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РОССИЙСКОЙ ФЕДЕРАЦИИ

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Издание состоит из пяти разделов и охватывает такие актуальные темы, как история психологии, становление психологии как науки, личность и характер человека, аномальная психология и др. Отражены современные тенденции и требования к обучению практическому владению иностранным языком в повседневном общении и в профессиональной сфере. Для закрепления изученного материала приведены лексико-грамматические упражнения и вопросы для контроля понимания и активизации устной речи. Языковой материал представлен в коммуникативной форме, большое внимание уделено развитию навыков чтения, говорения и письма.

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1. THE ORIGINS OF PSYCHOLOGY

1. Read the article about psychology and decide what the main point is in each paragraph. Memorize the *italicized* words and phrases.

What is Psychology?

The term psychology can be broken down into its *root words* that are Greek. Psyche means “*mind*” or “*soul*.” Logos means “the study of.” Psychology is the study of *mental processes* and *human behavior*. Psychology consists of the following scientific steps:

- ✓ Collecting facts.
- ✓ Developing theories and hypotheses to explain the facts.
- ✓ Testing the theories.



What Makes Psychology a Science?

To support psychology as a *science*, we turn to the idea of *empirical evidence*. Empirical evidence can be supported and verified by way of *observation* and experience, as opposed to simply relying on *logic or theory*.

Through empirical evidence, psychologists can understand human behavior because of observation. Since the mind cannot be directly observed, it is through actions that psychologists can better grasp what may be happening in the mind.

Going deeper, Psychology leverages the following:

✓ Reasoning: Psychologists rely on *scientific reasoning* to interpret and design psychological research and interpret phenomena.

✓ Discipline: at the core of psychology sits the *scientific method*. Psychologists conduct studies and contribute to research based on verifiable evidence.

✓ Research: like traditional science, psychologists use quantitative and qualitative research methods that are necessary for performing analysis and drawing conclusions.

✓ Application: to practise psychology in a practical setting, students must complete *further education* beyond a bachelor's degree. In most

cases, a psychologist will need *to obtain a PhD*. This advanced education will consist of research skills and advanced knowledge and application of the scientific method.

Key Characteristics of a Science

To define any field as a science, it generally will cover these key elements:

✓ **Objectivity:** when conducting any study, researchers must remain *unbiased and objective*. They cannot let their own emotions and feelings enter the process. Additionally, while it's not always possible to fully remove bias, it is necessary to minimize it as much as possible. That's a main key of science.

✓ **Empirical evidence:** evidence is collected through experiments and observations. Again, this negates the entry of belief. While data is collected, the information is diligently recorded so that other researchers can review the validity and the process.

✓ **Control:** in order *to deduce cause and effect* (independent variables and dependent variables), variables must be controlled.

✓ **Hypothesis testing:** to start off the process, an observation is made. Then, scientists, academics, and researchers create their hypothesis, which is a prediction that's rooted in theory. These hypotheses should be clearly stated and then tested through unbiased experiments.

✓ **Predictability:** based on the findings of research, scientists should technically be able *to forecast and predict the future*.

✓ **Replication:** when scientists develop experiments, they should be verified if the outcomes are the same given different variables. When the same results occur based on the same conditions, then that provides *credibility and accuracy* to the findings, which can give way to the creation of a *scientific theory or discovery*.

<https://www.uopeople.edu>

2. Complete the following sentences from 1.

1. The term psychology can be broken down into its root words that are ...

2. Psyche means “mind” or “soul.” Logos means ...

3. Psychology is the study of mental processes and ...

4. Psychologists can understand human behavior because of ...

5. Since the mind cannot be directly observed, psychologists can better understand what is happening in the mind through...

6. To practise psychology in a practical setting, students must complete further education beyond ...

3. Read the headline. Guess if a–i below are true (T) or false (F).

a	The term psychology can be broken down into its root words that are Latin	T/F
b	Psychology is the study of mental processes and human behavior	T/F
c	Psychology never collects facts	T/F
d	To support psychology as a science, we turn to the idea of empirical evidence	T/F
e	Through empirical evidence, psychologists can understand human behavior because of experiments	T/F
f	Like traditional science, psychologists use quantitative and qualitative research methods that are necessary for performing analysis and drawing conclusions	T/F
g	Students must not complete further education beyond a bachelor's degree	T/F
h	When conducting any study, researchers must not remain objective	T/F
i	Scientists, academics, and researchers create their hypothesis, which is a prediction that is rooted in practice	T/F

4. Match the following synonyms from the article.

1. mind	a. study
2. mental	b. watch
3. science	c. manners
4. observation	d. activity
5. behaviour	e. academic
6. action	f. test
7. scientist	g. unfair
8. experiment	h. create
9. biased	i. forecast
10. develop	j. opening
11. prediction	k. unstable
12. discovery	l. correctness
13. variable	m. psychic ['saɪkɪk]
14. accuracy	n. brain

5. Match the two parts. Sometimes more than one choice is possible.

1. The term psychology can be broken down into its root words that are Greek. Psyche means	a. the idea of empirical evidence.
2. To support psychology as a science, we turn to	b. “mind” or “soul.”
3. Since the mind cannot be directly observed, it is through actions that psychologists can better grasp what	c. method
4. At the core of psychology sits the scientific	d. may be happening in the mind.
5. In order to deduce cause and effect (independent variables and dependent variables), variables must	e. be controlled
6. Scientists, academics, and researchers create their hypothesis, which is	f. unbiased experiments.
7. These hypotheses should be clearly stated and then tested through	g. credibility and accuracy to the findings
8. When the same results occur based on the same conditions, then that provides	h. a prediction that’s rooted in theory

6. Order the letters to make phrases.

- 1)root *dwsor*;
- 2)human *horbeavi*;
- 3)empirical *nevidcee*;
- 4)logic or *ryothe*;
- 5)*fscieicnti* reasoning;
- 6)research *modseth*;
- 7)unbiased and *oivebjeet*;
- 8)cause and *ectffe*;
- 9)credibility and *curacyac*;
- 10)scientific theory or *yscoverdi*.

7. Spend two minutes writing down all of the different words you associate with the word “science” and “scientist”. Share your words

with your partner(s) and talk about them. Together, put the words into different categories.

e.g.: exact science, pure science, social sciences, applied science, science museum, scientist of worldwide reputation, nuclear scientist, political scientist, etc.

8. Read the article about origins of psychology and decide what the main point is in each paragraph. Memorize the *italicized* words and phrases.

The Origins of Psychology From Philosophical Beginnings to the Modern Day

While the psychology of today reflects the discipline's *rich and varied history*, the origins of psychology differ significantly from *contemporary conceptions* of the field. In order to gain a full understanding of psychology, you need to spend some time exploring its history and origins.

- ✓ How did psychology originate?
- ✓ When did it begin?
- ✓ Who were the people responsible for establishing psychology as *a separate science*?

Why Study Psychology History?

Contemporary psychology is interested in a large range of topics, looking at *human behavior* and mental process from the neural level to the cultural level. Psychologists study human issues that begin before birth and continue until death. By understanding the history of psychology, you can gain a better understanding of how these topics are studied and what we have already learnt.

From the earliest beginnings, psychology has been faced with some questions. The first question is how *to define psychology*. This question helped establish it as a science separate from physiology and philosophy. Additional questions that psychologists have faced throughout history include: Is psychology really a science?

Should psychologists use research to influence public policy, education, and other aspects of *human behavior*? Should psychology focus on observable behaviors, or on *internal mental processes*? What research methods should be used to study psychology? Which topics and issues should psychology be concerned with?

Background: Philosophy and Physiology

While psychology did not emerge as a separate discipline until the late 1800s, its earliest history can be traced back to the time of the early Greeks. During the 17th century, the French philosopher Rene Descartes introduced the idea of dualism, which asserted that *the mind and body* were two entities that interact to form the human experience.

So, what makes psychology different from philosophy? While early philosophers relied on methods such as observation and logic, today's psychologists utilize scientific methodologies to study and draw conclusions about human thought and behavior.

Physiology also contributed to psychology's eventual emergence as a scientific discipline. Early physiological research on the brain and behavior had a dramatic impact on psychology, contributing to applying *scientific methodologies* to the study of human thought and behavior.

9. Match the descriptions to the words

1. It is the science of mind and behavior. It includes the study of conscious and unconscious phenomena, as well as feeling and thought	a. history
2. It is the study and the documentation of the past	b. psychology
3. It is the range of actions and mannerisms made by individuals, organisms, systems or artificial entities in some environment	c. experience
4. It is a systematic endeavor that builds and organizes knowledge in the form of testable explanations and predictions about the universe	d. behaviour
5. It is creative and systematic work undertaken to increase the stock of knowledge. It involves the collection, organization, and analysis of information to increase understanding of a topic or issue	e. science
6. It is the set of faculties responsible for all mental phenomena	f. research
7. It refers to conscious events in general, more specifically to the practical knowledge and familiarity that is produced by these conscious processes	g. mind
8. It is the scientific study of functions and mechanisms in a living system. It focuses on how organisms, organ systems, individual organs, cells, and biomolecules carry out the chemical and physical functions in a living system	h. physiology

10. Use the correct form of the Past Simple tense.

Psychology Emerges as a Separate Discipline

During the mid-1800s, a German physiologist named Wilhelm Wundt ... (use) scientific research methods to investigate reaction times. His book ... (publish) in 1873 and (call) “Principles of Physiological Psychology”. The book ... (outline) many of the major connections between the science of physiology and the study of human thought and behavior.

He later ... (open) the world’s first psychology lab in 1879 at the University of Leipzig. This event is generally considered the official start of psychology as a separate and distinct scientific discipline.

How ... Wundt ... (view) psychology? He ... (perceive) the subject as the study of human consciousness and sought to apply experimental methods to studying internal mental processes. While his use of a process known as introspection is seen as unreliable and unscientific today, his early work in psychology ... (help) set the stage for future experimental methods.

About 17,000 students ... (attend) Wundt’s psychology lectures, and hundreds more ... (do) degrees in psychology and ... (study) in his psychology lab. While his influence ... (dwindle) as the field matured, his impact on psychology is unquestionable.

11. Work with a partner. Look at the titles of the articles. Predict what each article is about.

What Kind of Genius Are You? by Daniel H. Pink

What Makes Us Happy? by Joshua Wolf Shenk

Adventures in Depression by Allie Brosh

What the World Will Speak in 2115 by John McWhorter

12. Complete the sentences with the words from the box. Give the main idea of the article.

Technologies / century / function / discoveries / impulses / brain / mysteries / levels / life / at rest

We live in the 21st ..., in the age of high ... and regular scientific ... Scientific progress affects all areas of human... . People study the whole

world around them and, most importantly – themselves. We are looking for the hidden capabilities of our bodies and the potential that we have. The most significant interest for scientists is the ... – the organ that controls all processes in the body, the organ of thought. Perhaps, it is even one of the biggest ... of nature.

Many people think that when we are silent, our brain does not work and is ... This is not true: the brain is constantly actively working, even when someone is not talking. Moreover, its primary ... is to continually generate and transmit nerve... .

The next myth about our brain is that people often incorrectly believe that after 25 years, all the changes that occur with the brain are exclusively negative. The human brain has an excellent and unique neuroplasticity. Therefore, it can change at the chemical and structural ... to support effective mental activity. For example, the brain can increase the number of chemical signals between neurons. Therefore, the human brain can change positively in adulthood.

