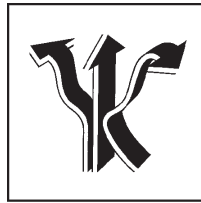


МІЖРЕГІОНАЛЬНА
АКАДЕМІЯ УПРАВЛІННЯ ПЕРСОНАЛОМ



МАУП

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АНГЛІЙСЬКА МОВА ДЛЯ ПСИХОЛОГІВ

ENGLISH FOR PSYCHOLOGISTS

Рекомендовано

*Міністерством освіти і науки України
як навчальний посібник для студентів
вищих навчальних закладів, які навчаються
за спеціальністю “Психологія”*

Київ 2006

ББК 81.2АНГ-923
О-40

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Схвалено Вченою радою Міжрегіональної Академії управління персоналом (протокол № 8 від 28.09.04)

*Рекомендовано Міністерством освіти і науки України
(лист № 14/18.2-1324 від 08.06.05)*

Одарчук С. І.

О-40 Англійська мова для психологів = English for psychologists: Навч. посіб. для студ. вищ. навч. закл., які навчаються за спец. “Психологія” / С. І. Одарчук, Н. А. Одарчук. — К.: МАУП, 2006. — 200 с. — Бібліогр.: с. 195.

ISBN 966-608-520-8

Пропонований посібник складається з 9 розділів, 3 додатків, англійського глосарія та українсько-англійського словника найуживаніших виразів та психологічних термінів. Кожний розділ містить базовий текст професійного спрямування, активний вокабулярій, комплекс лексико-граматичних вправ на засвоєння нового матеріалу, вправи комунікативного характеру для розвитку навичок усного мовлення, вправи на переклад та реферування уривків текстів професійної тематики англійською мовою. Додатки містять вправи підвищеної складності, додаткові тексти для самостійної роботи студентів та англійський словник-коментар найтипівіших фобій.

Матеріал дібрано відповідно до навчальної програми ділової англійської мови для студентів, які навчаються за спеціальністю “Психологія”.

ББК 81.2АНГ-923

ISBN 966-608-520-8

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ВСТУП

Пропонований навчальний посібник призначений для студентів-психологів, які вивчають англійську мову професійного спрямування, і відповідає рівню “Intermediate”. Мета посібника — сформувати у студентів навички говоріння, читання, письма та перекладу, сприяти опануванню професійної англійської мови як системи та розширенню знань студентів з фаху на базі автентичних англомовних текстів. Посібник складається з дев'яти розділів, трьох додатків, українсько-англійського словника найуживаніших виразів і психологічних термінів, а також англійського глосарія психологічних термінів. Розділи посібника містять навчальний матеріал, що охоплює основні психічні процеси та стани, такі як відчуття, сприймання, свідомість, пам'ять, мислення, мовлення, емоційні стани, почуття, поведінка та воля, стреси та конфлікти. Пропонуються також загальний розділ про галузі психології та розділ, присвячений вивченню особистості та процесів її соціалізації.

Кожний розділ містить базовий текст, лексичний коментар та активний вокабулярій, комплекс лексико-граматичних і комунікативних вправ на засвоєння нового матеріалу та розвиток навичок усного мовлення, додатковий текст для контролю та розвитку навичок оглядового швидкісного читання, вправи на переклад для закріплення активного лексичного мінімуму, а також український текст, що узгоджується з тематикою базового тексту, для реферування англійською мовою. Комунікативні вправи передбачають завдання рольового та дискусійного характеру та спонукають до діалогічного мовлення з аргументуванням точки зору.

Навчальний матеріал посібника, як і додаткові тексти, рекомендовані для аудиторного та самостійного опрацювання, а також широкому колу осіб, які цікавляться питаннями психології.

UNIT 1

THE GROWTH OF PSYCHOLOGY

It has been more than a hundred years since psychology broke away from philosophy and physiology to emerge as a separate discipline. In the past century this young and fertile area of study has undergone a series of expansions in subject matter as well as in research methods. During this period even the basic nature of psychology has been at issue: Is it the study of conscious experience? The study of unconscious processes? The study of individual differences, or of observable behaviour? As we will discover when we examine a few of these basic ideas, these differences of opinion have contributed to the tremendous growth of psychology.

Psychology as the Study of Conscious Experience

Psychology had its formal beginnings in Leipzig, Germany, where Wilhelm Wundt founded the first psychological laboratory in 1879. Wundt is considered the first psychologist. He stringently limited the subject to the study of conscious experience. Wundt believed that all our conscious experiences are merely intricate combinations of elemental sensations — that is, intellectual towers made of sensory building blocks. Wundt attempted to use introspection to find the basic sensations. He also tried to discover the principles by which those sensations combine to become conscious experience.

Psychology as the Study of Unconscious Processes

For Sigmund Freud conscious experiences were only the tip of the iceberg. Beneath the surface, he believed, lay primitive biological urges that seek expression but are in conflict with the requirements of society and morality. According to Freud, these unconscious motivations and conflicts are powerful influences on our conscious thoughts and actions; they thus are responsible for much human behaviour.

Psychology Today

Psychology's roots can be traced back to ancient Greece and to speculations about the nature of sensation, perception, reason, emotion, dreams, and memory. Developments in many countries over many years have contributed to the modern science of psychology, which now flourishes around the world: in Germany, where Wundt established his laboratory; in England, where Galton worked; in Russia, where Pavlov discovered the conditioned reflex; in Japan, where the discipline is still relatively new; and in numerous other countries.

Psychology has gained wide public acceptance in the United States. While American psychology still dominates the world scene, several other countries have proportionately as many psychologists as the United States. These countries include Spain, Finland, Israel, the Netherlands, Belgium, and Denmark.

Fields of Specialization

Experimental psychology investigates basic behavioural processes that are shared by various species. Experimental psychologists have sought answers to such questions as: What is the basis for love between mother and baby? Can animals reason? What is the role of the brain in memory? How do visual experiences during infancy affect later vision? They are also interested in how species are interrelated and in the significance of certain behaviour.

Researchers in the fields of **physiological psychology or neuropsychology** attempt to untangle the connections between the nervous and endocrine systems and behaviour. There has been a recent explosion of interest in the way that the brain works. The researchers in this area, which is called neuroscience, investigate the workings of sensory systems, the effects of brain damage on behaviour, and the effects of various brain chemicals on psychological phenomena such as memory, pain, and motivation.

Psychologists who specialize in **psychopharmacology** study the relationship between drugs and behaviour. Other psychopharmacologists explore the connection between psychopharmacology and various mental disorders. Much of this research is directed at identifying drugs that affect specific receptors in the brain — receptors that may be involved in such problems as pain, anxiety, depression, memory loss, and schizophrenia.

All aspects of behavioural development over the entire life span are the concern of **developmental psychology**. Every psychological concept

— learning, memory, motivation, perception, personality, thinking, and so on — can be examined from the standpoint of its change and development through life. Some developmental psychologists specialize in studying the capabilities of the newborn infant. Others concern themselves with the development of these capabilities in the child, and still others focus on changes through adulthood. There has been increasing interest in the developmental tasks connected with aging, and the past decade has seen the rapid growth of a life-span developmental psychology, which focuses on age-related behavioural change from birth to death.

The study of the relation between personality and behaviour is an example of research in **personality psychology**, a field in which individual differences in behaviour are studied. Such differences reflect the fact that not all people react the same way in the same situation, and personality psychologists attempt to explain why this is so. They also try to discover why people tend to behave in a fairly consistent manner in various situations. It is this combination of differences among individuals and consistency within individuals that creates personality, so that each of us is known for having a specific set of characteristics, our own ways of behaving, of getting along in the world, and of interacting with others.

Attempts to assess the connection between violence in the mass media and aggressive behaviour are typical of the sort of research done in the field of **social psychology**, which is concerned with the behaviour of people in groups. Social psychologists are especially interested in the influence of other people on the individual. They study the ways in which interpersonal relationships develop. They want to know who likes whom — and why. They are interested in the attitudes that people have toward social issues and in the way those attitudes are formed and changed by society. They also want to know how those attitudes affect our thought processes. Social psychology has become an extremely wide-ranging field of psychology. Among the topics studied are friendship formation, romantic attraction, perception of other people, social influence, behaviour in groups, bargaining, and conflict.

Educational and School Psychology investigates all the psychological aspects of the learning process. At just one professional conference, educational psychologists presented research on creative thinking in fifth graders, gender differences in mathematical ability, television's effect on study habits, anxiety in education, teachers' effects on students' behaviour, the identification of gifted children, attention in learning disabled children, and a host of other topics. Most educational psychologists work in colleges or universities, where they conduct research and train teachers and

psychologists. A few work on curriculum development, materials, and procedures for schools, and in government agencies, business, and the military.

Educational psychology differs considerably from *school psychology*. Most school psychologists work in elementary and secondary schools, where they assess children with learning or emotional problems and work out ways for parents and teachers to help them. School psychologists also administer personality, intelligence, and achievement tests in the schools.

The workings of personnel departments and the factors that influence job selection are among the topics considered in *industrial psychology*, in which the relationship between people and their jobs is studied. Psychologists have given increasing attention to the conditions and effects of employment. They investigate employee morale, job-related stress, the qualities that make a good boss, how to enrich jobs, and ways to make working hours more flexible.

The study, diagnosis, and treatment of abnormal behaviour are the province of *clinical psychology*. Clinical psychologists have developed diverse ways of treating various disorders. In studying the basis of any disorder, they look for possible biological, biochemical, educational, and environmental causes.

Some clinical psychologists who practice community psychology have the primary aim of preventing mental disorders. Their ultimate goal is to change the aspects of the environment that lead to disorder; they can be found in outpatient clinics, advising community workers on how to handle psychological problems, staffing emergency services, and supervising halfway houses and hotlines.

List of Vocabulary

- adulthood** — дорослий, зрілий вік
to administer — керувати, надавати допомогу
to affect — здійснювати вплив
age-related — пов'язаний з віком
anxiety — тривога, неспокій
attempt — спроба
attitude — ставлення
to assess — дати оцінку
behaviour — поведінка
capability — здібність

to conduct — керувати, проводити, поводитись
conscious — свідомий
consistency — послідовність, узгодженість
damage — збиток, ураження, дефект
to differ — відрізнятися
disabled — покалічений, немічний
discipline — галузь, наука
disorder — розлад
diverse — різноманітний, різноманітний
to emerge — з'явитися, виникнути
emergency — непередбачений випадок, невідкладна допомога
to explore — досліджувати
fertile — плідний, багатий, сприятливий
flexible — гнучкий
to flourish — процвітати, бути у розквіті
halfway house — придорожній готель
to handle — контролювати, керувати
to identify — визначати, встановлювати
to influence smb / to have an influence on smb — здійснювати вплив
intricate — заплутаний, складний
to investigate — досліджувати
life span — тривалість життя
morale — моральний стан, дух
numerous — численний
observable — помітний, що піддається спостереженню
perception — сприйняття
to prevent — відвернути, попередити
province — сфера діяльності
to reason — мислити, роздумувати, переконувати
receptor — рецептор, орган чуття
research — дослідження
sensation — відчуття
shared — набутий
significance — важливість
species — вид, рід, порода
to staff — забезпечувати персоналом
stringently — достеменно, переконливо
to untangle — розплутувати
urge — стимул, інстинкт, домагання
various — різноманітний

violence — жорстокість, насилля
vision — бачення
visual — видимий, візуальний
wide-ranging — широкодіапазонний

Essential Word Phrases

(to be sought in the text)

Відділитися від філософії; розширити предмет дослідження; внести вклад у розвиток психології; вмотивована реакція; біологічний інстинкт; запити суспільства; роздуми про природу відчуттів; некерований мотив; умовний рефлекс; отримати громадське визнання; домінувати на світовій арені; зв'язок між нервовою та ендокринною системами; досліджувати роботу сенсорної системи; розумові розлади; втрата пам'яті; вікові зміни у поведінці; соціальні події; розвиток міжособистісних стосунків; процеси мислення; конфлікти та їх залагодження; творче мислення; гендерні відмінності; обдаровані діти; проводити дослідження / тестування; приділяти увагу; збільшити кількість робочих місць; гнучкий графік роботи; першочергове завдання; кінцева мета; амбулаторна клініка; девіантна поведінка; надавати консультативну допомогу телефоном.

Ex. 1. Answer the questions on the text:

1. What is the contribution of Wilhelm Wundt into the psychological science?
2. How did Sigmund Freud's views on consciousness differ from those of Wilhelm Wundt?
3. How much popular has psychology become nowadays?
4. What are the scientists in the field of experimental psychology interested in?
5. Whose sphere of investigation is the workings of sensory systems, the effects of brain damage on behaviour?
6. What does personality psychology try to discover?
7. Why has social psychology become an extremely wide-ranging field of psychology lately?
8. What are the differences between educational and school psychology?

9. What other branches of psychological science have developed recently? What are their topics of research?

Ex. 2. Fill in each sentence with the suitable word from the vocabulary list in the necessary form:

1. The company has really ... since we moved our factory to Scotland.
2. They are carrying out some ... on the effects of brain damage.
3. They suddenly became ... of a sharp increase in the temperature.
4. Could you at least make a(n) ... to smile?
5. He has been ... and found blameless.
6. Simply telling him how valuable his work was boosted his ... a lot.
7. I knew the train had stopped, but I had the ... that it was still moving.
8. We waited with great ... for more news about the accident.
9. I think he ... himself admirably, considering the difficult circumstances.
10. It was a difficult situation and he ... it very well.

Ex. 3. Complete the following sentences:

1. Wundt stringently limited the subject to the study of ...
2. According to Freud, our conscious thoughts and actions are influenced by ...
3. The researchers in physiological psychology or neuropsychology investigate the working ...
4. Developmental psychologists specialize in ...
5. A field in which individual differences in behaviour are studied is ...
6. Social psychologists are especially interested in ...
7. Industrial psychology deals with ...
8. Experimental psychologists have sought answers to such questions as ...

Ex. 4. Match the names of specialists with the corresponding activities:

Ex. 5. Form adjectives from the following verbs or nouns and make up phrases with them. Follow the model:

Model: emotion — emotional — emotional problems;

to observe – observable – observable behaviour.

Experiment, cognition, to develop, engineer, industry, to educate, clinics, environment, biology, to behave, norm, to flex, intellect, evolution.

№	SPECIALIST		PRIMARY ACTIVITIES
1	Clinical psychologist	a	Studies how people influence one another
2	Industrial psychologist	b	Studies mental processes
3	Educational psychologist	c	Studies the physical bases of behaviour and cognition
4	Social psychologist	d	Develops and evaluates tests; designs research to measure psychological functions
5	Developmental psychologist	e	Establishes programs; consults; treats youngsters' problems, and does research in the school setting
6	Experimental psychologist	f	Develops, designs, and evaluates materials and procedures for educational programs
7	School psychologist	g	Conducts research
8	Cognitive psychologist	h	Studies change in behaviour with age
9	Community psychologist	i	Combines research, consultation, and program development to enhance morale and efficiency on the job
10	Engineering psychologist	j	Treats distressed people within the community; initiates community action and develops community programs to enhance mental health
11	Personality psychologist	k	Assesses and treats people with psychological problems
12	Physiological psychologist	l	Studies how and why people differ from one another and how those differences can be assessed
13	Psychometric (quantitative) psychologist	m	Designs and evaluates environments, machinery, training devices, programs, and systems to improve relationships between people and environment

Ex. 6. Put the words into their correct spaces in the text:

Nervous, derived, investigation, functions, emotionally, soul, behaviour, mental, throughout, strategic.

Scope of Psychology

Psychology as a science studies ... (1) activity and human behaviour. Psychologists study basic ... (2) such as learning, memory, language, thinking, emotions and motives. They investigate development ... (3) the life span from birth to death. They are involved in mental and physical care. They treat people who are ... (4) distressed.

Psychology occupies a ... (5) position between natural and social sciences on the one hand, and between sciences and humanities, on the other.

The word “psychology” is ... (6) from the Greek word meaning “study of the mind and ... (7)” So in the definition of psychology there are three basic words: “science”, “... (8)”, “mental processes”.

“Science” means rational ... (9) of processes and phenomena. By “behaviour” psychologists mean everything that people and animals do: action, emotions, ways of communication, developmental processes. “Mental processes” characterize the work of the mind and the ... (10) system.

Ex. 7. Translate the sentences into English:

1. Понад сто років тому психологія відокремилась від філософії та фізіології, ставши окремою дисципліною.
2. Більшість психологів погоджувалися, що психологія — це вивчення поведінки, але значення слова “поведінка” відрізнялося у психологів.
3. В. Вундт створив першу у світі психологічну лабораторію, де разом з учнями експериментально досліджував усвідомлені реакції людини на різні подразники.
4. У багатьох сферах психології все ще визнається точка зору Фрейда щодо домінування у поведінці індивіда некерованих мотивів.
5. Історія психології свідчить про залежність розвитку цієї науки від інших наук, насамперед філософії та природознавства.

6. Опублікована заява була спробою зменшити громадський неспокій щодо нестабільної соціально-політичної ситуації в країні.
7. Соціальна психологія досліджує психічні явища у процесі взаємодії людей у великих та малих суспільних групах.
8. Більшість шкільних психологів працюють у початкових та середніх навчальних закладах, де вони вивчають та розв'язують проблеми, навчання та емоційних реакцій у дитячому та підлітковому віці.
9. Психологія управління та менеджменту здійснює дослідження процесів управління, організації спільної діяльності людей з метою досягнення позитивних результатів.
10. Клінічні психологи розробили безліч способів лікування різних психічних розладів.

Ex. 8. Read and translate the text:

Learning and Environment

On August 15, 1977, the world lost one of its greatest psychologists Alexander R. Luria. Honoured and respected in many countries of the world, Luria's 300 scientific works have been translated into English and have influenced thinking in the fields of psychology, neurology and neuropsychology, education and speech pathology.

Luria's first translated work, *Nature of Human Conflicts* (1932), supported the idea that human behaviour could not be reduced to a sum of neurological reflexes. He urged the study of the specific systems of behaviour produced in the process of the individual's social and historical development.

Luria's psychology concentrates on the development of mental capacities through learning. The correct organization of a child's learning leads to mental development. One does not wait for a child to be "ready" to learn to read, for example, but teaches the child the pre-reading skills at the level at which he or she is functioning. In turn, the child's knowledge influences the structure of his intellectual processes. Learning is a social-historic process.

Luria and his team investigated such mental processes as perception, ability to generalize, logical reasoning, imagination and self-awareness.

Luria's team discovered that new structures of cognitive activity appeared. Human consciousness was developing to a higher level as the society was transformed.

Luria was a true scientist and a true humanist who contributed to a social progress and to the development of human capacity.

Ex. 9. Pick out the words from the text which may be grouped under the heading "Psychology. General Notions".

Ex. 10. Explain the headline of the text.

Ex. 11. Choose the right answer:

1. How many Luria's works have been translated into other languages?
 - a) 250 works have been translated;
 - b) 300 works have been translated;
 - c) 350 works have been translated.
2. What idea did Luria's first work support?
 - a) Human behaviour could not be reduced to a sum of neurological reflexes.
 - b) Human behaviour could be reduced to specific systems of behaviour.
3. What does Luria's psychology concentrate on?
 - a) His psychology concentrates on environmental influences.
 - b) His psychology concentrates on the development of mental capacities through learning.
 - c) His psychology concentrates on introspection.
4. What mental processes did Luria investigate?
 - a) He investigated accommodation and assimilation.
 - b) He investigated social aspects of mental capacities.
 - c) He investigated perception, imagination and self awareness.

Ex. 12. Role-play:

1. You are going to enter the Psychology Faculty but your parents object to it. You are trying to persuade them that psychology is one of the basic fields of knowledge.
2. Ask your friends if they know the differences in the specialities of a psychologist, psychiatrist and psychoanalyst. If they don't, enlighten them.
3. You are interviewing a famous psychologist. What possible questions could you ask about the development of psychology as a separate discipline?
4. You have just made a report on Luria's research and are ready to answer your friend's questions.

Ex. 13. Render the text into English:

РОЗВИТОК НАУКОВИХ ЗНАНЬ ПРО ПРИРОДУ ПСИХІКИ

У донауковий період психіку розглядали як душу. Первісні люди за допомогою поняття душі пояснювали такі явища, як сон, втрата свідомості, психічні захворювання, смерть тощо. Перші наукові уявлення про психіку виникли у стародавньому світі. Вони відобразилися у працях філософів, медиків, педагогів.

У стародавній Індії поняття душі розкривається у текстах Вед. Душа розглядалася як субстанція, якій властиві свідомість, вічність, здатність до діяльності. Потенційно душа володіє знанням, мораллю, вірою, необмеженою енергією (силою) і нескінченним блаженством. Але оскільки душа перебуває у недосконалому стані, вона займається неадекватною діяльністю і підвладна стражданню.

Етико-філософські положення стародавнього Сходу вплинули на формування наукових поглядів філософів стародавньої Греції та Риму, де уявлення про психіку склалися в процесі розгляду людини як частини природи.

Демокріт стверджував, що душа є різновидом речовин, що утворюються з атомів вогню та підкорюються загальним законам. Сократ розглядав душу як сукупність психічних властивостей індивіда, який діє відповідно до розуміння моральних ідеалів. Платон є засновником так званого дуалізму в психології, згідно з яким матеріальне й духовне, тілесне та психічне розглядається як два самостійні та анта-

гоністичні начала. За Арістотелем, душа є невід'ємним початком лише органічного життя, а не всього матеріального світу в цілому. Душа не може існувати без тіла, проте вона не зводиться до тіла. Душа не ділиться на частини, проте вона виявляється у різних здібностях — почуттєвих, рухових, розумових.

Сформувавшись як наука, сучасна психологія на основі існуючих наукових даних вивчає факти, закономірності, механізми психічного життя людей і тварин.

FROM THE HISTORY OF PSYCHOLOGY

Ex. 14. Read the article quickly and give a short summary of it:

The Historical Background of Psychology

Psychology has both a traditional and scientific history, as any other science. Traditionally, psychology dates back to the earliest speculations about the relationships of man with his environment. Beginning from 600 B. C. the Greek intellectuals observed and discussed these relationships. Empedocles said that the cosmos consisted of four elements: earth, air, fire, and water. Hippocrates translated these elements into four bodily humours and characterized the temperament of individuals on the basis of these humours.

Plato recognized two classes of phenomena: things and ideas. Ideas, he said, come from two sources: some are innate and come with a soul, others are product of observations through the sense organs. The giant of the thinkers was Aristotle. He was interested in anatomy and physiology of the body, he explained learning on the basis of association of ideas, he said knowledge should be achieved on the basis of observations.

After the birth of Christ, St. Augustine characterized the method of introspection and developed a field of knowledge, later called as faculty psychology. According to St. Thomas Aquinas, scientific truth must be based on observation and experimentation.

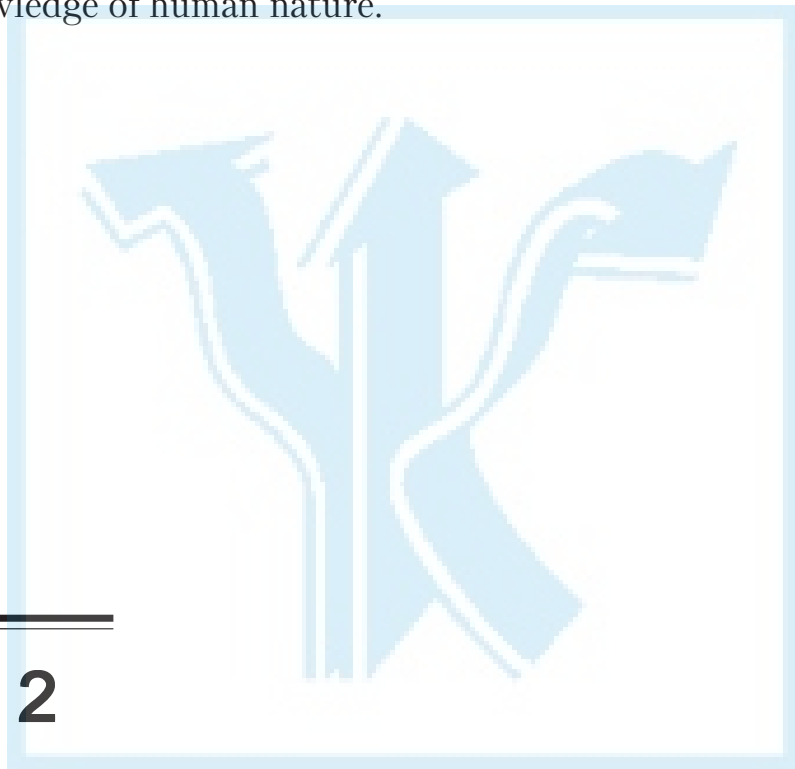
During the 15th and 16th centuries the scientific knowledge developed greatly. Among the most important scientific investigations were those of Newton in psychology of vision and Harvey in physiology.

The mind-body problem was a very important for the 17th and 18th centuries philosophers and entered recent psychology. Here appeared such

theories as 1) occasionalism, according to which God is between a mind and a body; 2) double aspect theory, in which a mind and a body are different aspects of the same substance; 3) psychophysical parallelism, according to which a mind and a body are parallel in their actions.

The associanists, or empiricists, developed the doctrine of associations simple ideas form complex sensations and ideas (Thomas Hobbes and John Locke were the founders of this theory). Opposed to the association theory was the doctrine of mental faculties.

Nowadays psychology is a separate discipline, a real combination of true knowledge of human nature.



UNIT 2

SENSSES AND PERCEPTION

Imagine a world without sensation. You would exist in a void, where there was neither light nor shadow, and where no sound disturbed the

silence. Food would have no flavour, and you would know neither the fragrance of flowers nor the smell of decay. A lover's caress could not excite you, nor could a cooling breeze relieve the summer heat — which you could not feel, no matter how badly sunburned you became. If you picked up a knife, you couldn't sense it in your hand; if you cut yourself, you would feel no pain. Even walking would be virtually impossible, because you could not tell where your feet were relative to the ground and each other.

Could you live very long without sensation? Your chances would be slim, because without your senses you would have no lifeline to reality. Your senses are specialized neural structures that put you in touch with the external world, enabling you to deal with the challenges of the environment. Whenever there is a large enough change in the environmental energies that impinge on you, your senses capture this change and transform it into information you can use to reach your goals. The change in energy is a stimulus: thanks to your senses, you can respond to it in some advantageous way.

Although most people believe that human beings have five senses, we actually have at least a dozen. We are all familiar with the five senses whose receptors are located in the eyes, ears, nose, tongue, and skin. But few people realize that within the skin are receptors for at least four kinds of sensation (touch, warmth, cold, and pain). This brings our sensory count to eight, but we are not finished. Deep within the ear is an organ that provides our sense of balance, and receptors in the muscles, joints, and tendons tell us about the movement and position of our body. Additional receptors within the brain monitor blood chemistry and temperature.

Each sense organ contains special receptors that are sensitive to particular types of stimuli. No matter what sort of sensation they deal with, however, all sense organs operate according to similar principles. The basic job of all sensory receptors is the same: to convert environmental stimuli into neural impulses, the language of the nervous system.

Vision. Vision is one of our richest senses; it provides us with the wealth of information. The eyes receive light reflected from objects in the world, and from this light we perceive shape, colour, depth, texture, and movement.

Hearing. Just as visual receptors in the eyes respond to light, transducing it into neural signals, so auditory receptors in the ears respond to sound waves to produce neural signals. Sound waves are caused by pressure changes in the atmosphere, which generate vibrations among the

air molecules. The vibrations send waves of compressed and expanded air molecules through the air, striking the eardrum. Then the eardrum is rapidly pushed and pulled by the compressions and expansions so that it vibrates in a pattern that corresponds to the sound.

The skin senses. Our skin is a shield that contains us and protects us from the world. A six-foot man of average weight and body build has about twenty-one square feet of skin surface. This pliable shield keeps out bacteria, holds in body fluids, wards off harmful sun rays, and regulates the temperature of the body core. At various depths within the skin are a number of receptors that connect with neurons to inform the brain about environmental stimulation. These receptors transmit information about four different kinds of skin sensations: touch, warmth, cold, and pain. But not all such receptors are in the skin; touch and pain kinds of receptors are also found in the muscles and the internal organs.

The chemical senses: taste and smell. The chemical senses of taste and smell are so closely associated that we often confuse their messages. This confusion develops because receptors for these are located close together in the mouth, throat, and nasal cavity, causing smell and taste to interact. Without a sense of smell, the subtleties of food flavour cannot be appreciated. Many people consider olfaction, or the sense of smell, to be one of the “lower” senses. This view may stem from the fact that American culture has relatively few commonly used names for smells. Instead, we often give a smell the name of whatever object emits that odour, such as rose, lemon, or orange. But our sense of smell is extremely sensitive, possibly 10, 000 times more sensitive than our sense of taste. Some animals have a sense of smell that is at least as sensitive. Police dogs have been used effectively by narcotics agents to sniff packages at post offices and airports in a search for contraband marijuana or hashish. Similarly, bloodhounds track criminal by following an odour trail.

Among human being, smell serves a vital function: it warns us of possibly dangerous substances, such as gas leaks, smoke, or spoiled food. Odours are also involved with human pleasure. Our use of perfumes, deodorants, and fragrant flowers shows the premium we place on pleasant aromas.

Taste is a more restricted sense than olfaction. An odour can be detected and identified from a distance, but the source of a taste must be in contact with the tongue. Most people can identify and discriminate hundreds of odours, but when odour and other sensory qualities, such as texture, are eliminated, they perceive only four basic taste categories: sweet, sour, salty, and bitter. However, our experience of taste is not as impoverished as that

fact might seem to indicate. The gourmet chef and wine-taster will argue that, just as in colour vision, a huge range of taste sensations can be composed by mixing and blending these primary tastes in various combinations.

In order to move about the world, we must maintain our balance, posture, and orientation in space. Our ability to orient ourselves is produced by the coordination of the vestibular and kinesthetic senses. The information these senses give us lets us know whether we are aligned with the pull of gravity — even when we are blindfolded. These senses also tell us how far to the side our head and body are tilted. The vestibular sense contributes to balance. The vestibular sense organ lies in the inner ear. A movement of the head causes the fluid in the canals to move against and bend the endings of the receptor. The hair cells connect with the vestibular nerve, which runs along beside the auditory nerve on its way to the brain.

Perception. It is impossible to completely separate perception from sensation. Traditionally, sensation refers to the physiological processes by which our nervous system registers stimuli. Perception, by contrast, refers to the processes by which our brains arrive at meaningful interpretations of basic sensations. Perception is an organism's awareness of, or response to, objects and events in the environment brought about by stimulation of its sense organs. An adequate perceptual system must be able to isolate objects from their background, locate them in space, judge their movement, maintain a constant perception of the objects, and classify them. Perception is based on an active, constructive inference system that uses certain laws and regularities in the world to interpret stimuli. When sensory information is incomplete, the brain fills in missing details, as when it provides subjective contours.

Perception is also affected by our expectations, previous experiences, and motivations, which create perceptual set — a readiness to attend to and perceive certain stimuli in a specific way and ignore other stimuli. Certain perceptual processes, such as size, shape, and depth perception, seem to develop during the organism's early life experience, especially when it includes active exploration of the environment.

List of Vocabulary

to alight — виходити, спускатися, приземлятися

to appreciate — цінувати, визнавати, оцінювати

to blend — поєднувати, з'єднувати
blindfolded — із зав'язаними очима
to capture — захоплювати, полонити
contour — контур, обрис
core — серцевина, ядро, нутроці
to detect — виявляти, відкривати
eardrum — вушка перетинка
to eliminate — усувати, ліквідовувати, не брати до уваги
to emit odour — давати запах
to enable — уможливллювати
fragrance — аромат
fluid — рідина
to impinge on — звалюватися, впливати
impoverished — збіднілий
inference — висновок, умовивід
inner ear — середнє вухо
joint — суглоб
to monitor — контролювати, відстежувати
muscle — мускул, м'яз
neural — нервовий
neuron(e) — нервова клітина
olfaction — нюх, нюхання
pliable — гнучкий, податливий
posture — постава, положення
pressure — тиск
receptor — рецептор, орган чуття
to reflect — відбивати, відображати
to restrict — обмежувати
sensation — відчуття
shield — щит
to sniff — нюхати
stimulus/ -li — стимул, збудник
subtlety — гострота, тонка відмінність
tendon — сухожилля
texture — структура
to tilt — нахилитися
tongue — язик
to transduce — передавати, перетворювати

to transmit — передавати

vision — зір

vital — життєвий

void — пустота, порожнеча, вакуум

to ward off — відбивати, відвертати, запобігати

Essential Word Phrases

(to be sought in the text)

Порушити тишу; практично неможливий; не мати спілкування з реальністю; зв'язувати когось із зовнішнім світом; відчуття рівноваги; хімічний склад крові; реагувати на подразник; перетворювати зовнішні подразники у нервові імпульси; зорові/ смакові /нюхові/ слухові/ тактильні рецептори; відчуття; реагувати на звукові хвилі; породжувати коливання; захищати від згубного впливу сонячного проміння; переплутати повідомлення; носова порожнина; йти по сліду запаху; витік газу; в першу чергу вирізняти приємні запахи; розрізняти пахощі; утримувати рівновагу; координація вестибулярних та кінестетичних відчуттів; притягуватися силою тяжіння; відділяти сприймання від відчуття; система умовиводу; сприймання розміру, форми, глибини.

Ex. 1. Answer the questions on the text:

1. What kind of world would we have if there were no sensation at all?
2. How many senses have we got? What are they?
3. Where are the receptors of person's basic senses situated?
4. What is the role of vision for people's life?
5. How does the process of producing the sound by means of auditory receptors in the ears take place?
6. What kind of receptors are there in the skin and what do they do?
7. Why isn't it right to call olfaction, or the sense of smell, one of the "lower" senses?
8. What are the basic taste categories?
9. How is sensation connected with perception?

Ex. 2. Fill in each sentence with the suitable word from the

vocabulary list in the necessary form:

1. Their son's death left a painful ... in their lives.
2. His abilities were not properly ... in his job.
3. The affects of the recession are ... on every aspect of our lives.
4. The belief in free enterprise is at the ... of their political thinking
5. I have had my eyes tested and the optician says that my ... is perfect.
6. Their daring escape has ... the imagination of the whole country.
7. Brushing teeth regularly helps ... tooth decay.
8. Our conclusions were arrived at by ..., not by direct evidence.
9. We had ... the number of students on this course.

Ex. 3. Translate and memorize the following words from the text and their derivatives. Single out noun, verb, adjective, adverb forming suffixes:

sense — sensory — sensation — sensitive — sensible — sensitivity — sensibility

perceive — perception — perceptual — perceptive — perceptible — perceptiveness

expand — expanse — expansive — expansion — expansionism

regulate — regular — regularity — regularly — regulation

receive — receptor — reception — receptive — receptionist — receptivity — receptiveness

taste — tasty — tasteful — tasteless — taster

explore — exploration — explorer — exploratory

feel — feeling — feelingly

olfaction — olfactory — olfactorily

image — imagine — imaginative — imagination — imaginable

vision — visual — visualize — visible — visionary

real — unreal — realistic — realize — realization — realizable — reality

consider — considerate — consideration — considerable

stimulus — stimulate — stimulation — stimulating

reflect — reflector — reflection — reflective — reflex

Ex. 4. Complete the sentences with the derivatives of the suggested words from the right column:

Ex. 5. Substitute the definitions for the words belonging to the

group “Senses and Sensation”:

1. A direct feeling, such as of heat or pain, coming from one of the five natural senses.
2. The sensation that is produced when a particular food or drink is put in the mouth and that makes it different from others by its sweetness, bitterness etc.
3. An organism’s awareness of, or response to, objects and events in the environment brought about by stimulation of its sense organs.
4. The sense of smell.
5. Something that causes activity.
6. The system in people and animals which receives and passes on feelings, messages, and other such information from inside and outside the body.

Ex. 6. Confirm or deny the statements. Make use of the following phrases:

1	Don't mention that she's put on weight – she's very ... about it.	sense stimulus feel taste consider real reflect percep explore image
2	I don't really know what to think – I've got very mixed ... on the subject.	
3	There must be a full ... of all the possibilities before we decide.	
4	The pantomime really captured the children's ... and they talked about it for weeks.	
5	Taking everything into ..., the result is better than I expected.	
6	I find swimming the most ... form of exercise.	
7	Do you think this opinion is an accurate ... of the public mood?	
8	... involves integration of information into mental structures.	
9	British pubs are often the best places to eat well and cheaply in Britain, and they also increasingly try to serve ... British food.	
10	We were promised a trouble-free holiday, but the ... was rather different.	

That's it! Precisely. Very true. I fully (quite) agree with you. I'm afraid not. You are not quite right, I'm sorry to say it. Far from it.

