

МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ  
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**ENGLISH FOR PSYCHOLOGISTS**

**Посібник з англійської мови  
для студентів 1 та 2 курсу  
спеціальності «ПСИХОЛОГІЯ»**

*Рекомендовано Методичною радою НУК*



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*Рекомендовано Методичною радою НУК*

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О-34 English for Psychologists : посібник з англійської мови для студентів 1 та 2 курсу спеціальності «Психологія» / Г. В. Овсянко, С. В. Кириченко. – Миколаїв : НУК, 2021. – 128 с.

Пропонований посібник складається з 17 розділів, англійського глосарія та українсько-англійського словника найуживаніших виразів та психологічних термінів. Кожний розділ містить базовий текст професійного спрямування, активний вокабулярій, комплекс лексичних вправ на засвоєння нового матеріалу, вправи комунікативного характеру для розвитку навичок усного мовлення, вправи на переклад та реферування уривків текстів професійної тематики англійською мовою. Матеріал дібрано відповідно до навчальної програми для студентів, які навчаються за спеціальністю «Психологія».

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## ВСТУП

Пропонований навчальний посібник призначений для студентів-психологів, які вивчають англійську мову професійного спрямування. Мета посібника – сформувані у студентів навички говоріння, читання, письма та перекладу, сприяти опануванню професійної англійської мови як системи та розширенню знань студентів з фаху на базі автентичних англійських текстів. Посібник складається з 17 розділів, українсько-англійського словника найуживаніших виразів і психологічних термінів, а також англійського глосарія психологічних термінів. Розділи посібника містять навчальний матеріал за програмою дисципліни. Кожний розділ містить базовий текст, лексичний коментар та активний вокабулярій, комплекс лексичних і комунікативних вправ на засвоєння нового матеріалу та розвиток навичок усного мовлення. Комунікативні вправи передбачають завдання рольового та дискусійного характеру та спонукають до діалогічного мовлення з аргументуванням точки зору. Навчальний матеріал посібника рекомендований для аудиторного та самостійного опрацювання, а також широкому колу осіб, які цікавляться питаннями психології.

## **UNIT 1. WHAT IS PSYCHOLOGY?**

### **1. Read and translate the key words.**

1. psychology
2. scientific
3. to study
4. mental
5. behavior
6. environment
7. pattern
8. human being
9. thought
10. feeling
11. action
12. mind
13. dream
14. desire
15. mental illness
16. research
17. psychologist
18. personality
19. habit
20. insight

### **2. Read and translate the text. Use a dictionary.**

#### **What Is Psychology?**

Psychology is the scientific study of mental processes and behaviour. Psychologists observe and record how people and other animals relate to one another and to the environment. They look for

patterns that will help them understand and predict behaviour, and they use scientific methods to test their ideas. Through such studies, psychologists have learned much that can help people fulfill their potential as human beings and increase understanding between individuals, groups, nations, and cultures.

Psychology is a broad field that explores a variety of questions about thoughts, feelings, and actions. Psychologists ask such questions as: “How do we see, hear, smell, taste, and feel? What enables us to learn, think, and remember, and why do we forget? What activities distinguish human beings from other animals? What abilities are we born with, and which must we learn? How much does the mind affect the body, and how does the body affect the mind? For example, can we change our heart rate or temperature just by thinking about doing so? What can our dreams tell us about our needs, wishes, and desires? Why do we like the people we like? What is mental illness?”

The research findings of psychologists have greatly increased our understanding of why people behave as they do. For example, psychologists have discovered much about how personality develops and how to promote healthy development. They have some knowledge of how to help people change bad habits and how to help students learn. They understand some of the conditions that can make workers more productive. A great deal remains to be discovered. Nevertheless, insights provided by psychology can help people function better as individuals, friends, family members, and workers.

### **3. Answer the questions orally.**

- What is psychology?
- What do psychologists do?
- What does psychology explore?
- What kind of questions do psychologists ask?

- Why do we need psychological research?
- How can psychology help us?

**4. Find the synonyms to the given words.**

- |              |                |
|--------------|----------------|
| 1. concept   | a) think       |
| 2. suggest   | b) primary     |
| 3. principal | c) definite    |
| 4. threat    | d) goal        |
| 5. view      | e) focus       |
| 6. believe   | f) opinion     |
| 7. explore   | g) propose     |
| 8. emphasis  | h) investigate |
| 9. purpose   | i) danger      |
| 10. explicit | j) idea        |

**5. Combine the words in column A with those in B to make word combinations and use them in the sentences of your own.**

- | A           | B                    |
|-------------|----------------------|
| 1. cast     | a) to the conclusion |
| 2. become   | b) forth             |
| 3. place    | c) evident           |
| 4. trace    | d) a light           |
| 5. pay/give | e) emphasis on       |
| 6. have     | f) in the context of |
| 7. come     | g) an interest in    |
| 8. set      | h) attention to      |
| 9. take     | i) place             |
| 10. arise   | j) back              |

**6. Discuss with your classmates the following questions:**

- Why do you want to become a professional psychologist?
- What is your favorite topic in psychology?
- When do you think a person should consult a psychologist?