2. PERSONALITY PSYCHOLOGY

1. Read the article about personality psychology and decide what the main point is in each paragraph. Memorize the *italicized* words and phrases.

What Is Personality Psychology?

Personality psychology is a *branch* of psychology that focuses on understanding different aspects of *human personality*. The field of personality psychology seeks to understand what causes different personality *traits*. It also works to understand, *diagnose*, and *treat problems* with personality, which are known as *personality disorders*.



Why Is Personality Psychology Important?

Personality psychology helps people better understand the factors that play a role in personality. It also allows us to know more about how certain personality characteristics affect behavior. For example, some traits are linked to higher levels of happiness and well-being. Some traits are connected to greater *longevity*, while others are linked to an increased *risk of illness*.

According to the American Psychological Association, the study of personality focuses on two main areas. The first involves studying how individuals differ in terms of different personality characteristics. The second focuses on understanding how different aspects of personality function together to create *a cohesive whole*.

Personality psychology also helps *mental health professionals* understand disorders related to personality, such as *borderline personality disorder** and *narcissistic personality disorder***.

2. Translate the sentences into Russian. Mind the words and phrases from 1.

1. Ethics is *a branch* of philosophy. Botany is *a branch* of biology.

* borderline personality disorder – пограничная психопатия;

** narcissistic personality disorder – нарциссическое расстройство личности

2. I was impressed by the force of her *personality*.
3. His sense of humour is one of his best *traits*.
4. The doctor was unable *to diagnose* the problem.
5. The doctor *treated* my broken leg.
6. Don't worry, the genetic *disorder* is not transmissible from one generation to the next.
7. Better medical treatment leads to *greater longevity*.
8. They worked hard to reduce *the risk of illness*.
9. We had to unite the competing groups into *a cohesive whole*.
10. His physical and *mental health* got worse last year.
11. He is concerned about his sister's *mental health*.
12. She's obviously *mentally ill*.

3. Complete the sentences with the correct present simple or past simple form of the verbs in brackets. Explain your choice of the tense.

1. Some of the best-known theories in psychology ... (devote) to understanding and explaining how personality develops.
2. Sigmund Freud ... (suggest) that personality develops through a series of five psychosexual stages.
3. Freud ... (believe) that early childhood experiences play a pivotal role in the formation of personality.
4. Erik Erikson ... (be) a theorist who suggested that personality develops through a series of eight psychosocial stages. At each stage, people ... (face) a developmental conflict that plays a role in developing psychological virtues.
5. While Freud's theory stressed that personality is formed mostly in early childhood, Erikson ... (outline) that a person's personality continues to develop throughout life.
6. Humanistic psychology ... (be) a perspective that stresses the positive side of human nature.
7. Trait theories of personality suggest that personality ... (include) several different traits or broad dispositions.

4. Read the questions. What do you think the article is about?

1. Is heredity a fixed and precise course of the personality of any person?
2. Are there specific genes that determine personality, and is it possible to predict how a child's character will develop?
3. What does it mean when we see significant differences in personality traits in the same family and in the same environment?

5. Read the article below. Choose the appropriate question in Ex. 4 for each gap.

Human Character

A _____

However, heredity doesn't alter the human character without assistance. For now, we can only conclude that there are genes that are responsible for normal personality traits, similar to the genes that govern different aspects of human makeup and function. If in the same family and the same environment, we see significant variations in personality traits, then we can attribute them, at the very least, to different genes.

B _____

It is also possible to speculate that some of the familial similarities influence the personality genetically. But we're far from identifying particular genes that define personality and assessing their impact or making predictions about how the character of any given child will be based on the foundation of the information we have about their parents. But according to a report in the news (Times of India, January 3, 1996), scientists have discovered an impulsivity gene that can affect as well as excitability and extravagance.

C _____

In essence, heredity should not be a fixed and precise course for any person's personality. In the end, what one inherits is the possibilities for a range of people. The exact way in which one will "jell" is dependent on the circumstances. Ogburn and Nimkoff write, "It is a mistake to believe, as many endocrine fans claim, that the glands are responsible for the entirety of a person's personality. This includes many things, such as one's opinions, one's behavior, and skills." It is also possible to over- or under-activate certain types of hormones by injecting specific kinds of hormones, which can alter the personality of a person. Also, one could argue that the available evidence is not in support of the dogmatic notion that personality is transmitted through genes.

6. Match the descriptions (A–E) to the determinants of personality (1–5). Tell the class more about each of them.

1. Biological factors.
2. Cultural factors.
3. Family factors.
4. Social factors.
5. Situational factors.

A. These factors of personality are very important for the formation of human personality. Children are born in a family; inherit many traits and features from their parents. Children get physical and psychological characteristics from their parents which becomes a part of their personalities. Some of the inherited traits are courage, coward, intelligence, weakness etc. This factor separates individuals from one another and their various physical characteristics except identical twins having the same physical qualities. So, these factors of personality are responsible for the development of personality.

B. These factors are very important determinants of behavior of a person. Culture is the complex form of beliefs, values and techniques for dealing with the environment which are shared among people and transmitted from one generation to the next.

C. At all stages of life, it plays a major role in influencing the personality of individuals, both directly and indirectly. It offers different child-training methods that are used to shape a child's personality, and shows how the members communicate their interest, attitude and values. All these aspects directly influence personality.

D. There is increasing recognition given to the role of other relevant persons, groups and especially organizations, which greatly influence an individual's personality. This is commonly called the socialization process.

E. Human personality is also influenced by these factors. The effect of the environment is quite strong. Knowledge, skill and language are obviously acquired and represent important modifications of behavior. An individual's personality, while generally stable and consistent, changes in different situations.

7. Read the text and give the main idea of the text in English. Memorize the *italicized* words and phrases.

What Is Burnout?

Excessive and *prolonged stress* can cause a state of emotional, physical and mental *exhaustion* known as burnout. It occurs when you drained feel emotionally and you can not meet the constant demands that are placed on you. As the stress continues you start *to lose interest and motivation* in some or all aspects of your life.

Burnout may suck your energy, *reduce your productivity* and leave you feeling more and more *helpless, hopeless and cynical*. It can eventually lead to you feeling like you have nothing more to give.

Burnout doesn't just affect your work life; it may also affect your home and social life. It can cause long term changes to your body which could make you more *vulnerable to illnesses* such as a cold and the flu. Due to its many *consequences and effects*, it is important *to deal with burnout* immediately.

You may have days when you feel helpless and miserable and even days when it is hard to get out of bed and deal with everyday life. However, if these feelings occur every day, then you may be experiencing burnout.

Burnout doesn't happen overnight; it is a slow process that can *creep up on you* if you are unaware of the signs. These signs can be subtle to begin with, but as time goes on, they *get worse*. If you actively try to address these signs you can *prevent a major breakdown*, if you don't, you may eventually burn out. These signs can be *physical, emotional and behavioural*.

8. Translate the following sentences into Russian. Use the *italicized* vocabulary from 7.

1. *Prolonged stress*, also known as chronic stress, is a long-term physiological response that can have serious health problems if it is not treated.

2. She was taken into hospital suffering from *exhaustion* brought on by stress.

3. Studies show that if a working environment is pleasant, you never *reduce your productivity*.

4. Is your work making you more *vulnerable to illnesses*?

5. Everything we think and say and do has *consequences* for ourselves and for others.

6. How can you *deal with burnout* once it has happened?

7. The worst thing about stress is how it *creeps up on* people.

8. The way she is living now, she'll have *a nervous breakdown*.

9. You'll *burn yourself out* if you work too hard

10. Family breakdown can lead to *behavioural* problems in children.

9. Work in small groups. Look at the list of things that lead people to burnout. Describe their physical and mental conditions using the words from the box.

sleeping problems / chronic exhaustion / forgetfulness / mental issues / physical health issues / frustration / pessimism / difficulty to focus / headaches / high blood pressure / isolation / loss of joy



- ✓ accounting period;
- ✓ doing overtime;
- ✓ social pressure;
- ✓ feeling overloaded;
- ✓ unfair treatment;
- ✓ perfectionism;
- ✓ fear of losing a job;
- ✓ psychological instability;
- ✓ high expectations.

10. Look at the picture. Is the young man feeling burned-out, emotionally drained, or mentally exhausted? Work with your partner. What can people do to regain their balance and feel positive and hopeful again?



11. Read the article and answer the questions.

Is Losing Interest and Motivation Inevitable as We Age?

Many of us have the experience of losing interest in some of the activities that excited us in the past. This is expected as our lives change and we experience new things. However, some people have a more general decrease in their ability to experience pleasure in activities they used to find enjoyable. Psychologists refer to this as anhedonia.

Anhedonia can look different in different people. Some individuals have little motivation to put any effort into doing activities they used to enjoy. For example, someone who previously enjoyed gardening now no longer has interest in the activity. Other individuals might have the motivation to



get started, but they find that they are getting little or no pleasure from the activity. To use the gardening example, the individual might continue to garden but no longer find it enjoyable or fulfilling. In both cases, the person is not experiencing pleasure or a sense of reward from their activities.

Anhedonia is an important, but often overlooked, mental health concern in older adults. Research has shown that anhedonia increases with age; in fact, as many as 1/3 of older adults experience symptoms of anhedonia. Even though anhedonia is common in older adults, it is not an inevitable part of aging!

1. Why do some people find themselves with a sudden loss of interest in life?
2. Do you think it is important to talk to a doctor or mental health professional about how you are feeling?
3. What shall we do if older adults in our families begin to withdraw from their favorite activities and seem to lose interest in life?
4. What feelings can cause people to lose interest in activities they used to enjoy?

12. Choose the correct word to complete each sentence.

Here are some important facts to consider if you think you or someone you know has symptoms of anhedonia:

1. Anhedonia might be the only (**symptom** / **sign**), or it can be part of another disorder. Anhedonia is a key feature of psychological disorders such as (**depression** / **depressive**) and schizophrenia, as well as neurological disorders such as Parkinson's (**disease** / **sickness**). Older adults with depression are more likely to have symptoms of anhedonia than

*Anhedonia |anhɪ'dəʊniə| – полное равнодушие к радостям жизни

the sad (**mood / moody**) that comes to mind when we think of depression. However, anhedonia can also occur in healthy older adults.

2. Anhedonia increases the risk for negative (**outcomes / incomes**). Studies show that individuals with anhedonia are at risk for cognitive deficits, (**disability / disabled**), and poor clinical outcomes. People with anhedonia are more likely to have difficulty performing everyday (**activities / actions**) such as managing their schedule and medications, driving, and cooking. In depression, people with more severe symptoms of anhedonia tend to respond less to depression treatment and have more persistent depressive symptoms.

3. Anhedonia can be treated. Antidepressant (**medication / medical**) is currently the most common treatment for anhedonia, but it might not be the best treatment. Studies show that these symptoms are less (**responsive / response**) to antidepressant medication compared to other symptoms of depression.

11. Translate the sentences into Russian.

1. Talk therapy can be an alternative or complement to pharmacological treatment.

2. Cognitive behavioral therapy is a type of short-term psychotherapy that focuses on identifying and changing patterns of behavior and thoughts that impact emotions and feelings.