1. We get in touch with the external world through our senses.
2. Human beings have five senses.
3. Skin can be called the most important organ of our body.
4. By mixing and blending four primary tastes in various combinations one can compose a huge range of taste sensations.
5. Sensation is an essential process, and perception — an optional one.
6. Skin deposits the impulses of all sense receptors.

Ex. 7. Translate the sentences into English:

1. Пізнавальна діяльність людини завжди починається з чуттєвого відображення світу у відчуттях та сприйманні.
2. Відчуття — це відображення окремих властивостей предметів і явищ при безпосередній дії подразників на органи чуття.
3. Відображаючи предмети та їхні властивості, сприймання і відчуття являють собою різні за повнотою, глибиною й адекватністю ступені чуттєвого пізнання невичерпного багатства світу.
4. Неповними є уявлення про наявність у людини лише п'яти органів чуття — зору, слуху, смаку, нюху та дотику. Насправді відчуттів у людини значно більше. Самостійним різновидом є, наприклад, температурні відчуття, що відіграють важливу роль у процесах теплообміну між організмом і середовищем.
5. Органи чуття і рецептори щомиті отримують, фільтрують, перетворюють і передають у мозок величезні потоки інформації, яка дає можливість орієнтуватися у світі.
6. Слухові відчуття — відображення звуків різного походження, викликане дією на слуховий рецептор їхніх фізичних характеристик. Це різні за частотою, формою й амплітудою коливань звукові хвилі, які трансформуються у нервові імпульси, що передаються слуховим нервом у відповідні нервові центри.
7. Смакові відчуття виникають внаслідок подразнення рецепторів, що розташовані на поверхні язика і ротової порожнини, у відповідь на хімічні властивості їстівних речовин.

8. Смакові відчуття, як і нюхові, мають важливе значення для життя — вони сигналізують про міру придатності харчових продуктів для вживання.
9. Кінестетичні відчуття координують рухи та стани окремих частин тіла — рук, ніг, голови, корпусу. Рецепторами цих відчуттів є спеціальні органи, розміщені у м'язах і суглобах.
10. Гравітаційні відчуття відображають положення нашого тіла у просторі — лежання, стояння, сидіння, рівновагу, падання. Рецептори цих відчуттів містяться у вестибулярному апараті внутрішнього вуха.

Ex. 8. Read and translate the text:

Taste and Smell Lessen with Age

The senses of taste and smell are inextricably connected, and both can have a profound effect on appetite. In elderly persons, the neurological functions that govern these senses decrease with age as a result of age-related neuron loss, and the elderly lose the intensity of taste and smell that they possessed when younger. This can lead to a concomitant decline in appetite, which may lead to nutritional problems, reported the American researchers.

The scientists used an olfactometer to compare the abilities of college students and elderly people to detect and discriminate odours. The groups were matched as much as possible for background and socio-economic level, both of which can be important factors in familiarity with tastes and smells.

College students are able to detect an odour at much lower concentrations than are elderly people. This change in threshold affects eating not only because odour itself can stimulate appetite, but also because some people notice a bitter taste in foods that they are unable to smell. The scientists report that a significantly greater percentage of elderly persons complained of a bitter flavour in foods that tasted normal to younger subjects. For the elderly, this may mean that foods they once enjoyed no longer taste good.

A decreased sense of smell among elderly persons held true not only for food, but for less pleasant odours as well. The researchers tested their subjects with urine like odours, and found that aged subjects had even more difficulty detecting those odours than they did detecting the food smells. They believe that this may account for the tolerance in the elderly

of the sometimes malodorous atmosphere of nursing homes and hospitals. Many younger persons say that they can't stand to work there because of the smell, although older residents seem unbothered.

The scientists also found that elderly persons lose the ability to discriminate between unlike tastes, as well as to identify familiar ones. They prepared foods to make them identical in consistency, and then tested them on blindfolded subjects. For elderly persons, things began to taste the same. The person might be able to detect a taste, but not be able to tell what it is. For example, only 55 percent of the elderly subjects recognized the taste of apple, while 61 percent of the college students identified it correctly. Many elderly persons prefer fruit flavours, however, because the ability to taste these flavours often lingers longer.

The explanation for this decline in sensory ability may lie in the fact that tastes are coded across neurons. For example, there is a difference in the codes for salty tastes and for bitter tastes. With age we drop neurons, and so with age there is less difference between the two patterns. If a person needed a total neural mass of, say ten, to detect taste, he may need a larger mass to discriminate between tastes.

Ex. 9. Pick out the words from the text, which may be grouped under the heading "Senses".

Ex. 10. Give Ukrainian equivalents of:

to be inextricably connected; to have a profound effect; elderly people; a concomitant decline; age-related neuron loss; to detect and discriminate odours; nutritional problems; threshold; nursing home; a greater percentage; identical in consistency; blindfolded subjects; fruit flavours; sensory ability; bitter tastes; a total neural mass.

Ex. 11. Answer the following questions:

1. Why do the neurological functions decrease in elderly persons?
2. What can it cause?
3. What experiment was made to discriminate odours?
4. What did the elderly people complain about?
5. What other ability do elderly people lose?
6. What flavours do they prefer?

7. How may it be explained?
8. What is the conclusion drawn by the researchers?

Ex. 12. Enumerate basic physiological changes occurring in the organism with aging.

Ex. 13. Divide the article into logical parts and make up a plan for a review.

Ex. 14. Review the article.

Ex. 15. How old are you now? Have your tastes and smell changed since your childhood? What factors influence your appetite? Are they psychological or social in nature?

Ex. 16. Make up a list of questions you would like to ask an elderly man concerning his tastes, if you are given such a task.

Ex. 17. Render the text into English:

ВІДЧУТТЯ ТА СПРИЙМАННЯ

Відчуття — це психічне відображення властивостей реальності, яке виникає і функціонує в процесі життя. Це найпростіша пізнавальна діяльність, через яку і людина, і тварина отримують елементарні відомості про зовнішнє середовище і стани свого організму. Це відчуття світла, кольору, запаху, смаку, дотику, шуму, вібрації, рівності або шорсткості, вологи, тепла чи холоду, болю, положення тіла в просторі тощо. Це елементарний чуттєвий, сенсорний образ. Але це ґрунт, на якому будується образ світу, чуттєва тканина свідомості. Втрата здатності відчувати — це втрата каналів зв'язку людини зі світом.

Сприймання — психічне відображення предметів і явищ доволі повної дійсності, що виникає і функціонує у процесі життя. Це ха-

рактеристика пізнавальної функції психіки, яка полягає у створенні чуттєвого образу світу.

На відміну від відчуттів, що відображають тільки властивості предметів і явищ, сприймання — цілісний перцептивний образ, що містить у собі сукупність властивостей, які отримує індивід за допомогою органів чуттів. Отже, слухові, зорові, дотикові, нюхові, смакові відчуття стають складниками більш високого рівня відображення дійсності. Людині і тваринам це дає змогу орієнтуватись у світі предметів, що їх оточують, і відповідним чином поводити себе.

Сприймання нібито надбудовується над відчуттями, про що свідчить філогенез психіки: спочатку виникає стадія елементарної сенсорної психіки, яка орієнтує організм у властивостях його оточення, а пізніше — стадія перцептивної психіки — відображення носіїв цих властивостей. Відбувається це у процесі діяльності живої істоти, і ця діяльність відповідає умовам, в яких перебуває предмет з притаманними йому властивостями.

FROM THE HISTORY OF PSYCHOLOGY

Ex. 18. Read the article quickly and give a short summary of it:

Ernst Weber (1795–1878) was born in Wittemburg, Germany, the third of 13 children. He received his doctorate from the University of Leipzig in 1815, in physiology. He began teaching there after graduation, and continued until he retired in 1871.

His research focused on the senses of touch and kinesthesia. He was the first to show the existence of kinesthesia, and showed that touch was a complex sense composed of senses for pressure, temperature and pain.

His chosen interests led him to certain techniques: first, there is the two-point threshold, which is a matter of measuring the smallest distance noticeable to touch at various parts of the body. For example, the tongue had the smallest threshold (1 mm), and the back had the largest (60 mm).

This is known as *Weber's Law*, and is the first such “law” relating a physical stimulus with a mental experience.

Ernst Weber also named and studied discipline psychophysics, which he defined as the study of the systematic relationships between physical events and mental events. In 1860 he published *The Elements of Psychophysics*. In this work Weber showed that psychological events are

tied to measurable physical events in a systematic way, which everyone at that time thought impossible.

UNIT 3

CONSCIOUSNESS

Consciousness is a separate, discrete function of the brain; it is different from memory, from motor control, and from processes in the lower parts of the brain. Yet, at the same time, consciousness has many aspects. No precise and satisfactory definition of “consciousness” has been produced. It can mean being awake as opposed to being unconscious; or being aware of something in the environment, as when we are conscious of someone’s presence; or choosing a course of action in contrast with being driven by unconscious decision. It can mean the flow of sensations, thoughts, images, and emotions — often called the “stream of consciousness” — or it can mean reflecting on that stream of consciousness. It can also refer to different states produced through drugs, meditation, hypnosis, or sleep. So the most general, workable definition for consciousness is an awareness of the mind’s operations.

The nature of consciousness. Consciousness is subjective — a private world, accessible mainly through introspection. Awareness is one aspect of consciousness; it also has the qualities of unity and selectivity. Our awareness is not an awareness of the world itself, or of our perceptual expectations and hypotheses; instead, we are aware of our perception of the world. Thus, when we talk about the “unity of consciousness”, we are

referring to the integrated nature of experience. For example, we perceive whole words, not just frequencies and intensities of sounds; we derive the meaning of words from the way we synthesize sensory information and perceptual hypotheses.

Likewise, when we talk about the “selectivity of consciousness”, we are referring to the fact that our awareness is focused. We can choose our level of awareness; we can deliberately focus on an object’s colour, shape, identity, or function, or on the fact that we are categorizing objects in a particular way. This selectivity is crucial to our everyday functioning: so many sensations, feelings, thoughts, and memories are accessible at any given moment that attending to all of them would overwhelm us – and perhaps leave us unable to act at all. By screening out much of the information that is available to us, we can pay attention to some things and remain unaware of others.

Sleep and dreams. Few people consider sleep as a stage of consciousness, but despite our feeling that dreamless sleep is a mental vacuum, the mind remains relatively active during sleep. By investigating the nature of mental activity during sleeps and dreams, we can get some idea of the sort of complex cognitive activity that can take place outside normal waking consciousness. Studies have revealed the presence of five stages of sleep, through which the sleeper progresses – from wakefulness to deepest sleep and back again to light sleep.

When a person is in a deep sleep, muscles relax and heart rate and respiration are slow and regular. Because it is difficult to rouse someone from deep sleep, we know little about the nature of consciousness during this stage. By the time a person is awake, it is difficult to tell whether whatever is recalled from sleep took place during waking period. Yet we know that the brain is active during this stage, because sleep disorders such as sleepwalking, sleep talking, and night terrors occur during this stage.

Consciousness changes in several ways during sleep. We continue to monitor the outside environment and respond to it, but we are unaware of such watchfulness. Without awakening, we frequently change our sleeping positions. We sleep peacefully through meaningless sounds, but wake quickly to a meaningful sound (such as our name) of the same intensity. This continual monitoring of the environment explains a mother’s ability to sleep soundly through a thunderstorm but waken to her baby’s faintest cry. Not all people are able to monitor the environment while seemingly

remaining oblivious to it. In some people, this ability is disrupted, and a form of insomnia may develop. During our sleep we all dream — even those of us who claim we never do. Most of us judge our dreams by the relatively coherent, interesting, and sexy dreams we remember and tell others about, but dreams collected in sleep laboratories tend to be dull. Either we recall dreams selectively, remembering the more exciting ones and forgetting the rest, or else — since the home dreamer remembers only the last dream before awakening — dreams from earlier periods are less interesting than the final dream.

Many of us wonder why we have the particular dreams that invade our sleeping consciousness. Do the environmental events that we monitor during sleep shape the content of our dreams? Perhaps our dreams are determined by our problems and conflicts. Sigmund Freud proposed that dreams express the hidden needs and desires of the unconscious mind. He believed that dreams had two levels of content — one obvious and the other hidden. The obvious, or manifest content, is a weaving of daily events, sensations during sleep, and memories. However, this manifest content actually disguises the dreamer's unconscious wishes, or the dreamer's latent content, which gives the dream its meaning. These wishes, which often rise from unresolved early emotional conflicts, are regarded by the dreamer as too evil to be expressed openly.

On the other hand, since dreams often seem to concern themselves with our daily activities and problems, it would seem that random stimulation of the brain is not a complete answer. Studies in sleep laboratories indicate that the four or five dreams that occur during a single night are related and may deal with the same theme or problem. The night's first dream is the most realistic; the middle dreams are the most distorted and fantastic; the last dream is often focused on solving the problem. Whether the solution carries over into waking life is not known, but perhaps dreams have a problem-solving function. Attempts have been made to gain awareness and control of dreams. Some people report having dreams in which they become aware that they are dreaming. Such dreams are called lucid dreams.

Some people always seem to have a new dream to report; others say that they rarely or never dream. Certain differences have been found between the two groups: those who often recall dreams tend to daydream frequently, to be good at creating visual imagery, and to have better visual memory than do people who rarely recall dreams.

Another reason for poor recall of dreams may be interference. Dreamers who awaken slowly, or whose attention is distracted as they awaken, are less likely to recall a dream than those who waken abruptly or who are not distracted. Dream recall may be a skill that develops through an interest in dreams, a custom of paying attention to them, and a habit of telling others about dream experiences.

Hypnosis. In the popular conception of hypnosis, the state of a hypnotized person resembles that of a sleepwalker — someone who has lost touch with waking awareness but behaves as if she or he were awake. Yet the sleepwalker and the hypnotized person differ in dramatic ways. On a physiological level, their oxygen consumption differs. During sleep, oxygen consumption gradually decreases, but during hypnosis it remains unchanged. On a behavioural level, actions and memory differ. Sleepwalkers seem unaware that other people are around and will not follow instructions; hypnotized persons are aware of others and will follow most instructions. On waking, sleepwalkers cannot recall any wanderings; on emerging from hypnosis, hypnotic subjects remember the details of the experience unless they have been instructed to forget. Hypnosis is obviously not sleep, but after years of research psychologists still cannot say exactly what it is.

List of Vocabulary

abruptly — раптово, різко
to attend to — приділяти увагу, стежити, пильнувати
awake — пробуджений, що не спить, пильний
accessible — досяжний, доступний
brain — мозок
coherent — зв'язний, послідовний
consumption — споживання, витрата
content — зміст, суть
crucial — вирішальний, критичний
to daydream — мріяти, фантазувати
deliberately — навмисно
desire — бажання, потяг
discrete — окремий
to disguise — маскувати, приховувати
to disrupt — руйнувати, підривати
distorted — спотворений, перекручений

environment — оточення, середовище
faint — слабкий, нечіткий
to focus — зосереджувати, концентрувати
frequency — частота, частотність
interference — інтерференція, завада, перешкода
introspection — самоаналіз, самопостереження
to invade — охопити, нахлинати
lucid — ясний, прозорий, зрозумілий
to monitor — контролювати, перевіряти
oblivious — забутий, неухважний
obvious — очевидний, наявний
to occur — траплятися
to overwhelm — сповнювати, охоплювати
respiration — дихання
random — випадковий, безладний
to recall — згадувати, відтворювати
to reveal — відкривати, виявляти
to rouse — пробуджувати(ся), збуджувати (емоції, почуття)
to screen out — приховувати, демонструвати на екрані
to shape — формувати

Essential Phrases (to be sought in the text)

Окрема функція; точне визначення поняття; керований несвідомим рішенням; потік думок та образів; потік свідомості; усвідомлення розумових операцій; комплексний характер пізнання; частота та сила звуку; синтезувати сприйману та чуттєву інформацію; вибірковість свідомості; розумова діяльність; наявність п'яти фаз сну; частота серцевих скорочень; розлади сну; не усвідомлювати протікання процесів пильнування; згадувати сон; невиражені потреби; виражений та прихований рівні змісту; сплетіння буденних подій та відчуттів; нерозв'язаний конфлікт; створювати візуальну образність; відвернути увагу; споживання кисню; вийти з гіпнозу.

Ex. 1. Answer the questions on the text:

1. Why is it difficult to give a proper definition of consciousness?

2. What are the main qualities of consciousness and what is meant by them?
3. Why can sleep be called a stage of consciousness?
4. How many stages of sleep have been revealed and what is the difference between them?
5. How does consciousness change during sleep?
6. Do the night's first and last dreams differ from each other?
7. Do the environmental events that we monitor during sleep shape the content of our dreams?
8. What are the reasons for poor recall of dreams?
9. How is the habit of daydreaming connected with the ability of recalling dreams?
10. What are common and different features of sleep and hypnosis?

Ex. 2. Fill in each sentence with the suitable word from the vocabulary list in the necessary form:

1. He suffered severe ... damage as a result of the accident.
2. The investigation has ... some serious faults in the system.
3. This instrument ... the patient's heartbeats.
4. The old man is confused most of the times but he still has some ... thoughts.
5. Sorry, I was not listening — I was ...
6. He couldn't ... his disappointment of the situation any more.
7. They seem to have no ... plan for saving the company.
8. The newspapers gave a ... accounts of what had happened.
9. It was ... to everyone that he was lying.
10. She ... ignored me when I passed her in the street.
11. Sudden rainstorms are ... in this part of the coast.
12. All children need a happy home ...

Ex. 3. Substitute the definitions for the words taken from the text:

1. A sleep-like state in which person's mind and actions can be influenced by the person who produced this state.
2. A group of related thoughts, images, or feelings experienced during sleep.
3. The natural resting state of unconsciousness of the body.

4. The condition of being awake and able to understand what is happening.
5. The practice of training the mind and body to become less active for certain regular periods, especially so as to be able to control it better and use it more effectively.
6. The part of the body which controls thoughts, feeling, and physical activity.
7. Thoughts and feelings exactly as they pass though the mind.

Ex. 4. Learn the difference between two similar words and their derivatives:

conscious — свідомий
consciously — свідомо
subconscious — підсвідомий
unconscious — несвідомий
unconsciously — несвідомо
subconsciously — підсвідомо
consciousness — свідомість
conscience — совість
conscientious — добросовісний
conscientiously — добросовісно
to lose one's consciousness — втратити свідомість
to regain consciousness — прийти до пам'яті

Ex. 5. Complete the sentences with the correct word from the previous exercise:

1. I had a guilty ... about not telling her the truth.
2. The experience helped to change her social ...
3. I was ... that he was ill at ease, despite his efforts of conversation.
4. Though being the most ... worker of the staff he was fired.
5. Yesterday David He had been lying ... for at least two hours before the doctor came.

Ex. 6. Confirm or deny the statements. Make use of the following phrases:

That's it! Precisely. Very true. I fully (quite) agree with you. I'm afraid not. You are not quite right, I'm sorry to say it. Far from it.

1. When a person is in a deep sleep most organs stop working.
2. During the sleep our consciousness is sleeping too.
3. The mystery of dreaming is impossible to discover in any laboratory.
4. Our dreams at night are determined by our daily problems and conflicts.
5. The state of a hypnotized person resembles that of a sleepwalker.

Ex. 7. Translate into English:

1. Свідомість — це окрема функція мозку, яка відрізняється від пам'яті та інших процесів мозку.
2. Існує багато різних тлумачень терміна “свідомість”, але ніхто ще не дав його точного та переконливого визначення.
3. Свідомість може означати потік відчуттів, думок, уявлень та емоцій, що часто називається потоком свідомості.
4. Завдяки селективності нашої свідомості ми можемо приділяти більше уваги одним речам та не усвідомлювати інших серед різноманітної інформації, яку ми отримуємо.
5. Мало хто з людей розглядає сон як стан свідомості, але розум залишається відносно активним протягом сну.
6. Дослідження показали наявність п'яти різних стадій сну, через кожні з яких проходить той, хто спить дев'яносто хвилин.
7. Зигмунд Фрейд вірив, що сни мають два рівні змісту — виражений, який є сплетінням щоденних подій, та прихований, який передає несвідомі потреби та потяги індивіда.
8. Вивчення снів у лабораторіях показує, що чотири чи п'ять снів, які, як правило, сняться за ніч, взаємопов'язані й можуть стосуватися тієї ж самої теми чи проблеми.
9. Деяким людям сняться щоразу нові сни, інші ж кажуть, що вони взагалі не бачать снів.
10. Хоча стан загіпнотизованої людини схожий на стан сновиди, очевидно, що гіпноз не є сном, все ж, незважаючи на багаторічні дослідження, психологи не можуть дати його точного визначення.

Ex. 8. Read and translate the text:

A Good Night's Sleep – an Impossible Dream?

American sleep experts are sounding an alarm over America's sleep deficit. They say Americans are a somnambulant nation, stumbling groggily through their waking hours for lack of sufficient sleep. They are working longer days – and, increasingly, nights – and they are playing longer, too, as TV and the Internet expand the range of round-the-clock entertainment options. By some estimates, Americans are sleeping as much as an hour and a half less per night than they did at the turn of the century – and the problem is likely to get worse: “The 24-hour society is here, and it's growing”, says one of the slumber scientists. “Physiologically, we just cannot adapt that well”.

The health repercussions of sleep deprivation are not well understood, but sleep researchers point to its ranging from heart problems to depression. In a famous experiment conducted at the University of Chicago, rats kept from sleeping died after two and a half weeks. People are not likely to drop dead in the same way, but sleep deprivation may cost them their life indirectly, when an exhausted doctor prescribes the wrong dosage or a sleepy driver weaves into someone's lane because driving while tired is very similar to driving drunk.

What irritates sleep experts most is the fact that much sleep deprivation is voluntary. “People have regarded sleep as a commodity that they could shortchange”, says one of them. “It's been considered a mark of very hard work and upward mobility to get very little sleep. It's macho attitude”. Slumber scientists hope that attitude will change. They say people have learned to modify their behaviour in terms of lowering their cholesterol and increasing exercise. Doctors also think people need to be educated that allowing enough time for sleep and taking strategic naps are the most reliable ways to promote alertness behind the wheel and on the job.

Naps would be nice, but at the moment, employers tend to frown on them. And what about the increasing numbers of people who work at night? Not only must they work while their bodies' light-activated circadian rhythms tell them to sleep, they also find it tough to get to sleep after work. Biologists say night workers have a hard time not paying attention to the 9-to-5 day, because of noises or family obligations or that's the only time they can go to the dentist.

As one may imagine, companies are springing up to take advantage of a sleep. One of the companies has specially designed shift-work lighting systems intended to keep workers alert around the clock. Shift-work's theory is that bright light, delivered in a controlled fashion, can help adjust

people's biological clocks. The company president says they are using light like a medicine. So far, such special lighting has been the province of NASA astronauts and nuclear power plant workers. He thinks that, in the future, such systems may pop up in places like hospitals and 24-hour credit-card processing centres. Other researchers are experimenting with everything from welder's goggles (which night workers wear during the day) to human growth hormones. And, of course, there is always what doctors refer to as "therapeutic caffeine use", but everyone is already familiar with that.

So, is a good night's sleep an impossible dream for Americans? Maybe so.

Ex. 9. Pick out the words in the text, which may be grouped under the heading "Sleep".

Answer the following questions:

1. Why do you think the text starts and ends with the same question?
2. Why are Americans called a somnambulant nation?
3. What are the consequences of sleep deprivation?
4. What experiment was conducted at the University of Chicago?
5. What are sleep experts irritated by?
6. What are the ways to promote alertness?
7. What problems do night workers face?
8. Is it possible to adjust people's biological clocks?
9. What are researchers experimenting with?

Ex. 10. Are you in favour of or against the following? Explain your choice:

- a) TV and Internet as night entertainment options;
- b) sleep deprivation as a macho attitude;
- c) taking strategic naps;
- d) night work;
- e) shift-work lighting systems;
- f) therapeutic caffeine use.

Ex. 11. Describe:

- a) your physical state after a sleepless night;

b) your idea of a good night's sleep.

Ex. 12. Characterize the position towards sleep problems taken by:

- a) slumber scientists;
- b) doctors;
- c) biologists;
- d) some companies;
- e) experimenters.

Ex. 13. Divide the article into logical parts. Give a heading to each part.

Ex. 14. Review the article.

Ex. 15. Choose the statement you think to be correct. Give your reasons:

1. Dreams reflect
 - a) our hidden wishes;
 - b) past events;
 - c) future.
2. Our brains
 - a) are busy while we are asleep;
 - b) are at rest;
 - c) make up a future chain of events.
3. Dreams act as
 - a) a safety valve;
 - b) a warning;
 - c) a means of relaxation.
4. To understand a dream you must
 - a) study a number of books interpreting dreams;
 - b) note down it into a dream journal;
 - c) imagine what you would like to see in your dream.
5. The messages of your dream resolve around
 - a) familiar people;
 - b) strangers;

- c) your future friends.
- 6. If in your dream you are sitting an exam it symbolizes
 - a) your fear;
 - b) your negative attitude towards this psychological testing;
 - c) your failure.

Ex. 16. Describe:

- a) the most pleasant dream (use the following: amazing, fascinating, overwhelmed by emotions, puzzling, marvelous imagery);
- b) the most unpleasant dream (use the following: horrible, disgusting, nightmare, scared stiff, wrought-up).

Ex. 17. A role-play:

Your uncle is a night worker. Ask him about his job and disadvantages of working at night.

Ex. 18. Render the text into English

БУТТЯ І СВІДОМІСТЬ

Свідомість — це притаманний лише людині ідеальний спосіб відтворення буття. Це рівень індивіда, на якому людина виявляє себе суспільною істотою з властивою їй діяльністю як освоєнням. Свідомість як ідеальне протиставляється буттю як об'єктивно існуючому. Це особливий рівень психічного відображення дійсності, що надбудовується над психічними процесами, станами, властивостями, але не зводиться до них. Стосовно буття свідомість передусім демонструє свою пізнавальну функцію — функцію побудови образу світу, який відображає ступінь освоєння людиною буття.

У свідомості буття переломлюється і стає усвідомленим. Світ як олюднене буття постає у своєму об'єктивному, незалежному від індивіда існуванні і як таке усвідомлюється. Виникнення свідомості важко збагнути, не взявши до уваги буття ідеального, яке в цьому зв'язку може розглядатись як надсвідомість — об'єктивована в продуктах матеріальної і духовної культури царина значень. Свідомість існує на ґрунті значень мови і завдяки мові. Без мови немає свідомості. Мова є формою існування індивідуальної свідомості. Значення — зміст про-

дуктів матеріальної і духовної культури, що його несе в собі мова людини. Значення акумулюють досвід попередніх поколінь, за ними криються суспільно вироблені способи дій, за допомогою яких люди змінюють і пізнають дійсність, тому носіями значень є також речі, акти людської поведінки, жести, формули, схеми, карти, живопис, пісні, танці тощо. Проте лише у слові, понятті вони набувають незалежного, абстрагованого від реальності існування. Отже, значення — особлива форма відтворення людиною дійсності, властивість продуктів культури нести в собі узагальнений досвід попередніх поколінь.

До складу індивідуальної свідомості входить ще й особистісний смисл — індивідуалізоване відображення реального ставлення людини до певних явищ дійсності. Він виникає на підставі значень і є власне “значенням для мене”. Свідомість проникнута смислом. Він позначає в образі найпривабливіші предмети, нерідко наділяє їх додатковим значенням, породжує надцінні ідеї, зрештою, може спотворювати відображення дійсності. Проте завдяки цьому складнику свідомість є живим психічним утворенням, яке має власну, а не лише зовнішньо детерміновану, логіку розвитку.

FROM THE HISTORY OF PSYCHOLOGY

Ex. 19. Read the article quickly and give a short summary of it:

Wilhelm Max Wundt (1832–1920), German psychologist, the founder of scientific psychology as an independent discipline. Born in Neckarau, he was educated at the universities of Tübingen and Heidelberg and the Institute of Physiology in Berlin. After teaching physiology at the University of Heidelberg (1858–1874), he taught philosophy at the University of Zurich (1874–1875) and was Professor of Philosophy at the University of Leipzig from 1875 to 1917.

Wundt offered the first academic course in psychology in 1862 and established the first laboratory for experimental psychology in 1879. He founded the first psychological journal, *Philosophische Studien* (Studies in Philosophy), in 1881.

Wundt promoted what is known as *structuralist psychology*, focusing on observations of the conscious mind rather than inference. Wundt also carried out extensive experimental research on perception, feeling, and apperception (a phase of perception where there is full recognition of what has been perceived). His more than 500 published works include *Principles of Physiological Psychology* (2 volumes, 1873–1874) and the monumental work

Elements of Folk Psychology (10 volumes, 1900–1920). He also wrote *Logik* (1880), *Ethik* (1886), and *System der Philosophie* (1889).

UNIT 4

MEMORY

Sometimes, when we think of our memory, we imagine it as a mental “filling cabinet” in which we deposit isolated facts that we want to be sure to retain — such as the dates of the revolutions, or our mother’s birthday, or the errands we must be sure to do on the way home from work. But that is only a partial description of our memory. Our memory encompasses everything we have recently perceived and everything we know or can recollect — about people, places, music, pictures, ways of doing things, languages, emotional feelings, dreams, actions, and skills.

In analyzing memory, William Brewer and J. R. Pani have suggested that the contents of our memory can be seen as falling into three broad categories.

- *Personal memories* consist of distinct episodes we have witnessed, such as this morning’s breakfast. When we remember such episodes, we can “see” the event taking place, and our mental images carry a sense of the past.
- *Generic memories*, by contrast, include memories that are abstract and are not tied to any particular time or place; we do not usually remember where we learned them. They include memories that are primarily semantic, or meaning-related, rather than being scenes. Concepts such as “love” or “constitutional monarchy” are generic memories. Generic memories also include perceptual memories of the way things look, sound, and so on.
- *Skill memories* consist of cognitive skills, such as our ability to solve quadratic equations; motor skills, such as our knowledge of how to

ice-skate or put in a light bulb; and rote verbal sequences we have memorized, such as our phone number.

Memory is an ambiguous concept. One meaning of the concept refers to a repository of our accumulated knowledge of specific and general things, but another meaning refers to processes — “memorizing” and “remembering”. Psychologists analyze the memorizing-remembering cycle into three distinct processes: *acquisition*, *retention*, and *retrieval*. Acquisition is the process by which we initially perceive, register, and record information in our memory. If you do not pay attention and register something in the first place, you will never be able to remember it. Retention is the process by which we maintain information in storage in our memory; you may register a piece of information such as an address, but it may decay over time, or similar material placed into memory may interfere with its retention. Retrieval is the process by which we get information out of storage and bring it back into our awareness. You may register a piece of information and store it, but then find yourself unable to bring it back to mind — until someone gives you a good cue that “jogs your memory”.

The gatekeeper to our memory is a process known as selective attention. In attending to the world around us, we cannot possibly respond to all the thousands of stimuli that bombard us every second. Instead, we constantly select from the stream of stimuli just a limited number of sights, sounds, and other sensations — and ignore the rest. Only those few stimuli that we select for focused attention will be registered firmly in our memory: the others, registered weakly and unattended to, will quickly fade from our memory. What guides selective attention? Some factors are universal. For example, the simple properties of the stimulus may make it an attention-getter: anything that is intense, large, loud, or strikingly colourful attracts attention. Other factors in the selection process are very personal. We pay attention to anything that is relevant to our own motives. Stimuli that arouse our emotions, whether these signals are violent, sexy, horrifying, or beautiful, attract our attention. Stimuli that affect our goals and self-esteem, or those of our loved ones, interest us. Events that are relevant to our interests also attract our attention.

If a stimulus gets past the “gatekeeper” and you do pay attention to it, your memory processes will begin to operate. The result may be a memory that lasts for just a second or two, a memory that lasts for several minutes,

or a memory that lasts for hours, days, or years. What happens when our memory processes operate within these three different time frames?

Sensory memory. Virtually every moment of your waking life you have memories that are simply the aftereffects of your sensory processes. These fleeting sense impressions, known as sensory memories, last for just a tiny interval of time. Our visual world maintains its stability even though we blink frequently as we look about us. This phenomenon is related to our sensory memory. Similar sensory aftereffects exist for touch and hearing. We rely on auditory aftereffects in conversation: the persisting auditory images enable us to process speech sounds after the speaker has gone ahead with his or her remarks.

Short-term memory. Many of our sensory memories simply fade almost immediately. But if we pay close attention to a sensory memory, that record enters a more durable phase, we call it short-term memory. Short-term memory is a temporary form of memory that lasts many seconds; it is also known as active memory or primary memory. Here is how short-term memory operates. While we are attending to a sensory event, we may also retrieve associations to that event from more durable parts of our memory. These retrieved associations themselves become active as part of our memory of the event. In essence, we have converted the information from one form to another prior to recording it in memory; this process is called encoding.

Long-term memory. Now try to remember your mother's maiden name. Do you have it as an active trace? Before you remembered it, the name was inactive; it was in what is called long-term memory, out of your consciousness. Then, when you retrieved it, the name was aroused into your consciousness, into short-term memory. This description is metaphorical. You did not actually move the name from one place to another in your mind, because memory is not a set of places. Instead, a given item can be either active or inactive: it can be in your consciousness, or it can be out of your consciousness for a moment.

Long-term memory is what most people think of when they talk about memory: the total content of our long-term memory encompasses that tremendous range of knowledge, ideas, images, skills, and feelings that we have gathered in the course of our experience. All these items of knowledge are inactive for the moment, but they can be retrieved, given an appropriate request, and "brought into" short-term memory. So short-term and long-term memories have a close, dynamic connection with each other.

List of Vocabulary

- acquisition** — надбання, здобуття
ambiguous — двозначний, невизначений, непевний
to blink — кліпати
concept — поняття
to convert — перетворювати
cue — натяк, знак
to decay — руйнувати(ся), гаснути, слабнути
to deposit — відкладати
distinct — чіткий, ясний
to enable — давати змогу
encoding — шифрування, кодування
to encompass — містити в собі
equation — рівняння
errand — доручення
to fade — в'янути, поступово зникати
fleeting — швидкоплинний
generic — родовий, генетичний
intense — напружений
to jog one's memory — дати поштовх, розворушити, допомогти пригадати
long-term — довготривалий
to maintain — утримувати
persistent — тривалий, утримуваний
prior — попередній, раніше
to recollect — згадувати
relevant — доречний, що стосується суті справи
to rely on — покладатися, довіряти
repository — вмістилище, сховище, склад
to retain — утримувати, пам'ятати, зберігати
retrieval — відновлення, повернення
rote — механічне запам'ятовування, зазубрювання
self-esteem — самооцінка
semantic — семантичний, концептуальний
short-term — короткочасний
skill — вміння, вправність
temporary — тимчасовий

tiny — мініатюрний, крихітний
trace — слід, відбиток, знак
tremendous — величезний
unattended to — залишений поза увагою

Essential Phrases (to be sought in the text)

Зберігати окремі факти; пов'язаний з конкретним місцем та часом; значимий; осмислений; роз'язувати квадратне рівняння; нагромаджені знання; перешкоджати утримуванню інформації; відкласти-ся у пам'яті; стертися з пам'яті; викликати емоції; часовий вимір; свідоме життя; сенсорна пам'ять; наслідки процесів сприймання та відчуття; тривала фаза; охоплювати величезний обсяг знань.

Ex. 1. Answer the questions on the text:

1. What is deposited in a mental “filling cabinet”, called memory?
2. What kind of memories does the generic one include?
3. What does the ambiguity of memory mean?
4. What are the three distinct processes in the memorizing-remembering cycle?
5. What guides selective attention?
6. Does sensory memory pass away fast or last for a long period of time?
7. Encoding is a process of converting the information from one form to another, isn't it?
8. How can long-term memory turn into short-term memory?

Ex. 2. Fill in the blank with the vocabulary word that best fits the meaning of each sentence:

1. Learning by ... is applicable only in a few cases.
2. We have had a ... amount of worry recently.
3. The course ... the whole of English literature since 1850.
4. Flowers will soon ... when they have been cut.
5. His answer was so ... that we couldn't understand what he meant.
6. His nationality isn't ... to whether he's a good lawyer.

7. The Latin term “Vulpes” is the ... term for the various types of fox.
8. He is a ... of all sorts of out-of-the-way knowledge.
9. I’m in a hurry — I’ve got some ... to do.
10. In such complicated situation she was able ... her self-control.
11. It is difficult to grasp the ... of the infinite space.
12. He handled the negotiations with great ...
13. The studio manager gave me the ... when it was time to sing.

Ex. 3. Confirm or deny the statements. Make use of the following phrases:

That’s it! Precisely. Very true. I fully (quite) agree with you. I’m afraid not. You are not quite right, I’m sorry to say it. Far from it.