## **UNIT 2. THE GROWTH OF PSYCHOLOGY**

### **1. Read and translate the key words.**

1. adulthood
2. to affect
3. anxiety
4. attempt
5. attitude
6. to assess
7. behavior
8. capability
9. to conduct
10. conscious
11. damage
12. to differ
13. disabled
14. discipline
15. disorder
16. diverse
17. flexible
18. to flourish
19. to identify
20. to influence smb/to have an influence on smb
21. to investigate
22. life span
23. morale
24. observable
25. perception
26. to prevent
27. research
28. sensation

- 29. to untangle
- 30. various
- 31. violence
- 32. vision

## **2. Read and translate the text. Use a dictionary.**

### **The Growth of Psychology**

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

#### *Psychology as the Study of Conscious Experience*

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

#### *Psychology as the Study of Unconscious Processes*

For Sigmund Freud conscious experiences were only the tip of the iceberg. Beneath the surface, he believed, lay primitive biological urges that seek expression but are in conflict with the requirements

of society and morality. According to Freud, these unconscious motivations and conflicts are powerful influences on our conscious thoughts and actions; they thus are responsible for much human behavior.

### *Psychology Today*

Psychology's roots can be traced back to ancient Greece and to speculations about the nature of sensation, perception, reason, emotion, dreams, and memory. Developments in many countries over many years have contributed to the modern science of psychology, which now flourishes around the world: in Germany, where Wundt established his laboratory; in England, where Galton worked; in Russia, where Pavlov discovered the conditioned reflex; in Japan, where the discipline is still relatively new; and in numerous other countries. Psychology has gained wide public acceptance in the United States. While American psychology still dominates the world scene, several other countries have proportionately as many psychologists as the United States. These countries include Spain, Finland, Israel, the Netherlands, Belgium, and Denmark.

### *Fields of Specialization*

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

Researchers in the fields of physiological psychology or neuropsychology attempt to untangle the connections between the nervous and endocrine systems and behavior. There has been a recent explosion of interest in the way that the brain works. The researchers in this area, which is called neuroscience, investigate the workings of sensory systems, the effects of brain damage on behavior, and

the effects of various brain chemicals on psychological phenomena such as memory, pain, and motivation.

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

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

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

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

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

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

The workings of personnel departments and the factors that influence job selection are among the topics considered in industrial

psychology, in which the relationship between people and their jobs is studied. Psychologists have given increasing attention to the conditions and effects of employment. They investigate employee morale, job related stress, the qualities that make a good boss, how to enrich jobs, and ways to make working hours more flexible.

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

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

### **3. Essential Word Phrases (to be sought in the text).**

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

**4. Answer the questions on the text:**

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

**5. Fill in each sentence with the suitable word from the vocabulary list in the necessary form:**

1. The company has really ... since we moved our factory to Scotland.
2. They are carrying out some ... on the effects of brain damage.
3. They suddenly became ... of a sharp increase in the temperature.
4. Could you at least make a(n) ... to smile?
5. He has been ... and found blameless.
6. Simply telling him how valuable his work was boosted his ... a lot.
7. I knew the train had stopped, but I had the ... that it was still moving.

8. We waited with great ... for more news about the accident.
9. I think he ... himself admirably, considering the difficult circumstances.
10. It was a difficult situation and he ... it very well.

**6. Complete the following sentences:**

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

**7. Form adjectives from the following verbs or nouns and make up phrases with them. Follow the model.**

Model:

*emotion – emotional – emotional problems;*

*to observe – observable – observable behavior*

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

**8. Make a report about one Famous Psychologist. (10–15 sentences). Present it to your classmates.**

## **UNIT 3. PERSPECTIVES AND RESEARCH METHODS OF PSYCHOLOGY**

### **1. Read and translate the key words.**

1. attention
2. to be associated with
3. to be concerned (with)
4. to be linked to
5. cognition
6. cognitive psychology
7. to conform to (smb/smith)
8. contemporary
9. decision making
10. development
11. emphasis
12. individual's personality characteristics
13. memory
14. motivation
15. opinion
16. perception
17. sense (of)
18. social behavior
19. social psychology
20. thought

### **2. Read and translate the text.**

#### **Perspectives and Research Methods of Psychology**

Psychology is a science that seeks to answer all sorts of questions about us all: how we think, feel and act. It is a fairly young science, with roots in many disciplines, from physiology to philosophy.

Psychology's historic perspectives and current activities lead us to define the field as the science of behavior and mental processes.