3. The therapist may encourage the client to engage in the activities even when they don't feel motivated, with the idea that they might experience pleasure from the activity once they get started.

4. Someone who is anxious often finds it tough to fall asleep or stay asleep. That is typical because their mind isn't at ease or is full of worrying thoughts.

5. Everyone benefits from regular exercise, especially someone who's showing signs of anhedonia.

6. Exercise can help combat stress, improve mood and sleep quality, and reduce joint pain or mobility issues.

7. Encourage your older adult to participate in pleasant physical activities like going for short morning walks or doing a simple daily exercise routine.

8. Seniors with anhedonia may find it difficult to socialize with friends and strangers alike.

9. Encourage your older adult to socialize and help them find something to look forward to each day.

10. Life is filled with both happy and sad moments. With anhedonia, it may be challenging for your older adult to focus on the good times.

11. But noticing or recalling positive events is a way to bring a smile to your adult's face.

12. Help your older adult reminisce about happy memories by looking at videos and photographs together. Ask them to share funny stories related to their life experiences.

13. Seniors with anhedonia may find it difficult to recognize and work through their emotions. This might make them frustrated, irritated, and angry with themselves.

3. SPECIALTY AREAS OF PSYCHOLOGY

1. Read the text and give the main idea of each paragraph in English. Memorize the *italicized* words and phrases.

What are the branches of psychology?

Clinical and health psychology.

This is one of the most well-known branches of psychology, if not the most, and consists of research and *intervention* focused on more or less severe psychological problems that affect people's *quality of life*. If psychological disorders have to do with mental disorders, *clinical psychologists* will work together with other health professionals in the *diagnosis*, *prognosis*, intervention and control of the psychological disorders. People who belong to this specialty of psychology offer a service called *psychotherapy* and whose form, approach and procedures can vary greatly, depending on the *psychological orientation* that one has and the tools that are available.

Educational and developmental psychology.

Almost all branches of psychology focus their attention on learning processes, but the specialization of educational psychology directs all their attention towards them.

The objective of this branch is *to apply techniques and strategies* to make learning take place in the most satisfactory way possible, ensuring that there is a good fit between learners and teachers. Furthermore, educational psychology understands the concept "education" in its broadest sense. It does not have to do only with what young people do in school, but it applies to all areas in which learning plays a leading role, whether in training courses for workers or within families and communities that must adapt to a new situation.

Industrial-organizational psychology has to do with research and intervention on workers, aiming to find strategies to make their performance level optimal taking into account their needs and the needs of the organization as a whole.

This branch of psychology refers to the discipline of *human resources*, characterized by being involved in all processes that affect the employees of an organization.

One of its facets, for example, is aimed at what makes each of the workers, individually, *perform well in their job*. It studies their *strengths*

and weaknesses, conducts ergonomic studies to check whether or not they *work comfortably*, etc.

The other facet of this type of psychology, is oriented to the work dynamics and the relationships between people that make up the organization, and therefore has to do with the work environment, *leadership studies*, resolution conflicts of interest, creating effective communication flows, etc.

Marketing and consumer psychology.

The psychology of marketing is born from the psychology of organizations, in the sense that it aims to cover the productive needs of companies. In this case, these needs provide an outlet for the products or services that are offered, making the potential demand for these be directed to the company's offer. In short, this branch of psychology focuses on research aimed at creating *attractive services and products* for the client. Therefore, it is involved in the creation of the marketing plan, the publicity and the design of the product. Among the most *valuable assets* of marketing and consumer psychology is neuromarketing, which applies neuroscience techniques to see how potential customers or consumers respond to advertising pieces, packaging designs, etc. Advertising psychologists can also play an important role in these design processes.

2. Answer the questions.

1. What does health and clinical psychology include?
2. What happens when psychological disorders have to do with mental disorders?
3. What is the objective of educational and developmental psychology?
4. Why has psychology become the foundation of education?
5. What does industrial and organizational psychology refer to?
6. What does marketing and consumer psychology focus on?

3. Translate the sentences into Russian.

Sports psychology

1. Sports psychology is a relatively young discipline in psychology; the first research lab devoted to the topic opened in 1925.

2. Sports psychology is the study of how psychological factors influence sports, athletic performance, exercise, and physical activity.

3. Sports psychologists investigate how participating in sports can improve health and well-being. They also help athletes utilize psychology to improve their athletic performance and mental wellness.

4. An educational sports psychologist uses psychological methods to help athletes improve sports performance. This includes teaching them how to use certain techniques such as imagery, goal setting, or self-talk to perform better on the court or field.

5. Clinical sports psychologists work with athletes who have mental health conditions such as depression or anxiety. This work involves using strategies from both sports psychology and psychotherapy.

6. Contemporary sports psychology is a diverse field and there are a number of different topics that are of special interest to sports psychologists, for example, attentional focus or mental toughness.

4. Consider how you and your partner answer these questions. If possible, record yourself and then listen to your answers.

- ✓ Why is sports psychology important?
- ✓ How does sports psychology help athletes?
- ✓ What can you do with a sports psychology degree?
- ✓ Where can you study sports psychology?
- ✓ How can sports psychology improve performance?

5. Work with a partner. What do you think happens in each picture? Guess.



6. Complete the sentences with the correct word in bold.

Social psychology

This is one of the most interesting branches of psychology, since it places special (**emphasis** / **emphatic**) in terms of a team and the relationships between people in a (**context** / **paragraph**). Thus, social psychology is oriented to investigate (**ways** / **paths**) in which the presence of other people (whether real or imagined) affects mental processes of the individual. It's, therefore, a (**speciality** / **specialization**) that, although it belongs to psychology, is closer to sociology than the other branches.

Neuropsychology

The (**nerve** / **nervous**) system is the base of operations for everything that has to do with our behavior, our emotions and feelings and our ability to think and communicate, so it's normal that one of the branches of psychology is oriented towards neurosciences. Neuropsychology is especially (**useful** / **useless**) in the study of (**brainy** / **brain**) injuries, malformations, dysfunctions and diseases that affect the functioning of the nervous system.

Forensic psychology

This specialty is oriented to (**discover** / **cover**) needs that appear within the judicial system. A forensic psychologist collects, analyzes and presents psychological evidence that will be taken into account in (**legal** / **legally**) proceedings. For example, you can (**evaluation** / **evaluate**) a person to (**examining** / **examine**) the possibility that they have mental disorders, or you can provide (**evidence** / **facts**) that supports the hypothesis that a person has (**fake** / **false**) memories. Unlike what happens during psychotherapy, in which information related to the behavior of a specific person is also collected and analyzed, in the forensic psychological evaluation the interests of the psychologist and those of the person examined do not coincide. In fact, among the tasks of the forensic psychologist is to explore the possibility that the examined person is lying to assert a version of the facts that benefits him. In addition to all this, the branch of forensic psychology is related to the creation of psychological profiles of (**criminality** / **criminals**) to help in search and capture tasks.

Sexology

The specialization of sexology within the (**field** / **court**) of psychology (**must** / **has**) to do with the application of psychology (**on** / **to**) the resolution of sexuality problems. It's a branch of psychology derived from clinical and health psychology but which is oriented to (**treatments** / **healing**) on the sexual life of patients. Although the psychology of the field of sexology is especially useful in treating sexual dysfunctions, it can also play a very important role in (**improve** / **improving**) the sexual life of people without any such disorder.

Community psychology

Community psychology can be understood as a derivative of social psychology oriented towards research and intervention on problems that (**effect** / **affect**) specific communities and localized (**crowds** / **groups**) of

people. Its objective is to generate both material changes in the context of these people and new dynamics of relationships between them that allow their quality of life and decision-making capacity to improve. In addition, the research and intervention (**statistics / strategies**) of community psychologists promote the participation of community members throughout the process.

Couple and family psychology

This (**stem / branch**) of psychology can be understood as a specialization within clinical psychology that also takes ingredients from social and community psychology and, in the case of couples therapy services, from sexology. It focuses (**on / in**) the resolution of conflicts within families, and the sessions offered tend to be in groups.

Basic and experimental psychology

(**Basically / basic**) psychology is a branch of psychology totally focused on the investigation of the most general psychological processes that have to do with (**humane / human**) behavior. It is oriented to the study of the psychological processes typical of mature and healthy human beings, to discover trends and patterns that characterize the entire human (**popularity / population**). This specialty of psychology is responsible, therefore, for the study of basic psychological processes such as memory, (**attentive / attention**), reasoning or decision making, putting much more emphasis on the mechanisms on which these are based than on the way in which the context influences them.

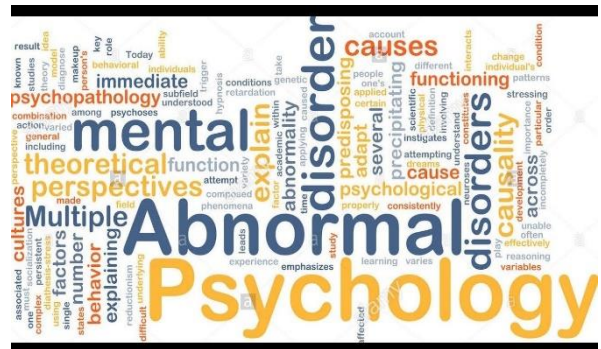
4. ABNORMAL PSYCHOLOGY

1. Read the text and answer the questions.

- 1) What is the subject of abnormal psychology study?
- 2) What does the suffix phobia mean?
- 3) What is its origin?
- 4) What phobias are mentioned in the text?
- 5) Do you know the meaning of the word mania?
- 6) How can you remember the symptoms of mania?

Introduction to mental disorders

Abnormal psychology is the scientific study of abnormal behavior in order to describe, predict, explain, and change abnormal patterns of functioning. Abnormal psychology in clinical psychology studies the nature of psychopathology, its causes, and its treatments. Of course, the definition of what constitutes abnormal has varied across time and across cultures. Individuals also vary in what they regard as normal or abnormal behavior. In general, abnormal psychology can be described as an area of psychology that studies people who are consistently unable to adapt and function effectively in a variety of conditions. The four main contributing factors to how well an individual is able to adapt include their genetic makeup, physical condition, learning and reasoning, and socialization. The English suffixes phobia, phobic, phobe (of Greek origin) occur in technical usage in psychiatry to construct words that describe irrational, disabling fear as a mental disorder (e.g., agoraphobia), in chemistry to describe chemical aversions (e.g., hydrophobic), and in biology to describe organisms that dislike certain conditions (e.g., acidophobia). In common usage they also form words that describe dislike or hatred of a particular thing or subject. Many people apply the suffix phobia inappropriately to mild or irrational fears with no serious substance; however, earlier senses relate to psychiatry which studies serious phobias which disable a person's life. For more information on the psychiatric side of this, including how psychiatry groups phobias as agoraphobia, social phobia, or simple phobia, sea phobia. Treatment for phobias may include desensitization (graduated exposure therapy) or flooding. The following lists include words ending in phobia, and include fears that have acquired names. In many cases people



have coined these words as neologisms, and only a few of them occur in the medical literature. In many cases, the naming of phobias has become a word game. A list of all possible phobias would run into many thousands and it would require a whole book to include them all, certainly more than an encyclopedia would be able to contain. So, this article just gives an idea of the kind of phobias which one may encounter, certainly not all. Most of these terms tack the suffix “phobia” onto a Greek word for the object of the fear (some use a combination of a Latin root with the Greek suffix, which many classicists consider linguistically impure). In some cases (particularly the less medically oriented usages), a word ending in phobia may have an antonym ending in “philia” – thus: coprophobia / coprophilia, Germanophobia / Germanophilia.