1. According to W. Brewer and J. R. Pani’s theory there is no difference between personal and generic memories.
2. Memory is an ambiguous concept.
3. We constantly select from the stream of stimuli just a limited number of sights, sounds, and other sensations — and ignore the rest.
4. In order to remind some name we actually move it from one place to another in our mind.
5. Short-term and long-term memories have a close, dynamic connection with each other.

Ex. 4. Substitute the definitions for the words taken from the text:

1. The process of converting information from one form to another.
2. An ability to remember events and experiences.
3. Repeated study using memory rather than understanding.
4. To see or notice something by being present when it happens.
5. To take no notice of; to refuse to pay attention to.
6. Something that causes activity.

Ex. 5. Search the text for the derivatives of the following nouns and verbs. Use them in word combinations:

to acquire, part, to describe, to esteem, to constitute, to percept, to equate, to connect, metaphor, conscious, maid, to associate, stable, to repose, to inform, to retain, to select, colour.

Ex. 6. Translate into English:

1. Усе, що людина безпосередньо відображає за допомогою процесів відчуття і сприймання, фіксується, упорядковується, зберігається в її мозку, утворюючи індивідуальний досвід, і за потреби використовується у подальшій діяльності.
2. Пам'ять — це складний, але єдиний і безперервний процес, який детермінується діяльністю особистості та її спрямованістю на досягнення мети.
3. Сенсорна пам'ять характеризується дуже коротким часом збереження матеріалу. Вона має різні підвиди, серед яких помітну роль відіграє слухова та зорова сенсорна пам'ять.
4. Короткочасна пам'ять характеризується швидким запам'ятовуванням матеріалу, негайним його відтворенням і коротким строком зберігання.
5. Довготривала пам'ять виявляється у процесі набуття й закріплення знань, умінь і навичок, розрахованих на їх тривале зберігання та наступне використання в діяльності людини.
6. Запам'ятовування — це процес пам'яті, внаслідок якого відбувається закріплення нового матеріалу.
7. Збереження — процес пам'яті, що забезпечує утримування результатів запам'ятовування впродовж більш чи менш тривалого часу.
8. Відтворення — процес пам'яті, який полягає у відновленні матеріалу, що зберігається.
9. Пригадування — довільне відтворення, пов'язане з активним пошуком, відновленням і добуванням з довготривалої пам'яті матеріалу, необхідного індивіду.
10. Забування — процес пам'яті, який призводить до втрати чіткості й зменшення обсягу закріпленого у тривалій пам'яті матеріалу, а інколи й неможливості відтворити його.

Ex. 7. Read and translate the text:

Kinds of Memory

Many psychologists believe that there are three main kinds of memory: sensory, short-term and long-term. What makes up each of them?

Imagine that a friend who collects facts informs you about brain weight: a human brain weighs about 3 pounds, an elephant brain – approximately 13 pounds, a whale brain – roughly 20 pounds. How may this information make its way into memory? When you simply hear your friend cite the facts, some remembering that you are aware of is going on.

Information that strikes our sense organs is stored on the basis of the so-called sensory memory (SM). Materials held by sensory memory resemble afterimages. Typically, they disappear in less than a second unless they are transferred immediately to a second memory system, short-term memory (STM). How do you transfer sensory data to the short-term store? All you have to do is to attend to the material for a moment. If you listen as your friend talks, you will pass into your short-term memory.

The STM is pictured as the centre of consciousness. The STM holds everything we are aware of – thoughts, information, experiences, – at any point in time. The “store” part of STM houses a limited amount of data for some time (usually for about fifteen minutes). We can keep information in SM system longer by repeating it. In addition, the short-term memory “works” as a central executive. It inserts materials into, and removes it from, a third, more or less permanent system, the long-term memo (LTM).

To move the information into the long-term store, you probably have to process it. During this deep processing people pay close attention, think about meanings or operate with related objects in long-term memory. While deep processing is one way to remember something, the other one is to repeat the information.

The short- and long-term systems continually pass information back and forth. The material in the LTM may be activated and transferred to the ST store. It is the ST system that retrieves both long- and short-term memories. Imagine that someone asks you, “Do people have the largest brain of any animal?” Some time after your friend’s lecture, the necessary information will be given quickly, it is in the ST store.

If the question about the human brain comes up a year later, you will have to address to your long-term store.

Ex. 8. Pick out the words from the text, which may be grouped under the heading “Memory”.

Answer the following questions:

1. What are the kinds of memory?
2. Where is the information stored?
3. What does the short-term memory hold?
4. How can we keep information in SM system longer?
5. Which system is less permanent: STM or LTM?
6. What is it necessary to do to move the information into the long-term store?

Ex. 9. Complete the following sentences:

1. There are three kinds of memory ...
2. Information is stored on the basis of ...
3. Short-term memory is pictured as ...
4. It holds everything we are aware of ...
5. We keep information longer by ...
6. During processing people pay ...
7. The STM and LTM systems pass information ...

Ex. 10. Find in the text the facts to prove that:

1. It is quite possible to keep information in SM system longer.
2. The STM works as a central executive.

Ex. 11. Explain:

1. The meaning of sensory memory.
2. The mechanism of short-term memory.
3. The mechanism of long-term memory.

Ex. 12. Combine the following words into word-combinations:

to collect

words

to remember

attention

to select	sounds
to process	pictures
to store	thoughts
to transfer	afterimages
to resemble	material
to encode	ideas
to attend	numbers
to keep in memory	data
to divide	information
to support	facts

Ex. 13. Give derivatives of:

to remember, to attend, to process, to inform, to appear, conscious, aware.

Ex. 14. Make up your own sentences with:

to be aware of; to disappear; in addition; to give information; to address to; to attend to.

Ex. 15. Translate the following proverbs:

1. Creditors have better memories than debtors.
2. Liars have need of good memories.
3. That which was bitter to endure may be sweet to remember.

Ex. 16. Develop the following situations:

1. It's a great problem for you sometimes to hold in your memory even the slightest things or data. And you envy your friend who can remember quite a number of them. You ask him how he manages to do it.

Ask your partner:

- what he memorizes more quickly: names or dates;
- if he practises his memory in any way;
- if it is possible for him to remember things by repeating them;
- if he has got a special diary to put down some important facts;
- how he remembers telephone numbers;

– in what way he makes notes of the lectures.

2. Your friend knows English very well. You would like to know it as well as he does. You ask him about his way of learning a language.

Ask your partner:

- when he started learning English;
- how he learned new words;
- what is the best way to remember things;
- if it is better to learn words or phrases;
- if different odours help memorize something;
- if attention plays any role in the process of memorizing.

3. Your friend has written an essay on the problem of memory. You have been greatly interested in the phenomenon of memorizing things for a long time. You would like to understand this complicated mechanism.

Ask your friend:

- what kinds of memory exist;
- if short-term memory keeps information long;
- what we should do to move information into the long-term store;
- what system is less permanent: STM or LTM;
- if deep processing of information is the only way to remember something;
- what the human mind reminds of.

4. You are an absent-minded person by your nature. You constantly forget your mother's request to buy something. And your mother says you are always in the clouds. You come to a psychoanalyst for advice.

Ask him:

- if your situation is hopeless;
- if your bad memory is associated with mental disorders;
- what is necessary to do to correct the situation;
- if you must make some special notes lest you should forget what they mean;
- if there are many people with the same syndrome of absent-mindedness;
- what training exercises he can suggest.

Ex. 17. Render the text into English:

ПАМ'ЯТЬ

Пам'ять — це відображення предметів і явищ дійсності у психіці людини в той час, коли вони вже безпосередньо не діють на органи чуття. Пам'ять — це низка складних психічних процесів, активне оволодіння якими надає людині здатності засвоювати і використовувати потрібну інформацію.

Пам'ять включає такі процеси: запам'ятовування, зберігання, відтворення та забування. Запам'ятовування — це закріплення образів сприймання, уявлень, думок, дій, переживань і зв'язків між ними. Збереження — це процес утримання в пам'яті відомостей, одержаних у ході набування досвіду. Цей процес великою мірою залежить від якості та глибини запам'ятовування. Забування — процес протилежний збереженню, виявляється у тому, що актуалізація забутих образів чи думок ускладнюється або стає взагалі неможливою. Пам'ять включається в різні види людської діяльності, в них формується і виявляється. Особливості вияву пам'яті закріплюються, передаються генетично, розвиваючись у діяльності людини, розкривають собою певні властивості особистості й складають певні види пам'яті.

Види пам'яті розрізняють за такими критеріями: 1) залежно від того, що запам'ятовується й відтворюється, яка діяльність переважає, пам'ять розподіляють на рухову, емоційну, образну, словесно-логічну; 2) за тривалістю закріплення й збереження матеріалу — на короткочасну (оперативну) і довготривалу; 3) залежно від того, як процеси пам'яті включаються у структуру діяльності, як вони пов'язані з її цілями та засобами, — на мимовільну і довільну; 4) за усвідомленням (розумінням) змісту матеріалу — на смислову і механічну.

FROM THE HISTORY OF PSYCHOLOGY

Ex. 18. Read the article quickly and give a short summary of it:

Binet, Alfred (1857–1911), French psychologist is known for his achievement in developing a standard intelligence test.

Binet was born on July 11, 1857, in Nice. He was educated at the Sorbonne, where he studied law. However, he decided to continue his studies in medicine and psychology. In 1889, at the Sorbonne, he helped to found the first psychological research laboratory in France. As director of the laboratory, Binet tried to develop experimental techniques to

measure intelligence and reasoning ability. In 1895, he founded the first French psychological journal, *L'Annee Psychologique* (The Psychological Year), and used it to publish the results of his research studies.

Binet's most important work was in intelligence testing. With his colleague, psychologist Theodore Simon, he developed a test to measure the mental ability of children. The Binet-Simon Scale first appeared in 1905. It was made up of problems designed to measure general intelligence, HI and items were graded according to age level. The child's score, based on the number of correct answers, showed the child's mental age.

Binet died in Paris on October 18, 1911. His work on intelligence measurement remained important among psychologists in other countries. The Stanford-Binet Scale, an adaptation of Binet's original test, was widely used for many years in the United States, where great importance was paid to intelligence testing.

UNIT 5

COGNITION AND LANGUAGE

Cognition is essentially the process of thinking, decision making, judging, imagining, problem solving, categorizing, and reasoning – all the higher mental processes of human beings. These diverse mental activities may seem to be a jumble of topics without any common elements, but a common ground underlies them all: they all depend on knowledge that derives from learning and memory.

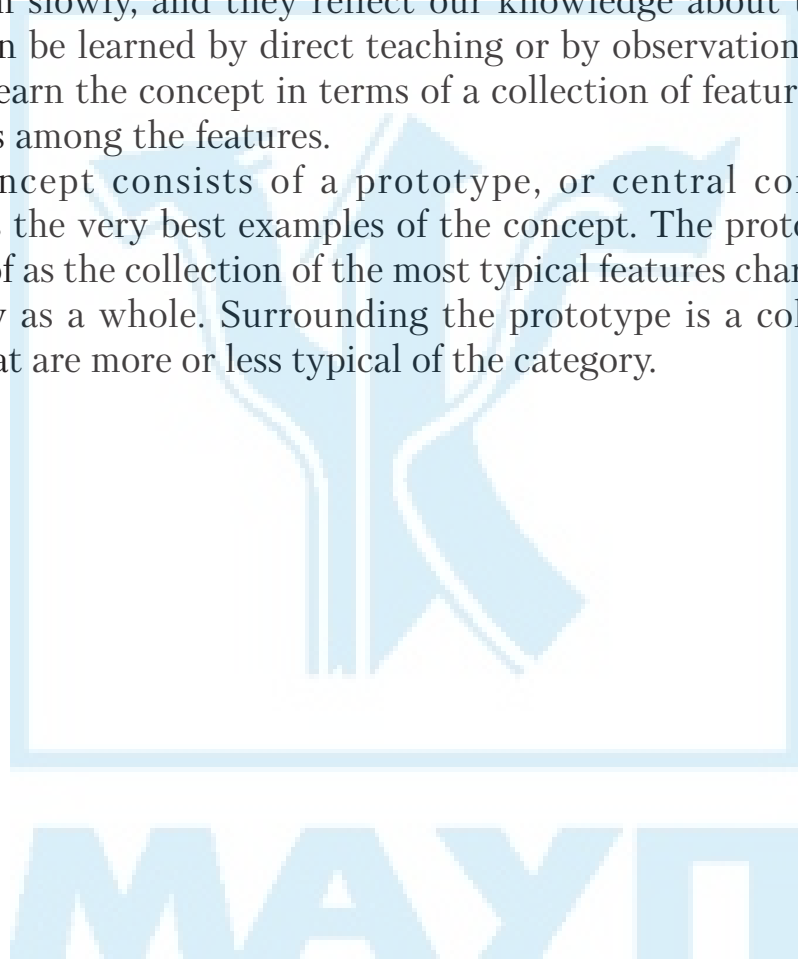
Much of our knowledge is encoded in our memory in verbal form, so that language is essential to learning, thinking, and remembering. But imagine how impossible language would be if everything had a unique name. One way the mind reduces its work is by grouping similar objects and events under the heading of a single concept. Classifying similar things together by concepts or categories enables us to cope with the task of naming and representing the infinite variety of things in our world.

How do we recognize an object as a member of a category? We check to see whether it shares a number of typical features, or properties, of that concept. All oranges, for example, share such properties as yellowish-red colour, baseballish size, spherical shape, nubby texture, and peelable rind – in addition to their unique, unmistakable smell and taste. When we

consider an object that might be an orange, we check to see whether it has at least a few of these features. Once we have decided that the object does belong to a given class, we can then make inferences about it on the basis of these shared properties. If you are blindfolded and presented with a round, pebbly-surfaced object that smells like an orange, you can predict its other features – colour, taste, and so on. Even this simple example shows how categories simplify the world’s diversity and reduce the mind’s work.

No one comes into the world with a ready-made stock of concepts; we acquire them slowly, and they reflect our knowledge about the world. Concepts can be learned by direct teaching or by observation. In either process we learn the concept in terms of a collection of features and the relationships among the features.

Each concept consists of a prototype, or central core, which encompasses the very best examples of the concept. The prototype may be thought of as the collection of the most typical features characterizing the category as a whole. Surrounding the prototype is a collection of instances that are more or less typical of the category.



Just what makes an instance more or less typical of a category? Eleanor Rosch and Carolyn Mervis investigated this question and found that family resemblance was the key: the more closely an instance, let's say "apple", resembled many other category members, the more typical it was judged to be.

Psychologists have also investigated the way we learn and use the prototypes that lie at the hearts of our categories. If subjects are shown only instances that vary in minor ways from the central prototype, they quickly come up with a good conception of that central prototype. The social and personality categories we use every day are called stereotypes. They seem to be constructed like most other natural categories: the category consists of a prototypic instance, flanked by members of decreasing similarity. The fuzziness of these categories is reflected in our culture's personality prototypes or stereotypes – the introvert, the extrovert, the hostile child, the lonely person, the bully, and so on: there are extreme and moderate examples of all these types. Similarly *fuzzy* categories exist for ethnic groups and for psychiatric diagnostic categories, such as mentally retarded and schizophrenic. Indeed, they exist for insanity (or sanity) itself.

Rosch's studies concern common categories, those for which our language has devised as a label. But not all the categories we use have labels. People continually make up *ad hoc* categories, *spur-of-the-moment* categories constructed to handle particular functions, often as a part of goal-directed plans. But *ad hoc* categories differ from common categories in an important way: typical members may bear little resemblance to other members of the category family. A major reason for categorizing people, places, and objects is so that we can make appropriate judgments about them and then decide how to act towards them. On the job we behave differently if we believe we are talking to one of our bosses or one of our subordinates. Obviously, our categories and judgments play a basic role in the decisions we make about how to behave in given situations.

Language is a social tool, and its principal function is to coordinate our actions and exchanges with others in our social group. We use human language to communicate information from one person to another and to influence one another's actions. Many other species also have simple communication systems: bees dance on the floor of a hive to tell other workers where nectar has been found, seagulls use distinct cries to communicate the location of food or the presence of danger. But such

animal signaling systems are simple and rigid. By contrast, human language is incredibly flexible and complex.

Language is a tool used by human beings — a tool for manipulating the social environment. We can look at any tool from two different points of view: in terms of its structure, or in terms of its function. The study of language's structure is the province of linguistics.

Our system of language forms a sort of bridge, or chain of relationships, between our thoughts and the sounds we make in order to communicate. We pack our thoughts together and find ways of expressing them in accordance with the grammar of our language — the rules that describe the levels of speech in our language and the way those levels are interrelated. We follow the rules that govern the way we connect our thoughts before we speak them. We usually speak in order to express a thought or convey an intention. But the thought is not the same as the actual sentence we utter. The thought occurs in our consciousness in the form of a proposition, consisting of a subject with a predicate. But most of our thoughts are complex. So in order to express these complex relationships in an utterance, we often package several propositions in a single sentence, following the rules of grammar.

Psychologists are interested in grammatical phrases (which are also called constituents), because people treat them as perceptual chunks that have unity and integrity. Speakers tend to utter whole constituents in bursts separated by pauses, and listeners tend to “hear” whole constituents at a time.

If we could not get our ideas across to other people and discover what they had in mind themselves, each of us would exist inside a virtually impenetrable shell. Human interaction would be almost impossible, and if people could not interact with one another, societies could not exist, and cultures could not be transmitted from one generation to the next.

Psychologists are interested not only in language's structure, but also in its function, or how it is used — the field of psycholinguistics. As a tool for social communication, language coordinates the thoughts and actions of the speaker and the listener. A speaker uses language for a purpose: to arrange a date, perhaps, or to offer a cup of coffee to a guest, warn an intruder to leave, or thank a friend for a gift. The study of the way a speaker uses language to accomplish some goal that depends on a listener's comprehension is known as pragmatics.

- to acquire** — набувати
ad hoc — на конкретний випадок
to accomplish — виконувати, досягати
appropriate — відповідний, придатний
blindfolded — із зав'язаними очима
bully — задирака, хуліган
cognition — пізнання
comprehension — розуміння, охоплення, пресуппозиція
to convey — передавати, повідомляти
to cope with — справлятися, упоратися з чимось
diverse — інший, відмінний, різноманітний
to devise — придумати, виробити
essential — обов'язковий
flanked — розташований збоку
flexible — гнучкий, податливий
fuzziness — неясність, непевність
hive — вулик
hostile — ворожий, вороже налаштований
impenetrable — непроникний, недоступний, незбагненний, недосяжний
infinite — безконечний, безмежний
instance — зразок
integrity — цілісність
judgement — судження
jumble — купа, безладна суміш
nubbly — вузлуватий
to predict — передбачати
property — властивість
proposition — пропозиція судження, диктум
resemblance — подібність
retarded — відсталий
rigid — грубий, позбавлений образів
rind — шкірка
sanity — здоровий розум, нормальна психіка
species — вид, рід
spur-of-the moment — миттєвий, експромтний, інстинктивний
tool — знаряддя

to utter — промовляти

utterance — висловлення

to vary — змінюватися, різнитися

Essential Phrases (to be sought in the text)

Класифікувати та обґрунтовувати; розумова діяльність; нескінченне розмаїття речей; мати спільні ознаки; зробити умовивід; готовий поняттєвий апарат; формувати поняття шляхом спостереження; родова подібність; прототипна ознака; розмитість категорій; розумова відсталість; виконувати функцію; виявляти незначну схожість; гнучка і розгалужена система; сфера лінгвістики; передати намір; з'являтися у формі пропозиції; смислова група; передаватися з покоління в покоління; досягнути мети.

Ex. 1. Answer the questions on the text:

1. How is cognition connected with learning and memory?
2. What helps us cope with the task of naming and representing the infinite variety of things in the world?
3. How do categories simplify the world's diversity and reduce the mind's work?
4. What is a prototype?
5. Who is the author of the theory of prototype?
6. Do only people have their language?
7. What stages does the thought go through before it is verbalized?
8. What do psycholinguistics and pragmatics study?
9. Is the world possible without language?
10. How do we recognize an object as a member of a category?

Ex. 2. Fill in the blank with the vocabulary word that best suits the meaning of each sentence:

1. Have you noticed that he hasn't ... a word for the last 24 hours?
2. This rare bird has become an endangered
3. The factory ... very well with the sudden increase in demand.
4. The fortune-teller ... that I would marry a doctor.
5. Lucy is very ... and can't read yet though she is nine.
6. I don't feel our visit really ... anything.

7. We can visit you any time you want — our plans are fairly
8. The programme deals with subjects as ... as pop music and ancient Greek drama.
9. Words are the ... of his trade.
10. Our government's anger was ... to their ambassador.
11. Many plants have medical
12. I think this is an ... moment to raise the question of my promotion.

Ex. 3. Substitute the definitions for the words taken from the text:

1. A plan which one has, purpose.
2. Something necessary or useful for doing one's job.
3. Made, arranged for a particular purpose.
4. A fixed set of ideas about what a particular type of person or thing is like, which is believed to be true in all cases.
5. Any of the parts that make up a whole.
6. The act or experience of knowing, including consciousness of things and judgment about them.
7. A person who likes to spend time in activities with other people rather than being quiet and alone.
8. A person suffering from a disorder of the mind marked by a separation of a person's mind and feelings, causing at last a drawing away from other people into a life in the imagination only.
9. A system of signs, movements, etc., used to express meanings or feelings.
10. A division of animals and plants, which are alike in all important ways, and which can breed together to produce young of the same kind.

Ex. 4. Search the text for the antonyms of the following words. Make up sentences with them:

artificial, minor, increase, peripheral, extrovert, penetrable, optional, similar, enlarge.

Ex. 5. Confirm or deny the statements. Make use of the following phrases:

That's it! Precisely. Very true. I fully (quite) agree with you. I'm afraid not. You are not quite right, I'm sorry to say it. Far from it.

1. Cognition is an essential process characteristic of all animals.
2. Concepts which reflect our knowledge about the world can be learned in different ways.
3. There is no difference between prototypes and stereotypes.
4. All the categories we use have labels.
5. We use language to communicate information from one person to another.
6. Our language is a bridge between the thought and the sounds we produce.
7. Psycholinguistics and pragmatics deal with the same problems.

Ex. 6. Translate into English:

1. Процес пізнання включає в себе різні види розумової діяльності людини: мислення, прийняття рішень, судження, уяву, вирішення проблем, категоризацію та аргументацію.
2. Мова — це соціальний інструмент, який ми використовуємо для того, щоб передавати інформацію та впливати на дії одне одного.
3. Більшість наших думок є складними і вони з'являються в нашій свідомості у формі тверджень.
4. Багато наших знань закодовані в нашій пам'яті у словесній формі, тож мова є надзвичайно суттєвою для процесів навчання, мислення та запам'ятовування.
5. Як інструмент соціального спілкування, мова координує думки та дії не лише того, хто говорить, а й того, хто слухає.
6. Багато інших видів мають системи спілкування, проте вони є простими й ригідними порівняно із надзвичайно гнучкою та складною мовою людей.
7. Вищою формою пізнання людиною дійсності є абстрактне пізнання, що відбувається за участю процесів мислення та уяви.
8. Важливу роль у пізнавальній діяльності людини відіграє пам'ять, яка відображає, фіксує й відтворює те, що відображається у свідомості у процесі пізнання.
9. Психологи зацікавлені не лише структурою мови, а й її функцією, що є сферою психолінгвістики.

10. Як правило, ми говоримо, щоб виразити думку чи привернути увагу, проте часто наші думки — це не те, що ми говоримо насправді.

Ex. 7. Read out “A Cognition Scale” developed on the basis of a cognitive personality theory and define your place in this scale:

1. I really enjoy a task that involves coming up with new solutions to problems.
2. I would prefer a task that is intellectual, difficult, and important to one that is somewhat important but does not require much thought.
3. I prefer just to let things happen rather than try to understand why they turned out that way.
4. The notion of thinking abstractly is not appealing to me.
5. I find it especially satisfying to complete an important task that required a lot of thinking and mental effort.
6. I like tasks that require little thought once I've learned them.
7. I prefer to think about small, daily projects to long-term ones.
8. I don't like to have the responsibilities of handling a situation that requires a lot of thinking.
9. I feel relief rather than satisfaction after completing a task that required a lot of mental effort.
10. I think best when those around me are very intelligent.
11. I prefer my life to be filled with puzzles that I must solve.
12. I would prefer complex to simple problems.
13. Simply knowing the answer rather than understanding the reasons for the answer to a problem is fine with me.

Ex. 8. Suggest your own ideas concerning the above given statements?

Ex. 9. Read the text and explain why fathers smile less than mothers:

Translating the Smile

Stettner, a psychologist at Wayne State University in Detroit, says smiling is a complicated and important form of self-expression, and he believes that improved knowledge of it could have practical implications.

Besides, it feels good, Stettner said at a symposium on his favourite subject at a meeting of the International Primatological Society.

“It’s like discovering a language system”, he said. “I’ve become ensnared in working out the vocabulary of smiling”. Stettner told the symposium that there are many different kinds of smile – 1, 814, 400, by his estimate. “That could be off by several hundred thousand”, he added, not with a straight face.

He turned serious when explaining some of the practical applications of his work. “A lot of people are interested in smiles. People who study a foreign language, for example, ought to know what different smiles signify in different cultures. You learn a language but you don’t learn the nonverbal language”.

Most of what is known about smiling comes from studies of infants and their parents. Sidney Perloe of Haverford College in Pennsylvania tried to determine why fathers tend to smile less at the antics of babies than mothers do.

It had been thought that fathers had less reason than mothers to develop rapport with infants because fathers play a smaller role in nurturing the infant. But Perloe found that males are less likely to smile simply because they are more aware that they are being watched by other adults and may fear that smiling at babies might be unbecoming.

Ex. 10. Read the text again and choose the information on:

1. Stettner’s research.
2. Sidney’s studies.

Ex. 11. Do you believe in the results of their investigation? Give your reasons.

Ex. 12. Develop the following situation:

You have just come from the symposium of the International Primatological Society. What would you like to tell your colleagues about?

Ex. 13. Read and translate the text:

Nonverbal Communication

Nonverbal communication is communication using the body or cultural symbols other than spoken words.

Nonverbal communication is largely based on the use of the body to convey information to others, as suggested by the common phrase body language. Facial expressions are crucial to nonverbal communication. Smiling, for example, is a symbol of pleasure, although we distinguish between the casual, lighthearted smile, a smile of embarrassment, and the full, unrestrained smile we often associate with the “cat who ate the canary”. Other facial expressions are used to convey an almost limitless range of human emotions, including anger, confusion, disgust, pain, indifference, sadness, and seriousness of purpose.

Eye contact is another widely used means of nonverbal communication. In general, eye contact is an invitation to further social interaction. An individual across the room “catches our eye”, for instance, and a conversation begins. Avoiding the eyes of another, in contrast, discourages communication. Our hands speak for us too. Hand gestures commonly used within our culture can convey, among other things, an insult, a request for a ride, an invitation to have someone join us, or a demand that others stop in their tracks. Gestures of this kind are commonly used to supplement spoken words. Pointing in a menacing way at someone, for example, gives greater emphasis to a word of warning, as a shrug of the shoulders adds an air of indifference to the phrase “I don’t know”, and rapidly waving the arms lends urgency to the single word “Hurry!”

Like all symbols, nonverbal communication is largely culture-specific. A smile indicates pleasure the world over, but many gestures that are significant within North American culture mean nothing – or something very different – to members of other cultures. Indeed, a gesture indicating praise in North America may convey a powerful insult to those who “read” the performance according to a different set of rules.

The examples of nonverbal communication presented so far are elements of a deliberate performance. Nonverbal communication is often difficult to control, however. Sometimes, in fact, verbal communication (information we give) is contradicted by nonverbal cues (information we give off). Listening to her teenage son’s explanation for returning home at a late hour, for instance, a mother begins to doubt his words because he is unable to hold eye contact. In this manner, nonverbal communication may provide clues to verbal deception.

Ex. 14. Answer the following questions:

1. How would you define nonverbal communication?
2. What is the other term for nonverbal communication?
3. What does smiling signify?
4. What emotions do facial expressions convey?
5. What are the means of conveying nonverbal communication?
6. Why do we say that nonverbal communication is culture-specific?
7. Is it easy or difficult to control nonverbal communication?
8. Give examples of nonverbal communication.

Ex. 15. Make up disjunctive questions of the following sentences and respond to them:

1. Nonverbal communication is based on the use of the body to convey information.
2. Facial expressions are crucial to nonverbal communication.
3. Eye contact is a widely used means of body language.
4. Hand gestures are also eloquent in communicating with people.
5. Hand gestures supplement spoken words.
6. Body language is largely culture specific.
7. Nonverbal communication is often difficult to control.

Ex. 16. Search the text for the facts to prove the following statements:

1. Facial expressions are crucial to nonverbal communication.
2. Nonverbal communication is greatly based on the culture we live in.

Ex. 17. Think of all possible situations where nonverbal communication plays a greater part than spoken words.

Ex. 18. Look through the text, find and read sentences on:

- the most common indicators of approval and disapproval;
- universal nonverbal signals.

Ex. 19. Render the text into English:

МИСЛЕННЯ ЯК ПРОЦЕС

Мислення — це процес опосередкованого й узагальненого відображення людиною предметів і явищ об'єктивної дійсності в їхніх істотних властивостях, зв'язках та відношеннях. Мислення є одним із провідних пізнавальних процесів, його вважають найвищим ступенем пізнання. Відображення на стадії мислення відрізняється від чуттєвого пізнання на стадії сприймання тим, що мислення відбиває дійсність опосередковано, за допомогою системи засобів, зокрема мисленневих операцій, мови й мовлення, знань людини тощо. Відображення дійсності на рівні мислення має також узагальнений характер. Мислення надає людині можливість відобразити й зрозуміти не тільки те, що може бути безпосередньо сприйняте відчуттями, а й те, що сховане від безпосереднього чуттєвого сприймання.

Мислення процесуальне, тобто розгорнуте в часі, динамічне. Хід мислення рідко з самого початку є запрограмованим, сама детермінація мислення також створюється та розвивається під час мислення, тобто теж є процесом. Мисленнєві дії — це дії з об'єктами, що відображені в образах, уявленнях та поняттях. Вони відбиваються в думці за допомогою мовлення. Людина не діє безпосередньо з предметами, вона робить це подумки, не вступаючи в контакт із самими предметами й не вносячи реальних змін у їхню будову, розміщення.

Серед мисленневих операцій найважливішими вважаються аналіз, синтез, порівняння, абстрагування та узагальнення. Можна назвати ще класифікацію та систематизацію. З порівняння починається пізнання, але найсуттєвіші ознаки виявляються за допомогою попереднього аналізу і наступного синтезу. Ці операції виступають, як правило, в єдності та взаємозв'язку, тому й виникло досить відоме поняття “аналіз через синтез”, яке означає поступове заглиблення в суть предмета або явища, вивчення усіх його сторін і властивостей (аналіз) у взаємозв'язках, синтезування їх для подальшого пізнання.

FROM THE HISTORY OF PSYCHOLOGY

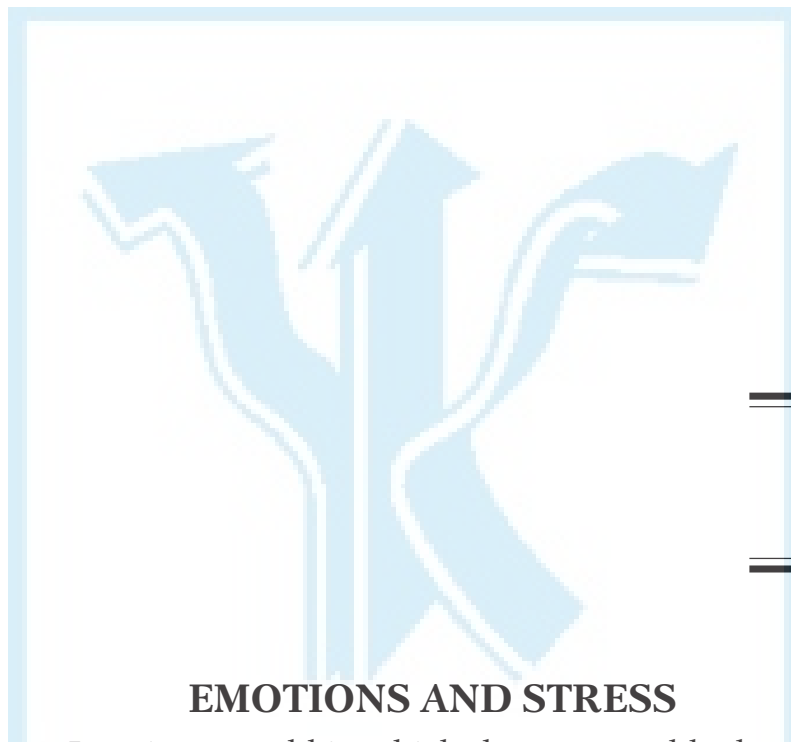
Ex. 20. Read the article quickly and give a short summary of it:

William James (1842–1910) is an American psychologist, who developed the philosophy of pragmatism. James was born in New York on January 11, 1842. His father, Henry James, was a theologian. William James attended private schools in the United States and Europe, the Lawrence Scientific School at Harvard University, and the Harvard Medical School, from which he received a degree in 1869. Before finishing his medical studies, he went on an exploring expedition in Brazil and also studied physiology in Germany. After three years of retirement due to illness, James became an instructor in physiology at Harvard in 1872. After 1880 he taught psychology and philosophy at Harvard; he left Harvard in 1907 and gave highly successful lectures at Columbia University and the University of Oxford.

James's first book, the monumental *Principles of Psychology* (1890), established him as one of the most influential thinkers of his time. The work was devoted to the principle of functionalism in psychology, thus removing psychology from its traditional place as a branch of philosophy and establishing it among the laboratory sciences based on experimental method.

In the next decade James applied his methods of investigation to philosophical and religious issues. He explored the questions of the existence of God, the immortality of the soul, free will, and ethical values by referring to human religious and moral experience. His views on these subjects were presented in the lectures and essays published in such books as *The Will to Believe and Other Essays in Popular Philosophy* (1897), *Human Immortality* (1898), and *The Varieties of Religious Experience* (1902). The last-named work is a sympathetic psychological account of religious and mystical experiences.

James died in New Hampshire, on August 26, 1910.



UNIT 6

EMOTIONS AND STRESS

Emotions. Imagine a world in which there was suddenly no emotion — a world in which human beings could feel no love or happiness, no terror or hate. People might not be able to stay alive: knowing neither joy nor pleasure, neither anxiety nor fear, they would as likely to repeat acts that hurt them as acts that were beneficial. They could not learn: they could not benefit from experience because this emotionless world would lack rewards and punishments. Society would soon disappear: people would be as likely to harm one another as to provide help and support. Human relationships would not exist: in a world without friends or enemies, there could be no marriage, affection among companions, or bonds among members of groups. Our culture's richness would be lost: since people would have no taste for beauty there would be no art, and since people could not

be amused or entertained, there would be no music, theatre, books, television, or movies.

In such a world, the chances that the human species would survive are near zero, because emotions are the basic instrument of our survival and adaptation. Emotions structure the world for us in important ways. As individuals, we categorize objects on the basis of our emotions. True, we consider their length, shape, size, or texture, but object's sensory aspects are less important than what it has done or can do to us — hurt us, surprise us, infuriate us, or make us joyful. We also use emotion-tinged categorizations in our families, communities, and overall society. Out of our emotional experiences with objects and events comes a social consensus that certain things and actions are “good” and others are “bad”, and we apply these categories to every aspect of our social life — from what food we eat and what clothes we wear to how we keep promises and which people our group will accept. In fact, society exploits our emotional reactions and attitudes, such as loyalty, morality, pride, shame, guilt, fear, and greed, in order to maintain itself.

If emotions were colours, we would each have a rainbow. We are all familiar with a broad span of feelings, some mild, some intense; they range from the momentary and trivial (embarrassment at being unprepared in class, frustration at an automobile breakdown when we are late for an appointment) to the profound and life-altering (joy when we fall in love, anguish when someone we love dies). Our emotional experiences lend their hues to every moment of our day, and they are so much a part of our life that we can easily empathize with the emotions of others. But as familiar as emotions are, it is not easy to formulate a definition of them — to describe exactly what all these different feelings have in common.

Emotions are complicated psychological phenomena that we cannot sum up in everyday, commonsense terms. Psychologists have therefore approached them from another angle. They have noted that no matter what the source or the quality of the emotion is, all emotions share three basic aspects, or components: arousal, expression, and experience. Psychologists use the term “arousal” to refer to the series of psychological changes — primarily in the autonomic nervous system — that take place when an individual has an emotion. “Expression” refers to behavioural acts that are elicited by the emotion, such as baring the teeth in a moment of rage. “Experience” is the subjective feeling that accompanies the emotion — the individual's perception and realization of the emotional state. Strong

emotions are associated with internal changes resulting from activation of the autonomic nervous system. The sympathetic division dominates during emotion-arousing situations, and when it is activated, heart rate, respiration, and muscular tension increase. The brain coordinates the activation of the autonomic nervous system as it triggers emotional arousal.