There are many disciplines that study human nature, of which psychology is one. Within psychology, the biological, behavioral, psychoanalytic, humanistic, and cognitive perspectives are complementary. Each has its own purposes, questions, and limits; together they provide a fuller understanding of mind and behavior.

The biological perspective helps us understand how the body and brain work to create emotions, memories, and sensory experiences.

The behavioral perspective studies the mechanisms by which observable responses are acquired and modified in particular environments.

The humanistic perspective arose as a reaction against the psychoanalytic view, which sees people as driven by unconscious internal forces, and the behavioristic view, which sees people as shaped by the external environment.

The cognitive perspective emphasizes how we process, store, and retrieve information and how we use it to reason and solve problems.

Psychologists' activities are widely varied, ranging from studies of the links between biology and behavior, to experimental studies of perception and memory, to the diagnoses and therapies of clinical psychology. Psychologists test their theories and hypotheses with three research methods – observation, correlation, and experimentation – that help them to describe, predict, and explain behavior.

### **3. Explain the meaning of the words from the text.**

- perspective
- complementary

- unconscious
- to retrieve
- correlation
- to predict

#### **4. Answer the questions.**

1. What perspectives are complementary within psychology?
2. What activities do psychologists practice?
3. What are the main perspectives and research methods of psychology?
4. What is the objective of behavioral (cognitive) perspective of psychology?
5. What do such research methods as observation, correlation and experimentation suggest?

#### **5. Match the underline words with appropriate equivalent:**

1. People have always tried to explain and predict thoughts and behaviors of others.  
a) hypotheses      b) actions      c) ideas
2. During the course of studies you will acquire all important knowledge of psychology.  
a) debate      b) assess      c) gain
3. People often reflect upon the ideas and hypotheses of famous psychologists.  
a) appreciate      b) accumulate      c) debate
4. You will refine and extend your abilities in understanding yourself and others.  
a) improve      b) acquire      c) apply
5. You have been investigating human behavior all your life.  
a) explaining      b) improving      c) exploring

6. You will apply the key concepts in psychology to yourself and gain skills in interpersonal understanding.

- a) explore                      b) obtain experience                      c) debate

7. General psychology tries to apply the knowledge of psychological principles to enhance understanding of yourself and others.

- a) to improve                      b) to investigate                      c) to reflect upon

## **6. Translate. Pay attention to the prepositions.**

to be characterized by, to be associated with, to be affected by, to be defined as, to be linked to, to have ties to, to conform to, to respond to.

## **7. Match the verbs on the left with their definitions on the right.**

- |                |                                                                                    |
|----------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1. acquire     | a) to study a subject thoroughly, especially in order to discover new information; |
| 2. provide     | b) to watch carefully the way something happens or the way someone does something; |
| 3. research    | c) to judge or calculate the quality, importance, amount or value of something;    |
| 4. observe     | d) to get something;                                                               |
| 5. attempt     | e) to make possible or easier;                                                     |
| 6. evaluate    | f) to give someone something that they need;                                       |
| 7. constitute  | g) to try to do something, especially something difficult;                         |
| 8. measure     | h) state or describe exactly the meaning, nature or the scope of something;        |
| 9. define      | i) to form or make something;                                                      |
| 10. facilitate | j) to discover the exact size or amount of something.                              |

**8. Fill in the gaps with the appropriate verb from exercise 7.**

1. She has spent the last five years \_\_\_\_\_ her people's history. 2. The new ramp \_\_\_\_\_ the entry of wheelchairs. 3. The role of scientists is \_\_\_\_\_ and describe the world, not to try to control it. 4. The under-18s \_\_\_\_\_ nearly 25 % of the town's population. 5. Your rights and responsibilities \_\_\_\_\_ in the citizens' charter. 6. It's impossible \_\_\_\_\_ these results without knowing more about the research methods employed. 7. He \_\_\_\_\_ to escape through a window. 8. The author \_\_\_\_\_ no documentary references to support her assertions. 9. This machine \_\_\_\_\_ your heart rate. 10. He \_\_\_\_\_ the firm in 1978.

**9. Combine the words in column A with those in B to make word combinations. Make up your own sentences using them.**

- | A          | B                           |
|------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. give    | a) one's best               |
| 2. take    | b) to trust                 |
| 3. have    | c) notes                    |
| 4. grow    | d) a great impetus          |
| 5. take    | e) out a form/questionnaire |
| 6. make    | f) an equal opportunity     |
| 7. conduct | g) an effect on             |
| 8. provide | h) a look at                |
| 9. fill    | i) a contribution           |
| 10. do     | j) the survey               |

## **UNIT 4. SPORTS AND HEALTH PSYCHOLOGY**

### **1. Read and translate the key words.**

1. healthcare
2. illness
3. socioeconomic
4. status
5. cultural
6. factor
7. biological process
8. smoking
9. social process
10. biopsychosocial
11. cortisol
12. immune
13. imagery

### **2. Read and translate the text. Use a dictionary.**

#### **Health Psychology Focus**

East University offers a comprehensive curriculum in health psychology. This program explores the relationship between a healthy mind and healthy body. The program trains students to become practicing clinicians.