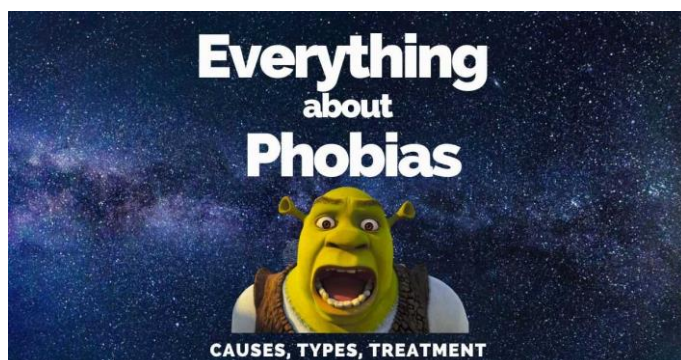
Mania is a medical condition characterized by severely elevated mood. Mania is most usually associated with bipolar disorder, where episodes of mania may cyclically alternate with episodes of depression. (Note: not all mania can be classified as bipolar disorder, as mania may result from other diseases or causes. However, bipolar disorder is the “classic” manic disease.) Hypomania is a less severe variant of mania, where there is less loss of control.

Symptoms. Although “severely elevated mood” may sound pleasant, the experience of mania is often quite unpleasant and sometimes disturbing if not frightening for the person involved and may lead to impulsive behavior that may later be regretted. It can also often be complicated by the sufferer’s lack of judgment and insight regarding periods of exacerbation of symptoms. Manic patients are frequently grandiose, irritable, belligerent, and frequently deny anything is wrong with them. Because mania frequently encourages high energy and decreased perception of need or ability to sleep, within a few days of a manic cycle, sleep deprived psychosis may appear, further complicating the ability to think clearly. Racing thoughts and misperceptions lead to frustration and decreased ability to communicate with others. In addition to decreased need for sleep, other manic symptoms include irritability, hyper sexuality, hyper religiosity, hyperactivity, talkativeness, and grandiose ideas and plans. In manic and less severe, hypo manic cases, the afflicted person may engage in out of character behavior such as questionable business transactions, wasteful expenditures of money, risky liaisons or highly vocal arguments uncharacteristic of previous behaviors. These behaviors increase stress in personal relationships, problems at work and increases the risk of altercations with law enforcement as well as being at high risk of impulsively taking part in activities potentially harmful to self and others.

2. Read the text and complete it using the words from the box. Give the main idea of the text in English.

social	/	fear	/	strangers	/	treatment	/	heart	/
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What Is Social Phobia?



Social phobia, also known as social anxiety disorder, is an intense ... of being judged, ridiculed or embarrassed in ... situations. It is a type of anxiety disorder in which a person experiences extreme fear in public or in any

situation with other people, such as attending parties, talking to ... , or talking to authority figures. People with social phobia may experience symptoms such as blushing, trembling, sweating, a racing ... , and difficulty speaking. For example, a person with social phobia might be afraid to ask a question in a classroom for fear of being laughed at by his or her peers. While there is no single cause of the social phobia, it is believed to be a combination of genetic and environmental factors. ... for social phobia usually includes a combination of cognitive-behavioral therapy and medications.

3. If you wonder “what phobia do people have”, you can look at the list of common fears people have. Work in pairs and give more details about the phobias.

Phobias	Symptoms
Acrophobia	fear of heights
Agoraphobia	fear of open places
Ailurophobia	fear / dislike of cats
Algophobia	fear of pain
Arachnophobia	fear of spiders and arachnids

Phobias	Symptoms
Astraphobia	fear of thunder and lightning
Atelophobia	fear of imperfection
Autophobia	fear of isolation
Basophobia	fear of falling
Carcinophobia	fear of cancer
Cherophobia	fear of happiness
Chromophobia	fear of colors
Chronophobia	fear of time moving forward
Cibophobia	aversion to food, anorexia nervosa
Claustrophobia	fear of being closed in
Coulrophobia	fear of clowns
Cynophobia	fear / dislike of dogs
Dentophobia	fear of dentists
Driving phobia	fear of driving
Dysmorphophobia	obsession with a body defect
Emetophobia	fear of vomiting
Enochlophobia	fear of crowds
Gephyrophobia	fear of bridges
Gerascophobia	fear of aging
Globophobia	fear of balloons
Glossophobia	fear of speaking in public
Halitophobia	fear of bad breath

Phobias	Symptoms
Haphephobia	fear of being touched
Hemophobia	fear of blood
Hodophobia	fear of travel
Hydrophobia	fear of water, see aquaphobia
Lilapsophobia	fear of tornadoes, hurricanes
Musophobia	fear of mice, rats
Mysophobia	fear of germs, contamination
Neophobia	fear of newness, novelty
Noctiphobia	fear of the night
Nyctophobia	fear of darkness
Obesophobia	fear of gaining weight
Osmophobia	fear of odors
Panphobia	fear of everything
Phagophobia	fear of swallowing
Pharmacophobia	fear of medications
Phonophobia	fear of loud sounds, voices
Pteromerhanophobia	fear of flying
Pyrophobia	fear of fire
Scopophobia	fear of being looked at
Social phobia	fear of people
Somniphobia	fear of sleep
Telephone phobia	fear of making phone calls

Phobias	Symptoms
Tokophobia	fear of pregnancy
Trypanophobia	fear of injections
Trypophobia	fear of holes
Zoophobia	fear of animals

4. Work with a partner. What do you think happens in each picture? Give your comments.



5. Read the article. Are the statements true (T) or false (F)?

Nyctophobia is an excessive and irrational fear of darkness that can significantly impact daily activities, cause avoidance of certain situations, and generate anxiety in anticipation of low light conditions.



Nyctophobia, also known as lygophobia, is a mental health condition defined as an acute fear of darkness and dark places. The term comes from two Greek words – *nyktos* (night) and *phobos* (fear). Although it is usual for children to be afraid of the dark, a strong fear of darkness in adulthood can impair daily functioning and overall wellbeing. Research shows that being in a dark environment can cause a “startle” response in humans that releases certain chemicals enhancing our perception of anxiety. People with nyctophobia experience intense anxiety at night or in dark places. On a day-to-day basis, such people may avoid going into dark rooms and may carry a flashlight wherever they go. Additionally, they may also sleep at night with lights on and get anxious when the day turns to night. Dark places such as the theater or the nightclub can also act as nyctophobia triggers. In a 2020 study conducted among college students, about 54 % of participants rated darkness as one of their top 5 fears.

<https://mind.help/topic/nyctophobia/>

Read the article again.

a	Nyctophobia is an excessive but rational fear of darkness that can significantly impact daily activities	T/F
b	Nyctophobia, also known as lygophobia, is a physical health condition defined as an acute fear of darkness and dark places	T/F
c	The term comes from two Greek words – <i>nyktos</i> (night) and <i>phobos</i> (fear)	T/F
d	Nyctophobia is usual only for children to be afraid of the dark	T/F
e	Research shows that being in a dark environment can cause a “startle” response in humans that releases certain impulses enhancing our perception of anxiety	T/F
f	People with nyctophobia experience intense anxiety at night or in dark places	T/F

g	They may also sleep at night with lights on and but never get anxious when the day turns to night	T/F
h	Dark places such as the theater or the nightclub can also act as nyctophobia triggers	T/F
i	In a 2020 study conducted among college students, about 94 % of participants rated darkness as one of their top 5 fears	T/F

6. From the below excerpt, it is apparent that Chavi is suffering from a debilitating and pervasive fear (phobia) of darkness known as nyctophobia. Read the article and answer the questions.



When she was 5, Chavi had a harrowing encounter with a burglar who broke in through the kitchen window. Ever since then, she had not been able to sleep at night without the lights on or another person in the room to keep her company. Any slight sound would jolt her awake and make it difficult for her to fall asleep again. As she grew up, Chavi, like most children,

was exposed to horror stories that were almost always set in darkness. Those were added to her previous fear of sleeping alone at night in the dark. Eventually, she grew to fear darkness all the time. Even at the age of 12, she was afraid to enter dark rooms and go out of the house when it was dark. She would always keep a flashlight with her in anticipation of a power outage or an unexpected attack in the dark. Chavi's fear affected her daily life and social functioning. She bailed on sleepovers, as she could not sleep anywhere other than her home. She pulled out of get-togethers whenever her friends proposed to read horror stories in the dark or watch scary movies.

<https://mind.help/topic/nyctophobia/>

1. How old was Chavi when her phobia was first discovered? What happened?
2. What did Chavi do to cope with her condition?
3. Did she manage to overcome her phobia as she grew up? Give examples.
4. Did the phobia affect her social life?

7. Read the article and fill in the gaps (1–8) with the phrases from the box. Give the main idea of the article.

Noises / threatening / phone calls / 19 / gum / on my work / final examinations / medicines /

Experience: I have a phobia of sound

For the last 30 years, I have had violent physical reactions to certain 1) Everyday sounds, like someone chewing or a pen being clicked, make me want to hide, scream and put my fingers in my ears.

I feel unreasonable complaining to people about these harmless sounds, but for me they are 2) My body reacts in the same way as if it was attacked: I am flooded with adrenaline. It is as if I were in the same room as a huge and angry dog. I cannot focus on anything but my terror. I often have to hang up on 3) ... abruptly, leave my seat and walk around the room, trying to block out the noise.

My phobia began when I was 4) ... and started work in a busy office. The noise of a colleague next to me who chewed 5) ... became unbearable. My ears tuned in to every wet, lip-smacking sound until they filled my head. I couldn't focus 6) This cacophony was joined by another colleague who continually whistled until I was forced to leave the office.

My phobia has affected my ability to get on in life. During my 7) ... at university, I was doing really well, translating Greek with ease, until the scratching of a fountain pen against paper got into my head, bringing me to a halt. During another exam, a nearby pub had a delivery and the sound of barrels being rolled along by whistling deliverymen scuppered any chance of concentration.

My doctor prescribed different 8) ... but recently I discovered a support forum dedicated to it. I cried for two hours. I felt so relieved, so happy to know that other people – 900 of them on this site – felt like I did. I wasn't alone...

8. For each of the sentences choose the correct answer.

- 1) I'm afraid of snakes, I mean they are dangerous and they look so ... too.
- a) scaring;
 - b) scary;
 - c) scared;
 - d) scare.

2) Which of the following is an insulting word for a person who is easily frightened?

- a) scaredy-dog;
- c) scaredy-fish;
- b) scaredy-mouse;
- d) scaredy-cat.

3) She is absolutely ... of lizards, she can't even look at them.

- a) terrifying;
- b) terrific;
- c) terrify;
- d) terrified.

4) She can't go by the underground, she has to catch a bus – she suffers from

- a) claustrophobia;
- b) arachnophobia;
- c) agoraphobia;
- d) acrophobia.

5) He said he had seen a ghost, and his face was as white as

- a) snow;
- c) flour;
- b) a sheet;
- d) chalk.

6) This terrible noise gave me

- a) duckbumps;
- b) goosebumps;
- c) chickenbumps;
- d) spiderbumps.