Much of the behaviour accompanying strong emotion can be observed directly, and there is general agreement concerning its meaning, with the role of prominent facial features charted for at least six basic emotions. The extent to which people agree in rating a common experience helps establish the degree of consistency in our subjective emotional experiences.

A debate continues over the relationship between the bodily changes that characterize emotions and a person's perception of those changes and the situation that produced them. The James-Lange theory of emotion postulates that the perception of bodily changes is emotion. This theory has been challenged because (1) physiological changes do not necessarily produce emotions; (2) the speed with which emotions are felt makes it doubtful that the visceral organs could be their source; and (3) similar bodily changes occur in conjunction with differing emotional states. However, the perception of physiological changes does play a significant role in the experience of emotions.

Stress. Symptoms of stress are too familiar. Perhaps you have an interview for a job you have always wanted. You arrive five minutes earlier and take a seat in the reception area. You want to appear confident and self-assured, but your heart is racing, your mouth feels dry, and your hands shake as you reach for a magazine.

Stress is a pattern of disruptive physiological and psychological reactions to events that threaten a person's ability to cope. The symptoms of stress include physiological arousal (increases in pulse rate, blood pressure, and respiration); higher levels of certain hormones; cognitive disorganization (inability to concentrate, obsessive thoughts); and emotional upset (fear, anxiety, excitement, anger, embarrassment, depression). A certain amount of stress is an inevitable part of life. But acute stress can interfere with emotional, cognitive, and psychological functioning. And chronic stress has been linked to degeneration of overall health, diseases of the upper respiratory tract, allergies, high blood pressure, and a greater risk of sudden cardiac death and heart disease.

At some times in our lives, most of us must cope with extremely upsetting events, such as death, losing a job, or divorce. All of us must deal

with the annoyances and problems of daily life; we face traffic jams, noisy neighbours, “cash flow” problems, computer malfunctions, romantic breakups, too much work, and too little sleep. Is it possible to measure the impact of environmental events on our psychological and physical well-being? Some years ago, Thomas Holmes and Richard Rahe asked medical patients to list stressful events they had experienced in the months before they became ill. They were surprised to discover that patients mentioned positive events such as Christmas or getting married and minor problems such as getting a traffic ticket as well as such clearly distressing events as the death of a spouse. Holmes and Rahe concluded that change is a major factor in stress. Even welcome events, such as an outstanding personal achievement, force people to make readjustments in their lives.

But stress also depends on psychological factors; on whether people believe that they can predict and control events in their environment. Those who believe they cannot control events develop learned helplessness.

Coping is the process of managing external and internal pressures that might otherwise lead to stress. Successful coping depends on a combination of problem-solving ability and emotional self-regulation. A person is coping well if he or she is able to change environmental conditions that are harmful or threatening (problem solving); to adjust to painful but unavoidable realities; and to regain emotional equilibrium after an upset, maintaining a positive self-image and continuing satisfying relationships with others (emotional self-regulation).

Psychologists have devised a number of techniques for assisting people who are not hardy by nature to control their reactions to stress. Three techniques for reducing physiological arousal are progressive relaxation (through deep breathing and muscle relaxation), autogenic training (based on self-suggestion), and biofeedback. Stress management workshops combine these techniques with training in coping skills. Psychologists have also discovered relatively simple ways of restructuring stressful environments (such as nursing homes and hospitals) to give inhabitants more control over events, thus enhancing their ability to cope.

List of Vocabulary

to accompany — супроводжувати
acute — гострий
affection — прихильність, приязнь
alive — живий

to amuse — розважати
angle — кут
anguish — біль, мука, страждання
annoyance — прикрість, неприємність, роздратування
anxiety — тривога
arousal — фаза збудження (про емоції)
to apply — застосовувати
beneficial — корисний, вигідний, благотворний
biofeedback — рефлекторний зворотний зв'язок
bond — зв'язок
cardiac — коронарний, кардіологічний
charted for — що має пріоритет
confident — впевнений
consistency — послідовність, відповідність, узгодженість
degeneration — виродження, переродження
to devise — придумувати, винаходити
disruptive — що спричинює руйнування
to be elicited — бути виявленим
embarrassment — збентеження, зніяковіння
emotion-tinged — емоційно забарвлений
to enhance — збільшувати, посилювати
equilibrium — рівновага
to exploit — експлуатувати, використовувати
experience — фаза переживання (про емоції)
expression — фаза виходу (про емоції)
frustration — крах
greed — жадність, пожадливість
guilt — провина, вина
hardy — витривалий, загартований
hue — тон, відтінок
impact — вплив
inevitable — неминучий
to infuriate — розлючувати, доводити до нестями
to lack — відчувати нестачу, бракувати
loyalty — вірність, лояльність
to maintain — утримувати
malfunction — неспрацьовування, відмова, збій
to occur — виникати, з'являтися
obsessive — нав'язливий
profound — ґрунтовний, докладний, серйозний

rage — гнів, лють
to range — охоплювати, сягати, простягатися
readjustment — повторне пристосування
reward — нагорода, винагорода
self-assured — самовпевнений
span — відрізок, розмах
spouse — чоловік/ дружина, подружжя
threat — загроза
to trigger — викликати, привести в дію
unavoidable — неминучий
visceral — внутрішній

Essential Phrases (to be sought in the text)

Надати підтримку; відчуття краси; відновити емоційну рівновагу; засіб виживання та пристосування; класифікувати предмети; широкий діапазон почуттів; вискалити зуби; активізація вегетативної нервової системи; риси обличчя; фізичні (тілесні) зміни; внутрішні органи; підвищення кров'яного тиску; емоційний розлад; когнітивний збій; захворювання верхніх дихальних шляхів; коронарні захворювання; долати прикрощі; вплив середовища; наново пристосовуватися; відновити емоційну рівновагу; пристосовуватися до неминучості; глибоке дихання; самонавіювання; зняти стрес.

Ex. 1. Answer the questions on the text:

1. What would happen if the world were emotionless?
2. Are emotions coloured?
3. What functions do they perform?
4. What are the three basic phases of an emotion state?
5. What does the James-Lange's theory deal with?
6. Is stress a disruptive or a constructive process?
7. Do only negative situations of our life cause stresses?
8. Can a person cope with the stress himself?
9. Who can help people regain emotional equilibrium after an upset?
10. Is the help of a psychologist in teaching emotional self-regulation effective?

Ex. 2. Fill in the blank with the vocabulary word that best fits the meaning of each sentence:

1. The fall in prices will be ... to small businesses.
2. He is good at his job but he seems ... confidence.
3. Don't you see what a close ... there is between them?
4. Your constant being late is not simply annoying, it's
5. The world economic system ... the developing countries in favour of the developed ones.
6. He has a ... influence on the other children.
7. The computer has made a great ... on modern life.
8. We must try to keep the opposing economic forces in
9. Good secretarial skills should ... your chances of getting a job.
10. We made a few minor ... to the plan.
11. The players' ... mounted as the rain continued pouring down outside.

Ex. 3. Confirm or deny the following statements. Make use of the following phrases:

That's it! Precisely. Very true. I fully (quite) agree with you. I'm afraid not. You are not quite right, I'm sorry to say it. Far from it.

1. Emotions play an important role in our life.
2. The perception of physiological changes plays the most significant role in the experience of emotions.
3. Any stress affects all the spheres of the person's organism.
4. Helplessness is rather an innate than a shared feature of a person.
5. Stress management workshops are effective in instructing people how to cope with stress.

Ex. 4. Substitute the definitions for the words taken from the text:

1. Interested in things that do not concern one.
2. The act of making or becoming suitable for new needs or different conditions.
3. A general agreement, the opinion of most of the people in a group.
4. Any of the strong feelings of the human spirit.
5. Very great pain and suffering, esp. of the mind.

6. A method of learning to consciously control usually unconscious physical tension, by using an electronic machine to measure this tension and watching what exercises are successful at reducing it.
7. The degree of brightness in colour.

Ex. 5. Search the text for the pairs of antonyms, like:

trivial – life-altering;
introvert – extrovert.

Ex. 6. Pick up the names of the emotions used in the text. Write them down into two columns choosing the opposite emotion to the given one:

Ex. 7. Pick up all compound words from the text, translate, learn them and make up your own sentences. Follow the model:

Breakdown. – We witnessed a breakdown of talks between the staff and the management.

Ex. 8. Translate the sentences into English:

1. Емоції – це специфічна форма взаємодії індивіда з навколишнім світом, із середовищем, спрямована на пізнання світу та свого місця в ньому через самого себе.
2. Згідно з теорією Джеймса-Ланге, емоції є не причиною, а наслідком фізіологічних змін в організмі.
3. Стрес – емоційний стан індивіда, який виникає в ситуаціях, що порушують усталений перебіг його життя.
4. Стрес може мати й позитивне значення, оскільки, як зауважував М. В. Гоголь, – “Цілковита свобода від стресу означає смерть”.
5. Глибина емоційних явищ залежить від того, чи викликана вона пересічними, чи життєво важливими подіями, а також від того, в якому зв'язку між собою перебувають ці явища.
6. Об'єднуючи в ціле всі функції організму, емоції сигналізують про корисні або шкідливі впливи на організм.
7. Емоції становлять складну реакцію організму, в якій беруть участь майже всі відділи нервової системи людини.

8. Зовнішні вираження емоцій виявляються в рухах, позах, інтонації мовлення, рухах очей тощо. Внутрішня їх вираженість яскраво виявляється у прискороному серцебитті, підвищеному кров'яному тиску, змінах в органах травлення тощо.
9. У стресовому стані поведінка значною мірою дезорганізується, спостерігаються безладні рухи, порушення мовлення, помилки у сприйманні, пам'яті та мисленні, виявляються неадекватні реакції.
10. Успішне подолання стресу значною мірою залежить від уміння вирішувати проблеми а також від рівня емоційної саморегуляції.

Ex. 9. Read and translate the text:

Classification of Emotions

The list of feelings and reactions we include under the term emotion is almost infinite. A few that come to mind readily are: fear, anger, rage, horror, terror, agony, anxiety, jealousy, shame, embarrassment, grief, boredom, and dejection. These tend to be negative emotions, but positive ones can be added: love, joy, amusement, elation, ecstasy, pleasure, and happiness. It is quite clear that the list could be extended indefinitely, depending on one's introspective skill and vocabulary range.

At birth there are just a few basic emotional reactions that develop and combine in different ways. The behaviourist, John Watson postulated three basic emotions in children – fear, rage, and love.

Robert Plutchik has proposed a theory of emotional mixture. He assumes that there are eight basic emotional reactions – anticipation, anger, joy, acceptance, surprise, fear, sorrow, and disgust. According to him, each primary emotional reaction can vary in intensity producing different shades of emotional experience. For instance, such basic reaction like fear can vary in intensity from timidity, through apprehension, fear and panic, up to terror. So we may have annoyance, anger, and rage as well as calmness, serenity, pleasure, happiness, joy, and ecstasy.

Other psychologists took a more descriptive approach to the classification of emotions. This approach involves the isolation of one or more basic dimensions along which emotional reactions can be placed. Three main dimensions were described by various authors: intensity,

pleasantness/ unpleasantness, and approach/ avoidance. The intensity dimension is the one most psychologists agree upon. It was also called a

Positive	Negative
joy	anguish
love	hatred

level of arousal or activation. And Elizabeth Duffy suggested that the term emotion be replaced by arousal or energy mobilization.

Emotions at the same level of intensity may be pleasant or unpleasant. Among the more aroused emotions appear joy, astonishment, hopefulness, and ecstasy on the pleasant side and disgust, fear, rage, and terror on the unpleasant one. Among the less aroused emotions there are the pleasantness of material feeling and the unpleasantness of grief.

Ex. 10. Answer the following questions:

1. What types are emotions differentiated between?
2. How do basic emotional reactions develop?
3. What basic emotions did John Watson postulate?
4. What theory did Robert Plutchik propose?
5. How can each primary reaction vary?
6. What does the descriptive approach involve?
7. What are three main dimensions of emotions?
8. How are emotions differentiated at the same level of intensity?
9. What theory do you think to be the most influential? Give your reasons.

Ex. 11. Explain:

- what you understand by positive emotions;
- what you mean by negative emotions;
- the essence of John Watson's theory;
- the importance of Robert Plutchik's theory;
- what emotions you experience more often: positive or negative;
- what circumstances give rise to your positive emotions and negative ones accordingly.

Ex. 12. Describe to your friend the most pleasant situation you have ever found yourself in.

Ex. 13. Think of the unpleasant situation you have been a witness of.

Ex. 14. Give the general idea of the text “Classification of Emotions”.

Ex. 15. Make up a list of pleasant and unpleasant emotions choosing them from the words below. Arrange them according to the degree of intensity:

Acceptance, agony, amusement, anger, annoyance, anticipation, anxiety, apprehension, astonishment, boredom, calmness, dejection, disgust, ecstasy, elation, embarrassment, fear, grief, happiness, hopefulness, horror, jealousy, joy, love, panic, pleasure, rage, serenity, shame, sorrow, surprise, terror, timidity.

Ex. 16. Give examples of those emotions that may comprise an emotional mixture.

Ex. 17. Derive adjectives from the following nouns:

Anger, jealousy, happiness, calmness, tension, hopefulness, anxiety, sorrow, emotion, ambiguity, confusion, excitement, stress, uncertainty.

Ex. 18. Explain in English the meanings of the following word-combinations:

Emotional activity, emotional storm, outbreaks of rage, to show rapport, marital situation, interpersonal attitudes, to have an impact on, to provide a complete overview, to receive acknowledgement, fight-or-flight response, to be vulnerable.

Ex. 19. Arrange the following words in pairs of synonyms:

sorrow	anger
horror	marital break-up
surprise	distressed
rage	grief
calmness	sign
indicator	relaxation
message	reaction
divorce	terror
response	serenity
relief	astonishment
worried	signal

Ex. 20. Arrange the following words in pairs of antonyms:

pleasantness	amuse
restless	disapproval
inhibit	displease
bore	unpleasantness
dejection	approach
acceptance	misunderstanding
avoidance	restful
approval	disrespect
reveal	exhibit
understanding	conceal
respect	serenity
please	withdrawal

Ex. 21. Make up word-combinations and translate them into Ukrainian:

Conscious effort/ experience/ activity/ performance, body language/ reaction/ movement/ posture, to cope with feelings/ emotions/ stress/ situation, to show sympathy/ support/ respect/ true feelings/ rapport, to receive approval/ disapproval/ acknowledgement/ emotional qualm, to feel suspicious/ uncomfortable/ anxious/ vulnerable.

Ex. 22. Substitute the word-combinations in A group for those close in their meanings in B group.

A: to have an effect on; to control stress; stress-hardy personality; to produce stress; to relieve stress; stress level; to feel worried; to inhibit an emotional response; to be conscious of; to put forth a theory; to convey information; body language; inborn responses.

B: stress-prone personality; degree of stress; to be aware of; nonverbal language; to have an impact on; to release stress; to feel distressed; to put forward a theory; innate reactions; to handle stress; to reduce stress; to suppress an emotional reaction; to pass information.

Ex. 23. Read and translate the text:

Ways to Control Stress and Make It Work for You

People often think of stress as something external that intrudes into life. Actually, stress is an interaction between a life situation requiring readjustment and the person's ability to cope. It is the way people react to events rather than the events themselves, that causes stress. Everyone is familiar with those life-readjustment scales you see in magazines that rank events by degree of stress. The worst is death of a spouse, followed by divorce, sickness, taking out a mortgage and so on. The relation between stressful events and reaction to such events is complex. Epictetus said centuries ago that we are not disturbed by things, but by our opinions about things.

Some people experience a large objective amount of life stress and handle it well, while others don't. A person can look at a difficult situation as a half-empty glass or a half-full glass. Or in the Chinese word, crisis is composed of two characters — one means danger and the other opportunity. That's a good way to look at potentially stressful situations.

Suzanne Kobasa, a researcher at the University of Chicago, talks about three characteristics of a stress-hardy personality — challenge, commitment and control. Stress-hardy people view a potentially difficult event as something challenging rather than something to be feared.

Fear may be at the basis of all kinds of stress. When the mind perceives fear, a coordinated system of events takes place that has been termed the fight-or-flight response.

Quite often, however, people perceive danger where there is none. They are not reacting to the reality of a situation as much as to associations they carry around internally based on past experience. They worry about what the future will bring, how long I will live, how I will pay the bills. Such fears produce a chronic fight-or-flight response. Constant arousal of the nervous system can also contribute to heart disease and other diseases.

But there are some active ways to relieve stress that stress-prone people can take into consideration. One way is through meditation and relaxation training, evoking what Dr. Herbert Benson has called “the relaxation response”. Physiologically, it’s the polar extreme of the fight-or-flight response.

Roughly 70 per cent of the physical problems that bring people to their doctor have to do with stress and lifestyle. By evoking the relaxation response people can participate in their own well-being, and in some cases reduce medical problems such as high blood pressure, headache and other conditions that are caused by or worsened by stress. It also gives people a sense of control and has been found to be very useful in reducing anxiety.

Ex. 24. Answer the following questions:

1. How is stress defined?
2. What are its causes?
3. Is the relation between stressful events and reaction to such events simple or complex?
4. What is a good way to look at a difficult situation?
5. What characteristics does Kobasa give in accordance with a stress-hardy personality?
6. What is at the basis of all kinds of stress?
7. What do people worry about?
8. What can such fears produce?
9. What are the ways of overcoming stress?

Ex. 25. Explain what is meant by:

- Epictetus' saying: "We are not disturbed by things, but by our opinions about things";
- the Chinese saying: "Crisis is composed of two characters – one means danger and the other – opportunity";
- saying that fears produce a fight-or-flight response;
- the meaning of the relaxation response.

Ex. 26. Say whether you often experience stress, and if so, in what situations.

Ex. 27. Give your own recommendations to control stress.

Ex. 28. Study the table. Make up a list of top ten stress making factors in your life.

Social Readjustment Rating Scale

The amount of life stress a person has experienced in a given period of time, say one year, is measured by the total number of life change units (LCUs). These units result from the addition of the values (shown in the right column) associated with events that the person has experienced during the target time period.

Source: Holmes, T. H., and H. H. Rahe. The Social Readjustment Rating Scale. Journal of Psychosomatic Research. 1967.

Ex. 29. Render the text into English:

ЕМОЦІЇ ТА ПОЧУТТЯ

Емоція — це реакція індивіда на ті ситуації, до яких індивід водночас не може адаптуватися, і значення її переважно функціональне. Існує інстинктивна координація між актом сприймання і реакціями організму. Сприймання як активний процес передбачає, що об'єкт або ситуація сприймаються не лише так, як вони існують, а й у своєму

емоційному значенні. Емоція виникає щоразу, коли задоволення потреби не відбувається, коли дія не досягає мети. Почуття — вибіркоче і стійке емоційне ставлення індивіда до певних предметів і явищ довколишнього світу. За походженням і функціонуванням вони пов'язані з емоціями.

Емоції та почуття утворюють багаторівневий і багатоманітний світ емоційних явищ. Як і емоції, почуття сигналізують індивіду про стан його потреб і в цьому плані є суб'єктивною формою існування потреби. Проте почуття оцінюють також діяльність, що відповідає цим потребам, характеризують відношення між її складовими. Вони, зрештою, характеризують особистість, відбиваючи всю складність її взаємин зі світом.

Світ емоційних явищ надзвичайно різноманітний. Тому їх розрізняють за еволюційною, функціональною та структурною ознаками. За еволюційною ознакою на перший план виступають три рівні проявів емоцій. Перший характеризує емоційний тон відчуттів (відчуття задоволення/ незадоволення, приємного/ неприємного), який зафарбовує чуттєві образи та самопочуття людини. Другий рівень — емоції, що мають чіткий предметний характер. Це широкий спектр позитивних або негативних емоцій, які відображають ситуативне ставлення людини до якоїсь події. Змістом третього рівня є почуття, наприклад, комічного, гумору, іронії, піднесеного, трагічного. Вони несуть у собі стійке ставлення людини до навколишнього і виникають шляхом узагальнення емоцій. Цей рівень формується у міру становлення людини як індивіда й особистості і визначає зміст і динаміку її емоційного життя. За функціональною ознакою, змістом якої є оцінка смислу різних явищ життя, виокремлюються дві групи емоцій: провідні і похідні. За структурною ознакою емоційні явища поділяються на емоційний тон відчуттів, власне емоції, афекти, пристрасті, настрої, стрес, фрустрацію і почуття.

FROM THE HISTORY OF PSYCHOLOGY

Ex. 30. Read the article quickly and give a short summary of it:

Jean-Martin Charcot (1825–1893) was born in Paris on November 29, 1825. He received his Master's degree at the University of Paris in 1853. In 1860 he became a professor at his alma mater. Two years later, he began

to work at hospital as well. In 1882, he opened a neurological clinic and became known throughout Europe. Students came from everywhere to study the new field. Among them were Alfred Binet and a young Sigmund Freud.

Charcot is well known in medical circles for his studies of the neurology of motor disorders, resulting diseases and localization of brain functions. He is considered the father of modern neurology.

In psychology, he is best known for his use of hypnosis to successfully treating women suffering from the psychological disorder then known as hysteria.

Charcot believed that hysteria was due to a congenitally weak nervous system, combined with the effects of some traumatic experience. Hypnotizing these patients brought on a state similar to hysteria itself. He found that, in some cases, the symptoms would actually lessen after hypnosis, although he was only interested in studying hysteria, not in curing it. Others would later use hypnosis as a part of curing the problem.

Charcot died in France, on August 16, 1893.

Rank		Mean Value
1	Death of spouse	100
2	Divorce	73
3	Marital separation	65
4	Jail term	63
5	Death of close family member	63
6	Personal injury or illness	53
7	Marriage	50
8	Fired at work	47
9	Marital reconciliation	45
10	Retirement	45
11	Change in health of family member	44
12	Pregnancy	40
13	Sex difficulties	39
14	Gain of new family member	39
15	Business readjustment	39
16	Change in financial state	38
17	Death of close friend	37
18	Change to different line of work	36

19	Change in number of arguments with spouse	35
20	Mortgage over \$10,000	31
21	Foreclosure of mortgage or loan	30
22	Change in responsibilities at work	29
23	Son or daughter leaving home	29
24	Trouble with in-laws	29
25	Outstanding personal achievement	28
26	Spouse begin or stop work	26
27	Begin or end school	26
28	Change in living conditions	25
29	Revision of personal habits	24
30	Trouble with boss	23
31	Change in work hours or conditions	20
32	Change in residence	20
33	Change in schools	20
34	Change in recreation	19
35	Change in church activities	19
36	Change in social activities	18
37	Mortgage or loan less than \$10,000	17
38	Change in sleeping habits	16
39	Change in number of family get-togethers	15
40	Change in eating habits	15
41	Vacation	13
42	Christmas	12
43	Minor violations of the law	11

MAY 11

BEHAVIOUR AND MOTIVES

Why do people behave the way they do? We can trace the motives behind behaviour back to emotions. All our emotional experiences have either a positive quality or a negative quality. We want to reexperience positive emotions and avoid the negative ones. Once we have learned ways to attain positive emotional experiences and to avoid unwanted experiences, we can set goals for our behaviour. Any action that is taken in order to reach a goal is called motivated behaviour. Motivated behaviour occurs in all organisms: a frog sticks out its tongue in order to catch a fly; a student reads a textbook in order to pass a psychology course. How does motivated behaviour differ from behaviour that is directly connected to an emotion — or is a “correlate” of an emotion? Behaviour that is a correlate of an emotion is, essentially, a reaction to an event that is already past: you are embarrassed because you forgot to keep a lunch date; you are angry because someone shoved into a queue in front of you. But motivated behaviour is oriented toward what is to come: it is shaped by goals or results that exist in the future.

Motivation affects not only what we do, but how long we do it and how much effort we put into it. Motivation can also shape a series of related actions. Motive can be defined as the dynamic property of behaviour that causes it to be initiated, gives it organization over time, defines its vigour persistence. We can call the corresponding process motivation.

Some motivation is related to biological processes: deficits in blood, sugar, water, oxygen, or salt can lead to behaviour changes designed to return the body to a condition of chemical balance. This internally

motivated behaviour helps the organism to survive. When an organism is deprived of an essential substance such as food or water, we say it is in a state of need. This state of deprivation, or need state, eventually triggers the organism's energy, initiating instrumental behaviour directed toward obtaining the essential substance. Once the need has released the organism's energy, it is considered a drive. An organism's primary drives are produced by emotional and physiological conditions that stimulate the animal to seek fulfillment of basic needs. Eating, drinking, and breathing are examples of behaviour based on primary drives, and such behaviour regulates basic physiological requirements for a particular organism.

But that is only half the story. In the most basic biologically motivated behaviour – behaviour that serves the vital functions of survival and reproduction – organisms also respond to external motivational stimuli in the shape of certain cues from the environment, which psychologists call incentives. Hungry frogs flick out their tongues at moving black spots, which are external stimuli; during breeding season, gulls sit on eggs and their nests, whether the eggs belong to them or not. Any motive, then, has two components. The first component is the internal state that activates and orients the person or animal toward a specific goal such as food or water. The second component is the external incentive – which is, in fact, the goal.

Incentives differ from motives in that they exist as something apart from the individual. They may be described as objects or situations which when attained have the possibility of satisfying some motive. Motivation, as used nature of the organism, makes this inevitable. However, the needs and dynamic nature of the individual are continuously undergoing changes as a result of this interaction. Furthermore, these changes are a result of learning.

Due to the psychological nature of individuals they tend to react favourably to situations that inflate their ego and unfavourably toward those that deflate it; favourably toward areas where success is experienced and unfavourably toward those where failure is experienced. In all cases the individual with his aspirations and goals relative to the status of the self, is involved.

Beyond the needs that human beings share with other animals for the necessities of life, and beyond the portion of our behaviour that is determined by drives to obtain these necessities, unraveling the special

nature of human motivation becomes a complex endeavour. One reason for this complexity is the tremendous variation in behaviour, goals, and preferences among human beings. For one person, jogging is the road to physical health; for another, it is the way to aching muscles and sore feet. One person's favourite activities are reading books and deciphering ancient manuscript; another likes nothing better than to play football. Psychologists have sought some way to include such individual differences in accounts of human motivation, and the problem has been approached in several ways. Because these differences derive from the unique social experiences of the individual, and because the incentives are defined by the society, we speak here of social motivation.

The environment can provide us with a means of satisfying our goals and needs — or, alternatively, it can generate barriers that frustrate their attainment. Thus, the environment creates conditions that lead to the arousal of powerful motivational states, and our perception and knowledge of these environmental conditions may lead to conflict. A second approach to understanding human motivation is therefore based on the proposition that, just as we seek physiological homeostasis, we also seek equilibrium in cognitive states.

Our cognitive processes are affected by information, and information inundates us from every possible source — from the environment, from other people, and from our thoughts, dreams, plans, and achievements. Since the information we collect expands at a rapid rate, we must find an efficient way to store it. By storing information in the form of categories, or concepts, and rules, we can process it more efficiently. The information that comes our way fits some of our categories and some of our rules. If it fits none — that is, if it is inconsistent — we are surprised and disturbed. We are thrown into a state of cognitive imbalance, and we ask ourselves why this item does not fit with anything else we know.

Human beings seek cognitive equilibrium in the form of cognitive consistency. According to Heider's *theory of cognitive balance*, we try to resolve any inconsistencies in our concepts by discovering new concepts or by changing our thoughts. According to Festinger's *cognitive dissonance theory*, contradictory thoughts, attitudes, behaviour throw us into a distressful state of dissonance. Because this state is uncomfortable, even painful, we naturally attempt to rid ourselves of it and reestablish internal harmony.

In order for theories of motivation to be complete, they must account not only for motives based on physiological needs similar to those of other animals but also for drives that are akin to physiological needs and for motives that cannot be characterized without reference to human cognitive processes. It got its representation in the theory of motivation suggested by a personality theorist Abraham Maslow. He believed that various kinds of motives are organized hierarchically and that the lower needs take precedence over the higher needs. Basic needs include fundamental physiological needs (safety and self-esteem, among others). Metaneeds are the highest motives, having to do with creativity and self-actualization.

List of Vocabulary

- to affect** — впливати
akin — близький, споріднений
aspiration — прагнення, сильне бажання
to attain — досягати, домагатися
contradictory — суперечливий
consistency — узгодженість, послідовність
correlate — корелят, співвідносне поняття, відповідник
deciphering — розшифрування
to deflate — знижувати
deprived — позбавлений
drive — стимул, потяг
effort — зусилля
embarrassed — збентежений
endeavour — намагання, зусилля
to flick out — висунути
furthermore — до того ж, крім того
homeostasis — рівновага, гомеостаз
incentive — спонука, стимул
inconsistent — несумісний, невідповідний
inevitable — неминучий, невідворотний
to inflate — підвищувати
to inundate — наповнювати, переповнювати
persistence — наполегливість, витривалість, стійкість
queue — черга
to release — випускати, знімати, реалізовувати

requirement — потреба

to resolve — вирішувати, розв'язувати

to rid — позбавляти

to seek — шукати

to shove — штовхатися

to take precedence over/ of — переважати, мати пріоритетне становище

to trace back to — простежувати, походити

to trigger — викликати, давати початок

unraveling — розгадування, пояснення

vigour — сила, енергія

Essential Phrases (to be sought in the text)

Уникати негативних емоцій чи небажаного досвіду; реакція на минулу подію; докласти зусиль; пов'язаний з емоцією; перспективний; динамічна ознака поведінки; стійкість сили; нестача води та кисню; хімічна рівновага; позбавлений необхідних речовин; прагнути задоволення первинних потреб; виконувати функцію виживання та відтворення; сприяти становленню его; зазнати невдачі; визначатися потягами; різновиди вподобань; створювати перепони; прагнути рівноваги фізіологічних і когнітивних станів; надходити з різних джерел; зберігати інформацію; не сумісний з правилом; когнітивна узгодженість; суперечливі думки; вийти зі стану дисонансу; споріднений з фізіологічними потребами; стосуватися сфери творчості та самореалізації.

Ex. 1. Answer the questions on the text:

1. How can motivated behaviour be defined?
2. How does motivated behaviour differ from behaviour that is directly connected to an emotion?
3. What is the role of primary drives of any organism?
4. What is the difference between motives and incentives?
5. What is the reaction of individuals to different situations?
6. When do we deal with the social motivation?
7. In what way do our cognitive processes depend on information?
8. Do Heider's and Festinger's theories have anything in common?

Ex. 2. Fill in the blank with the vocabulary word that best fits the meaning of each sentence:

1. The colonial government could no longer ignore the political ... of the local people.
2. Inspired by what she had said, he attacked the problem with renewed
3. You must ... yourself of these old-fashioned ideas.
4. Our research has not shown us anything so far, so there is little ... to continue with it.
5. A confrontation was ... because they disliked each other so much.
6. His family can ... its his history back to the 10th century.
7. One sharp remark is enough ... him.
8. Once she has ... on doing it, you won't get her to change her mind.
9. The climbing of Mount Everest was an outstanding example of human
10. Your behaviour lacks ... – you say one thing and do another!
11. Large price increases could ... demands for even larger wage increases.

Ex. 3. Confirm or deny the following statements. Make use of the following phrases:

That's it! Precisely. Very true. I fully (quite) agree with you. I'm afraid not. You are not quite right, I'm sorry to say it. Far from it.

1. Motivated behaviour is characteristic of human beings only.
2. Motivation is a complicated process.
3. Any motive consists of two components.
4. The environment doesn't influence satisfying our goals and needs.
5. According to Abraham Maslow's theory lower needs take precedence over the higher needs.

Ex. 4. Substitute the definitions for the words taken from the text:

1. A reason for action, that urges a person to act in a certain way.
2. An important natural human need that must be fulfilled.
3. Balance of the mind, emotions, etc.

4. The one of the three parts of the mind that connects a person to the outside world, because it can think and act; conscious self.
5. Reading or finding the meaning of something difficult or secret, esp. a code.
6. The physical and social conditions in which people live, esp. as they influence their feelings and development.
7. A state of complete agreement (in feelings, ideas, etc.).
8. One's good opinion of one's own worth.

Ex. 5. Search the text for the derivatives of the following nouns and verbs. Use them in word combinations:

motive, to persist, to fulfil, favour, to vary, to achieve, to deprive, to produce, to differ, to require, to vary, to behave.

Ex. 6. Translate the sentences into English:

1. Мотивація впливає не лише на те, що ми робимо, а й на те, як довго ми це робимо і скільки зусиль ми докладаємо.
2. Оскільки інформація, яку ми отримуємо, поширюється з великою швидкістю, людина повинна знаходити ефективні способи її зберігання.
3. Мотивація не тільки визначає діяльність людини, але й стосується усіх пізнавальних процесів: сприймання, мислення, уяви та пам'яті.
4. Основу мотиваційної сфери особистості становлять потреби, які виражають її залежність від конкретних умов існування та породжують діяльність, спрямовану на зняття цієї залежності.
5. У процесі діяльності відбувається як розвиток особистості, так і перетворення середовища, в якому живе людина.
6. Навчившись здобувати позитивний емоційний досвід та уникати негативний, ми можемо спрямовувати свої дії на досягнення мети, що називається мотивованою поведінкою.
7. Внутрішньо мотивована поведінка, яка пов'язана з біологічними процесами, допомагає організму виживати.
8. Будь-який мотив складається з двох компонентів: внутрішнього стану, який активізує та орієнтує особу на досягнення мети, та зовнішнього стимулу, тобто власне мети.

9. Оточення може забезпечувати нас засобами досягнення цілей і задоволення потреб, або ж може створювати бар'єри, які перешкоджають їх досягненню.
10. На пізнавальні процеси індивіда впливає інформація, яка надходить з різних джерел: з оточення, від інших людей, з індивідуальних думок, мрій, планів та досягнень.

Ex. 7. Read and translate the text:

Why Do People Work?

A simple question which goes deeper than the obvious answer, "To earn enough is to live on". Psychologists have found that mental and physical activity — and work in particular — is a dominant human driving force. Some argue that it is the same set of motivators which led a primitive man to hunt and fight in a tribal setting.

Are some motives more basic than others? Many psychologists refer to the theory of Abraham Maslow, a humanistic psychologist, which suggests that motives are ordered. Maslow felt that human beings are born with five systems of needs which are arranged in the hierarchy.

People remain "wanting animals" all their lives. As one set of needs (motives) is taken care of, a new set replaces it. We work our way up through various systems in order. Maslow's theory begins with physiological needs, such as food, water, oxygen, sex, protection from temperature extremes, activity. These needs for survival are the strongest. They must be satisfied to some degree before other needs appear. If only one of them remains unsatisfied, it may dominate all the others.

Once human physiological needs are satisfied, the other needs arise. Adults want stable jobs, saving accounts, and insurance. Thus adequate pay and working conditions are of fundamental importance. When safety needs are achieved, people seek to love and be loved. The family is the most important unit where they receive support. In larger organization it is the team, the department, the company, the trade union or the profession which may satisfy the need.

Once love needs are satisfied, needs to be esteemed by oneself and others dominate. People want to be valued in their communities, at work and at home. They want to respect themselves. Self-esteem is an important part of job satisfaction and is another step in the hierarchy. It means that the individual understands the contribution needed from him and is receiving

recognition for making it. Words of congratulation and rewards are necessary things for self-esteem.

The final step is the release of potential. This may be a simple ambition to succeed or the desire to make a contribution to a body of knowledge. People struggle to realize their potentials and to fulfil their ideals. Maslow theorized that these needs predominate in healthy personalities. In his view, only 1 per cent of Americans achieve self-actualization. Why is it so rare? Most of us, Maslow believed, are blind to our, true potentials. We conform to cultural stereotype rather than to personal needs. Concerns about safety make us fearful of risk taking and closed to new experiences.

Ex. 8. Answer the following questions:

1. What is a dominant human driving force?
2. What do you know of Abraham Maslow?
3. What system of needs does he suggest?
4. What are the strongest human needs, according to his hierarchy?
5. What do adults want to receive when their physiological needs are satisfied?
6. What do people seek when safety needs are achieved?
7. Where can people receive support?
8. What does self-esteem mean?
9. How do people try to realize their potentials?
10. Why do most people fail to realize their potentials?

Ex. 9. Find the fact in the text to prove that:

1. Human beings are born with five systems of needs.
2. People remain “wanting animals” all their lives.
3. The family is the most important unit.
4. People do not realize their potentials completely.

