtesy of better, perhaps, but less educated minds, who, like blunt weapons, tear and hack instead of cutting clean; who mistake the point in argument, waste their strength on trifles, misconceive their adversary, to leave the question more involved than they find it. He may be right or wrong in his opinion, but he is too clear-headed to be unjust; he is as simple as he is forcible, and as brief as he is decisive.

If he be an unbeliever, he will be too profound and large-minded to ridicule religion or to act against it. He is a friend of religious toleration, and that, not only because his philosophy has taught him to look on all forms of faith with an impartial eye, but also from the gentleness and effeminacy of feeling, which is the attendant on civilization. Sometimes he acknowledges the being of God, sometimes he invests an unknown principle or quality with the attributes of perfection. And this deduction of his reason, or creation of his fancy, he makes the occasion of such excellent thoughts, and the starting-point of so varied and systematic a teaching that he even seems like a disciple of Christianity itself. From the very accuracy and steadiness of his logical powers, he is able to see what sentiments are consistent in those who hold any religious doctrine at all, and he appears to others to feel and to hold a whole circle of theological truths, which exist in his mind not otherwise than as a number of deductions.

1. According to the passage, the gentleman when engaged in debate is
	1. soothing and conciliatory.
	2. brilliant and insightful.
	3. opinionated and clever.
	4. concise and forceful.
2. A gentleman, here, is analogized to
	1. a jar or jolt.
	2. an easy chair or a good fire.
	3. a blunt weapon.
	4. a sharp saying.
3. This passage does not take into account the commonly held concept that a gentleman is known for his
	1. consideration for others.
	2. refusal to slander.
	3. leniency toward the stupid.
	4. neatness in attire.
4. The most appropriate title for this passage would be
	1. A Gentleman Now and Before
	2. Definition of a Gentleman
	3. Intellectualism and the Gentleman
	4. Can a Gentleman Be Religious?
5. According to the passage
	1. gentlemen will never disagree with each other.
	2. gentlemen can have the same religious beliefs as common men and in the same way.
	3. the power of a gentleman’s thought on religious matters can give him the appearance

of a true Christian.

1. the gentleness of a gentleman disarms all who would oppose him.