7) I jumped out of my ... when I noticed a big snake creeping on the path... .

- a) skin;
- b) body;
- c) jeans;
- d) coat.

8) When he said there was a ghost in the room, my ... stood on end.

- a) hair;
- b) stomach;

- c) ears;
- d) head.

9) I am afraid of flying. I was shaking like ... during the whole flight.

- a) a leaf;
- b) a sheet;
- c) a pillow;
- d) a snake.

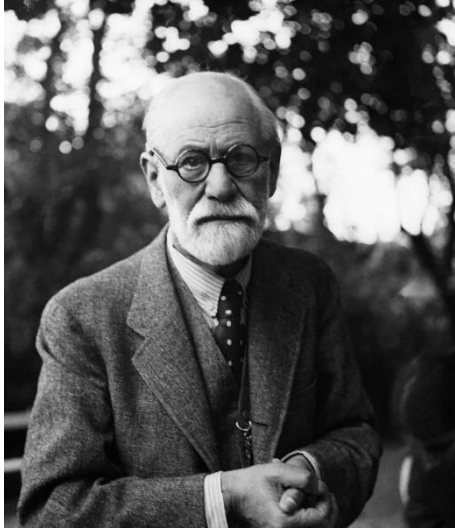
10) There was nothing to worry about before my public lecture, as I was well prepared. Nevertheless, I got cold ... right before the start.

- a) legs;
- b) feet;
- c) hands;
- d) arms.

5. FAMOUS PSYCHOLOGISTS AND THEIR CONTRIBUTIONS

1. Read the article about Sigmund Freud and decide what the main point is in each paragraph. Memorize the *italicized* words and phrases.

Sigmund Freud



Psychology's most famous figure is also one of the most influential and *controversial thinkers* of the 20th century. Sigmund Freud, an Austrian *neurologist* born in 1856, is often referred to as the “father of modern psychology”.

Freud revolutionized how we think about and treat *mental health conditions*. Freud founded *psychoanalysis* as a way of listening to patients and better understanding how their minds work. Psychoanalysis continues to have an enormous influence on modern psychology and *psychiatry*.

Sigmund Freud's theories and work helped shape *current views* of dreams, childhood, personality, memory, sexuality, and therapy. Freud's work also *laid the foundation* for many other theorists to formulate ideas, while others developed new theories in opposition to his ideas. Freud's theories were enormously influential but *subject to considerable criticism* both now and during his life. However, his ideas have become interwoven into the fabric of our culture, with terms such as “Freudian slip”, “repression”, and “*denial*” appearing regularly in everyday language.

Freud's theories include:

- **Unconscious mind:** This is one of his most enduring ideas, which is that the mind is a reservoir of thoughts, memories, and emotions that lie outside the awareness of *the conscious mind*.

- **Personality:** Freud proposed that personality was made up of three key elements: the id, the ego, and the superego. The ego is *the conscious state*, the id is the unconscious, and the superego is the moral or *ethical framework* that regulates how the ego operates.

- **Life and death instincts:** Freud claimed that two classes of instincts, life and death, dictated *human behavior*. Life instincts include sexual procreation, survival and pleasure; death instincts include aggression, *self-harm*, and *destruction*.

– **Psychosexual development:** Freud’s theory of psychosexual development posits that there are five stages of growth in which people’s personalities and sexual selves evolve. These phases are the oral stage, anal stage, phallic stage, latent stage, and genital stage.

– **Mechanisms of defense:** Freud suggested that people use *defense mechanisms* to avoid anxiety. These mechanisms include *displacement*, *repression*, *sublimation*, and *regression*.

Freud’s theories are highly controversial today. However, it remains true that Freud had a significant and lasting influence on the field of psychology. He *provided a foundation* for many concepts that psychologists used and continue to use to make new discoveries.

2. Freud’s writings detail many of his major theories and ideas. His personal favorite was “The Interpretation of Dreams”. Of it, he wrote: “[It] contains... the most valuable of all the discoveries it has been my good fortune to make. Insight such as this falls to one’s lot but once in a lifetime.”

Translate the sentences into Russian in writing.

1. “The Interpretation of Dreams” was a book written by the famous psychoanalyst Sigmund Freud and published in 1899.

2. “The Interpretation of Dreams” was published in 1899, although it wasn’t officially released until 1900.

3. The initial printing of 600 copies took eight years to sell out.

4. An additional seven editions were published during Freud’s lifetime as the book grew in popularity.

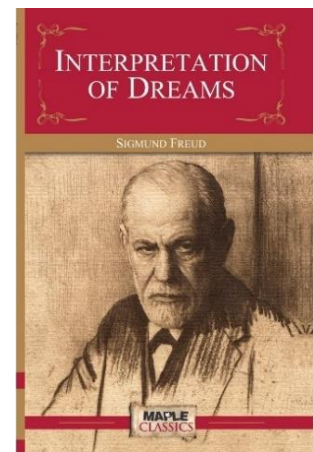
5. As one of Freud’s earliest books, the theories, ideas, and case studies described within “The Interpretation of Dreams” helped set the stage for psychoanalytic theory.

6. The book is notable because it introduced many of Freud’s best-known ideas, including the notion of the unconscious mind and how it relates to the interpretation of dreams.

7. “The Interpretation of Dreams” is the classic text on dream analysis and interpretation.

8. In it, Freud introduces many key concepts that would later become central to the theory of psychoanalysis.

9. The book is widely regarded as one of Freud’s most important publications.



10. If you are interested in Sigmund Freud, the origins of psychoanalysis, or dream interpretation, this is a must-have text for your collection.

11. For those interested in dream research, “The Interpretation of Dreams” serves as an excellent introduction to many of Freud’s major ideas.

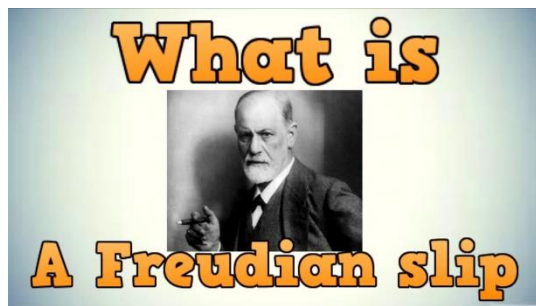
12. The book outlines his belief that dreams are highly symbolic, containing both overt meanings, called manifest content, and underlying, unconscious thoughts, known as latent content.

13. Freud was an incredibly prolific writer, publishing more than 320 different books, articles, and essays.

14. Out of this impressive body of work, Freud described “The Interpretation of Dreams” as his personal favorite as well as his most significant contribution to the understanding of human thought.

3. How accurate is “The Interpretation of Dreams” today? Give a short class presentation.

4. Work in pairs. What is a Freudian slip? Give examples.



E.g., During a televised speech on education, Senator Ted Kennedy meant to say that “Our national interest must encourage the best and brightest.” Instead, Kennedy accidentally said “breast” – his hands even cupping the air as he said the word.

While he quickly corrected his gaffe and continued, the slip of the tongue revealed, considering his hand gestures, the family’s reputation for womanizing.

5. Read the article about Abraham Maslow and decide what the main point is in each paragraph. Memorize the *italicized* words and phrases.

Abraham Maslow

Abraham Maslow was an American psychologist who developed *a hierarchy of needs* to explain human motivation. His theory suggested that people have a number of *basic needs* that must be met before people move up the hierarchy to pursue more social, emotional, and self-actualizing needs.



Abraham Maslow began teaching at Brooklyn College in 1937 and continued to work as a member of *the school's faculty* until 1951. During this time, he was heavily influenced by Gestalt psychologist Max Wertheimer and anthropologist Ruth Benedict. During the 1950s, Maslow became one of the founders and *driving forces* behind the school of thought known as *humanistic psychology*. His theories – including the hierarchy of needs, self-actualization, and peak experiences – became fundamental subjects in the humanist movement.

His theories focused on the positive aspects of *human nature*. At a time when most psychologists focused on aspects of human nature that were considered abnormal, Abraham Maslow *shifted focus to* look at the positive sides of mental health. His work influenced how we see mental health. His interest in human potential, peak experiences, the improvement of mental health, and personal growth had a lasting influence on psychology.

His work continues *to exert an influence* today. While Maslow's work fell out of favor with many academic psychologists and some suggest his hierarchy might be due for an update, his theories enjoy a resurgence due to *the rising interest* in positive psychology.

6. Translate the text into English.

Абрахам Маслоу родился в штате Калифорния в рабочей семье. В семье было несколько детей. Родители Абрахама были евреями. Они стремились обосноваться в развитой капиталистической стране. Самуил Маслов и Роза Шиловская иммигрировали в Америку из России и поселились на окраине Бруклина. Отец был бедным ремесленником и работал с утра до ночи, зарабатывая средства на содержание жены и детей. Семья скопила достаточно денег и переехала в другой город.

В нееврейском обществе мальчик впервые столкнулся с рядом серьезных проблем. Абрахама часто дразнили из-за нетипичной внешности. В итоге в детстве Маслоу был замкнутым, одиноким, несчастным ребенком. Он много читал и книги из местной библиотеки стали его лучшими друзьями. В школе он был любимцем преподавателей, он легко осваивал самые сложные темы. Мальчик увлекался естествознанием, анатомией и математикой.

По совету родителей он углубился в историю права и поступил в юридический колледж в середине 1920-х гг. На первом курсе юноша познакомился с Эдвардом Бредфордом Титченером, англо-американским «структуралистом», автором научных трудов. Под влиянием старшего друга Абрахам сменил специализацию и переехал в город

Мэдисон, где располагался Висконсинский университет. Он получил прекрасные рекомендательные письма к профессору Гарри Фредерику Харлоу, и без экзаменов поступил на психологический факультет. Он получил диплом бакалавра в 1930 г. Амбиции и талант помогли с легкостью написать и защитить диссертацию. Рецензенты считали, что Маслоу в будущем превратится в научную звезду.

7. Some facts about Abraham Maslow. Choose the correct answer.

1. Abraham Harold Maslow was an American psychologist who created Maslow's hierarchy of ...	needs / troubles
2. Abraham Maslow stressed the importance of focusing on the ... qualities in people, as opposed to treating them as a "bag of symptoms"	negative / positive
3. Abraham Maslow's parents were first-generation ... immigrants from Kiev, then part of the Russian Empire, who fled from Czarist persecution in the early 20th century	Greek / Jewish
4. Abraham Maslow's parents were ... and not intellectually focused, but they valued education	rich / poor
5. Abraham Maslow had various encounters with ... gangs who would chase and throw rocks at him	Anti-Semitic / Muslim
6. From 1937 to 1951, Abraham Maslow was on the faculty of ... College	Brooklyn / Harvard
7. Abraham Maslow's ... is applicable to other topics, such as finance, economics, or even in history or criminology	Hierarchy / Ladder
8. Abraham Maslow had concluded that humanistic psychology was incapable of explaining all aspects of ... experience	animal / human

8. Read the article about Lev Vygotsky and decide what the main point is in each paragraph. Memorize the *italicized* words and phrases. Answer the questions.

Lev Vygotsky

Lev Vygotsky was a Russian psychologist who published multiple books on topics related to *child development* and education. He died at a very young age, only 37, but during his short life he was able *to make lasting contributions* to the field of psychology that would be relevant to

researchers and educators long after his death. He is best known for his work on *social learning theory*, *scaffolding*, and *the zone of proximal development*.