Ex. 10. Agree or disagree with the following statements. Give your reasons:

1. Mental and physical activity is a dominant driving force.
2. Safety needs are the strongest in human beings.
3. In their work people do not think of their self-esteem at all.
4. Most of us are blind to our true potentials.

Ex. 11. Make up a list of problems raised in the text. Which one is the most important? Why do you think so? Make up a plan of the text.

Ex. 12. Explain the theory of hierarchy suggested by A. Maslow.

Ex. 13. Render the text into English:

ВОЛЯ ЯК РЕГУЛЯТОР ПОВЕДІНКИ ІНДИВІДА

Воля — це психічна функція, яка передбачає: регулювання людиною своєї поведінки відповідно до найбільш значущих для неї мотивів; гальмування інших мотивів, спонукань, намагань; організацію дій, вчинків згідно зі свідомо поставленими цілями. Якщо емоції сигналізують індивідові про смисл його діяльності, то воля виконує регулятивну функцію за відсутності потреб і мотивів.

На відміну від довільних дій, вольова дія не має звичайної для них динаміки свідомості — переходу від потягу та прагнення до бажання. Вона здійснюється за відсутності таких явищ і навіть усупереч їм. Саме для цього індивід створює новий мотив, який надає смисл небажаний дії. Якщо на рівні мотивів вольову дію характеризує боротьба мотивів, то на рівні цілей — процес прийняття рішення — вибір певної мети і спосіб її досягнення. Головним чинником, що визначає вибір того чи іншого рішення є рівень домагань. Людина з високим рівнем домагань надає перевагу рішенням, що обіцяють їм особистий успіх. На виконавчому рівні вольова дія виявляється у формі вольового зусилля — особливого стану, в якому відображено подолання розбалансованості діяльності.

Боротьба мотивів, прийняття рішення, вольове зусилля — різнорівневий процес вольової дії, що вказує на наявність у ній мотиваційного, цільового й операційного компонентів. Процес вольової регуляції супроводжується вольовими станами індивіда (мобілізаційною готовністю, рішучістю, енергійністю, переживанням вольового

зусилля). Результатом закріплення способів виконання як вольових, так і довільних дій є вольові властивості характеру. До таких властивостей належать відповідальність, цілеспрямованість, витримка, принциповість, ініціативність, організованість, наполегливість. Воля є власним надбанням індивіда. Вона дає йому можливість свідомо й відповідально ставитись до власного життя.

FROM THE HISTORY OF PSYCHOLOGY

Ex. 14. Read the article quickly and give a short summary of it:

Burrhus Frederic Skinner (1904–1990) was born March 20, 1904 in the small Pennsylvania town. His father was a lawyer, and his mother a strong and intelligent housewife. His upbringing was old-fashioned and hard-working.

Burrhus was an active, out-going boy who loved the outdoors and building things, and enjoyed school.

Burrhus received his B. A. in English from Hamilton College in New York. However, he did not enjoy college life very much. He was an atheist in a school that required daily church attendance.

He wanted to be a writer and did try, sending off poetry and short stories. When he graduated, he built a study in his parents' attic to concentrate.

After some travelling, he decided to go back to school, this time at Harvard. He got his master's degree in psychology (M. A.) in 1930 and his doctorate (Ph. D.) in 1931, and stayed there to do research until 1936.

Also in that year, he moved to Minneapolis to teach at the University of Minnesota. There he met and soon married Yvonne Blue. They had two daughters, the second of which became famous as the first infant to be raised in one of Skinner's inventions, the air crib. Although it was nothing more than a combination of crib and playpen with glass sides and air conditioning, it looked like keeping a baby in an aquarium.

In 1945, he became the chairman of the psychology department at Indiana University. In 1948, he was invited to come to Harvard, where he stayed for the rest of his life. He was a very active man, doing research and guiding hundreds of doctoral candidates as well as writing many books. While not successful as a writer of fiction and poetry, he became one of

our best psychology writers, including the book *Walden II*, which is a fictional account of a community run by his behaviourist principles.

On August 18, 1990, B. F. Skinner died of leukemia after becoming one of the most famous psychologists after Sigmund Freud.

UNIT 8

PERSONALITY AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

The term that psychology uses to encompass the distinct qualities that make each person unique is personality, which we can define as the organization of a person's cognitive, motivational, and social characteristics. The development of a person's personality encompasses all the changes that take place in these characteristics over the course of his or her life, together with the continuities that have existed all along. Our personality influences most aspects of our social, emotional, and cognitive behaviour. It affects, for example, our bonds with other people, our conformity to sex roles, our tendency to behave aggressively or cooperatively, and our moral and intellectual development. Psychologists are extremely interested in personality both as a result and a cause of human development.

The major approaches to personality and social behaviour that psychologists have taken are the biological perspective, Freud's psychosocial theory, the cognitive-developmental perspective, and the behavioural perspective.

One aspect of personality that is influenced by biology is temperament, the individual's pattern of activity, response to stimuli, susceptibility to emotional stimulation, and general mood.

Sigmund Freud's theory of psychosexual development has had a dominant influence on research into personality and social development. Although many of Freud's ideas, as originally stated, have not been supported by substantive empirical investigation, his insights have stimulated some of this century's most important investigations into personality and social development.

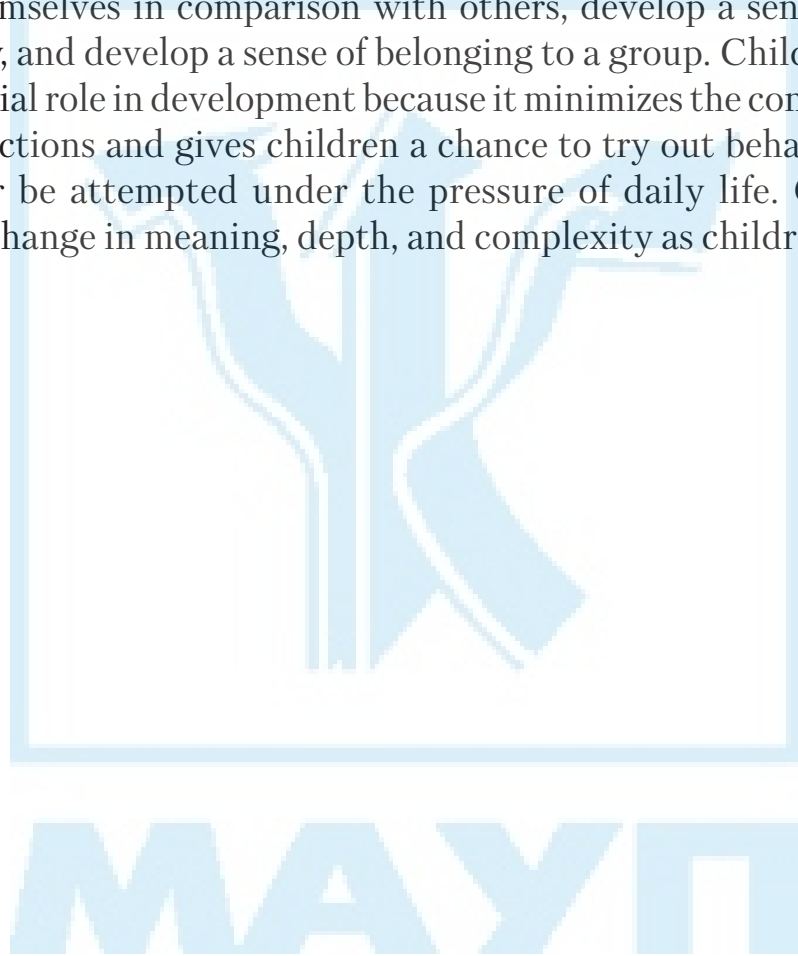
The cognitive perspective on how personality and social behaviour develop is based on the concept of developmental stages. But instead of emphasizing the conflict between demands for gratification and the requirements of society, cognitive theorists emphasize thinking, reasoning, and role taking. Cognitive theorists are especially interested in social cognition, the child's understanding of the social world and the process by which the child comes to understand why people (including himself or herself) behave the way they do in social situations.

Physiologists have also tried to explain the development of personality and social behaviour on the basis of the principles of learning. Such behavioural psychologists regard the unique qualities and enduring characteristics of each person as patterns of behaviour that have been learnt through reinforcement, punishment, or imitation. In this view, development is continuous, not broken into discrete stages. Specific characteristics are acquired in two ways: on the basis of direct experience, in which the person receives reinforcement or punishment connected with particular behaviour; or, according to social learning theory, through vicarious experience, in which the person observes and imitates a model's behaviour.

As children grow, the parents' primary role switches from physical care, in which children absorb society's attitudes, to values, and customs. With socialization, the child incorporates these standards so that their violation produces a sense of guilt. Children grow up in families, each unique and each with its own strengths and weaknesses. And families, in turn, live in communities – rich or poor, simple or sophisticated, comfortable or chaotic. Family and the wider community also exert a powerful influence on the child's development. The world outside the family also affects the developing child. There is, first of all, the sort of school that is available. Does the school give children individual attention and expect them to perform well? Does the school offer ways for parents to become involved in their children's education? Beyond the school lies the larger community, and it, too, may help or hinder children's development. For example, a city that allows large geographical areas to become blighted, "giving up" certain neighbourhoods to petty criminals, gangs, or drug dealers, is ensuring that a certain number of its children will grow up in a stressful and dangerous environment.

As children grow, they acquire gender roles, adopting attitudes and patterns of behaviour that society considers acceptable for their own gender. Some aspects of gender roles are determined by biology; other aspects are arbitrary and vary from culture to culture. Biology and socialization both play important parts in the development of gender roles. Temperamental differences between boys and girls appear to exist at birth, and tend to center on activity, sensitivity to stimuli, and social interaction.

Peer relationships are important because they are between equals. Through interactions with their peers, children learn social skills, learn to evaluate themselves in comparison with others, develop a sense of their own identity, and develop a sense of belonging to a group. Children's play has an essential role in development because it minimizes the consequences of a child's actions and gives children a chance to try out behaviour that would never be attempted under the pressure of daily life. Children's friendships change in meaning, depth, and complexity as children grow. A



child's susceptibility to peer influence increases with age, peaking in early adolescence and then declining.

Although peer pressure toward antisocial behaviour becomes stronger during the school years, children often behave in altruistic ways, sharing their toys or coming to the rescue of another child. Such actions are examples of prosocial behaviour – action intended to benefit another person, taken without expectation of external reward, and generally involving some cost to the individual. When prosocial behaviour springs from a combination of emotional distress at another's plight and understanding of her or his needs, it is called altruism. As children grow, their concepts of altruism, justice, and morality change, as do the reasons that they give for their moral and ethical acts. These changes are the result of cognitive and social development.

Adolescence begins with the onset of puberty. Although some cultures equate adulthood and reproductive maturity, Western societies admit the transitional period of adolescence, which allows young people to try out different roles. The major developmental task of adolescence is the establishment of identity: the individual's sense of personal sameness and continuity. According to Erik Erikson, the physical, sexual, and social demands on the adolescent often produce internal conflict, an identity crisis, which requires the adolescent to develop a new self-concept. To resolve this crisis, adolescents must incorporate their new physical and sexual attributes, developing a sense of continuity between what they were in the past and what they will become.

Adulthood has sometimes been described as the period of life that begins when we stop growing up and start growing old. It has also been characterized as a period of little change in personality. Work can affect intellectual development and personality, and personality and life circumstances can affect work. People's personal concerns change across the life span, and gender-related attitudes and behaviour appear to be affected by the stages of family life. As people become middle-aged, they develop a concern with introspection, and there is a shift in time perspective that brings an awareness of personal mortality. Most people cope with major life transitions without undue stress; transitions become traumatic only when they are not anticipated or when they occur at an unexpected time of the life cycle. Most old people do not fit the stereotype of the aged, and people are now vigorous until very late in life.

List of Vocabulary

- to absorb** — вбирати, всмоктувати, поглинати
adolescence — підлітковий вік
to adopt — засвоїти, переймати
arbitrary — довільний
attribute — характерна риса, властивість
available — наявний, доступний
blighted — зіпсований, розбитий
bond — зв'язок
conformity — відповідність, узгодженість
continuity — безперервність, постійність
to decline — зменшуватися, спадати, занепадати
discrete — роз'єднаний, окремий
to encompass — охоплювати, включати (в себе), стосуватися
enduring — стійкий, тривалий
to equate — порівнювати
to evaluate — оцінювати
to exert — докласти зусиль, проявляти, демонструвати
gratification — задоволення, винагорода
to hinder — заважати
to incorporate — об'єднувати
insight — розуміння, проникливість
maturity — зрілість
mortality — смертність
onset — початок, напад
peer — рівня
petty — дрібний
plight — жалюгідне становище
puberty — статева зрілість
reinforcement — підмога, підкріплення
sensitivity — чутливість, вразливість
sophisticated — ускладнений, витончений
substantive — самостійний, незалежний
susceptibility — сприйнятливність, вразливість
transition — перехід, зміна
to vary — різнитися
vicarious — заміщувальний
violation — порушення

undue — надмірний, несвоєчасний

Essential Phrases
(to be sought in the text)

Конкретні риси; охоплювати зміни за весь період життя; міжсуб'єктні зв'язки; модель поведінки, відповідь на стимул, емоційна подразнюваність; дослідження особистості та соціальної поведінки; стадії розвитку; отримати підтвердження з практики; акцентувати увагу на рольових відношеннях; засвоювати модель поведінки; підтримка; покарання; імітація; опосередкований досвід; перевести увагу на цінності; викликати почуття провини; сильні та слабкі сторони особистості; впливати на розвиток дитини; засвоювати гендерні ролі; факультативна роль; стосунки індивідів у групі; почуття самоідентифікації; прийти на допомогу; давати пояснення етико-моральним вчинкам; ототожнювати період дорослого віку з репродуктивною функцією; набути нових ознак; відчуття неперевершеності; життєві обставини; усвідомлення вічності; долати перехідні періоди; не відповідати стереотипу літньої людини.

Ex. 1. Answer the questions on the text:

1. How can personality be defined?
2. What aspects of behaviour does our personality influence?
3. Has Sigmund Freud's theory anything to do with the investigation of personality?
4. How do physiologists try to explain the development of personality?
5. What is temperament?
6. What do cognitive theorists deal with?
7. How does socialization influence the developing of the child?
8. Is altruism positive or negative feature?
9. When does adolescence begin?
10. How do personal concerns change across the life span?

Ex. 2. Fill in each blank with the vocabulary word that best fits the meaning of each sentence:

1. The fashion magazines show what the ... woman is wearing this year.
2. The picture consisted of a lot of ... spots of colour.
3. Parents usually inform their children about the changes at... and it is also taught at school.
4. Our problems seem ... when compared to those of people who never get enough to eat.
5. This unfortunate incident may ... the progress of the peace talks.
6. So many ideas! It's all rather too much for me ... all at once.
7. We are all moved by the... of these poor homeless children.
8. Her life was ... by ill health.
9. The opinions of his ... are more important to him than his parents' ideas.
10. His family's success was a great ... to him in his old age.
11. The course ... the whole of English literature since 1850.
12. They ... her suggestions into their plans.

Ex. 3. Confirm or deny the following statements. Make use of the following phrases:

That's it! Precisely. Very true. I fully (quite) agree with you. I'm afraid not. You are not quite right, I'm sorry to say it. Far from it.

1. Temperament is an acquired, not inherent feature of each person.
2. The major approaches to personality, namely the biological perspective, Freud's psychosocial theory, the cognitive-developmental perspective, and the behavioural perspective contradict each other.
3. Family and the wider community exert a powerful influence on the child's development.
4. Gender roles are predetermined only by biology.
5. Social skills can be learnt by children only through interactions with their peers.
6. Adolescence is a transitional period between childhood and adulthood.
7. The major developmental task of adolescence is the establishment of identity.
8. Adulthood starts with the beginning of marital life of both men and women.

9. Major life transitions are coped with by most people traumatically.

Ex. 4. Substitute the definitions for the words taken from the text:

1. The stage of change in the human body from childhood to the adult state in which it is possible to produce children.
2. A period between being a child and being an adult.
3. The condition of not living for ever.
4. An internal conflict which requires the adolescent to develop a new self-concept.
5. The whole nature or character of a particular person.
6. Making fit and training for life in a society.
7. Consideration of the happiness and good of others before one's own.
8. The individual's sense of personal sameness and continuity.

Ex. 5. Complete the following sentences:

1. The biological perspective, Freud's psychosocial theory, the cognitive-developmental perspective, and the behavioural perspective are
2. Cognitive theorists are interested in
3. Physiologists explain the development of personality through
4. Family, school, yard, city have great influence
5. Through interactions with their peers
6. As children grow, their concepts of altruism
7. The major developmental task of adolescence is
8. Adulthood can be characterized as a period

Ex. 6. Translate the sentences into English:

1. Теорія психосексуального розвитку Зигмунда Фрейда суттєво вплинула на дослідження у сфері соціального розвитку особистості.
2. Через взаємодію зі своїми однолітками діти засвоюють соціальні навички, навчаються оцінювати себе шляхом порівняння з іншими та розвивають почуття належності до групи.

3. Фізіологи намагалися пояснити розвиток особистості та соціальної поведінки через принципи навчання.
4. Одним з аспектів особистості, на який впливає біологія, є темперамент, тобто модель діяльності, реакції на стимули, чутливості до емоційної стимуляції та загальний стан індивіда.
5. Наша особистість впливає на більшість аспектів нашої соціальної, емоційної та пізнавальної поведінки.
6. Когнітивних теоретиків особливо цікавлять механізми розуміння дитиною соціального світу та процеси, за допомогою яких дитина приходить до усвідомлення того, чому людина поводить себе певним чином у різних соціальних ситуаціях.
7. Індивідуальні особливості особистості найяскравіше виявляються в темпераменті, характері, здібностях, потребах та інтересах.
8. Характер включає індивідуально-психологічні властивості людини, які виявляються в її діяльності, суспільній поведінці, у ставленні до інших людей, до праці, оточення та самої себе.
9. Підростаючи, діти засвоюють моделі взаємовідносин та поведінки, які суспільство вважає доречними для їхньої статі.
10. Робота може впливати на інтелектуальний розвиток особистості, а особистість та життєві обставини можуть впливати на роботу.

Ex. 7. *Responsible, quick-tempered* and *generous* are adjectives which describe people's character. Can you think of any more adjectives? Read the text and explain the words in bold as in the example:

E. g. Responsible people are those who you can always trust to do what you ask them to do.

Read my Lips

Forget about fortune tellers and horoscopes. The shape of a person's lips can say a lot about them. The 5,000-year-old art of face reading is gaining popularity. So, take a look at the shape of someone's lips to find out about their personality ...

People with full lips are usually **responsible**. You can always trust them to do what you ask them to do. They are also **decisive**; they make decisions

quickly. On the other hand, they tend to be rather **bossy**. They like telling other people what to do!

People who have a thin upper lip and a full lower lip are energetic. They work very hard and like participating in a lot of **activities**. They are **ambitious** as well; they want to be successful in life. However, these people tend to be **self-centred**. They seem to only care about themselves and they sometimes forget about other people's feelings.

People with thin lips are **determined**; they know what they want and they do all they can to get it. They are **careful** people who do their work with a lot of attention and thought. However, they tend to be reserved; they don't like showing their feelings or expressing their opinions. They can also be **mean**; they don't like sharing things or spending money.

People who have lips with down-turning corners are very **generous**. They love giving things to other people and helping them. They are also **intelligent** and understand difficult subjects quickly and easily. On the other hand, they can be **sensitive** at times; they get upset easily, so be careful of what you say to them.

Ex. 8. Read the text and underline the correct adjective as in the example.

My elder brother, Tom, is a singer. He is also my best friend. To begin with, he is a(n) 1) *active/ caring/ helpful* brother. I remember him sitting up with me all night once when I had a fever and could not sleep. Tom is very 2) *generous/ sensitive/ decisive* and often brings us presents from the countries he visits. When he is not working, Tom is a(n) 3) *confident/ lazy/ active* person who enjoys climbing, sailing and cycling. He also has a really 4) *outgoing/ loyal/ cooperative* personality and loves meeting new people. Tom is a 5) *reserved/ determined/ self-centred* person and once he decides to do something, nothing can stop him. He is also very 6) *ambitious/careful/ responsible* and practises every day, because he wants to be a successful singer.

However, he tends to be a bit 7) *shy/ stubborn/ disorganized* at times, refusing to admit that he may be wrong about something. Tom can also be rather 8) *bossy/ arrogant/ selfish*; he likes giving orders to others.

All in all, Tom is very special to me as he is always there when I need him.

Ex. 9. You are going to read an article about the actress Daryl Hannah. For questions 1–5 choose the best answer, A, B, C or D.

Daryl Hannah

The pretty mermaid looked up from the golden sand and the world fell in love with her. The film was *Splash*, and the mermaid was the famous actress, Daryl Hannah, who has also starred in such films as *Roxanne* and *Blade Runner*.

Daryl is tall and slender. She has got long blond hair, large blue eyes and stunning features. She looks fantastic in expensive clothes, but she prefers casual clothes which show off her natural beauty.

She is more than just another pretty face, however. She is a complicated person whose character has many sides. She is often in the public eye, but she is actually a very shy person who dislikes the crowds and noise of Hollywood parties. Her shyness is a problem which she is trying to overcome with her friends' help. She is not the sort of person who expects help without giving anything back, however. Daryl is an extremely caring person, and she says that she forgets her own problems when she is helping others. She is also a romantic who believes in true love, so she wants to find someone very special before she starts a family.

Daryl's lifestyle is quite simple. When she is not working, her favourite activities are gardening, playing the piano and making pottery, all of which reveal the creative side of her character.

Daryl may prefer to sit in the shadows at parties, but when it comes to her beliefs she is not afraid to speak her mind. She has strong views on the environment. She believes that our modern lifestyle is destroying the environment. For this reason, she is currently looking for a place in the countryside where she can build an environmentally-friendly house. She says that she feels most relaxed when she is close to nature.

Underneath the success, shyness and simple lifestyle are Daryl's very strong views on life. As she says, "Find out what is important to you – and don't be afraid to live it!"

It is a pleasure to meet an actress who remains down-to-earth and sincere in a world where fame and success can often harm one's character.

1. In her everyday life Daryl Hannah
 - a) is successful and selfish.
 - b) enjoys big parties.
 - c) never goes to parties.

- d) feels uncomfortable in large groups of people.
2. One of Daryl's outstanding characteristics is that she
 - a) is always asking her friends for help.
 - b) is willing to help others.
 - c) doesn't pay attention to her friends.
 - d) gets others into trouble.
3. In her free time Daryl enjoys
 - a) doing creative activities.
 - b) being with simple people.
 - c) resting in her garden.
 - d) writing music.
4. Daryl wants to build her own home because she
 - a) cannot find one she likes.
 - b) cares about the environment.
 - c) wants people to know her views.
 - d) dislikes old houses.
5. The whole article tells us that Daryl
 - a) is only happy when she is not working.
 - b) likes being a film star.
 - c) does not have strong opinions.
 - d) is not a typical Hollywood actress.

Ex. 10. Read the article again and answer the questions.

1. What films has Daryl Hannah acted in?
2. What does she have strong feelings about?
3. What sort of clothes does she prefer to wear?
4. What are her views on life?

Ex. 11. Match the words to their opposites

Column A

- 1) generous
- 2) cheerful
- 3) outgoing
- 4) friendly
- 5) quiet
- 6) polite

Column B

- a) sad
- b) unfriendly
- c) talkative
- d) mean
- e) reserved
- f) rude

Ex. 12. Fill in the correct word derived from the words in bold

Astronauts have to be physically and mentally ready for the stress and strain of a space mission. To prepare them, astronauts are given 1) ... (*intense*) training, which includes years of classroom study on 2) ... (*vary*) technical subjects, and working in a model spaceship where they can practice 3) ... (*complicate*) flight operations and become used to all the 4) ... (*equip*) on board.

Apart from high 5) ... (*intelligent*), good qualifications and an excellent level of fitness, astronauts must have a strong character. They also have to be very 6) ... (*courage*) in order to accept the high risks involved.

Astronauts also have to face other, more ordinary problems in space. What can be very 7) ... (*annoy*) is the limited variety of food, but the greatest challenge is getting along with other members of their team as they often come from different countries, with different backgrounds and habits. Therefore they must be very 8) ... (*patience*) with each other, since the lack of privacy can become 9) ... (*irritate*).

All in all, it seems that being an astronaut is one of the most 10) ... (*challenge*) jobs in the world.

Ex. 13. Here's a list of adjectives describing qualities certain professions need. Read the sentences and fill in the correct adjective:

persuasive, brave, creative, patient, intelligent, polite, accurate, fair, friendly

1. Salespeople need to be ... to get people to buy their products.
2. A scientist has to be ... in order to understand complex theories.
3. Receptionists should be ... in order to make people feel welcome.
4. Surgeons must be very ... as they should not make mistakes in their work.
5. A shop assistant has to be ... even when dealing with a rude customer.
6. Lifeguards have to be ... as they often find themselves in dangerous situations.
7. Teachers need to be very ... as students sometimes take a long time to learn things.
8. Judges should be ... and give all the evidence equal consideration.

9. Fashion designers should be very ... so that they can come up with new designs.

Ex. 14. Render the text into English:

ТЕМПЕРАМЕНТ І ХАРАКТЕР

Кожна людина є неповторною особистістю. Вона має індивідуальні показники фізіологічних процесів і психічної діяльності. Люди по-різному пристосовуються до умов навколишнього середовища, по-різному поведуться в екстремальних ситуаціях, мають різні схильності й здібності, виявляють різну здатність до навчання й оволодіння різними професіями. Характеристика індивіда з боку динамічних особливостей його психіки називається темпераментом. Вчення про індивідуальність людини бере свій початок у найдавніших індійській, китайській та античній медицині. Давньогрецький лікар Гіппократ (460–377 рр. до н. е.) визначив широковідомі типи темпераменту: меланхолійний, флегматичний, сангвінічний, холеричний. Наукове обґрунтування темпераментів людини з позицій вчення про вищу нервову діяльність людини зробив російський фізіолог І. П. Павлов.

Людам із сангвінічним типом темпераменту властиві широкі інтереси, допитливість, енергійність, велике самовладання й стриманість характеру. Люди з флегматичним типом темпераменту енергійні й наполегливі, їм властива постійність у звичках і прихильностях. Люди холеричного типу темпераменту легко збуджуються, нестримані; вони енергійні, сміливі в судженнях, схильні до рішучих дій, але іноді необачні у своїх вчинках. Людам із меланхолійним типом темпераменту притаманні боязкість, замкненість, надмірна чутливість, схильність перебільшувати труднощі.

Якщо темперамент — це сукупність властивостей, які ґрунтуються на процесах дозрівання, то характер — це особливості, породжені загальними закономірностями психічного розвитку, серед яких особлива роль належить вихованню. Характер — це зафіксована у вигляді властивостей і сповнена глибокого змісту форма усталених стосунків індивіда зі світом. Характером пояснюють також вчинки й провини, життєві досягнення й невдачі. Поза сумнівом, це властивості індивідуальності, але, на відміну від властивостей нервової системи, темпе-

раменту чи здібностей, вони відображають не динаміку чи результативність, а зміст стосунків людини зі світом.

FROM THE HISTORY OF PSYCHOLOGY

Ex. 17. Read the article quickly and give a short summary of it:

Sigmund Freud (1856–1939) was born May 6, 1856, in a small town Freiberg. His father was a wool merchant with a keen mind and a good sense of humor. His mother was a lively woman, her husband's second wife and 20 years younger. She was 21 years old when she gave birth to her first son, Sigmund. Sigmund had two older half-brothers and six younger siblings. When he was four or five, the family moved to Vienna, where he lived most of his life.

A brilliant child, always at the head of his class, he went to medical school, where he became involved in research under the direction of a physiology professor Ernst Briicke. Briicke believed in reductionism: "No other forces than the common physical-chemical ones are active within the organism."

Freud concentrated on neurophysiology, but only a limited number of positions at the university were available. Briicke helped him to get a grant to study, first with the great psychiatrist Charcot in Paris, then with Bernheim. Both these gentlemen were investigating the use of hypnosis with hysterics.

After spending a short time as a neurologist and director of a children's ward in Berlin, he came back to Vienna, married his patient fiancée Martha Bernays, and set up a practice in neuropsychiatry, with the help of Joseph Breuer.

Freud's books and lectures brought him both fame and ostracism from the traditional medical community. He collected around him a number of very bright students who became the core of the psychoanalytic movement. Unfortunately, Freud rejected people who did not totally agree with him. Some separated from him on friendly terms; others did not, and continued research to found competing schools of thought.

Freud emigrated to England just before World War II when Vienna became an increasingly dangerous place for Jews, especially ones as famous as Freud. Not long afterward, he died of the cancer of the mouth and jaw that he had suffered from for the last 20 years of his life.

UNIT 9

PSYCHOLOGICAL DISORDERS

In medicine “abnormality” generally refers to a lack of integrity in any organ’s structure or function. A broken bone, an excess of certain sugars in the blood, and ulcer on the walls of the stomach – all are abnormal. For physicians, the line between normality and abnormality is relatively easy to draw. For psychologists and psychiatrists, however, the criteria that divide normal behaviour from abnormal behaviour are not so easily specified. There are several ways of defining psychological abnormality, and some of these definitions may change from one society to another and from time to time in the same society.

Each society has a set of norms – rules that prescribe “right” and “wrong” behaviour – by which its members live. These norms cover every aspect of life, from whom one may marry and when to what food may be eaten and where. Since norms are absorbed in childhood during the process of socialization, people take them for granted. Although nearly every one of their actions is governed by some norm, people notice a norm only when it is broken – and if the violation is bizarre, they label the violator as abnormal.

Norms change over the years, sometimes gradually and almost imperceptibly, but at other times the change is accompanied by friction. Since norms can change drastically, they may seem an inappropriate basis for the definition of normality. Yet they remain the dominant standard because they have been so deeply absorbed that they seem natural, and

right, and violations automatically seem abnormal. Norms may even be grounded in the evolutionary history of the species. Since a social group cannot exist without some kind of norms, their development may have some survival value. A danger in using only norms to define abnormality is that they may enforce conformity as “good” and mark the non-conformist as automatically “bad”.

A related, but somewhat different, way of defining abnormality is to call it any substantial deviation from a statistically calculated average. People whose behaviour conforms to that of the majority are considered normal; those whose behaviour differs greatly are abnormal. This statistical definition automatically encompasses norm violations, because the majority of people follow cultural norms. Although a statistical definition of abnormality does make such a diagnosis simple, this view of psychological functioning also presents problems. Using statistics to define the bounds of normality leaves us without any way to distinguish between the desirable differences of genius and creativity and the undesirable difference of psychological disorder. Indeed, “average” human behaviour may not be the sort that society would like to encourage.

A less restrictive approach to the definition of abnormality than either norm violation or statistical rarity is that of personal discomfort, in which people judge their own normality and only those who are distressed by their own thoughts or behaviour are considered abnormal. However, like other definitions of abnormality, the criterion of personal discomfort is open to criticism. When behaviour harms other people or disrupts society, personal contentment is not a sufficient measure of normality. For example, some rapist and murderers may be perfectly content with their way of life, and a man’s delusion that he has an enormous fortune might make him happy but is likely to disrupt the lives of the people with whom he transacts business.

An approach to abnormality that overlaps both norm violation and personal discomfort is maladaptive behaviour. If a person’s behaviour results in repeatedly getting fired at work, alienating family and friends, or simply not being able to get out of bed in the morning, most people would agree that he or she shows some psychological disturbance. The advantage of maladaptive behaviour as a standard is that it focuses on a person’s behaviour in relation to others. The major disadvantage is that in certain cases “adaptive” behaviour may be morally objectionable.

A fifth way of defining abnormality is to set a description of the ideal well-adjusted personality and to regard as abnormal people who deviate from that ideal in any serious way. This sort of definition leaves most of us in the abnormal category, for few people ever achieve this ideal adjustment, no matter how hard they try. Deviation from the ideal is also an imperfect guideline in our search for a definition of abnormality. This approach leads people who seem to be functioning adequately and who show no serious symptoms of disorder to regard themselves as disturbed and in need of therapy.

Attempts to understand abnormal behaviour have led to its classification into various categories – anxiety disorders, somatoform disorders, dissociative, major affective and social disorders.

Anxiety is a feeling of dread, apprehension, or fear. It is accompanied by physiological arousal, manifested as increased heart rate, perspiration, muscle tension, and rapid breathing. Anxiety also affects cognition, throwing the individual into a state of confusion and making it difficult for him or her to think clearly or to solve problems. Virtually everyone experiences anxiety at one time or another. Without mild anxiety, bills would not get paid on time, term papers would not get written, drivers would not slow down on foggy mornings, and people would not get medical checkups. For some people, however, one situation – or many – becomes a major source of anxiety, taking up more and more time of attention. Anxiety becomes so severe or so persistent that it interferes with everyday functioning – family life, social activities, and work or school. This condition is classified as an anxiety disorder, which can transform into a generalized anxiety disorder when the person is nervous, irritable, and on edge. They often show motor tension: may be jumpy, complain of aching, tire easily, and find it impossible to relax.

From time to time these people suffer from panic attacks, brief periods during which tension and anxiety become completely disabling. Usually these attacks last from fifteen minutes to an hour. When no specific stimulus precedes the panic attack, it is called a panic disorder. Sometimes, however, panic attacks come in response to a specific stimulus, in which case they are classified as phobias. When anxiety is irrationally centered on some specific object or situation, it is called a phobia. The focus of anxiety may be a stimulus that is slightly dangerous, such as snakes, dogs, elevators, or high places, or it may be some situation that carries no danger at all, such as a fear of being alone or of being in public places where escape

might be difficult. Phobias sometimes develop after an initial association of fear with some stimulus.

All of us have had periods of sadness or disappointment, and perhaps have suffered from feelings of guilt, loss of appetite, and lack of sexual interest. Usually such feelings are experienced in response to a negative situation in our lives: the loss of a job, an argument with a friend, a poor mark on an exam. Sometimes the upset comes for no apparent reason; it seems as if we just “got up on the wrong side of the bed”. These symptoms of normal depression do not differ in kind from abnormal or major depression, but they do differ drastically in degree. Major depression consists of one or more major depressive episodes with no intervening episodes in which people feel extremely elated or unnaturally euphoric. The course of a major depressive episode often follows a fairly smooth curve with a gradual onset, taking weeks or months to appear, lasting for several months, then ending as it began, slowly and gradually.

When personality traits become so inflexible and maladaptive that they impair a person’s functioning, they are known as personality disorders. The individual with a personality disorder often does not recognize that it exists or that her or his behaviour is at all deviant or disturbed. This inability to recognize the disorder comes about because the problem behaviour is part of the person’s personality, so deeply ingrained as to be second nature and accepted as familiar character traits. Often adopted at an early age to cope with specific stress in the environment, the pattern of deviant behaviour is difficult to change.

There are two reasons for focusing on antisocial personality disorder: it has been the most intensively researched, and it is the personality disorder on which there is the greatest diagnostic agreement. The antisocial personality, or sociopath, is one who is indifferent to the rights of others. Such people appear to be blind to moral considerations, to have no conscience, and to be untouched by a whole range of emotions shared by the “normal” population.

List of Vocabulary

abnormality — аномальність
adjustment — пристосування
alienating — відчуження
apprehension — побоювання

bizarre — дивний, ексцентричний, жахливий
contentment — задоволення
delusion — помилкова думка, ілюзія
to deviate — відхилятися
to disrupt — підривати
drastically — рішуче, круто
dread — жах, страх
to encourage — заохочувати
to enforce — нав'язувати, забезпечувати
excess — надлишок, надмір
to impair — порушувати, пошкоджувати
imperceptibly — непомітно
inappropriate — невідповідний, невластивий
ingrained — закоренілий, застарілий
integrity — цілісність
jumpy — нервовий
maladaptive — погано пристосований
objectionable — неприємний, що викликає заперечення
sufficient — достатній
to take smth for granted — приймати як належне
ulcer — виразка

Ex. 1. Answer the questions on the text:

1. How is “abnormality” treated in medicine?
2. What is a norm?
3. Why do norms remain the dominant standard in a society?
4. What can a danger be when using only norms to define abnormality?
5. What are the advantages and disadvantages of a statistical definition of abnormality?
6. Why is the approach of personal discomfort not ideal either?
7. Can people who deviate from the ideal be regarded as abnormal?
8. Is anxiety positive or negative feature for people?
9. When does anxiety turn into phobia?
10. Does a person usually recognize the deviation of his/her behaviour?

Ex. 2. Fill in the blank with the vocabulary word that best fits

the meaning of each sentence:

1. We waited for their decision with a great deal of ...?
2. He is under the ... that he is Napoleon.
3. I took ... that you'd want to come with us so I bought you a ticket.
4. You should ... her in her attempts to become a doctor, instead of being so negative about it.
5. His illness has ... his efficiency.
6. Our ... as a nation is threatened by these separatist forces.
7. They tried ... agreement with their plans.
8. We haven't got ... information from which to draw a conclusion.
9. His work has changed ... since he fell ill.
10. I think it was a(n) ... moment to raise a question of your promotion.
11. This is one of the mos ... murder cases we have ever dealt with.