Vygotsky investigated child development and how this was guided by the role of culture and *interpersonal communication*. Vygotsky observed how higher mental functions developed through social interactions with significant people in a child's life, particularly parents, but also other adults. Through these interactions, a child



came to learn the habits of mind of her / his culture, including *speech patterns*, *written language*, and other *symbolic knowledge* through which the child derives meaning and it affected a child's construction of her / his knowledge. This key premise of Vygotskian psychology is often referred to as *cultural mediation*. The specific knowledge gained by a child through these interactions also represented the shared knowledge of a culture. This process is known as *internalization*.

Internalization can be understood in one respect as “knowing how”. For example, riding a bicycle or pouring a cup of milk are tools of the society and initially outside and beyond the child. The mastery of these skills occurs through the activity of the child within society. A further aspect of internalization is appropriation in which the child takes a tool and makes it his / her own, perhaps using it in a way unique to himself. Internalizing the use of a pencil allows the child to use it very much for his / her own ends rather than draw exactly what others in society have drawn previously.

1. What themes did Vygotsky cover in his books?
2. What contributions did he make to science?
3. What did his child development theory assert?
4. What did a child learn through interpersonal communication?
5. What is the key premise of Vygotskian psychology?
6. What is internalization? How can it be understood?
7. What are the examples of internalization?

9. For each of the sentences choose the correct answer(s). Tell the class about Vygotsky's life. Give more information if possible.

1. When was Lev Vygotsky born?
 - a) 1890;
 - b) 1894;
 - c) 1896;
 - d) 1899.

2. Who had a great influence on Lev Vygotsky in his childhood and youth?
 - a) father;
 - b) uncle;
 - c) cousin;
 - d) grandfather.

3. What language(s) was Lev Vygotsky fluent in?
 - a) English;
 - b) Latin;
 - c) Esperanto;
 - d) French.

4. What academic discipline(s) did he study?
 - a) medicine;
 - b) law;
 - c) history and philosophy;
 - d) biology.

5. What was Vygotsky's job after graduation?
 - a) assistant judge;
 - b) collegiate assessor;
 - c) teacher;
 - d) secretary.

6. What laboratory did Vygotsky open in 1923?
 - a) medical;
 - b) zoological;
 - c) astronomical;
 - d) psychological.

7. What direction of psychology did Lev Vygotsky choose for himself?
 - a) art therapy;
 - b) child psychology;

- c) psychoanalysis;
- d) hypnosis.

8. What caused Vygotsky's death?

- a) pneumonia;
- b) tuberculosis;
- c) stroke;
- d) thrombosis.

10. The list below provides a snapshot of the careers of the famous psychologists and their most important contributions to the field. Read the article and give a talk about one of them and a unique perspective he brought to the field of psychology. Give more information if possible.

B. F. Skinner

Burrhus Frederic Skinner is one of history's most famous psychologists. He was a staunch advocate for behaviorism, which made him a dominating force in psychology. Many therapy techniques based on his theories are still used extensively today, including behavior modification and token economies. Skinner is remembered for his concepts of operant conditioning and schedules of reinforcement.

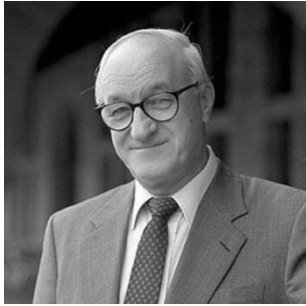


Jean Piaget



Jean Piaget was the psychologist who was most influential in shaping our understanding of cognitive development. His theory of cognitive development made him one of the most famous psychologists in history. His work had a particularly significant impact on the understanding of children's intellectual growth. His research contributed to the growth of developmental psychology, cognitive psychology, genetic epistemology, and education reform. Albert Einstein once described Piaget's observations on children's intellectual growth and thought processes as a discovery "so simple only a genius could have thought of it."

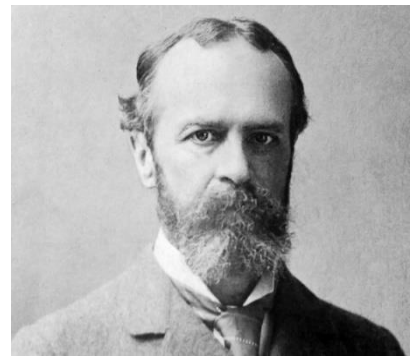
Albert Bandura



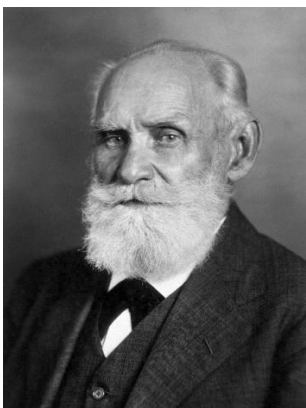
Albert Bandura's work is considered part of the cognitive revolution in psychology that began in the late 1960s. Bandura's social learning theory stresses the importance of observational learning, imitation, and modeling. "Learning would be exceedingly laborious, not to mention hazardous, if people had to rely solely on the effects of their own actions to inform them what to do," Bandura explained in his 1977 book "Social Learning Theory."

William James

Psychologist and philosopher William James is often referred to as the father of American psychology. His teachings and writings helped establish psychology as a science. Among his many accomplishments was the publication of the 1,200-page text, "The Principles of Psychology," which quickly became a classic in the field. In addition, James contributed to functionalism, pragmatism, and influenced many students of psychology during his 35-year teaching career.



Ivan Pavlov



One of the individuals who is often regarded as one of the most famous psychologists wasn't actually a psychologist at all. Ivan Pavlov was a Russian physiologist whose research on conditioned reflexes and classical conditioning influenced the rise of behaviorism in psychology. Pavlov's experimental methods helped move psychology away from introspection and subjective assessments to the objective measurement of behavior.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Text 1

Are you really paying attention?

“...our findings suggest that unexpected events are often overlooked...”

Simons & Chabris

You can read a book or you can listen to the radio, but can you do both at once? Maybe you can listen to a soft-rock album you've heard hundreds of times before and simultaneously plod your way through an undemanding crime novel, but how about listening to a complex political debate while trying to revise for a politics exam? What about listening to a German radio station while reading a French novel?



What about mixing things up a bit more. You can iron your clothes while listening to the radio, no problem. But how about trying to follow (and visualize) the radio commentary on a football game while driving a highway you've never been along before? That's much more challenging because both things call on your brain's ability to process spatial information and one tends to interfere with the other.

Generally speaking, we can do – and pay attention – to only so many things at once. That's no big surprise. However human attention works (and there are many theories about that), it's obviously not unlimited. What is surprising is how we pay attention to some things, in some situations, but not others. Psychologists have long studied something they call the **cocktail-party effect**. If you're at a noisy party, you can selectively switch your attention to any of the voices around you, just like tuning in a radio, while ignoring all the rest. Even more striking, if you're listening to one person and someone else happens to say your name, your ears will prick up and your attention will instantly switch to the other person instead. So your brain must be aware of much more than you think, even if it's not giving everything its full attention, all the time.

Sometimes, when we're really paying attention, we aren't easily distracted, even by drastic changes we ought to notice. A particularly striking demonstration of this comes from the work of Daniel Simons and Christopher Chabris, who built on earlier work by the esteemed cognitive psychologist Ulric Neisser and colleagues. Simons and Chabris made a

video of people in black or white shirts throwing a basketball back and forth and asked viewers to count the number of passes made by the white-shirted players.

Half the viewers failed to notice something else that happens at the same time (the gorilla-suited person wandering across the set) – an extraordinary example of something psychologists call **inattention blindness** (in plain English: failure to see something you really should have spotted). A related phenomenon called **change blindness** explains why we generally fail to notice things like glaring continuity errors in movies: we don't expect to see them – and so we don't.

Whether experiments like “the invisible gorilla” allow us to conclude broader things about human nature is a moot point, but it's certainly fair to say (as Simons and Chabris argue) that they reveal “critically important limitations of our cognitive abilities.” None of us are as smart as we like to think, but just because we fail and fall short that doesn't make us bad people; we'd do a lot better if we understood and recognized our shortcomings.

Answer the questions:

1. Are our ideas about ourselves true? Why?
2. What is introspection?
3. What activities people do at once (simultaneously) can be dangerous?
4. What brain's efforts may simultaneous actions call on?
5. What is the cocktail-party effect?
6. What did the participants have to do during the experiment?
7. What were the viewers asked to do during the experiment?
8. How many viewers managed to notice what was happening around?
9. What does a psychological term “inattention blindness” mean?
10. What does “change blindness” explain?
11. What do psychologists conclude about our cognitive abilities?

Text 2

Are you trying too hard?

“...a superior person may be viewed as superhuman and, therefore, distant; a blunder tends to humanize him and, consequently, increases his attractiveness.”

Aronson et al.

No-one likes a smart-aleck, so the saying goes, but just how true is that? Even if you really hate someone who has everything – the good

looks, the great house, the well-paid job – it turns out that there are certain circumstances in which you’ll like them a whole lot more: if they suddenly make a stupid mistake. This not-entirely-surprising bit of psychology mirrors everyday experience: we like our fellow humans slightly flawed, down-to-earth, and somewhat relatable. Known as the **pratfall effect**, it was famously demonstrated back in 1966 by social psychologist Elliot Aronson.

Aronson made taped audio recordings of two very different people talking about themselves and answering 50 difficult questions, which were supposedly part of an interview for a college quiz team. One person was very superior, got almost all the questions right, and revealed (in passing) that they were generally excellent at what they did (an honors student, yearbook editor, and member of the college track team). The other person was much more mediocre, got many questions wrong, and revealed (in passing) that they were much more of a plodder (average grades in high school, proofreader of the yearbook, and failed to make the track team). In the experiment, “**subjects**” (that’s what psychologists call the people who take part in their trials) had to listen to the recordings of the two people and rate them on various things, including their likeability. But there was a twist. In some of the taped interviews, an extra bit (the “pratfall”) was added at the end where either the superior person or the mediocrity suddenly shouted “Oh my goodness I’ve spilled coffee all over my new suit”, accompanied by the sounds of a clattering chair and general chaos (noises that were identically spliced onto both tapes).



What Aronson found was that the superior person was rated more attractive with the pratfall at the end of their interview; the inferior person, less so. In other words, a pratfall can really work in your favor, but only if you’re considered halfway competent to begin with; if not, it works against you. Knowingly or otherwise, smart celebrities and politicians often appear to take advantage of this to improve their popularity.

Answer the questions:

1. What can make you like people you’ve hated?
2. What is the pratfall effect?
3. What kind of a person was the first participant?
4. How can you characterize the second person?
5. What twist happened at the end of the interview?

6. What was the task of the “subject”?
7. What person was rated more attractive in the end?

Text 3

Is the past a foreign country?

“...the questions asked subsequent to an event can cause a reconstruction in one's memory of that event...”

Loftus & Palmer



Attention isn't the only thing that lets us down; memory is hugely infallible too – and it's one of the strangest and most complex things psychologists study. Can you remember where you were when the Twin Towers fell in 2001? You might remember a girl

you were in kindergarten with 12 years ago, but perhaps you can't remember the guy you met last week, last night, or even 10 minutes ago. What about the so-called **tip-of-the-tongue phenomenon** where you're certain you know a word or fact or name, and you can even describe what it's like but you can't bring it instantly to mind? How about the madeleine effect, where the taste or smell or something suddenly sets off an incredibly powerful involuntary memory? What about déjà-vu: a jarring true-false memory – the strong sense something is very familiar when it can't possibly be?

Much of the time, poor memory is just a nuisance and we all have tricks for working around it – from slapping post-it notes on the mirror to setting reminders on our phones. But there's one situation where poor memories can be a matter of life or death: in criminal investigation and court testimony. Suppose you give evidence in a trial based on events you think you remember that happened years ago – and suppose your evidence helps to convict a “murderer” who's subsequently sentenced to death. But what if your memory was quite wrong and the person was innocent?

One of the most famous studies of just how flawed our memories can be was made by psychologists Elizabeth Loftus and John Palmer. After showing their subjects footage of a car accident, they tested their memories some time later by asking “About how fast were the cars going when they smashed into each other?” or using “collided,” “bumped,” “contacted,” or “hit” in place of smashed. Those asked the first – leading –

question reported higher speeds. Later, the subjects were asked if they'd seen any broken glass and those asked the leading question ("smashed") were much more likely to say "yes" even though there was no broken glass in the film. So our memories are much more fluid, far less fixed, than we suppose.

This classic experiment very powerfully illustrates the potential unreliability of eyewitness testimony in criminal investigations, but the work of Elizabeth Loftus on so-called "false memory syndrome" has had far-reaching impacts in provocative areas, such as people's alleged recollections of alien abduction, multiple personality disorder, and memories of childhood abuse. Ultimately, what it demonstrates is that memory is fallible and remembering is sometimes less of a mechanical activity (pulling a dusty book from long-neglected library shelf) than a creative and recreative one (rewriting the book partly or completely to compensate for the fact that the print has faded with time).

Answer the questions:

1. What does a "tip-of-the-tongue phenomenon" mean?
2. How do we try to compensate the poor memory?
3. What irreparable consequences can poor memories have?
4. What did the psychologists change in their first questions about the speed of the car?
5. Did the subjects really see broken glass?
6. What kind of activity is our memory?

Text 4

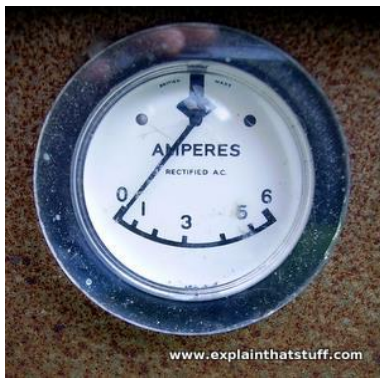
Do you cave in to peer pressure?

"...the conflict stems from the opposition of two deeply ingrained behavior dispositions: first, the disposition not to harm other people, and second, the tendency to obey those whom we perceive to be legitimate authorities."

Milgram

Experiments like the three we've considered so far might cast an uncomfortable shadow, yet most of us are still convinced we're rational, reasonable people, most of the time. Asked to predict how we'd behave in any given situation; we'd be able to give a pretty good account of ourselves – or so you might think. Consider the question of whether you'd ever, under any circumstances, torture another human being and you'd probably be appalled at the prospect. "Of course not!" And yet, as Yale

University's Stanley Milgram famously demonstrated in the 1960s and 1970s, you'd probably be mistaken.



In the Milgram experiment, which is all about how we obey authority figures, you take a large number of experimental subjects and divide them into two groups called **“learners”** and **“teachers”**. The “learners” have to learn pairs of words and the “teachers” (in a separate room but able to hear what the learners are saying and doing) have to assist by punishing them (giving them mild electric shocks) when they get their answers wrong. Meanwhile, an experimental supervisor hovers over the teachers stressing the importance of following their instructions. As the experiment progresses, the supervisor prompts the teachers to give higher and higher shocks that range from “Slight shock” all the way up to “Danger: Severe Shock, 450 volts,” and even when the “learners” begin to pound on the wall and complain. As the shocks increase, and the subjects increasingly resist, the experimenters give stronger and stronger “prods” to go on: “The experiment requires that you continue,” “It is absolutely essential that you continue,” and “You have no other choice, you must go on.”

The twist in the experiment is that the “learners” (who are really “stooges” or accomplices of the experimenters) are not being shocked at all: the whole thing is a setup and no shocks are really being delivered. It’s all a pretence. Despite failing to recognize this, the teachers happily go along with shocking the learners even when it should be obvious to them that what they’re doing is quite wrong and, in all probability, very dangerous.

Milgram’s experiments on obedience to authority have been widely discussed and offered as explanations for all kinds of things, from minor everyday cruelty to the appalling catalogue of repugnant human behavior witnessed during the Nazi Holocaust. Today, they’re generally considered unethical because they’re deceptive and could, potentially, damage the mental health of people taking part in them (a claim Milgram himself investigated and refuted).

In 1972, Stanford University’s Philip Zimbardo set up an entire “pretend prison” and assigned his subjects roles as prisoners or guards. Quite quickly, the guards went beyond simple play acting and actually took on the roles of sadistic bullies, exposing the prisoners to all kinds of rough and degrading treatment, while the prisoners resigned themselves to their

fate or took on the roles of rebels. More recently, Zimbardo has argued that his work sheds light on atrocities such as the torture at the Abu Ghraib prison in 2004, when US army guards were found to have tortured and degraded Iraqi prisoners under their guard in truly shocking ways.

Answer the questions:

1. Can people foresee exactly their behavior in any situation?
2. What were the two groups of the subject called?
3. What was the task of the “learners”?
4. What did the “teachers” have to do during the experiment?
5. What was the role of the supervisor?
6. Why weren’t the “learners” shocked at all?
7. Why is this experiment considered to be unethical?
8. How did the subjects “pretend prison” behave?
9. How did “obedience to authority” experiment explain people’s behavior?

Text 5

Are you a slave to pleasure?

“It appears that motivation, like sensation, has local centers in the brain.”

James Olds

Why do we do the things we do? Why do we eat or drink, play football, watch TV... or do the legions of other things we feel compelled to do each day? How, when we take these sorts of behaviors to extremes, do we become addicted to things like drink and drugs, gambling or sex? Are they ordinary pleasures taken to extremes or something altogether different? Obsessions, compulsions, and addictive behaviors are complex and very difficult to treat, but what causes them... and how do we treat them?



Way back in 1954, a startling experiment by Canadian neuropsychologists James Olds and Peter Milner used tiny electric shocks to offer insight into pleasurable but highly addictive behavior. Electric shocks aren’t always as painful and “shocking” as they turned out to be in the Milgram experiment; sometimes they provoke pleasure instead of pain.

That much had been previously demonstrated by Tulane University's Robert Heath, though he didn't realize it at the time. While testing the idea that mental illnesses might be cured by "deep-brain stimulation" ("poking" the brain with electrodes), Heath found that schizophrenics reported pleasant feelings when he zapped their brains. (Much of Heath's work was intensely controversial, particularly a number of experiments he carried out later that attempted to prove he could cure homosexuality by brain stimulation.)

Back to Olds and Milner. While systematically studying the effects of electricity on a rat's brain, they accidentally discovered that if they stimulated its septum (a tiny region deep in the core of the brain known as the limbic system), the animal would return for more. So, they designed a follow-up experiment where they implanted an electrode in the rat's septum and wired it up to a foot pedal: if the rat pressed the pedal, it gave itself a shock. To their astonishment, the rat didn't just return once or twice: it kept coming back. The rats in this experiment "self-stimulated" up to 5000 times an hour until they finally collapsed from exhaustion.

The Olds and Milner ICSS (intracranial self-stimulation) experiment was widely interpreted as the discovery of a "pleasure center" in the brain, but we have to take that suggestion with quite a pinch of salt. It's fascinating, but also quite reductively depressing, to imagine that a lot of the things humans feel compelled to do each day – from work and eating to sport and sex – are motivated by nothing more than the need to scratch a deep neural itch: to repeatedly stimulate a "hungry" part of our brain. While it offers important insights into addictive behavior, the idea that all of our complex human pleasure-seeking stems from something so crudely behavioral – stimulus and reward – seems absurdly over-simple. It's fascinating to search for references to Olds and Milner's work and see it quoted in books with such titles as *Your Money and Your Brain: How the New Science of Neuroeconomics Can Help Make You Rich*. But it's quite a stretch from a rat pushing on a pedal to making arguments of that kind.

Answer the questions:

1. What did the psychologists want to clear out during this experiment?
2. What did they use to offer insight into pleasurable behavior?
3. What did electric shocks provoke this time?
4. What did schizophrenics' reaction to the shocks?
5. How did rats stimulate the pleasure centre?
6. What is psychological explanation of people's feeling of pleasure?
7. How do people achieve the feeling of pleasure?

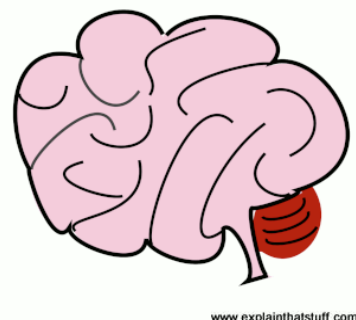
Text 6

Are you asleep at the wheel?

“Many of our mental functions are carried out unconsciously, without conscious awareness.”

Benjamin Libet

Being a conscious, active human being is a bit like driving a car: looking out through your eyes is like staring through a windshield, seeing (perceiving) things and responding to them, as they see and respond to you. Consciousness, in other words, feels like a “top-down” thing; like the driver of a car, we’re always in control, willing the world to bend to our way, making things happen according to ideas our brains we devise beforehand. But how true is that really? If you are a driver, you’ll know that much of what you do depends on a kind of mental “auto-pilot” or cruise control. As a practiced driver, you barely have to think about what you’re doing at all – it’s completely automatic.



We’re only really aware of just how effort-full and attentive drivers need to be when we first start learning. We soon learn to do most of the things involved in driving without being consciously aware of them at all – and that’s true of other things too, not just driving a car. Seen this way, driving seems impressive – but if you think again about the Simons and Chabris gorilla experiment, and consider its implications for sitting behind the wheel, you might want to take the bus in future.

Still, you might think, you’re always, ultimately, in charge and in control: you’re the driver, not the passenger, even if you are sometimes dozy at the wheel. And yet, a remarkable series of experiments by Benjamin Libet, in the 1980s, appeared to demonstrate something entirely different: far from consciously making things happen, sometimes we become conscious of what we’ve done after the fact. In Libet’s experiments, he made people watch a clock and move their wrist when it reached a certain time. But their brain activity (which he was also monitoring) showed a peak a fraction of a second before their conscious decision to move, suggesting, at least in this case, that consciousness is the effect, not the cause.

On the face of it, Libet's work seems to have extraordinary implications for the study of consciousness. It's almost like we're zombies sitting at the wheel of a self-driving car. Is the whole idea of conscious free will just an illusion, an accidental artefact of knee-jerk behavior that happens much more automatically? You can certainly try to argue it that way, as many people have. On the other hand, it's important to remember that this is a highly constrained laboratory experiment and you can't automatically extrapolate from that to more general human behavior. (Apart from anything else, the methodology of Libet's experiments has been questioned. While you could try to argue that a complex decision (to buy a house or quit your job) is made unconsciously or subconsciously in whatever manner and we rationalize or become conscious of it after the fact, experiments like Libet's aren't offering evidence for that. Sometimes, it's too much of a stretch to argue from simple, highly contrived, very abstract laboratory experiments to bigger, bolder, and more general everyday behavior.