Ex. 3. Confirm or deny the following statements. Make use of the following phrases:

That's it! Precisely. Very true. I fully (quite) agree with you. I'm afraid not. You are not quite right, I'm sorry to say. Far from it.

1. There is no ideal way of defining psychological abnormality.
2. The periods of anxiety are quite necessary for they really get the adrenalin going.
3. Depression is usually caused by overtiredness and lack of sleep.
4. A person is usually aware of his/ her behaviour being deviant.
5. The number of sociopaths is increasing nowadays.

Ex. 4. Substitute the words taken from the text for the definitions:

1. Quiet happiness, satisfaction.
2. An uncomfortable feeling in the mind usually caused by fear or expectation that something bad will happen.
3. A person who is indifferent to the rights of others, and blind to moral consideration.
4. A strong unnatural anxiety irrationally centered on a particular object or situation.

5. A mental disorder during which people suffer from great sadness, unnatural tiredness and unwillingness to do anything, difficulty in thinking.
6. A standard that is regarded as average or generally accepted.
7. A noticeable difference from what is expected, especially from accepted standards of behaviour.

Ex. 5. Search the text for the derivatives of the following words. Give other derivatives you know. Follow the model:

To adapt — adaptation, maladaptive, adapter, adaptable, adaptability.

To conform, content, norm, to define, to violate, comfort, to create, to deviate, to confuse, able, to survive, ration, to adjust.

Ex. 6. Translate the sentences into English:

1. Соціопат — це людина, байдужа до інтересів і потреб інших. Часто такі індивіди не мають наміру змінювати свою поведінку, оскільки їхні дії завдають шкоди швидше іншим, ніж їм самим.
2. Соціальні психологи вважають, що розумові розлади спричинюються психологічними факторами, емоційними порушеннями і стресами.
3. Стан тривоги впливає на розумову діяльність людини, виводить її зі стану рівноваги, позбавляючи можливості вирішувати проблеми чи приймати правильні рішення.
4. У стані повної депресії людина сповнена почуття відчаю, самотності, непотрібності, провини, розчарування, власної неприязливості; її дії можуть часто бути непередбачуваними.
5. На відміну від фізіологів, для психологів і психіатрів важко визначити межу між нормою та аномалією, оскільки поняття норми змінюється з часом у різних соціумах.
6. Коли напади паніки виникають у відповідь на особливі подразники (об'єкти чи ситуації) і їх неможливо подолати без допомоги психіатра, вони називаються фобіями.

7. Інколи особистісний розлад настільки глибоко вкорінений, що індивід не визнає своєї девіантної поведінки і сприймає її як рису характеру, або ж своє друге “я”.
8. Фобії можуть бути різноманітними — від побоювання павуків до панічного страху насильства чи смерті.
9. Одним із способів визначення категорії аномальності є встановлення ідеалу. Однак цей підхід залишає більшість із нас, тих, які потребують негайної психологічної терапії, поза нормою, оскільки лише одиниці можуть відповідати ідеалу.
10. Особистий дискомфорт не можна визначити категорією аномальності, оскільки, якщо поведінка індивіда завдає шкоди іншим людям або загалом суспільству, задоволення собою не може бути показником норми.

Ex. 7. Read and translate the text.

Fear of Living *(by Anna Kovalenko)*

Escapism, the desire to avoid contact with other people, down to subjecting oneself to complete isolation, is not rare. Doctors have known about it for a long time, but it was only in the past few years that it was identified as a disease called sociophobia, and serious studies of this phenomenon were carried out.

When lecturing, the great scientist Kliment Timiriachev always made a point of having lecture synopses with him, even though he never looked at them. Under no circumstances would he start a lecture without the notes. On one occasion, he left them at home and when he realized it, he kept the audience waiting until the driver he had sent for the papers delivered them.

What was this, mere eccentricity, or a disease? Today, doctors find such behavioural patterns worth studying, since quite often they turn out to be symptoms of a disease.

Great Britain's Prof. Stewart A. Montgomery said at a recent international conference in Moscow, where he represented the World Psychiatric Association, that sociophobia had been overlooked by doctors, including Russian ones, for too long.

Social fear is not easy to detect, mainly because it is not a fear of something tangible like loneliness, or losing one's job. Its symptoms resemble mere shyness. Prof. Montgomery believes that people tend to develop the first symptoms of sociophobia early on in life, when they are still in school, and this impairs their academic performance. These children always choose a desk in the back row, not because they want to play pranks, but because they want to attract as little attention as possible.

The progression of this pathological condition is also difficult to detect in shy older adolescents who don't drink or take drugs. And the longer it is left untreated, the worse the condition gets. As children, they tend to develop complexes, and when older, sociophobics will usually choose a profession that doesn't involve public contact, and will voluntarily deprive themselves of careers. They feel uncomfortable and awkward around people. Anatoly Smulevich, head of the department of borderline conditions at the Centre for Mental Health, uses a graphic description to characterize the disease – “tears that are invisible to the world”.

These quiet introverts rarely go to see doctors, and rarely do doctors pay much attention to them either. Meanwhile, the condition continues to worsen. Fearing criticism, negative comments, derogatory words and mean looks from other people, sociophobics begin to panic. They begin by fussing with their clothes and their hair, and looking around all the time. This gives way to a constant fear of disaster, for instance when talking to one's boss, reading a lecture and even when meeting with friends. This is typical behaviour for sociophobics. A teacher at a Moscow institute always felt terrified before an audience. This neurosis would cause him to jump on a train after the lecture and travel to any other city (for some reason it was usually Vologda), just to unwind. The following day he would return to Moscow in a relatively normal state.

Prof. Montgomery maintains that five to six percent of the population suffers from sociophobia. This constant fear of social contact is often accompanied by many other symptoms like heart palpitations, tense muscles, dryness of the mouth, headaches and other unpleasant feelings. The symptoms are deeply rooted and the essence of a social introvert. Such people have trouble asserting their opinions and standing up for their rights, which is why they are often looked upon as undesirable workers. Their pathological shyness prevents them from evaluating their abilities positively, and causes them to be constantly self-absorbed in their own thoughts and to agonize over the most trivial matters.

Considering that 95 percent of such diseases tend to develop before the age of 20, treatment should be started as early as possible. Prof. Montgomery believes that if therapy is not started on time, five to seven years later sociophobics begin resorting to alcohol and drugs to cope with their problems. This gives rise to a special stratum of people who have a unique relationship with society. They are lonely and are usually poorly educated, they experience money problems and bounce from job to job. At times they contemplate suicide.

But even if the condition is left untreated for a long time, therapy often helps a person restore contact with society. And although remedial treatment for sociophobics may be expensive, treating alcoholics costs the state even more, as does financing the unemployed. Igor Sergeyev, head of the department of Psychiatry at the Russian State Medical University, believes that diagnosis and treatment of such diseases should be provided free of charge at special polyclinics.

Although scientists have already developed medication for this disease, it's still too early to talk about any results. In Great Britain, for instance, only 25 percent of all sociophobics are receiving help, and in Canada, only 15 percent are undergoing treatment.

Russia's Health Minister Tatiana Dmitriyeva calls sociophobia one of the most widespread psychological disorders. According to various data, in Russia, up to 16 percent of citizens suffer from this disease, and two-thirds of these people also suffer from other psychological disorders.

A special office has been opened at the Moscow City Psycho-Neurological Centre where sociophobics can now go for help.

Ex. 8. Answer the following questions:

1. Why is the article headlined as fear of living?
2. What is meant by escapism?
3. Is it a disease or a phenomenon?
4. What are the major symptoms of sociophobia?
5. Is social fear easily detected?
6. What kind of profession do sociophobics prefer to choose?
7. How do they feel around people?
8. Are sociophobics introverted or extroverted?
9. Do they easily begin to panic? Under what circumstances?
10. How does their pathological shyness interfere with social contacts?
11. How is it possible to treat this condition?
12. Where can sociophobics apply for help?

Ex. 9. Complete the following sentences:

1. The desire to avoid contact with other people is called ...
2. Sociophobia symptoms resemble
3. A. Smulevich characterized this disease as
4. Sociophobics as children tend to develop
5. Their fear impairs academic
6. Constant fear of social contact is accompanied by such physiological symptoms as
7. Very often sociophobics resort to... to cope with the problems.
8. They are lonely and experience
9. Therapy often helps a person restore
10. Diagnosis and treatment of such diseases should be provided free

Ex. 10. Give statistical data enumerated in the article.

Ex. 11. Describe episodes illustrating typical cases of sociophobia.

Ex. 12. Suggest possible situations in which sociophobics experience either shyness or fear.

Ex. 13. Characterize escapism as:

- a) a psychological disorder;
- b) a social phenomenon.

Ex. 14. Review the article.

Ex. 15. Think of all possible situations in which you have ever experienced panic, fear or uncertainty and shyness.

Ex. 16. If you had a chance to interview a sociophobic, what questions would you ask him concerning his academic performance, a choice of profession, social contacts, friends, close relationships and so on?

Ex. 17. Give Ukrainian equivalents for:

To modify psychoanalysis; the unconscious; at a subconscious level; orphan; personal impressions; human inequality; addiction; vulnerability; means to survive; spiritual freedom; lack of restraint; devastation; physical destruction; revelation; healthy morals.

Ex. 18. Give English equivalents for:

Страх жити; уникати контактів; самотність; сором'язливість; стан; сутність інтроверта; типова поведінка; панікувати; відстоювати свої права; оцінювати свої можливості; удаватися до алкоголю та наркотиків; задумувати самогубство; проходити курс лікування; типовий психологічний розлад.

Ex. 19. Use the above stated word-combinations in describing:

- a) psychoanalysis;
- b) sociophobic behaviour;
- c) consequences of sociophobia.

Ex. 20. Render the text into English

КОНФЛІКТ

Функціональний аспект конфлікту зумовлений потребою змін у людських стосунках. Щодо сутності цих стосунків конфлікт є протиставленням, зіткненням протилежних оцінок, принципів, еталонів, поведінки щодо предмета конфлікту. З боку цілей конфлікт відбиває прагнення затвердити принцип, учинок, ідею самоствердитися. З точки зору стану міжособистісних стосунків конфлікт є деструкцією цих стосунків на емоційному, пізнавальному та поведінковому рівнях.

Конфлікт як психічний стан є водночас захисною та емоційно забарвленою реакцією на ситуації, що психічно травмують людину, на перепони в досягненні певних цілей.

Виходячи з оцінки результатів конфлікту, його можна вважати дезінтегруючою силою людських стосунків, а його ліквідацію — інтегруючою. З інструментальної точки зору конфлікт виступає як засіб самоствердження, подолання негативних тенденцій. Процесуальний бік конфлікту є ситуацією пошуку виходу, засобів стабілізації стосунків. Класифікувати конфлікти можна за такими ознаками: видами, тривалістю, змістом, обширністю, ступенем впливу, типом вирішення, формами прояву, психологічним ефектом, наслідками, мотивами та ін. Із функціональної точки зору класифікація конфліктів може будуватися за принципом доцільності/ недоцільності, згідно з яким виявляють конструктивні та деструктивні конфлікти.

Вияви деструктивних функцій конфлікту дужі різні. Особистісний конфлікт породжує стан психологічного дискомфорту, що викликає інші негативні наслідки і може призвести до розпаду особистості. На рівні групи конфлікт здатний руйнувати систему комунікацій, взаємозв'язків, послаблювати ціннісно-орієнтаційну єдність групи, знижувати ефективність її функціонування загалом.

FROM THE HISTORY OF PSYCHOLOGY

Ex. 21. Read the article quickly and give a short summary of it:

Jung, Carl Gustav (1875–1961) was born on July 26, 1875, in Kesswil, Switzerland, in the family of a protestant clergyman. After graduating in medicine in 1902 from the universities of Basel and Zurich, with a wide background in biology, zoology, palaeontology, and archaeology, he began his work on word association, in which a patient's responses to stimulus words revealed what Jung called "complexes" — a term that has since become universal. These studies brought him international fame and led him to a close collaboration with Freud.

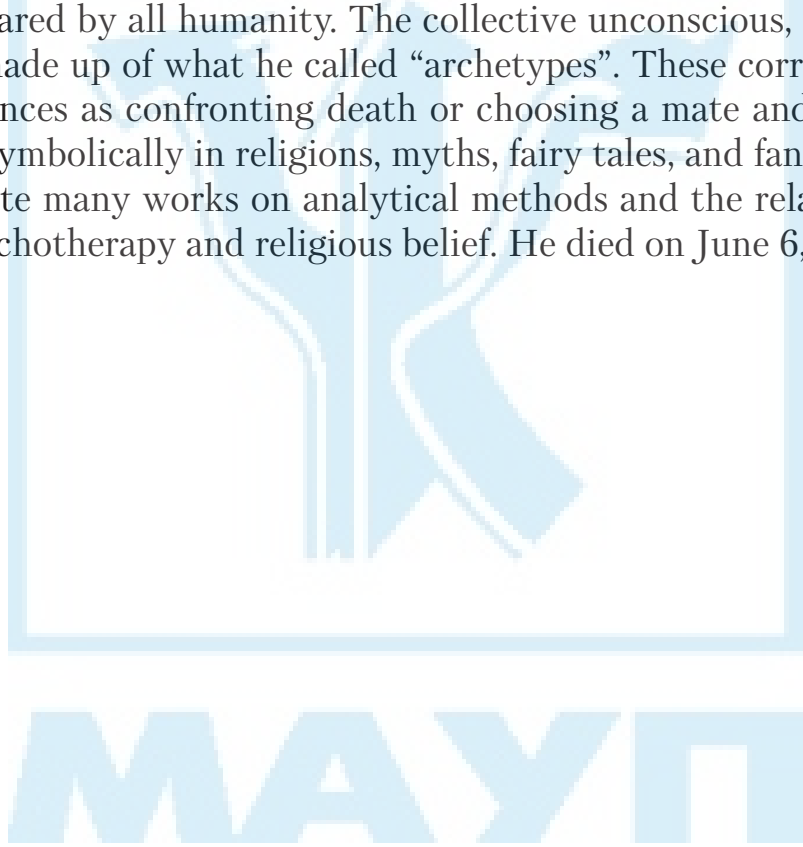
With the publication of *Psychology of the Unconscious* (1912), however, Jung declared his independence from Freud's narrowly sexual interpretation of the libido by showing the close parallels between ancient myths and psychotic fantasies and by explaining human motivation in terms of a larger creative energy. He gave up the presidency of the

International Psychoanalytic Society and founded a movement called analytical psychology.

During his remaining 50 years Jung developed his theories, drawing on a wide knowledge of mythology and history; on his travels to diverse cultures in New Mexico, India, and Kenya; and especially, on the dreams and fantasies of his childhood. In 1921 he published a major work, *Psychological Types*, in which he dealt with the relationship between the conscious and unconscious and proposed the now well-known personality types – extrovert and introvert.

He later made a distinction between the personal unconscious, or the repressed feelings and thoughts developed during an individual's life, and the collective unconscious, or those inherited feelings, thoughts, and memories shared by all humanity. The collective unconscious, according to Jung, is made up of what he called “archetypes”. These correspond to such experiences as confronting death or choosing a mate and manifest themselves symbolically in religions, myths, fairy tales, and fantasies.

Jung wrote many works on analytical methods and the relationships between psychotherapy and religious belief. He died on June 6, 1961.



APPENDIX 1

EXERCISES FOR PLEASURE

**I. Missing words are those to describe people's characteristics.
Fill in the blanks with missing words:**

ambitious, rude, strict, obstinate, sympathetic, intelligent, moody, immature, conceited (big-headed)

1. John is always telling people how well he plays the guitar. He is so....
2. Many girls of 16 and 17 are too... to get married and have children.
3. I see Clive's passed all his exams again. It must be wonderful to be so....
4. The trouble with Jane is that she is so.... One minute she is laughing, the next she is sulking. You just don't know where you are with her.
5. One of the things I like about Pamela is that she is so.... If you have a problem you know you can go to her and that she'll listen to you and try to help all she can.
6. Mrs. Green's children are so.... They never say "please" or "thank you" and only last week I heard them swearing at the postman.
7. My son is very.... He doesn't want to work in an office all his life. In fact he keeps telling me that one day he is going to be Prime Minister.
8. My husband never sees my point of view. He has opinions and nothing I say will ever change them. He is so....
9. When I was a teenager, my father was very.... He would never allow me to wear make-up or have a boyfriend, and if I went out with friends I always had to be home by 10 o'clock.

II. Write down a synonym for each of the words on the left, choosing it from the ones on the right. Number 1 has been done for you:

- | | |
|-----------------|-------------|
| 1. sad | unhappy |
| 2. amusing | evil |
| 3. wicked | thrilling |
| 4. hard-working | funny |
| 5. stubborn | furious |
| 6. curious | dreadful |
| 7. polite | industrious |
| 8. angry | reserved |

9. exciting
10. terrible
11. shy

- well-mannered
- inquisitive
- obstinate

III. These are the words to describe temporary moods, states, and feelings. Fill in the blanks with missing words. Use each word once only.

<i>sympathetic</i>	<i>amazed</i>	<i>terrified</i>	<i>embarrassed</i>
<i>depressed</i>	<i>offended</i>	<i>pregnant</i>	<i>desponded</i>
<i>drowsy</i>	<i>relieved</i>	<i>sober</i>	<i>preoccupied</i>
<i>homesick</i>	<i>faint</i>	<i>nostalgic</i>	<i>disappointed</i>
<i>tense</i>	<i>upset</i>	<i>disgusted</i>	<i>weary</i>
<i>furious</i>	<i>listless</i>	<i>thrilled</i>	
<i>giddy</i>	<i>dejected</i>	<i>unconscious</i>	

1. My father was ... when I told him that I had crashed his car. I don't think I have ever seen him so angry.
2. The boxer hit his opponent so hard that he was knocked ...
3. Alison was very ... when she heard that her mother had been taken to hospital.
4. When I first moved to Sweden I felt very ... — I missed Russia so much.
5. She was really ... when she heard that she had got the job.
6. I spoke to her, but she was too ... to notice me.
7. My sister was ... when her friend's dog started barking at her.
8. She was very ... when I told her that I had lost my job.
9. I felt really ... when my mother started telling my girlfriend about the strange habits I used to have when I was a child.
10. My husband was really thrilled when I told him that I was
11. You look ..., Alan. Cheer up! Things can't be that bad.
12. The sight of blood always makes me feel
13. Listening to "She loves you" by the Beatles made me feel very
14. She felt very ... when the doctor told her that it wasn't a cancer.
15. Lying in the sun made me feel very
16. Amanda was so ... when she failed her driving-test, she had really set her heart on passing it first time.
17. The hotel room was so dirty that I felt thoroughly ... and complained to the manager.

18. My cousin was deeply ... when I didn't invite him to my wedding.
19. When we heard that he had passed the exam we were all ...
20. I hate the heat — it makes me so ... I just don't want to move or do anything.
21. He told me that when his wife left him he felt really ... Life didn't seem worth living, and he even contemplated committing suicide.
22. I felt very ... before the interview. But once I actually started talking I began to relax.
23. Although he was perfectly ... when he arrived at the party, by 11.30 he was as drunk as everyone else.
24. When Mary refused to go out with him, John felt really
25. After walking for 6 hours we were so ... that we couldn't go on.
26. I always feel ... when I look down from the top of a high building.

IV. Choose the correct answer for each of the following:

1. If a person is conceited, he or she is
 - a) *careful*
 - b) *shy*
 - c) *big-headed*
 - d) *suspicious*
 - e) *crazy*
2. What is the opposite of “rude”?
 - a) *certain*
 - b) *impolite*
 - c) *clean*
 - d) *courteous*
 - e) *successful*
3. To be “broken” is
 - a) *to be ill*
 - b) *to be sad*
 - c) *to be without money*
 - d) *to be without friends*
 - e) *to be in love*
4. Which of these words means “hard-working”?
 - a) *flighty*
 - b) *industrial*
 - c) *job*
 - d) *conscious*
 - e) *industrious*

V. Choose the word which best completes each sentence.

1. He is always telling me what to do. He is so
a) *cruel* b) *bossy* c) *helpful* d) *charming*
2. He wants to get to the top before he is thirty. He is very
a) *tall* b) *ambitious* c) *intelligent* d) *industrial*
3. John always arrives on time. He is so
a) *careful* b) *boring* c) *punctual* d) *timeless*
4. I was very... for all the advice she gave me.
a) *glad* b) *grateful* c) *in debt* d) *pleased*

VI. Find the opposites of the words on the left. Choose from the ones on the right. Number 1 has been done for you:

Adjectives

1. **harmless**
2. generous
3. permanent
4. industrious
5. friendly
6. dull
7. daring
8. narrow-minded
9. real
10. horrible
11. gradual
12. keen (on)
13. fortunate

Opposites

- harmful**
lazy
broad-minded
timid
sudden
unfortunate
mean
wonderful
hostile
temporary
uninterested
exciting
imaginary

VII. Give a synonym for each of the words in brackets in the sentences that follow. Choose them from the ones below:

- | | |
|------------------|---------------------|
| <i>odd</i> | <i>attractive</i> |
| <i>cheeky</i> | <i>unbelievable</i> |
| <i>enormous</i> | <i>big-headed</i> |
| <i>bashful</i> | <i>keen</i> |
| <i>enjoyable</i> | <i>obstinate</i> |

vital

appalling

1. He was one of the most (good-looking) men she had ever seen.
2. We had a really (pleasant) time in Brighton last week.
3. David is always telling people how good he is at everything. He is so (conceited).
4. The play last night was (terrible). At least half the audience walked out in the middle of it.
5. There is something very (peculiar) about Mr. Brown's behaviour today. Didn't you notice?
6. Have you seen James and Sally's new house? It's really (huge).
7. He won't take my advice. He is so (stubborn).
8. I was always very (shy) as a child and hated going to parties or meeting new people.
9. My son loves school. In fact, in some ways he is too (enthusiastic), I mean, it's the only thing he ever talks about.
10. I think Martha is going to have a lot of problems with her children. They are so (rude) to everyone.
11. You must read this story — it's quite (incredible)!
12. Hard work and ambition are (essential) if you want to get on life.

VIII. Fill in the missing words in the definitions below. Choose from the following:

chauvinistic

versatile

illiterate

magnanimous

bilingual

indefatigable

erudite

scintillating

gullible

convivial

vivacious

greedy

1. A/an ... person is someone who has a variety of skills and abilities and who is able to change easily from one sort of activity to another.
2. A/an ... person is someone who is very friendly and fond of eating, drinking and good company.
3. A/an ... person is who is very generous towards other people.
4. A/an ... person is someone who always wants more than his or her fair share of something — especially food, money or power.
5. A/an ... person is someone who is easily taken in or tricked by others.

6. A/an ... person is someone who believes that the sex he or she belongs to (male or female) is better than the opposite sex in all ways.
7. A/an ... person is someone who is unable to read or write.
8. A/an ... person is someone who is fluent in two languages.
9. A/an ... person is someone who seems to have so much energy that he or she never tires.
10. A/an ... person is someone who has studied a lot and is very knowledgeable.
11. A/an ... person is someone who is able to make clever, witty and entertaining remarks in conversation.
12. A/an ... person is someone (usually a woman) who is full of life.

IX. Describing people. Character and personality.

Match the following adjectives 1–20 with the correct meanings to form complete sentences.

People who are:

X. Develop the following situations:

1. You are writing a paper on the theme: “Major Personality Characteristics”. You experience some hardships in your research. You come to your scientific advisor to receive some explanations.

Ask him:

- if it is a correct trend to divide all people into extroverts and introverts;
- what is meant by personality traits;
- what he thinks whether a personality formation is genetically predisposed;
- what role the family plays in shaping a personality;
- how a social setting influences the personality development;
- at what age the personality character is formed.

2. Your friend is sure that our mood and emotional state depend on the weather and horoscope forecasts. You are not inclined to believe in astrology but still you ask some questions on the subject.

Ask him:

- what his sign of zodiac is;
- what positive characteristics his star sign supposes;

- whom he is like in character: his mother or father;
- if he has got any negative traits;
- if he believes in horoscope forecasts partly or completely;
- what he does to match his star sign.

3. You are making up a questionnaire in order to find out basic personality characteristics and categorize them.

Ask your respondent:

- how he feels in an unfamiliar situation;
- what helps him feel at ease;
- in what situation he feels shy and worried;
- what he considers to be the necessary qualities to feel comfortable everywhere;
- if he can describe the most pleasant situation in his life;
- what he experiences seeing beggars in the streets.

4. Your friend has just come from England. He had a chance to study there for three weeks. He spoke with a number of the British people noted for their peculiar features. You are eager to receive information first-hand.

Ask him:

- how he would characterize the English as a separate nation;
- if they are as reserved as they seem to be;
- what relationships exist between different generations;
- what are the most distinctive features of their character;
- in what dwellings the British people live;
- why they prefer to live in cottages.

XI. Assess Yourself: Personal Motivation Inventory

Overview This inventory measures your general level of motivation. It does not specifically measure health motivation; however, a low score on general motivation could indicate that you might encounter difficulties in attempting to change your health-related behaviour. A high score, however, does not guarantee success in this area. People are often motivated to different degrees in different aspects of their lives. A high-scorer might want to consider how to apply his or her general

motivation level specifically to health behaviour. A low-scorer might want to keep in mind the possible need for extra effort.

Directions This inventory explores the ways in which you are motivated. There are no right or wrong answers.

Sometimes people tend to answer questions in terms of what they think a person should do. The outcome of this questionnaire will be valuable to you only if you respond to the statements in terms of what you are now doing.

Some of the statements may seem repetitive. However, each time is different, so please answer each one without regard to the others. Do not debate too long about any item.

Please note that this is a self-test. It will measure how you view yourself and your motivation. It cannot reflect other's opinions of how motivated you might be.

For each of the statements, decide which of the following answers best applies to you:

1. Never
2. Rarely
3. Sometimes
4. Usually
5. Always

Place the number corresponding to that answer on the line to the left of the statement. Please be honest with yourself.

- Assessment**
1. I can identify the things I do best.
 2. I feel that I am as good as the next person.
 3. When someone compliments me, I want to do even better.
 4. I participate in a wide range of activities.
 5. I find it easy to listen to others.
 6. I feel that I should be rewarded when I do a good job.
 7. I am curious about new ideas and try to learn all I can.
 8. I set high standards of achievement for myself.
 9. I feel that I have strengths or abilities that I have yet to use.
 10. I have a positive attitude toward myself.
 11. Ridicule or sarcasm makes me work harder.
 12. I find it difficult to become involved with other people.

13. My mind wanders when I should be listening.
14. Compliments are nice, but when I excel I want something more, such as public recognition, honours, or special privileges.
15. I have high expectations about what I can accomplish.
16. I feel that my goals are realistic.
17. I would like to improve or build my existing strengths.
18. I can accept and use constructive criticism.
19. Criticism, of any type, makes me feel like giving up.
20. I am afraid to become involved in controversial causes.
21. I have to ask for directions or instructions more than once.
22. If I fail to accomplish a task, I feel that my employer or instructor has the right to take disciplinary action.
23. I set goals for myself subject to periodic re-evaluation.
24. I feel that my goals give me an opportunity to grow.
25. I feel that my faults or weaknesses outweigh my strengths.
26. I tend to brood about mistakes I have made.
27. I want other people to know when I am doing a good job, and I want them to say so!
28. I find it so easy to become involved in what I am doing that I often lose track of time.
29. I tend to tune out of discussions that I feel will be boring.
30. If I am punished, I have a right to know why and what I should do differently in the future.

1	absent-minded	a)	like to say how good they are at something
2	adventurous	b)	have strong feelings and are easily moved by things
3	amusing	c)	are rude and disrespectful, especially towards people like parents and teachers
4	bashful	d)	are always trying to control others without worrying or caring about how they feel
5	boastful	e)	deliberately try to hurt or harm others
6	bright	f)	are very forgetful because they are too busy thinking about other things
7	calm	g)	are sure of themselves and their abilities
8	cheeky	h)	are easily tricked and tend to believe everything they are told

9	conceited	i)	are very clever and learn things quickly
10	confident	j)	hate having to wait for things and are not very tolerant of other people's weaknesses
11	creative	k)	are very interested and excited about something and this shows in the way they talk or behave
12	domineering	l)	are daring and always ready to take risks
13	down-to-earth	m)	are always friendly and welcoming towards guests
14	emotional	n)	don't get excited or nervous about things
15	enthusiastic	o)	find it hard to accept or understand new or different ideas
16	gullible	p)	are very funny and make you laugh
17	hospitable	q)	are very practical and honest
18	impatient	r)	have a very high opinion of themselves
19	malicious	s)	find it easy to produce new and original ideas and things
20	narrow-minded	t)	are shy and feel uncomfortable in social situations

31. I set time aside to think about myself and where I am going.
32. I expect the best from myself.
33. I feel I can be successful in developing new strengths (skills or abilities).
34. I know that no one is perfect, and I am happy being the person I am.
35. I feel that most people give me compliments because they are after something.
36. I like to be actively involved with people and causes.
37. I listen to other people but find I don't really understand what they are saying.
38. I feel that incentives make it easier to accomplish a task.
39. I feel that I am an adventurous person and I like to try new things.
40. Because I expect to do my best, I find I achieve what I want.

Scoring Compare your responses to the key below. For each item, if your response matches one of the numbers in the key, place a check mark beside that item. Then count and record the total number of check marks.

1. 4, 5	11. 1, 2	21. 1, 2	31. 3, 4, 5
2. 3, 4	12. 1, 2	22. 3, 4	32. 4, 5
3. 4, 5	13. 1, 2	23. 4, 5	33. 4, 5
4. 3, 4, 5	14. 2, 3, 4, 5	24. 4, 5	34. 4, 5
5. 4, 5	15. 4, 5	25. 1, 2	35. 1, 2
6. 4, 5	16. 4, 5	26. 1, 2, 3	36. 3, 4, 5
7. 4, 5	17. 5	27. 3, 4, 5	37. 1, 2
8. 4, 5	18. 4, 5	28. 3, 4	38. 4, 5
9. 4, 5	19. 2, 3	29. 1, 2, 3	39. 3, 4, 5
10. 4, 5	20. 1, 2, 3	30. 5	40. 4, 5
Total	_____		

- Interpretation** 35–40 = highly motivated
30–34 = good, but room for improvement
25–29 = need work
20–24 = need more work
15–19 = improvement definitely needed

This interpretation of the degrees of your motivation, of course, reflects a societal value that motivation is important, that is, that an active role in life is better than a passive one, almost regardless of the ultimate goal of the activity. There are logical reasons for believing that lack of motivation is in itself not conducive to good health; the main purpose of this assessment, however, is to help you determine how ready you are to attempt any of the personal behaviour changes that you might choose as a result of the self-knowledge you gain in the following chapters.

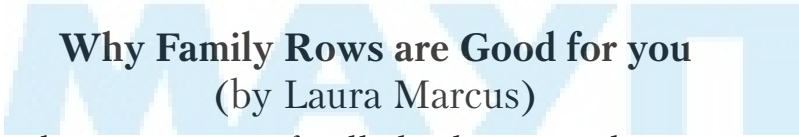
Source: Adapted from Personal Motivation Inventory. — Batten, Hudson & Swab, 1977.

APPENDIX 2



TEXTS FOR SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Text 1



Why Family Rows are Good for you (by Laura Marcus)

New research in America is finally backing up what many people have suspected for years: that getting it all off your chest is good for your heart. A lot of us might think feeling good is good for our health. But scientists need more to go on than feelings. They demand evidence. And evidence appears to be emerging. Scientists are keeping a close eye on the current developments.

According to a recent report in “New Scientist”, neurobiologists and immunologists have amassed a great deal of research that links the brain

with the function of the immune system. They even have a new name for it: psychoneuroimmunology. This is the study of how the brain and immune system talk to each other. Now the scientists believe that expressing your feelings could actually be good for the immune system.

What happens is that different moods turn up or turn down the activity of our immune cells. Stress at work, insomnia, depression: they have all been found to be detrimental to the immune system. Conversely, self-expression seems to promote a healthy immune system.

While scientists hedge their bets, therapists and counsellors have no doubt that expressing your feelings in a family row can promote healthier family life. It does not depend on how you do it and how you end it, but rows are not necessarily destructive or harmful. A slanging match, hurling abuse at each other, is detrimental. But a row that clears the air and, where there is closure, is very beneficial because it releases tension.

Rows must have an ending. That's very important. Otherwise, all rows end up as history lessons: "And there was the time you did this, the time you did that." Deal with it, sort it and end it. That old maxim about not letting the sun go down on an argument has very good therapeutic value.

There really is nothing like saying the most awful things to your partner, and then being told you are still loved. They've seen you at your worst but still care. That's the best feeling going.

And, contrary to many parents' fears, rowing in front of the children is not necessarily harmful. How else can children learn that conflict exists but for being expressed and resolved? What is potentially harmful is that they might not see you making up. So if you have the row, let them see you being friends again.

We're often attracted to people who are different from us because we sense they have something we're missing. But then we try and change them into what we're already used to because that's familiar, so it feels comfortable.

Rowing goes beyond humans. Species that bond with one partner for a mating season, mainly birds but also some breeds of wild dogs and monkeys, do indeed have family rows. Disputes between partners have definitely been witnessed, usually early on in the breeding season as the male and female get used to one another. Some of the aggression they show to each other could be their innate desire to fend off intruders into the nest, so they have to learn to curb their emotion when their partner turns up with

food for the young. Even in the animal world, the course of true love rarely runs smoothly.

So if you find yourself in the middle of a family dispute, bear in mind that rows are a necessary result of inevitable conflict. Though scientists can't yet agree about this, effective rather than destructive rows probably do make for a happier and healthier family life.

Text 2

The Functions of the Family

The family is sometimes described as the backbone of society. The family is the first and most important agent in the socialization process. The personalities of each new generation are shaped within the family, so that, ideally, children grow to be well-integrated and contributing members of a larger society. In industrial societies, of course, peer groups, schools, churches, and the mass media are also important in the socialization of children. But this remains the primary function of the family. The family also contributes to the continuing socialization of people throughout their life cycle. Adults learn and change within marriage, and as anyone with children knows, parents are influenced by their children just as their children learn from them.

Regulation of Sexual Activity. Every culture places some restrictions on sexual behaviour. Sexual intercourse is a personal matter of those involved, but is the basis of human reproduction and inheritance; it is also a matter of considerable social importance.

All societies enforce some type of incest taboo — cultural norms that forbid sexual relations or marriage between certain kin. Exactly which kin are subject to the incest taboo is culturally variable. Most Americans consider sexual relations with a parent, grandparent, sibling, aunt, or uncle to be both immoral and unnatural.

But such sexual relations have been condoned — or even encouraged — in some cultures. Brother-sister marriages, for example, were common among the ancient Egyptian, Inca, and Hawaiian nobility; and male nobles of the Azande in eastern Africa are reported to marry their daughters. Some societies forbid sexual relations with cousins, while others do not; in the American society, Catholic religious beliefs prohibit marriage between first cousins, while Jewish religious beliefs do not. Further, about as many states

prohibit this practice as many ones allow it. These examples suggest the extent to which the incest taboo is subject to cultural variation.

The significance of the incest taboo is primarily social rather than biological. Contrary to common assumptions, children that result from sexual activity between close relatives rarely have mental or physical abnormalities. Socially speaking, incest taboos serve to minimize sexual competition within families. Incest taboos also encourage marriage outside the family; such alliances provide economic and political advantages to particular families, as well as strengthening social ties among members of society as a whole.

Social Placement. From a biological point of view, of course, the family is not necessary for people to have children. Within families, however, children are born not only as biological beings but also as members of society. Many important social statuses – including race, ethnicity, religion, and social class – are ascribed at birth through the family. This explains society’s long-standing concern that children should be born of socially sanctioned marriages. Legitimate birth, especially when parents are of similar position, allows for the most orderly transmission of social standing from parents to children and clarifies inheritance rights.

Material and Emotional Security. In ideal terms, the family protects and supports its members physically, emotionally, and often financially from birth until death. The family is usually a person’s most important primary group, and family members generally have intense and enduring relationships with one another. This concern for one another’s welfare engenders an important sense of self-worth and security in each individual, as suggested by the fact that individuals living in families tend to be healthier than those who live alone.

However, the intense character of family ties also means that families have the ability to undermine the individual’s self-confidence, health, and well-being. This fact has become clear as researchers have studied patterns of family violence and, especially, child abuse.

Text 3

The Mystery of Sleep (by Graham Workman)

We may not give it a moment’s thought, but most of us will probably spend one third of our lives asleep.

But how much sleep do we really need? In Florida, a volunteer was shut up in a special room for two weeks. He was allowed to sleep as much as he wanted, but there were no clocks in the room and the lights were always on. In other words, the only way he could tell if it was lunch-time, tea-time or bed-time was from what his body told him.

The man settled down to a regular rhythm of sleep and wakefulness. How much did he sleep? The same as about normal. The fact that he did this shows that his body must have an inbuilt mechanism, telling him to fall asleep and wake up.

What then is the purpose of this biological clock? Originally, it was probably a mechanism for survival. Sleep was a rhythmic process developed millions of years ago as a way of coping with life on a planet which had regular days and nights. Sleep protected people from the predators of the night and the inefficiencies of darkness.

All creatures sleep, but the amount they sleep varies greatly. This is because each species has an appropriate pattern of sleep that is suited to the world it inhabits.

An elephant has to spend most of the day finding food and eating it, so it sleeps only 2 hours a day. Of all living creatures only human beings get insomnia, because only they distort the natural rhythm of sleep with everything from anxiety to jet travel, from television to working round-the-clock.

But if we do not get to sleep at night, will it necessarily matter? Does it matter that night-shift workers do not get a normal ration of sleep? How safely can we make major decisions – perhaps life-or-death ones if we are prime ministers or doctors – when we have missed a lot of sleep?

One exception to all this is Lesley Gamble. He claims that following an accident 11 years ago, he never sleeps at all.

Researchers tested him by putting him into a darkened room with electrodes to see to what extent he was drowsy or slept. It is almost impossible for a sleepy person to lie down in a darkened room all night and not fall asleep. The recording showed him relaxed but awake all night.

He says he thinks most of the night, reflecting on happy events in his life which helps him to relax mentally.

How can a case like Lesley's be explained? It seems likely that his accident damaged in some way the operation of his biological clock and his body is no longer getting the order to sleep.

One way to find out if sleep is necessary is to take it away for three days and nights and see what happens, testing all the time which functions are affected most: our muscle co-ordination, our posture, our physical energy and strength, and most important, our mental vigilance.

Four students agreed to take part in such an experiment. After 36 hours without sleep they were still doing remarkably well at some things.

Interesting games, like chess, presented few problems for the sleep deprived. The tired brain can overcome fatigue if it wants to. Motivation, excitement and danger all keep us awake. The tired brain, however, is not good at boring, repetitive tasks. When the volunteers had to recognize short musical notes from a series of long and short notes, they made more and more mistakes as time passed.

After 72 hours without sleep everybody looked tired, their balance and muscle co-ordination had deteriorated and their mental vigilance had dropped. But basically there was nothing wrong. Heart, lungs and muscle strength were all fine.

In fact the body can do very well without sleep. Provided it is given adequate relaxation and food, there are no adverse effects on the body and its functioning. So if you miss a lot of sleep you are still able to operate, although the risk of making mistakes is increased.

But if the body does not need sleep, why do people feel so awful when they are deprived of it? What are insomniacs actually complaining about?

The answer probably lies in our brains – the homes of our biological clocks. The body may not need sleep but millions of years of evolution have programmed our brains to sleep every night of our lives, and there is nothing we can do about it.

Text 4

Nonverbal Behavior

People from different cultures attach a wide variety of meanings to the same specific non-verbal behaviour looking at another person in the eye, laughing in a certain way, touching a person on the head, holding up two fingers, and so forth. Many misunderstandings between culturally different people arise simply because a nonverbal signal of some kind was misinterpreted. One of the best ways to keep such misinterpretations to a minimum is to remember *that it is rare for people to act deliberately*

disrespectful or insulting towards others, especially towards strangers or visitors. This rule applies to the people of the U. S. just as it does to almost all other peoples of the world. Therefore, if you have the feeling that an American has slighted or insulted you through a certain behaviour, or through the absence of an expected behaviour, you probably have made the common mistake of interpreting acceptable U. S. behaviour according to the standards and expectations of your own home culture. Non-verbal behaviour involves innumerable complex and subtle sounds of the voice and movements of the body.

In general, people in the U. S. do not touch each other frequently. What is particularly lacking is the freedom to come into lengthy and frequent bodily contact with other people of the *same* sex. Women are freer about touching each other than are men; nevertheless, one rarely sees women walking arm-in-arm, as is common in some other cultures. American men touch each other only infrequently and very briefly; lengthy touching between men is viewed as a sign of homosexuality, and therefore is avoided. As suggested earlier, lengthy and frequent touching between men and women is normal, but the implication is that sexual attraction or romantic involvement exists between the two.

Americans are most likely to come into direct bodily contact with each other when greeting or taking leave. Men shake hands at such times; men who are good friends and who have been (or expected to be or have been), separated for a long time may give each other a brief hug. Men never kiss each other. In general, the same rules apply to women greeting or separating from other women, although they are free to kiss each other lightly on one or both cheeks (or to touch cheek-to-cheek and kiss the air) if this is common in their social circle. The traditional pattern for a man and woman is that they shake hands only if the woman takes the initiative by offering her hand. In recent decades, however, the rules for men and women in some social circles have broadened to include men's taking the initiative in hand-shaking; a light kiss on the cheek between friends or relatives also is becoming increasingly common. Men and women may hug each other, even in the absence of romantic attachment, under the same conditions mentioned above for men.

When in conversation with one another, Americans generally stand about half a meter apart and look at each other in the eye frequently but not constantly. The distance that is maintained between people in conversation can vary; for example, a larger distance is likely to be

maintained between people who have a clear superior-subordinate relationship, while a lesser distance is common between peers who are good friends.

You should be aware that, under most circumstances, people in the U. S. instantly are made to feel very uncomfortable by others who stand very close to them. A common exception occurs on public transportation vehicles during the crowded “rush hours”, but in these cases the people who are very close to one another are careful to completely ignore each other.

Americans also feel very uncomfortable when dealing with others who look constantly into their eyes; on the other hand, they feel suspicious about others who never look into their eyes. In general, the rules for eye contact seem to be these: When you are *listening*, you should look into the speaker’s eyes (or at least at his or her face) fairly constantly, with an occasional glance away. When you are *speaking*, you are freer to let your eyes wander as you talk, but you should look in the eyes of the listener from time to time to receive acknowledgement that he or she is listening and understands the points you are making.

Some visitors to the U. S. are shocked, insulted, or perplexed by certain common non-verbal behaviors of Americans. Here are a few facts for you to keep in mind:

1. Americans have no taboo of any kind associated with the left hand; they are as likely to touch you or to hand your objects with the left hand as with the right hand.
2. Americans have no negative association with the soles of the feet or bottom of the shoes; they do not feel it necessary to prevent others from seeing these areas.
3. A common way to greet small children in the U. S. is to pat them on the top of the head.
4. People in the U. S. often point with their index finger and wave it around as they make important points in conversation.
5. One beckons to another person to come closer by holding the hand with the palm and fingers up, not down.
6. Americans show respect and deference for another person by looking him or her in the face, not by looking down.
7. Informal, relaxed postures are commonly assumed by U. S. people when they are standing or sitting, even when they are conversing

with others; lack of formal posture is not a sign of inattention or disrespect.

8. Americans are uncomfortable with silence; they expect to talk rather constantly when in the presence of others.
9. The doors of rooms usually are left open unless there is a specific reason to close them.
10. Punctuality is important to many U. S. people; they become quite annoyed if forced to wait more than 15 minutes beyond the scheduled time for appointments.
11. People who see each other on a daily basis do not shake hands every time they encounter one another; they may not even greet each other on every encounter after the first one each day.
12. Smokers do not necessarily offer cigarettes to others whenever they light up.
13. When Americans offer food or drink, they expect the other person to say “yes” at once if the food is desired; they do not expect polite refusals first.

Text 5

Put pleasure in your life (by Laura Miller)

How frequently do you allow yourself totally carefree moments? Little time-outs and simple pleasures?

We race around frantically, making quick cameo appearances at supermarkets, day-care centers and the dry cleaners. We fantasize about curling up in bed with a good novel and a cup of tea on a cold Saturday afternoon but, invariably, feel compelled to wax the car or run a couple of kilometers. Although we believe we're better off for having made those sacrifices — healthier, more productive, and better disciplined — that's not necessarily the case.

In fact, the very opposite may be true. Truly healthy people, it seems, indulge in the occasional decadent dessert without guilt. They shamelessly grab an afternoon flap, spend 15 minutes idly patting the cat, toss an old blanket on the lawn, lie back and watch the clouds race across the sky.

Dr David Sobel, a specialist in preventive medicine, and Robert Ornstein, a psychologist and brain researcher, espouse a theory that a little of what you fancy does you good.

“Studies seem to indicate that overall happiness is not dictated so much by the peaks and valleys of your life as by the total amount of time you spend in a positive mood”, Dr Sobel says. “And that to us means the small pleasures.”

The researchers got the idea when they began noticing that the healthiest people they knew were not those who spent a lot of time managing their health.

“We began to realize”, Robert says, “that we didn’t know anybody we thought was healthy who had an extremely healthy diet and monitored their exercise. Instead, they were people who were actively engaged in their lives.” They live with optimism and gusto, Robert says. They are passionate about hobbies, travel and family life.

How pleasure works

Scientists are still exploring exactly what makes our bodies acknowledge and feel pleasures. It’s all in the brain, it seems. Human beings have pleasure centers located in the brain in an area known as the limbic system, which can be stimulated naturally through pleasing sights, sounds, smells, tastes and thoughts. Precisely how those centers are tapped in what scientists are trying to discover.

Some researchers think pleasure releases endorphins, opiate-like substances in the brain that make us feel better. Says Dr Sobel: “We don’t really know. Our understanding of this mechanism is very crude. It’s in its infancy.”

Back to nature

What we do know is that living in the modern world often means being cut off from the natural one— and that’s not good. “Our biology and psychology evolved over five million years and during the majority of that evolution we were very closely linked to the natural environment”, Dr Sobel says. “Just because we have modernized our environment doesn’t mean we can dismiss our age-old tie to nature.”

It’s the natural things — the warm sun, lush fields — that can make life seem better. We brighten considerably with a sunny day, even if it’s experienced on a lunch break in the middle of a crowded city.

A whiff of happiness. The two scientists believe smell is perhaps the most under-appreciated of the senses. Scientist Jonathan Pevsner is trying to determine how the smell of, say, a rose travels from the nose to the pleasure centres of the brain.

“When you smell something it often triggers a memory or an emotion because the sense of smell is most directly connected to the limbic system, where pleasure and emotion and memory are centred, whereas the other senses have a more direct route to get the same place”, Dr Pevsner says.

Have a chocolate. There’s nothing quite like a sinful indulgence. But, then, who’s to say it’s sinful? Chocolate, for example, has some beneficial qualities: it protects tooth enamel and one of its ingredients, cocoa butter, lowers cholesterol levels. Alcohol has its benefits, too. People who have one or two drinks a day are less prone to heart attack or blocked arteries.

Text 6

You Just Don’t Understand

Why can’t men and women understand each other? Who talks more, men or women? Is there a difference in the way men talk to other men and the way women talk to other women? What do men and women each want from their conversations?

Deborah Tannen, a professor of linguistics at University, provides some startling answers to these questions in her best selling book “You just don’t understand: women and men in conversation”.

Tannen analyzed numerous recordings and video tapes of everyday conversations of children, teenagers and adults to study how people interact and how they use conversation to satisfy their needs. Her research led her to the conclusion that American boys and girls grow up in what are essentially different cultures, so talk between women and men is cross-cultural communication.

Citing her research, and that of other specialists – sociologists, anthropologists, and psychologists, she states: “Even if they grow up in the same neighborhood, on the same block, or in the same house, girls and boys grow up in different worlds of words. Others talk to them differently and expect and accept different ways of talking from them. Most important, children learn how to talk, how to have conversations, not only from their parents but from their peers”.

Researchers have documented that boys and girls spend most of their time playing with other children of the same sex and that the way that boys and girls talk to their friends is very different. Boys tend to play outside and prefer games involving large groups which have leaders and systems of rules to determine the winners and the losers. In their play, boys are primarily concerned about establishing and maintaining their

status in the hierarchy of the group. Status is achieved by giving orders and getting others to follow them. Their talk is centered on giving commands, boasting about what they can do, or arguing about who can do something best.

The world of little girls presents a stark contrast. Girls tend to play indoors in small groups. They spend much of their time sitting and talking, sharing secrets to maintain their closeness. Girls play games where they take turns and winning and losing is not very important. Whereas “independence and freedom” are important to boys, “intimacy and connection” are the goals of girls’ conversation.

These attitudes and conversational priorities carry over into the lives of adult men and women. For men, life is a contest, a struggle to preserve independence and avoid failure”. In a man’s world, conversations are negotiations in which people try to achieve and maintain the upper hand if they can, and protect themselves from others’ attempts to put them down and push them around.

For women, on the other hand, life is “a community, struggle to preserve intimacy and avoid isolation”. In a woman’s world, conversations are negotiations for closeness in which people try to seek and give confirmation and support, to reach consensus. They try to protect themselves from others’ attempts to push them away.

The differences in the conversations and the body language show that females and males sometimes look like they came from different planets. The girls and women sit close together, face each other directly, and look into each others’ eyes when they talk. They take turns talking about each others’ problems and about the people they know and make supportive statements.

The boys and men, on the other hand, tend to have more open body positions and have very little eye contact. They show their caring for each other by teasing and joking. For men and boys, offering sympathy puts the other in a “one-down” position, so when they talk about their problems, they reassure each other by offering quick advice.

Men and women view public and private speech differently. Many men are more comfortable with public speech where they defend their positions and exchange information. In public situations, men speak more than women. When they come home, however, men want to relax and read the newspaper. Men are more interested in knowing about the news than they are in discussing what is happening to other people.

This is very frustrating to their wives, who are eager to talk about the details of other people's lives – their friends, family members, and business associates. For women, the purpose of conversation is interaction. But for men, the purpose of conversation is to impart information. They do not like small talk.

The fact that women are more comfortable with private talk than they are with public talk puts them at a disadvantage in the public arena. Women are not accustomed to fighting for a chance to speak during the meeting. Because women are used to waiting for their turn to speak, they are frequently ignored by men who expect that if they have something to say, they will speak up. Because women are generally good listeners, asking questions and making supportive comments, they may find that men are lecturing them, instead of asking them what they think, as another woman would do.

This may help explain why there are so few women who hold public office. In order to run for office, a woman has to be able to campaign like a man and employ many of the conversation strategies used by men. In so doing, however, she appears to be unwomanly, and may therefore not be trusted.

Tannen concludes that it is important to understand the differences in the conversational styles of men and women so that we can better interpret the messages that are being communicated. Understanding each others' styles of speaking as women and men is the first step to understanding each other as individuals.

Text 7

Stress Control

People wonder whether it is possible to influence stress situations and to control them. Before answering this question it is necessary to decide which sort of stress requires control. Hans Selye, a Canadian scientist who invented the term “stress”, offered a differentiation between “distress” and “eustress”. The first is harmful for human health. The second is a good companion in any productive activity and presents no danger. It is closely linked with efforts to overcome difficulties, to solve routine and professional problems. Distress begins as a result of refusing to try and solve difficult situations in life. Distress must be controlled.

Outside factors or information which cause stress are divided into physical and psychic. The first, with the exception of gravitational and climatic fluctuations or injuries, rarely lead to distress. Distress is mainly caused by conflicts between the requirements and wishes of a person and the possibility of meeting or fulfilling them. Normally they are associated with outward obstacles or the resistance and counteractions of other people. Moreover, they are more frequently associated with the fact that the requirements of a person run counter to the requirements of other people, and the person in question fails to find a compromising solution within his or her internal conflict. This happens, for example, when we can attain a goal only on the condition that it leads, it would seem to us, to a loss of self-respect or respect of our environment.

In most cases distress originates due to a lack of communication culture and inadequate perception. If not, then due to the inability to understand the desires and wishes of other people and coordinate them with our own.

There is no doubt that the best preventive treatment of psychic and emotional stress is correct upbringing and higher standards of communication culture. This is a difficult task which takes a long time. It does not exclude more concrete efforts aimed at increasing individual resistance to stress by those who are already in need of it.

Until recently, various means of reducing emotional tension were used in the “struggle against stress”. These means include medical preparations (tranquilizers) and numerous forms of relaxation, from self-suggestion to self-regulation techniques used by Yoga. Correct regime and diet are also important.

The reduction of emotional tension which has caused distress does not lead to adaptation. It only can, at the most, help develop a more sensible view of the situation that has given rise to the stress. However, if there is no other cure, there will be no real stress control and the adaptation is temporary. As a rule, as soon as a patient stops taking medicine and gives up self-suggestion, the unpleasant sensations return. It is clear why: in the early stages of the “struggle against stress”, the patient tried to solve his problems rationally by himself, “with a cool head”, but lost this ability precisely because he was unable to cope with the situation. Calm achieved with the help of tranquilizers and relaxation just brings him back to the stage he has already passed.

Radically solving the problems demands more than a cool head. It calls for changing the strategy of solving the problem, of reevaluating all the

values, of developing a fundamentally new approach to the concrete situation, life in general, and oneself as an individual. None of the above-mentioned methods can help achieve such a state. Only such ability can guarantee a resistance to stress in the future.

In order to understand what such an approach implies we have to go back to the conditions that created “insoluble” conflicts.

The refusal to find a solution and the condition of distress arise when and where a person fails to see a way out of an impasse, fails to find a means of solving conflicts within himself or contradictions with external conditions. However, objectively situations are rarely really insoluble. In the majority of cases they are qualified like this from a subjective point of view. Even when events in one’s life seem fatal, the person in question still has a chance to reconsider his attitude to these events, and minimize their significance. Such a reassessment of the situation, helped by different methods of psychotherapy, amounts to the ability to see new aspects of the situation, and to understand what a relatively modest place the conflict occupies in the infinitely rich world of human emotions and relations. In this understanding a great role is played by warm-hearted human relations and human concern, and one of the chief tasks of psychotherapists is to form such relations with their patients and between the patients and people surrounding them – at home and at work, and at the beginning among patients themselves. In Russia, and in other countries, group psychotherapy occupies an increasing place. In its process patients are brought together by reciprocal sympathies and common worries.

To develop a broad, unbiased and flexible attitude to problems, contacts with art and literature are indispensable. The greatest works of literature reflect the world and life in all their aspects. People who have read about them are already protected in a way from a narrow and unproductive approach to events. This is why art as a “cure” is regarded as one of the most promising methods of preventing and removing stress.

An active position in life, active perception of art, developing taste, personal participation in everything that contributes to broadening horizons and increasing physical and intellectual abilities – all this is a prerequisite for stress resistance and for effective individual efforts in shifting distress to eustress, unless the first has assumed an absolute character. In the latter case medical aid is necessary. The task of medicine is to achieve control over stress and to turn it from a force of destruction into a creative force.

Text 8

The Language of the Body

One of the best locations to study the body language is a political rally. Each speaker has already worked out his verbal message, usually a string of highly predictable platitudes calculated to gain him applause. But while he is mouthing his utterances, his hands are busy too. He will not be aware precisely what they are doing, merely that they are beating time to his statements and helping to underline them. If we ignore his words and focus exclusively on his hands, it soon becomes clear that he employs some major hand signals.

If he is making a powerful point, he will clench his fist, as if about to punch an invisible opponent. If he is trying to chop down a rival proposal, he switches instead to the hand-chop gesture, cutting down through the air as forcibly as possible with a flattened hand, its hard edge pointing down. With this action he transforms his hand into a symbolic axe.

For those who wish to appear forceful, but not too violent, there is a slightly milder hand gesture — the semi-clenched fist. With the thumb uppermost, on top of the bent forefinger, this half-fist is jerked in the air to emphasize point after point in the speaker's words. It is almost as if he is serving an invisible writ on his audience. This gesture is favoured by politicians.

In a more dominant mood, the speaker introduces the palm-down hand posture, usually with a few slight downward movements. In this he is symbolically calming down his audience, as if it were composed entirely of unruly children. If he is less sure of himself, he uses the opposite hand signal, with the palm up. This is a gesture of the beggar, reaching out his hand for help. This particular gesture is universal and can even be seen in wild chimpanzees when begging for food from companions.

If the speaker wishes his audience to embrace his ideas, he offers them a hint of an embrace in his hand gestures. He reaches out both hands, with his palms facing one another, as if trying to hug his audience at a distance. This is a favourite gesture of good communicators, who know the value of making their audience feel intimate with those on the platform.

Finally there is one more special forefinger gesture much loved by the more aggressive politicians, that is a prodding forefinger, aimed straight towards the audience, as if stabbing them into submission.

There are, of course, many other gesticulations employed during speech-making. Because both the speaker and the audience are primarily focused

on the words being spoken, none of these gestures is deliberately made or deliberately read. They form a sub-text which carries with it a mood communication system that imparts far more information than any of those present may realize. They will transmit to the audience either a feeling that the speaker is not to be trusted or that he means what he says. If his verbal message is false or exaggerated, his gestures will give him away. They will make a “bad fit” with his words and leave the audience uncomfortable, without knowing quite why. If they match well with the spoken words, the listeners will unconsciously sense that harmony and will respond more positively.

Text 9

Suicide Today

Before when people wanted to commit suicide, they would throw themselves under a car. Nowadays Russian businessmen have found a new method – they take out or damage the brakes of their car, sit behind the wheel, and take off.

Why are there so many suicides for no apparent reason? Chemists are searching for answers to this question. Post mortem examinations reveal that more than 95 percent of those who take their own life have certain changes in their brain chemistry. It is also known that in the few weeks before their deaths, more than half of suicide victims visit their doctor. Usually, the doctor can't find anything wrong, and so the patient is sent home.

In the opinion of Vladimir Skavysh, a specialist at the Suicide Center, there is a predisposition to suicide in some people. However, this does not mean that there is a ‘suicide gene’, because the problem is psychological rather than biological. There are many cases where suicide becomes hereditary. However, this is presumably a case of inheriting the principle of behaviour in a critical situation. In other words, at present science cannot give us an unequivocal answer to the question of whether a suicide gene exists.

It is well known that in certain circumstances the risk of suicide increases sharply. People are more at risk if one of their parents had killed themselves; if their parents are divorced; if their parents fight like cat and dog; if they are impulsive and cannot control their actions. The highest risk category consists of introverts, that is people who, after some kind of

misfortune, direct their rage at themselves rather than lash out at those around them. Extroverts deal with their emotions by preferring to simply smash someone in the face rather than indulge in protracted contemplation of human malice and therefore hardly ever commit suicide

A quarter of all successful suicide victims are mentally ill, another quarter are completely healthy, and the rest are on the border-line – neither ill nor healthy, but inclined to neuroses and tragic perception of reality.

There are many different reasons why some people commit suicide. The real reason may be difficult to establish, even when the victim has left a note. Often the notes describe completely different reasons, or things which really have only a slight or no connection at all with their decision to die. Some decide to kill themselves without really knowing why – perhaps because insomnia suggested the idea of suicide or it may have rained too hard or too long.

According to Alekper Tagi-Zade, manager of the Samaritans – a charitable association for the prevention of suicides – the profile of a typical potential suicide is something like this: a woman between 35 and 40, with a university degree, and in the overwhelming majority cases unmarried and without a boyfriend. Failure in one's personal life very often leads to thoughts of suicide, and neither men nor women are strong enough to acknowledge that this is the cause of their depression, so they prefer to attribute everything to unpleasantness at work, money worries, health anxieties, or social problems.

Only one in seven or eight attempted suicides is 'successful'. Women attempt to commit suicide much more frequently than men. However, men are four times more likely to actually commit suicide than women. The most frequent method is an overdose, but fatalities from this method are few.

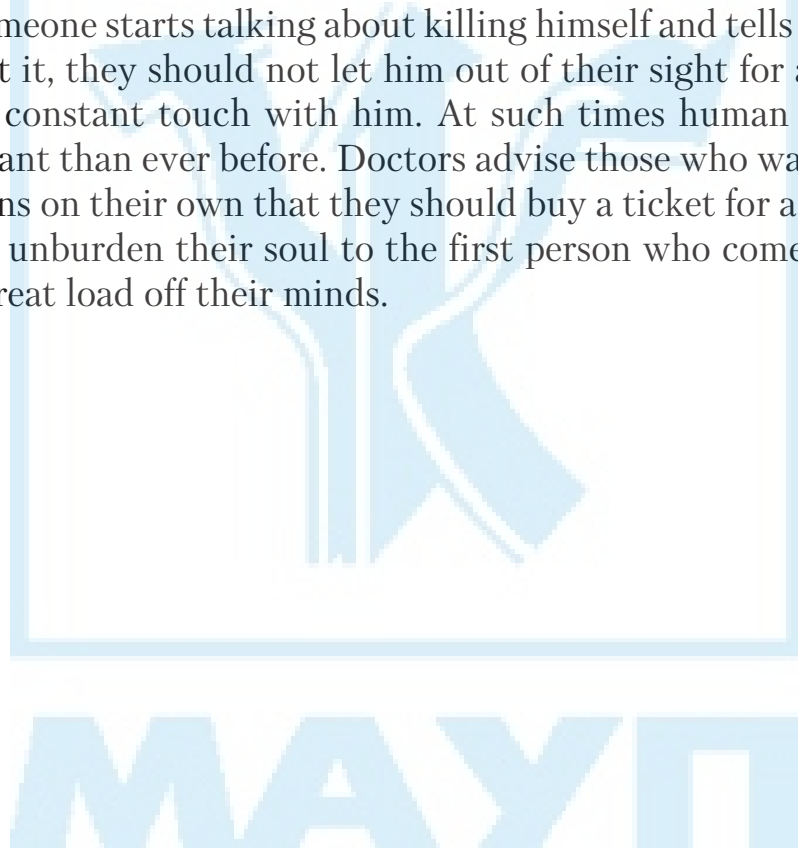
The most reliable suicide method is by hanging. Ten years ago an elderly American woman carried out what became known as the 'suicide of the century'. She attached a long rope to the balcony of her skyscraper with a noose so that one end reached the ground and the other end would tighten up in flight, she took a fatal dose of sleeping tablets, stood on the edge of the balcony, and shot herself in the head with a revolver. In this way an ordinary American pensioner contrived to kill herself in four different ways.

Specialists often cite this case as evidence that those who make unsuccessful attempts really do not intend to die. Any suicide victim whose decision is irrevocable makes very careful preparations. In such cases there are no overdoses with long-expired pills, weak ropes or defective bullets.

Does one have the right to take one's own life? To whom does human life belong? To the person, his nearest and dearest, the state of God? In some countries — Canada, Denmark, Chile — suicide attempts are punishable by law. But history has known periods when suicide was a cult. In ancient Rome patricians preferred to depart from their life early rather than become a burden to their relatives in their declining years. In Japan, the highest form of valour and revenge was hara-kiri.

In Russia it was always thought that only sick people killed themselves. In 1716, the future Tsar Peter wrote in the Poteshny Regiment Rules and Regulations: "If someone kills themselves, then an executioner should drag their body through the streets, then take it away to an inaccessible place and bury it".

When someone starts talking about killing himself and tells his closest friends about it, they should not let him out of their sight for a moment, and keep in constant touch with him. At such times human contact is more important than ever before. Doctors advise those who want to cope with delusions on their own that they should buy a ticket for a long train journey, and unburden their soul to the first person who comes along, it will take a great load off their minds.



APPENDIX 3

LIST OF PHOBIAS

- A -

- Ablutophobia** – fear of washing or bathing
Acarophobia – fear of itching or of the insects that cause itching
Acerophobia – fear of sourness
Achluophobia – fear of darkness
Acousticophobia – fear of noise
Acrophobia – fear of heights
Aerophobia – fear of drafts, air swallowing, or airborne noxious substances
Aeroacrophobia – fear of open high places
Aeronausiphobia – fear of vomiting secondary to airsickness
Agateophobia – fear of insanity
Agliophobia – fear of pain
Agoraphobia – fear of open spaces or of being in crowded, public places
like markets; fear of leaving a safe place
Agraphobia – fear of sexual abuse
Agrizoophobia – fear of wild animals
Agyrophobia – fear of streets or crossing the street
Aichmophobia – fear of needles or pointed objects
Ailurophobia – fear of cats
Albuminurophobia – fear of kidney disease
Alektorophobia – fear of chickens
Algophobia – fear of pain
Alliumphobia – fear of garlic
Allodoxaphobia – fear of opinions
Altophobia – fear of heights
Amathophobia – fear of dust
Amaxophobia – fear of riding in a car
Ambulophobia – fear of walking
Amnesiphobia – fear of amnesia
Amychophobia – fear of scratches or being scratched
Anablephobia – fear of looking up
Ancraophobia – fear of wind
Androphobia – fear of men
Anemophobia – fear of air drafts or wind
Anginiphobia – fear of angina, choking or narrowness
Anglophobia – fear of England, English culture, etc

Angrophobia – fear of anger or of becoming angry
Ankylophobia – fear of immobility of a joint
Anthrophobia – fear of flowers
Anthropophobia – fear of people or society
Antlophobia – fear of floods
Anuptaphobia – fear of staying single
Apeirophobia – fear of infinity
Aphenphosmophobia – fear of being touched
Apiphobia – fear of bees
Apotemnophobia – fear of persons with amputations
Arachnophobia – fear of spiders
Arithmophobia – fear of numbers
Arrhenophobia – fear of men
Arsonophobia – fear of fire
Asthenophobia – fear of fainting or weakness
Astraphobia – fear of thunder and lightning
Astrophobia – fear of stars and celestial space
Asymmetriphobia – fear of asymmetrical things
Ataxiophobia – fear of ataxia (muscular incoordination)
Ataxophobia – fear of disorder or untidiness
Atelophobia – fear of imperfection
Atephobia – fear of ruin or ruins
Athazagoraphobia – fear of being forgotten or ignored or forgetting
Atomosophobia – fear of atomic explosions
Atychiphobia – fear of failure
Aulophobia – fear of flutes
Aurophobia – fear of gold
Aurorophobia – fear of Northern lights
Autodysomophobia – fear of one that has a vile odour
Automysophobia – fear of being dirty
Autophobia – fear of being alone or of oneself
Aviophobia or Aviatophobia – fear of flying

- B -

Bacillophobia – fear of microbes
Bacteriophobia – fear of bacteria
Ballistophobia – fear of missiles or bullets
Barophobia – fear of gravity
Basophobia or Basiphobia – inability to stand fear of walking or falling

Bathmophobia – fear of stairs or steep slopes
Bathophobia – fear of depth
Batophobia – fear of heights or being close to high buildings
Batrachophobia – fear of amphibians, such as frogs, newts, salamanders,
etc
Belonephobia – fear of pins and needles
Bibliophobia – fear of books
Blennophobia – fear of slime
Bogyphobia – fear of bogies or the bogeyman
Botanophobia – fear of plants
Bromidrosiphobia or Bromidrophobia – fear of body smells
Brontophobia – fear of thunder and lightning
Bufonophobia – fear of toads

- C -

Cacophobia – fear of ugliness
Cainophobia or Cainotophobia – fear of novelty
Caligynephobia – fear of beautiful women
Cancerophobia – fear of cancer
Carcinophobia – fear of cancer
Cardiophobia – fear of the heart
Carnophobia – fear of meat
Catagelophobia – fear of being ridiculed
Catapedaphobia – fear of jumping from high and low places
Cathisophobia – fear of sitting
Catoptrophobia – fear of mirrors
Cenophobia or Centophobia – fear of new things or ideas
Ceraunophobia – fear of thunder
Chaetophobia – fear of hair
Cheimaphobia or Cheimatophobia – fear of cold
Chemophobia – fear of chemicals or working with chemicals
Cherophobia – fear of gaiety
Chionophobia – fear of snow
Chiraptophobia – fear of being touched
Chiophobia – fear of hands
Chorophobia – fear of dancing
Chrometophobia or Chrematophobia – fear of money
Chromophobia or Chromatophobia – fear of colours
Chronophobia – fear of time

Chronomentrophobia – fear of clocks
Cibophobia or Sitophobia or Sitiophobia – fear of food
Claustrophobia – fear of confined spaces
Cleithrophobia or Cleisiophobia – fear of being locked in an enclosed place
Cleptophobia – fear of stealing
Climacophobia – fear of stairs, climbing or of falling downstairs
Clinophobia – fear of going to bed
Clithrophobia or Cleithrophobia – fear of being enclosed
Cnidophobia – fear of stings
Cometophobia – fear of comets
Coimetophobia – fear of cemeteries
Coitophobia – fear of coitus
Contreltophobia – fear of sexual abuse
Coprophobia – fear of feces
Cryophobia – fear of extreme cold, ice or frost
Crystallophobia – fear of crystals or glass
Cyberphobia – fear of computers or working on a computer
Cyclophobia – fear of bicycles
Cymophobia – fear of waves or wave like motions
Cynophobia – fear of dogs or rabies

- D -

Decidophobia – fear of making decisions
Dementophobia – fear of insanity
Demonophobia or Daemonophobia – fear of demons
Demophobia – fear of crowds (**Agoraphobia**)
Dendrophobia – fear of trees
Dentophobia – fear of dentists
Dermatophobia – fear of skin lesions
Dermatosiophobia or Dermatophobia or Dermatopathophobia – fear of skin disease
Dextrophobia – fear of objects at the right side of the body
Diabetophobia – fear of diabetes
Didaskaleinophobia – fear of going to school
Dikephobia – fear of justice
Dinophobia – fear of dizziness or whirlpools
Diplophobia – fear of double vision

Dipsophobia – fear of drinking
Dishabiliophobia – fear of undressing in front of someone
Doraphobia – fear of fur or skins of animals
Doxophobia – fear of expressing opinions or of receiving praise
Dromophobia – fear of crossing street
Dutchphobia – fear of the Dutch
Dysmorphophobia – fear of deformity
Dystychiphobia – fear of accidents

- E -

Ecclesiophobia – fear of church
Ecophobia – fear of home
Eicophobia or Oikophobia – fear of home surroundings
Eisoptrophobia – fear of mirrors or of seeing oneself in a mirror
Electrophobia – fear of electricity
Eleutherophobia – fear of freedom
Elurophobia – fear of cats (**Ailurophobia**)
Emetophobia – fear of vomiting
Enetophobia – fear of pins
Enochlophobia – fear of crowds
Enosiophobia or Enissophobia – fear of having committed an unpardonable sin or of criticism
Entomophobia – fear of insects
Eosophobia – fear of dawn or daylight
Ephophobia – fear of teenagers
Epistaxiophobia – fear of nosebleeds
Epistemophobia – fear of knowledge
Equinophobia – fear of horses
Eremophobia – fear of being oneself or of loneliness
Ereuthophobia – fear of blushing
Ergasiophobia – 1) fear of work or functioning; 2) surgeon's fear of operating
Ergophobia – fear of work
Erotophobia – fear of sexual love or sexual questions
Euphobia – fear of hearing good news
Eurotophobia – fear of female genitalia
Erythrophobia, Erytophobia or Ereuthophobia – 1) fear of red lights; 2) blushing; 3) fear of red

- F -

Febriphobia, Fibriphobia or Fibriophobia — fear of fever

Felinophobia — fear of cats (Ailurophobia, Elurophobia, Galeophobia, Gatophobia)

Francophobia — fear of France, French culture (Gallophebia, Galiophobia)

Frigophobia — fear of cold, cold things

- G -

Galeophobia or Gatophobia — fear of cats

Gallophebia or Galiophobia — fear of France, French culture (Francophobia or Galiophobia)

Gamophobia — fear of marriage

Geliophobia — fear of laughter

Geniophobia — fear of chins

Genophobia — fear of sex

Gephyrophobia, Gephydrophobia, or Gephysrophobia — fear of crossing bridges

Germanophobia — fear of Germany, German culture, etc

Gerascophobia — fear of growing old

Gerontophobia — fear of old people or of growing old

Geumaphobia or Geumophobia — fear of taste

Glossophobia — fear of speaking in public or of trying to speak

Gnosiophobia — fear of knowledge

Graphophobia — fear of writing or handwriting

Gymnophobia — fear of nudity

Gynophobia or Gynophobia — fear of women

- H -

Hadephobia — fear of hell

Hamartophobia — fear of sinning

Haphophobia or Haptophobia — fear of being touched

Harpaxophobia — fear of being robbed

Hedonophobia — fear of feeling pleasure

Heliophobia — fear of the sun

Hellenologophobia — fear of Greek terms or complex scientific terminology

Helminthophobia — fear of being infested with worms

Hemophobia or Hemaphobia or Hematophobia — fear of blood

Heresyphobia or Hereiophobia – fear of challenges to official doctrine
or of radical deviation

Herpetophobia – fear of reptiles or creepy, crawly things

Heterophobia – fear of the opposite sex (**Sexophobia**)