On the other hand, it's quite likely that some behavior that we believe to be consciously pre-determined is anything but, as William James (and, independently, Carl Lange) reasoned way back in the late 19-th century. In a famous example James offered, we assume we run from a scary bear because we see the bear and feel afraid. But James believed the reasoning here is back to front: we see the bear, run, and only feel afraid because we find ourselves running from a bear! (How we arrive at emotions is a whole huge topic of its own. The James – Lange theory eventually spawned more developed theories by Walter Cannon and Philip Bard, who believed emotions and their causes happen simultaneously, and Stanley Shachter and Jerome Singer, who believe emotions stem both from our bodily reactions and how we think about them.)

Answer the questions:

1. Why is our consciousness compared to an “auto-pilot”?
2. Is it possible to be consciously aware of all the things of driving to become a good driver? Why?
3. What the psychologists make people do during the experiment?
4. What did B. Libet notice while monitoring people's brain activity?
5. Can this experiment be extrapolated to more general people's behavior?
6. What conclusion about emotions and thinking the psychologists come to?

Text 7

Why are you so attached?

“Love is a wondrous state, deep, tender, and rewarding. Because of its intimate and personal nature it is regarded by some as an improper topic for experimental research.”

Harry Harlow

There’s an obvious evolutionary reason why we get attached to other people: one way or another, it improves our chances of surviving, mating, and passing on our genes to future generations. Attachment begins at birth, but our attachment to our mothers isn’t motivated purely by a simple need for nourishment (through breastfeeding or whatever it might be). One of the most famous psychological experiments of all time demonstrated this back in the early 1970s.

The University of Wisconsin’s Harry Harlow and his wife Margaret tested what happened when newborn baby monkeys were separated from their mothers and “raised,” instead by crude, mechanical surrogates. In particular, Harlow looked at how the monkeys behaved toward two rival “mothers”, one with a wooden head and a wire body that had a feeding bottle attached, and one made from soft, warm, comforting cloth. Perhaps surprisingly, the babies preferred the cloth mother. Even when they ventured over to the wire mother for food, they soon returned to the cloth mother for comfort and reassurance. The fascinating thing about this study is that it suggests the need for comfort is at least as important as the (more obviously fundamental) need for nourishment, so busting the cold, harsh claims of hard-wired behaviorists, who believed our attachment to our mothers was all about mechanistic “drive reduction,” or knee-jerk stimulus and response. Ultimately, we love the loving – Harlow’s “contact comfort” – and perhaps things like habits, routines, and traditions can all be interpreted in this light.



Answer the questions:

1. Why do we get attached to other people?
2. Is babies' attachment to their mothers motivated only by nourishment?
3. What were the newborn baby monkeys raised by instead of their natural mothers?
4. What did their "mums" look like?
5. How did the babies' behavior change?
6. How does the psychologist describe the elements of our attachment to our mothers?

Text 8

Are you as rational as you think?

"... I have concentrated mainly on the mistakes, assumptions, and stereotyped behavior which occur when people have to reason about abstract material. But... we seldom do reason about abstract material."

Peter Wason



Like everyone else, you probably have your moments of wild, reckless abandon, but faced with the task of making a calm, rational judgment about something, how well do you think you'd do? It's not a question of what you know or how clever you are, but how well you can make a judgment or a decision.

Suppose, for example, you had to hire the best applicant for a job based on a pile of résumés. Or what if you had to find a new apartment by the end of the month and you had a limited selection to pick among. What if you were on the jury of a trial and had to sit through weeks of evidence to reach a verdict? How well do you think you'd do? Probably, given all the information, you feel you'd make a fair job of it: you have faith in your judgment. And yet, decades of research into human decision-making suggests you'll massively overestimate your own ability. Overconfident and under-informed, you'll jump to hasty conclusions, swayed by glaring biases you don't even notice. In the words of Daniel Kahneman, probably the world's leading expert on human rationality, your brain opts to think "fast" (reaches a quick and dirty decision) when sometimes it'd be better off thinking "slow" (reaching a more considered verdict). A classic demonstration of how poorly we think was devised by British psychologist

Peter Wason in 1966. The experimenter puts a set of four white cards in front of you, each of which has a letter on one side and a number on the other. Then they tell you that if a card has a vowel on one side, it has an even number on the other side. Finally, they ask you which cards you need to turn over to verify if that statement is true. Suppose the cards show A, D, 4, and 7. The obvious answer, offered by most people, is A and 4 or just A. But the correct answer is actually A and 7. Once you've turned over A, it serves no purpose to turn over D or 4: turning over D tells us nothing, because it's not a vowel, while turning over 4 doesn't provide extra proof or disprove the statement. By turning over 7, however, you can potentially disprove the theory if you reveal a vowel on the other side of it. Wason's four-card test demonstrates what's known as "confirmation bias" – our failure to seek out evidence that contradicts things we believe.

As with the other experiments here, you could extrapolate and argue that Wason's abstract reasoning test is echoed by bigger and wider failings we see in ourselves. Perhaps it goes some way to explaining things like online "echo chambers" and "filter bubbles", where we tend to watch, read, and listen to things that reinforce things we already believe – intellectual cloth mothers, you might call them – rather than challenging those comfortable beliefs or putting them to the test. But, again, a simple laboratory test is exactly what it is: a simple, laboratory test. And other, broader personal or social conclusions don't automatically follow on from it. (Indeed, you might recognize the tendency to argue that way as a confirmation bias all of its own.)

Answer the questions:

1. What specific moments do you sometimes have to make rational judgments at?
2. What different situations does the author describe?
3. What suggestions do you make about your own abilities to solve the problem?
4. What do decades of research show?
5. How does our brain work in this case according to the experts on human rationality?
6. What is the task of the experiment with 4 cards?
7. What does it demonstrate?

Text 9

How do you learn things?

“The animal must respond to changes in the environment in such a manner that its responsive activity is directed toward the preservation of its existence.”

Ivan Pavlov

Learning might seem a very conscious and deliberate thing, especially if you hate the subject you’re studying or merely sitting in school. What could be worse than “rote” learning your times table, practising French vocabulary, or revising for an exam? We also learn a lot of things less consciously – sometimes without any conscious effort at all. Animals (other than humans) don’t sit in classrooms all day but they learn plenty of things. Even one of the simplest (a sea-slug called *Aplysia californica*) will learn to withdraw its syphon and gill if you give it an electric shock, as Eric Kandel and James Schwartz famously discovered.



So how does learning come about? At its most basic, it involves making connections or “associations” between things, something that was probed by Russian psychologist Ivan Pavlov in perhaps the most famous psychology experiment of all time. Pavlov looked at how dogs behave when he gave them food. Normally, he found dogs would salivate (a response) when he brought them a plate of food (a stimulus). We call this an

unconditioned response (meaning default, normal, or just untrained): it’s what the dogs do naturally. Now, with the food a distant doggy memory, Pavlov rang a bell (a neutral stimulus) and found it produced no response at all (the dogs didn’t salivate). In the next phase of the experiment, he brought the dogs plates of food and rang a bell at the same time and found, again, that they salivated. So again, we have an unconditioned response, but this time to a pair of stimuli. Finally, after a period of this training, he tested what happened when he just rang the bell and, to his surprise, found that they salivated once again. In the jargon of psychology, we say the dogs had become “conditioned” to respond to the bell alone: they associated the bell with food and so responded by salivating. We call this a conditioned (trained or learned) response: the dogs have learned that the sound of the bell is generally linked to the appearance of food.

Pavlov's work on conditioning was hugely influential – indeed, it was a key inspiration for the theory of behaviorism. Advanced by such luminaries as B. F. Skinner and J. B. Watson, this was the idea that animal behavior is largely a matter of stimulus and response and mental states – thinking, feeling, emoting, and reasoning – is irrelevant. But, as with all the other experiments here, it's a stretch to argue that we're all quasi-automated zombies raised in a kind of collective cloud of mind-control conditioning. It's true that we learn some things by simple, behavioural association, and animals like *Aplysia* may learn everything they know that way, but it doesn't follow that all animals learn everything by making endless daisy-chains of stimulus and response.

Answer the questions:

1. What common processes do both animals and humans share?
2. What does learning involve?
3. How did dogs normally react seeing a plate of food (stimulus)?
4. What is “unconditioned response”?
5. What was the dogs' reaction when Pavlov combined a neutral stimulus (a bell) and a plate of food?
6. What did the dogs respond to by salivating at the end of the experiment?
7. What is this phenomenon called?
8. What psychological theory did Pavlov work influence?

Text 10

You're happier than you realize

“The time has finally arrived for a science that seeks to understand positive emotion, build strength and virtue, and provide guideposts for... 'the good life'.”

Martin Seligman, Authentic Happiness

Money makes the world go round – or so goes the lyric of a famous song. But if you're American Martin Seligman, you'd probably think “happiness” was a better candidate for what powers the planet, or should. When I was studying psychology at college back in the mid-1980s, Professor Seligman came along to give a guest lecture – and it proved to be one of the most thought-provoking talks I would ever attend.



Though now widely and popularly known for his work in a field he calls positive psychology, Seligman originally made his name researching mental illness and how people came to be depressed. Taking a leaf from Pavlov's book, his subjects were dogs. Rather than feeding them

and ringing bells, he studied what happened when he gave dogs electric shocks and either offered them an opportunity to escape or restrained them in a harness so they couldn't. What he discovered was that dogs that couldn't avoid the shocks became demoralized and depressed – they “learned helplessness” – and eventually didn't even try to avoid punishment, even when (once again) they were allowed to.

You can easily construct a whole (behavioural) theory of mental illness on the basis of Seligman's learned helplessness experiments but, once again, there's much more to it than that. People don't become depressed purely because they're in impossible situations where problems seem (to use the terminology) “internal” (their own fault), “global” (affecting all aspects of their life), and “stable” (impossible to change). Many different factors – neurochemical, behavioral, cognitive, and social – feed into depression and, as a result, there are just as many forms of treatment.

What's really interesting about Seligman's work is what he did next. In the 1990s, he realized psychologists were obsessed with mental illness and negativity when, in his view, they should probably spend more time figuring out what makes people happy. So began his more recent quest to understand “positive psychology” and the things we can all do to make our lives feel more fulfilled. The key, in his view, is working out and playing to what he calls our “signature strengths” (things we're good at that we enjoy doing). His ideas, which trace back to those early experiments on learned helplessness in hapless dogs, have proved hugely influential, prompting many psychologists to switch their attention to developing a useful, practical “science of happiness.”

Answer the questions:

1. How did the psychologist call a guest-lecture of the professor?
2. What did the dogs feel in the end after electric shocks if they couldn't escape?

3. What is this experiment called?
4. What factors feed into people' depression?
5. Is there only one form of treatment? Why?
6. What caused the appearance of "positive psychology"?
7. What constitutes "signature strengths"?
8. What did Seligman's ideas make many psychologists turn their attention to?

Recommended literature

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