Hierophobia – fear of priests or sacred things

Hippophobia – fear of horses

Hippopotomonstrosesquippedaliophobia – fear of long words

Hobophobia – fear of bums or beggars

Hodophobia – fear of road travel

Hormephobia – fear of shock

Homichlophobia – fear of fog

Homilophobia – fear of sermons

Hominophobia – fear of men

Homophobia – fear of sameness, monotony or of homosexuality or of
becoming homosexual

Hoplophobia – fear of firearms

Hydrargyrophobia – fear of mercurial medicines

Hydrophobia – fear of water

Hyelophobia or Hyalophobia – fear of glass

Hygrophobia – fear of liquids, dampness or moisture

Hylephobia – fear of materialism or the fear of epilepsy

Hylophobia – fear of forests

Hypengyophobia or Hypegiaphobia – fear of responsibility

Hypnophobia – fear of sleep or of being hypnotized

Hypsiphobia – fear of height

- I -

Iatrophobia – fear of going to the doctor or of doctors

Ichthyophobia – fear of fish

Ideophobia – fear of ideas

Illyngophobia – fear of vertigo or feeling dizzy when looking down

Iophobia – fear of poison

Insectophobia – fear of insects

Isolophobia – fear of solitude, being alone

Isopterophobia – fear of termites, insects that eat wood

- J -

Japanophobia – fear of Japanese

Judeophobia – fear of Jews

- K -

Kainolophobia – fear of novelty
Kainophobia – fear of anything new, novelty
Kakorrhaphiophobia – fear of failure or defeat
Katagelophobia – fear of ridicule
Kenophobia – fear of voids or empty spaces
Keraunophobia – fear of thunder and lightning
Kinetophobia or Kinesophobia – fear of movement or motion
Kleptophobia – fear of stealing
Koinoniphobia – fear of rooms
Kolpophobia – fear of genitals, particularly female
Kopophobia – fear of fatigue
Koniophobia – fear of dust (**Amathophobia**)
Kosmikophobia – fear of cosmic phenomenon
Kymophobia – fear of waves
Kynophobia – fear of rabies
Kyphophobia – fear of stooping

- L -

Lachanophobia – fear of vegetables
Laliophobia or Lalophobia – fear of speaking
Leprophobia or Lepraphobia – fear of leprosy
Leukophobia – fear of the colour white
Levophobia – fear of things to the left side of the body
Ligyrophobia – fear of loud noises
Lilapsophobia – fear of tornadoes and hurricanes
Limnophobia – fear of lakes
Linonophobia – fear of string
Liticaphobia – fear of lawsuits
Lockiophobia – fear of childbirth
Logizomechanophobia – fear of computers
Logophobia – fear of words
Luiphobia – fear of lues, syphilis
Lutraphobia – fear of otters
Lygophobia – fear of darkness
Lyssophobia – fear of rabies or of becoming mad

- M -

Macrophobia – fear of long waits
Mageirocophobia – fear of cooking
Maiusiophobia – fear of childbirth
Malaxophobia – fear of love play
Maniaphobia – fear of insanity

Mastigophobia – fear of punishment
Mechanophobia – fear of machines
Medomalacuphobia – fear of losing an erection
Medorthophobia – fear of an erect penis
Megalophobia – fear of large things
Melissophobia – fear of bees
Melanophobia – fear of the black colour
Melophobia – fear or hatred of music
Meningitophobia – fear of brain disease
Menophobia – fear of menstruation
Merinthophobia – fear of being bound or tied up
Metallophobia – fear of metal
Metathesiophobia – fear of changes
Meteorophobia – fear of meteors
Methyphobia – fear of alcohol
Metrophobia – fear or hatred of poetry
Microbiophobia – fear of microbes (**Bacillophobia**)
Microphobia – fear of small things
Misophobia – fear of being contaminated with dirt or germs
Mnemophobia – fear of memories
Molysmophobia or Molsomophobia – fear of dirt or contamination
Monophobia – fear of solitude or being alone
Monopathophobia – fear of definite disease
Motorphobia – fear of automobiles
Mottephobia – fear of moths
Musophobia or Murophobia – fear of mice
Mycophobia – fear or aversion to mushrooms
Mycrophobia – fear of small things
Myctophobia – fear of darkness
Myrmecophobia – fear of ants
Mysophobia – fear of germs or contamination or dirt
Mythophobia – fear of myths or stories or false statements
Myxophobia – fear of slime (**Blennophobia**)

- N -

Nebulaphobia – fear of fog (**Homichlophobia**)
Necrophobia – fear of death or dead things
Nelophobia – fear of glass
Neopharmaphobia – fear of new drugs
Neophobia – fear of anything new
Nephophobia – fear of clouds
Noctophobia – fear of the night
Nomatophobia – fear of names

Nosocomephobia – fear of hospitals
Nosophobia or Nosemaphobia – fear of becoming ill
Nostophobia – fear of returning home
Nucleomitophobia – fear of nuclear weapons
Nudophobia – fear of nudity
Numerophobia – fear of numbers
Nyctohylophobia – fear of dark wooded areas, of forests at night
Nyctophobia – fear of the dark or of night

- O -

Obesophobia – fear of gaining weight (**Pocrescophobia**)
Ochlophobia – fear of crowds or mobs
Ochophobia – fear of vehicles
Odontophobia – fear of teeth or dental surgery
Odynophobia or Odynophobia – fear of pain (**Algophobia**)
Oenophobia – fear of wines
Oikophobia – fear of home surroundings, house
Olfactophobia – fear of smells
Ombrophobia – fear of rain or of being rained on
Ommetaphobia or Ommatophobia – fear of eyes
Oneiropophobia – fear of dreams
Oneirogmophobia – fear of wet dreams
Ophidiophobia – fear of snakes
Ophthalmophobia – fear of being stared at
Optophobia – fear of opening one's eyes
Ornithophobia – fear of birds
Orthophobia – fear of property
Osmophobia or Osphresiophobia – fear of smells or odours
Ostraconophobia – fear of shellfish
Ouranophobia – fear of heaven

- P -

Pagophobia – fear of ice or frost
Panthophobia – fear of suffering and disease
Panophobia or Pantophobia – fear of everything
Papaphobia – fear of the Pope
Papyrophobia – fear of paper
Paralipophobia – fear of neglecting duty or responsibility
Paraphobia – fear of sexual perversion
Parasitophobia – fear of parasites
Paraskavedekatriaphobia – fear of Friday the 13th
Parthenophobia – fear of virgins or young girls
Pathophobia – fear of disease

Patroiophobia – fear of heredity
Parturiphobia – fear of childbirth
Peccatophobia – fear of sinning (imaginary crime)
Pediculophobia – fear of lice
Pediophobia – fear of dolls
Pedophobia – fear of children
Peladophobia – fear of bald people
Pellagrophobia – fear of pellagra
Peniaphobia – fear of poverty
Pentheraphobia – fear of mother-in-law (**Novercaphobia**)
Phagophobia – fear of swallowing or of eating or of being eaten
Phalacrophobia – fear of becoming bald
Phallophobia – fear of a penis, esp. erect
Pharmacophobia – fear of taking medicine
Phasmophobia – fear of ghosts
Phengophobia – fear of daylight or sunshine
Philemaphobia or Philematophobia – fear of kissing
Philophobia – fear of falling in love or being in love
Philosophobia – fear of philosophy
Phobophobia – fear of phobias
Photophobia – fear of light
Phonophobia – fear of noises or voices or one's own voice; of telephones
Phronemophobia – fear of thinking
Phthiriophobia – fear of lice (**Pediculophobia**)
Phthisiophobia – fear of tuberculosis
Placophobia – fear of tombstones
Plutophobia – fear of wealth
Pluviophobia – fear of rain or of being rained on
Pneumatophobia – fear of spirits
Pocrescophobia – fear of gaining weight (**Obesophobia**)
Pogonophobia – fear of beards
Poliosophobia – fear of contracting poliomyelitis
Politicophobia – fear or abnormal dislike of politicians
Polyphobia – fear of many things
Poinophobia – fear of punishment
Ponophobia – fear of overworking or of pain
Porphyrophobia – fear of the colour purple
Potamophobia – fear of rivers or running water
Potophobia – fear of alcohol
Pharmacophobia – fear of drugs
Proctophobia – fear of rectum
Prosophobia – fear of progress
Psellismophobia – fear of stuttering

Psychophobia – fear of mind
Psychrophobia – fear of cold
Pteromerhanophobia – fear of flying
Pteronophobia – fear of being tickled by feathers
Pupaphobia – fear of puppets
Pyrexiphobia – fear of fever
Pyrophobia – fear of fire

- R -

Radiophobia – fear of radiation, X-rays
Ranidaphobia – fear of frogs
Rectophobia – fear of rectum or rectal diseases
Rhabdophobia – fear of being severely punished or beaten by a rod, or of being severely criticized, also fear of magic (wand)
Rhypophobia – fear of defecation
Rhytiphobia – fear of getting wrinkles
Rupophobia – fear of dirt
Russophobia – fear of Russians

- S -

Samhainophobia – fear of Halloween
Sarmassophobia – fear of love play (**Malaxophobia**)
Satanophobia – fear of Satan
Scabiophobia – fear of scabies
Scatophobia – fear of fecal matter
Scelerophobia – fear of bad men, burglars
Sciophobia – fear of shadows
Scoleciphobia – fear of worms
Scolionophobia – fear of school
Scopophobia or Sceptophobia – fear of being seen or stared at
Scotomaphobia – fear of blindness in visual field
Scotophobia – fear of darkness
Scriptophobia – fear of writing in public
Selachophobia – fear of sharks
Selaphobia – fear of light flashes
Selenophobia – fear of the moon
Seplophobia – fear of decaying matter
Sesquipedalophobia – fear of long words
Sexophobia – fear of the opposite sex
Siderodromophobia – fear of trains, railroads or train travels
Siderophobia – fear of stars
Sinistrophobia – fear of things to the left, left-handed
Sinophobia – fear of Chinese

Sitophobia or Sitiophobia – fear of food or eating (**Cibophobia**)
Snakephobia – fear of snakes
Soceraphobia – fear of parents-in-law
Social Phobia – fear of being evaluated negatively in social situations
Sociophobia – fear of society or people in general
Somniphobia – fear of sleep
Sophophobia – fear of learning
Soteriophobia – fear of dependence on hers
Spacephobia – fear of outer space
Spectrophobia – fear of ghosts
Spermatophobia or Spermophobia – fear of germs
Spheksophobia – fear of wasps
Stasibasiphobia or Stasiphobia – fear of standing or walking
(**Ambulophobia**)
Staurophobia – fear of crosses or the crucifix
Stenophobia – fear of narrow things or places
Stygiophobia or Stigiophobia – fear of hell
Suriphobia – fear of mice
Symbolophobia – fear of symbolism
Symmetrophobia – fear of symmetry
Syngenesophobia – fear of relatives
Syphilophobia – fear of syphilis

- T -

Tachophobia – fear of speed
Taeniophobia or Teniophobia – fear of tapeworms
Taphophobia or Taphophobia – fear of being buried alive or of cemeteries
Tapinophobia – fear of being contagious
Tauophobia – fear of bulls
Technophobia – fear of technology
Teleophobia – 1) fear of definite plans; 2) religious ceremony
Telephonophobia – fear of telephones
Teratophobia – fear of bearing a deformed child or fear of monsters or deformed people
Testophobia – fear of taking tests
Tetanophobia – fear of lockjaw, tetanus
Teutophobia – fear of German or German things
Textophobia – fear of certain fabrics
Thaasophobia – fear of sitting
Thalassophobia – fear of the sea
Thanatophobia or Thantophobia – fear of death or dying

Theatrophobia – fear of theatres
Theologicophobia – fear of theology
Theophobia – fear of gods or religion
Thermophobia – fear of heat
Tocophobia – fear of pregnancy or childbirth
Tomophobia – fear of surgical operations
Tonitrophobia – fear of thunder
Topophobia – fear of certain places or situations, such as stage fright
Toxiphobia or Toxophobia or Toxicophobia – fear of poison or of being accidentally poisoned

Traumatophobia – fear of injury
Tremophobia – fear of trembling
Trichinophobia – fear of trichinosis
Trichopathophobia or Trichophobia or Hypertrichophobia – fear of hair
Triskaidekaphobia – fear of number 13
Tropophobia – fear of moving or making changes
Trypanophobia – fear of injections
Tuberculophobia – fear of tuberculosis
Tyrannophobia – fear of tyrants

- U -

Uranophobia – fear of heaven
Urophobia – fear of urine or urinating

- V -

Vaccinophobia – fear of vaccination
Venustraphobia – fear of beautiful women
Verbophobia – fear of words
Verminophobia – fear of germs
Vestiphobia – fear of clothing
Virginitiphobia – fear of rape
Vitricophobia – fear of step-father

- W -

Wiccaphobia – fear of witches and witchcraft

- X -

Xanthophobia – fear of the yellow colour or the word yellow
XeVinogradova Ganna Valeriivna

Manual

- noglossophobia** – fear of foreign languages
Xenophobia – fear of strangers or foreigners
Xerophobia – fear of dryness
Xylophobia – 1) fear of wooden objects; 2) forests
Xyrophobia – fear of razors

- Z -

- Zelophobia** – fear of jealousy
Zeusophobia – fear of God or gods
Zemmiphobia – fear of the great mole rat
Zoophobia – fear of animals

GLOSSARY

- Absolute threshold** – the minimum stimulus required for a person to experience a specific sensation
Acquisition – the process by which we initially perceive, register, and record information in our memory
Adaptation – an adjustment in sensory capacity
Ad hoc categories – categories which are used in planning but are not as useful for organizing memory as natural categories
Affect – emotional response
Affective disorder – disturbance of mood
Aggression – any act that is intended to cause pain, damage, or suffering to another
Altruism – prosocial behaviour showing unselfish concern springing from a combination of emotional distress at another's plight and an understanding his/ her needs
Amnesia – a condition in which a person has a severely impaired ability to remember old material or to learn new material
Analogy – a solution strategy in which the solver devises a solution based on an analogical correspondence between two systems
Analytic Psychology – a school of psychoanalysis founded in 1913 by Carl Jung
Anxiety – a feeling of dread, apprehension or fear
Arousal – a series of physiological changes, primarily in the autonomic system, that take place when an individual has an emotion
Autogenic training – a technique for reducing physiological arousal based on self-suggestion

Automatic nervous system – part of the nervous system, which controls visceral muscles and glands

Basic needs – fundamental physiological needs and intermediate psychological needs (safety and self-esteem)

Behaviour – everything that a person does including thoughts, feelings and dreams

Behaviourism – the study of observable and measurable responses to specific stimuli

Beliefs – knowledge structures about objects and events

Bipolar disorder – a disorder characterized by extreme moods, beginning with a manic episode of euphoria, excitement, and activity, followed by a depressive episode

Case study – an intensive investigation of one or few individuals, usually with reference to a single psychological phenomenon

Central core – the area of the brain that carries out functions necessary for survival

Central nervous system (CNS) – the part of the nervous system that is primary responsible for the transmission and storage of the information

Cerebral cortex – the part of the brain that is involved in higher mental functions: planning, reasoning and learning

Character – the combination of qualities which make a particular person different from others; nature

Chunks – sequences of patterns of elements in short-time memory which include the incoming information organized into clusters

Clinical Psychology – the study of the diagnosis and treatment of the abnormal behaviour

Cognition – the process of knowing which encompasses thinking, decision making, judging, imaging, problem solving, categorizing, and reasoning – all the higher mental processes of human being

Community Psychology – the study of the prevention of mental disorders

Compulsion – the repeated performance of a particular irrational act

Conformity – the tendency to shift one's views or behaviour closer to the norms expressed by other people

Consciousness – an awareness of the mind's operations

Consumer Psychology – the study of the preferences, buying habits and responses to advertising

Continuity – a principle of grouping

Coping – the process of maintaining external and internal pressures that at first seem intolerable

Creativity – the combination of previously unconnected ideas in new and unusual ways

Delusions – irrational beliefs that are maintained despite overwhelming evidence that they have no basis in reality

Dependent variable – the behaviour sought to be tested in an experiment

Depressant – a drug that retards the action of the central nervous system so that neurons fire more slowly

Developmental Psychology – the study of the behavioural development over the life span

Difference threshold – the smallest change in a stimulus that produces a change in sensation

Displacement – the process through which items appear to be slowly deactivated from short-term memory

Drive – an internal motivational factor

Drug – any inorganic substance that can interact with a biological system

Dyslexia – disorder in which children with normal intelligence and adequate environmental opportunities have extreme difficulty learning to read

Educational Psychology – the approach to psychology that investigates all the psychological aspects of the learning process

Ego – the psychic component the task of which is finding ways in the real world to satisfy the id's demands

Egocentrism – in cognitive development, a child's belief that others literally see things as the child does

Emotions – complicated psychological phenomena which arise from biological, sensory and cognitive sources and consist of three aspects: arousal, expression, experience

Empirical approach – the approach that is guided by experience

Encoding – the process of transforming information into the form in which it will be recorded

Environmental Psychology – the approach to psychology that studies the relationship between people and their physical settings

Experiment – the comparison of two conditions that are identical in all respects except the factors being investigated

Experimental Psychology – investigation of basic behavioural processes shared by various species

Extroversion – the personality orientation in which the person is primarily oriented to the external world and thus is outgoing, sociable, and excitement-seeking

Fear of success – the motive to avoid success

Field experiment – the research in the real world

Fixation – the tendency to automatically apply an inappropriate strategy to a problem and then rigidly cling to that approach

Frustration – interference with any form of goal-directed behaviour

Gender identity – the child's understanding that she or he is female or male and will always remain so

Gender roles – attitudes and patterns of behaviour that society considers acceptable for one's own gender

Gestalt – a meaningful pattern or figure into which human beings group perceptual information

Grammar – the system of regularities governing language production and comprehension; the rules that describe the levels of speech in our language and the way those levels are related

Hallucinations – spontaneous sensory perceptions, usually of sounds, that are unrelated to external stimuli

Heuristics – intuitive rules of thumb that often give fairly accurate results

Homeostasis – a process of self-regulation to maintain a balanced internal environment

Hormones – chemical substances used by the endocrine system to transmit messages

Hostile aggression – aggression that aims at hurting another person

Hypnagogic state – the state lying between waking and sleep

Hypochondriasis – the preoccupation with bodily symptoms as possible signs of serious illness

Hypotheses – propositions to be tested

Id – the part of the psyche which is primitive and animallike

Identity – an individual's sense of personal sameness and continuity

Identity crisis – an internal conflict that requires the adolescent to develop a new self-concept

Illusions – perceptions that do not correspond to real objects or events

Incentives – external motivational stimuli in the shape of certain cues from the environment

Independent variable – any factor whose change is expected to affect the event being studied

Individual psychology – the school of psychology founded by Alfred Adler in 1911

Individual trait – a unique way of organizing the world that cannot be applied to all people

Industrial psychology – field of psychology concerned with human behaviour in the workplace

Inferiority complex – inability to overcome a childhood sense of incompleteness

Insight – the sudden perception of a new relationship that leads to an innovative solution

Interference – a complementary factor promoting forgetting, the case when other material in memory blocks out the sought-for memory

Internalization – the child's incorporation of society's values to such an extent that violation these standards produces a sense of guilt

Interneurons – cells that transmit information throughout the body

Introversion – the personality orientation in which the person directs his interest inward rather than toward the external world and consequently is quiet, reserved, cautious, and slow to react to external events

James-Lange theory of emotion – the theory which postulates that the perception of bodily changes is emotion

Kinesthesia – the sense of body movement and position

Latent content of dreams – according to Freud, the unconscious wishes, primarily derived from unresolved early emotional conflicts, veiled by symbolic images in dreams

Limbic system – a system that is involved in emotional behaviour

Long-term memory – the type of memory storage capable of storing a limitless amount of information indefinitely

Lucid dreams – dreams in which a person is aware that he or she is dreaming

Maintenance rehearsal – a form of rehearsal to maintain information in short-time memory

Major depression – one or more depressive episodes with no intervening episodes of euphoria

Manifest content of dreams – according to Freud, that level of content in dreams that is a weaving of daily events, sensations during sleep, and memories

Meditation – the change of consciousness by retraining attention

Memory – 1) repository of our accumulated knowledge of specific and general things; 2) the process of memorizing and remembering

Metacognition – an understanding of the cognitive processes

Metamemory – knowledge about how one's own memory works

Metaneeds – the highest motives having to do with creativity and self-actualization

Mnemonic (memory-assisting) systems – systems which organize information so that it can be remembered

Motivation – the process corresponding to the property of behaviour called “motive”

Motive – the dynamic property of behaviour that causes it to be initiated, gives it organization over time, defines its end states, and influences its vigour and persistence

Motor neurons – cells that control muscle movements

Multiple personality – a division into two or more complete behaviour organizations, each well-defined and highly distinct from the others

Natural categories – categories made up of some class of objects in the world (male vs female) which are typically fuzzy, consisting of a prototype

Nerves – bundles of neuron fibers

Neurons – nerve cells adapted to transmit information by means of electro-chemical impulses

Neuropsychology – the study of the connections between the nervous and endocrine system

Neurosis – any condition in which a person develops some maladaptive behaviour as a protection against unconscious anxiety

Norms – a society rules that prescribe “right” and “wrong” behaviour

Obedience – any behaviour that complies with the explicit commands of a person in authority

Obsession – a recurring irrational thought

Oedipal conflict – the most important conflict in the child's psychological development, in which children perceive themselves as rivals of their same-sex parents for the affection of the parent of the opposite sex

Olfaction – the sense of smell

Olfaction epithelium – the sense organ for olfaction

Optic nerve – the nerve that relays visual information to the brain

Organism – the total range of a person's possible experiences

Pain thresholds – points at which pains are first perceived

Panic attack – a brief period during which tension and anxiety become completely disabling

Panic disorder – panic attacks preceded by no specific stimulus

Parapsychology – the psychology of events that go beyond what is probable

Parasympathetic nervous system – part of the nervous system, which conserves energy functioning during normal or relaxed situations

Perception – is an organism's awareness of, or response to, objects and events in the environment brought about by stimulation of its sense organs

Perceptual set – a readiness to attend to and perceive certain stimuli in a specific way and to ignore other stimuli

Peripheral nervous system – part of the nervous system that carries our commands from the central nervous system

Personality – the organization of a person's cognitive, motivational, and social characteristics

Personality disorder – disorder involving inflexible and maladaptive personality traits that impair functioning

Personality Psychology – the study of the relation between the individual attitudes and behaviour

Personnel Psychology – a branch of industrial psychology. Personnel psychologists screen job applicants, evaluate job performance, and recommend employees for promotion

Phobia – anxiety that is irrationally focused on a particular object or situation

Physiological Psychology – the approach to psychology that attempts to untangle the connections between the endocrine and nervous systems and behaviour

Pragmatics – the study of linguistic function

Primary drive – an important natural human need which must be fulfilled

Progressive relaxation – a technique for reducing physiological arousal through deep breathing and muscle relaxation

Proposition – the form in which the thought occurs in our consciousness consisting of a subject with a predicate

Prosocial behaviour – action intended to benefit another person, taken without expectation of external reward, and generally involving some cost of the individual

Prototype – central core which encompasses the very best examples of the concept

Psychiatrist — a physician who specializes in the diagnosis and treatment of mental illness

Psychoactive drug — a drug that interacts with the central nervous system to alter mood, perception, and behaviour

Psychoanalysis — the process by which Freud attempted to bring unconscious material into the patient's awareness, where it could be examined rationally

Psycholinguistics — the field of psychology which studies the language function, or how it is used

Psychological test — an objective and standardized measure of a sample of behaviour that provides a systematic basis for making inferences about people

Psychology — the study of behaviour

Psychopharmacology — the study of the relationship between the drugs and behaviour

Psychosis — a condition in which the person's perceptions of reality are highly distorted

Psychotherapy — a systematic series of interactions between a therapist trained to aid in solving psychological problems and a person who is troubled or who is troubling others

Psychotic disorder — a disorder characterized by a generalized failure of functioning in all areas of a person's life

Puberty — the period of sexual maturation that transforms a child into a physical adult

Range — the difference between the smallest and the largest scores in a statistical distribution

Reality anxiety — in Freud's terms, anxiety over danger that comes from the outside world

Receptor neurons — cells that receive sensory information from the environment

Reflexes — immediate or involuntary responses to stimuli

Regression — defense mechanism in which a person returns to an earlier stage of development in response to some perceived threat

Rehearsal — mental repetition through which old material can be retained

Repression — the fundamental defense mechanism, one that keeps threatening thoughts and memories from consciousness and pushes them back into the unconscious

Resistance – a client's attempts to block the therapist's treatment

Retention – the process by which we maintain information in storage in our memory

Retrieval – the process by which we get information out of storage and bring it back into our awareness

Role taking – being able to imagine oneself in another's place

Schemas – the organized cluster of knowledge about any topic which improves comprehension for material that fits the schema

Schizophrenia – a group of disorders characterized by thought disturbance that may be accompanied by delusions, hallucinations, attention deficits, and bizarre motor activity

School psychology – the study of children who have learning or emotional problems

Secondary trait – a characteristic mode of behaviour that is less prominent than a central trait and is seen in fewer situations

Selective attention – the kind of attention when people choose which material will be registered

Self – the parts of the total range of a person's possible experiences that the individual recognizes and accepts

Self-actualization – fulfillment of an individual's capabilities

Self-monitoring – controlling our words, actions, and non-verbal displays of emotion so as to create a favourable impression

Sensory memory – the momentary persistence of sensory information after stimulation has ceased

Short-time memory – a temporary form of memory that lasts about fifteen seconds; it's also known as active or primary memory

Social cognition – the child's understanding of the social world and the process by which the child comes to understand why people behave the way they do in social situations

Social influence – waiting for others to define the situation as an emergency

Social interest – the inborn desire to strive for the public good

Social psychology – the study of the behaviour of people in groups

Socialization – the process of absorbing society's attitudes, values, and customs

Sociopath – one who is indifferent to the rights of others

Somatic nervous system – part of the nervous system, which senses and acts on the external world

Speech act — an utterance

Stimulant — a drug that increases heart rate, blood pressure, and muscle tension by stimulating the central nervous system

Stimulus — any form of energy that can evoke a response

Stress — 1) any stimulus that places a strain on a person's physical or psychological capacity to adjust; 2) an internal response to some disruptive or disquieting situation

Subjects — human beings or other animals that are the source of responses in an experiment

Superego — according to Freud, that part of the personality that represents the moral standards of the society as conveyed to the child by the parents

Survey — method of collecting data in which researchers obtain information about people's characteristics, attitudes, opinions, or behaviour by asking them questions

Sympathetic nervous system — a part of the nervous system, which expends energy in coping with stressful situations

Taste buds — the structures in the mouth and tongue that contain receptor cells for taste stimuli

Temperament — the individual's pattern of activity, response to stimuli, and general mood

Theory — a system of rules or assumptions about natural phenomena that can be used to predict future events or to explain how these phenomena work

Trait — a particular quality of a person

Transference — a client's transfer to the analyst of childhood feelings toward important people in his or her life, particularly with the parents

Traumatic — psychologically damaging

Two-factor theory of emotion — the theory which postulates that the labeling of an emotion is based on a physiological change plus a cognitive interpretation of that change

Type A personalities — people who are highly competitive, hostile when thwarted, and always seem to be working against the pressures of time

Unconditioned response — an unlearned response to a stimulus

Unconditioned stimulus — a stimulus that evokes a response without having been learned

Unconscious — an aspect of personality unknown to the mind of the subject

Uniformity – common features or behaviour shared by almost all members of a given group

Verbal encoding – naming or verbally describing material to be stored into short-term memory

Vestibular sense – the sense of balance

Visual cortex – area of brain most involved in receiving and analyzing visual information

Weber's law – the law stating that the amount of stimulus needed to produce a just noticeable difference is a constant fraction of the intensity of the stimulus



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абстрагування – abstraction, discretion

аналіз – analysis

антагоністичний – antagonistic, opposing

античний – antique

бажання – wish

блаженство – bliss, felicity

боязкість – dread, fear

буття – being, existence

вестибулярний – vestibular

вдача – humour

взаємозв'язок – correlation, interdependence

вибірковий – selective

виконувати – to carry out, to fulfil

виникати – to appear

виокремлювати – to single out

вирівнювання – smoothing

витримка – self-control, endurance

виховання – education, upbringing

вища нервова діяльність – higher nervous activity

вияв – exposure

виявити, встановити – to detect

відбивати – to reflect

відновлювати (у пам'яті) – to retrieve

відношення – relation

відображення – reflection, representation

відповідальність – responsibility

відповідно до – according to

відтворювати – to retrieve

відчуття – sensation

відв'язаний (про значення) – abstract

віра – faith, belief

вічність – eternity

властивість – property; characteristics

вольовий – volitional

воля – will

впливати – to influence, to affect

вроджений – innate

всупереч – in spite of, despite

вчення – studies

вчинок – action, deed

дані – data
ділитися – split
довільний – arbitrary, free
довготривалий – long-term
дозрівання – maturation
допитливість – curiosity
дотик – touch
доцільність – appropriateness, aptness
духовний – spiritual
душа – soul

емоція – emotion
емоційний – emotional

жест – gesture

завдяки – thanks to, due to, owing to
задовольнити потребу – to meet the needs
закономірність – regularity
закріплення – attaching
закріплюватися – to be attached to
замкненість – reticence, reserve
запам'ятовувати – to memorize
запам'ятовувати механічно – to rote
засвоювати – to learn, to adopt
захворювання – illness, disease
захисний – protective
збагнути – to comprehend, to understand
збереження – retention, storage
збуджуватися – to be excited
звукова хвиля – sound wave
зв'язок – connection
здатність – ability, faculty
здібність – ability, aptitude, capacity
зміст – content, substance, matter
знання – knowledge
значення – meaning
значущий – significant, meaningful

знижувати – to lower, to reduce
зовнішній – external
зоровий – visual
зумовлювати – to cause
зусилля – effort

індивід – individual
інстинкт – instinct, urge
істота – being, creature

кінестетичний – kinaesthetic
коливання – vibration
компонент – component
координація рівноваги – balance, coordination
короткочасний – short-term

латентний – latent, hidden, hedged

меланхолійний – melancholy, melancholic
мимовільний – involuntary, reflex
мислення – thinking
мисленнєва операція – thought operation
мова – language
мовлення – speech
мораль – morality
мотив – motive

навіювання – evoking
навичка – skill
навчання – learning
надавати перевагу – to prefer
надбання, набуття – acquisition
надбудувати – superstructure
наділяти – to endow with
надцінний – supervalued
намагання – attempt, endeavour
наполегливість – persistence
наслідок – consequence, result
настрій – mood

начало – origin, entity
наявність – availability, presence
неадекватний – inadequate
невід’ємний – inseparable
недосконалий – unaccomplished
необачний – imprudent
необмежений – unlimited, unrestricted
неповторний – unique
нервовий імпульс/ сигнал – neural impulse/ signal
нескінченний – endless, infinite
нестриманий – uncontrolled
носій – bearer
носова порожнина – nasal cavity
нюховий – olfactory

обґрунтування – substantiation
образ – image
обробляти – to process
оволодіння – mastering
ознака – feature, characteristics
опосередкований – indirect
органи відчуття – sense organs
органічний – organic, natural, biological
освоєння – exploration
осмислений – sensible
особистий – personal, private
особистість – personality
оточення – environment
охоплювати – to include, to embrace
оцінювати – to assess, to evaluate

пам’ять (смілова/ механічна) – memory (generic/ skill)
певний – definite
перебільшувати – to exaggerate
переважно – mainly, chiefly
передбачати – to predict, to foresee
переломлюватися – to be refracted, to be interpreted
перемістити, передавати – to transfer
передаватися, успадковувати – to be inherited, to be passed on

перепона – obstacle, barrier
підкорятися – to submit to, to obey
підвладний – subject to
пізнавальний – cognitive
пізнання – cognition
поводитися – to behave
пов'язувати – to connect, to link
подолання – overcoming
подразник – stimulus
подумки – in mind
поживний, харчовий – nutritional
показник – quality, index
покоління – generation
покращити – enhance
положення (погляд, гіпотеза) – speculation
поняття – concept
попередній – preceding
порівняння – comparison, grading
послаблювати – to weaken
потреба – necessity, need
потяг – incentive, drive
похідний – derivative
походження – origin
почуттєвий – sensory
прагнення – aspiration, striving
приємний – pleasant, agreeable
приспосовуватися – to adapt oneself, to adjust oneself
пристрасть – passion
притаманний – characteristic, inherent
прихильність – sympathy, disposition
провідний – leading, guiding
провина – fault
проводити дослідження з – to conduct research into
проникнутий – penetrated
протиборство – contradiction
протиставляти – to oppose, to contrast
прояв – manifestation
психіка – psychics

психічний – psychic

речовина – substance

реагувати – to respond

реакція – response, reaction

рецептор – receptor

рівновага – balance

різноманітний – diverse, various

рід – thing

рішучий – resolute, decisive

рішучість – resolution, firmness

розвиватися – to evolve

розкривати – to disclose

розмір – size

розпад – disintegration

розрізняти – to discriminate

розумний, раціональний – rational

розумовий – mental, intellectual

ротова порожнина – mouth cavity

руховий – motive

самовладання – self-control, self-possession

самосвідомість – self-awareness

сангвінічний – sanguine

свідомість – consciousness

свідомий, умотивований – conscious

сила тяжіння – pull of gravity

синтез – synthesis

складний – complex, intricate

складник – constituent

словесний – verbal

слуховий – auditory, acoustic

слабнути, стиратися (про пам'ять) – to fade

смаковий – gustatory

смысл – sense, meaning, point

смысловий – semantic

спілкування, зв'язок – communication, lifeline

спонукання – incentive, motive
спостерігати – observe
спотворювати – to distort
сприймання – perception, apprehension
сприймати – to perceive, to apprehend
спрямовувати – to direct, to turn
ставлення – attitude, treatment
стан – state
стосунки – relations, terms
страждання – suffering
стриманість – restraint
субстанція – substance
судження – opinion, statement, judgment
сукупність – totality
сумісність – compatibility
супроводжуватися – to be accompanied by
суть – essence, gist
схильність – inclination, disposition

темперамент – temperament
тілесний – physical
тон – hue
травмувати – to hurt, to shock
тривалий – durable, lasting, permanent
тривалість – duration, length
тривалість життя – life span

узагальнений – generalized
усвідомлений – cognizant, comprehended
усталений – steady, stable, constant
установка – aim, purpose
утримувати, зберігати (у пам'яті) – to retain
уявлення – conception, idea
уява – imagination
фіксувати (про пам'ять) – to register
флегматичний – phlegmatic
форма – shape

характер – character
характеризувати – to characterize
характеристика – characteristic, description
холеричний – choleric

цілеспрямованість – goal-directedness
цілісний – integral

чинник – factor
чіткий – distinct, clear, accurate
чутливість – sensitivity

явище – phenomenon



СПИСОК ВИКОРИСТАНОЇ ТА РЕКОМЕНДОВАНОЇ ЛІТЕРАТУРИ

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The proposed tutorial is composed of 9 sections, 3 addenda, an English glossary and a Ukrainian-English dictionary of the most frequently used expressions and psychological terms. Each section contains a reference text of a professional nature, an active vocabulary, a set of lexical and grammatical exercises designed to help take in a new material, exercises of a communicative character to develop spoken language skills, exercises relating to translation and abstract excerpts from texts on professional topics into English. The addenda contain exercises of extra complexity, additional texts for independent work of students and an English commented dictionary for the most typical phobias.

The material is selected in accordance with the business English curriculum and intended for students learning psychology as their area of concentration and profession.

Навчальне видання
Одарчук Сергій Іванович
Одарчук Наталія Андріївна
АНГЛІЙСЬКА МОВА ДЛЯ ПСИХОЛОГІВ
Навчальний посібник

Educational edition
Odarchuk, Serhiy I.
Odarchuk, Natalia A.
ENGLISH FOR PSYCHOLOGISTS
Educational manual

Відповідальний редактор *С. Г. Рогузько*

Редактор *Л. В. Логвиненко*

Комп'ютерне верстання *Т. В. Кулік*

Оформлення обкладинки *О. О. Стеценко*

Підп. до друку 09.11.05. Формат 60x84/16. Папір офсетний. Друк офсетний.
Ум. друк. арк. 11,62. Обл.-вид. арк. 12,7. Тираж 3000 пр. Зам. № 6-055

Міжрегіональна Академія управління персоналом (МАУП)
03039 Київ-39, вул. Фрометівська, 2, МАУП

Свідоцтво про внесення до Державного реєстру суб'єктів видавничої справи
ДК № 8 від 23.02.2000

Друкарня ТОВ "Техніка ЛТД"
03062 Київ-62, вул. Чистяківська, 32

Свідоцтво ДК № 54 від 17.04.2000