Modern psychologists understand that many biopsychosocial factors influence health. That's because psychological processes directly affect physical processes.

For instance, many cultural factors can cause stress. This, in turn, causes the body to release cortisol. Over time, this hormone negatively affects the body. Students will study this and many other biological processes.

Students will also research new developments in healthcare. This highlights the latest breakthroughs in the prevention of illness. Recently, students studied the relationship between socioeconomic status and smoking. A major scientific journal recently published their research. Another group is preparing to study the biological effects of social processes. They hope to discover how competition affects the immune system.

**3. Choose the correct answers:**

1. What is the purpose of the website?  
A to review the history of health psychology  
B to explain the results of a study in health psychology  
C to help students enroll in a health psychology course  
D to outline topics covered in a health psychology program
2. What is NOT true about the health psychology program?  
A It addresses both mental and physical processes.  
B It primarily prepares students for careers in research.  
C It examines the effects of cultural factors.  
D It includes the study of social processes on individuals.
3. What is true about cortisol?  
A It is released during stressful events.  
B It is the subject of one of the school's studies.  
C It provides long-term benefits to the body.  
D It is part of the body's immune system.

**4. Match the words with the definitions.**

- 1 social process
- 2 cultural factor
- 3 biopsychosocial
- 4 biological process
- 5 socioeconomic status

- A an activity that makes place within a living thing
- B relating to the social, psychological, or biological aspects of pain
- C an activity that occurs when people interact with each other
- D an element of society that affects individuals or groups of people
- E a measurement of employment level and income

**5. Fill in the blanks with the correct words or phrases from the word bank.**

**Cortisol, healthcare, health psychology, illness, smoking**

1. The woman's body released .....when she saw her child in danger.
2. The habit of .....is very bad for the throat, lungs, and heart.
3. Physicians and psychologists both work in the field of .....
4. .... focuses on how the body and mind affect each other.
5. The patient's ..... was caused by various psychological factors.

**6. Read the dialogue. Mark the following statements as true (T) or false (F).**

- 1 \_\_\_ The woman defines a biological process incorrectly.
- 2 \_\_\_ The man uses depression as an example of a biopsychosocial condition.
- 3 \_\_\_ The woman identifies a biological benefit of social interaction.

Student: Do you have a minute? I have a question about health psychology.

Professor: Sure. What's up?

Student: Well, physical illnesses are usually related to biological processes, right?

Professor: That's right. Any effect on the body has a biological cause.

Student: Then, how can psychological processes affect a patient's health?

Professor: Basically, psychological processes produce biological processes.

Student: I'm not sure that I understand. Can you give an example?

Professor: Well, take depression for instance. It's often the result of a psychological process. But it makes the body release hormones.

Student: And those hormones have biological effects, like pain and fatigue.

Professor: Right. So, depression is a biopsychosocial condition. Now, what about a social process?

Student: What do you mean?

Professor: Think about how people share germs through interaction. How might that have a biological effect?

Student: Oh, I see what you're saying. Social interaction helps people develop biological immunities to illness.

Professor: Right.

## **7. Answer the questions below:**

1. Give the definitions of health psychology.
2. What are the goals of health psychology?
3. What is an example of a psychological factor that can affect health?
4. What is an example of a social factor that can affect a patient's health?

## **8. Read and translate the article. Write a summary.**

### **An Overview of Sports Psychology**

Sports psychology is the study of how psychology influences sports, athletic performance, exercise, and physical activity. Some sports psychologists work with professional athletes and coaches to improve performance and increase motivation. Other professionals utilize exercise and sports to enhance people's lives and well-being throughout the entire lifespan.

Professional sports psychologists often help athletes cope with the intense pressure that comes from competition and overcome problems with focus and motivation. They also work with athletes to improve performance and recover from injuries. But sports psychologists do not just work with elite and professional athletes. They also help regular people learn how to enjoy sports and learn to stick to an exercise program.

### **History**

Sports psychology is a relatively young discipline within psychology. In 1920, Carl Diem founded the world's first sports psychology laboratory at the Deutsche Sporthochschule in Berlin, Germany. In 1925, two more sports psychology labs were established – one by A.Z. Puni at the Institute of Physical Culture in Leningrad and the other by Coleman Griffith at the University of Illinois.

Griffith began offering the first course in sports psychology in 1923 and later published the first book on the subject titled *The Psychology of Coaching* (1926). Unfortunately, Griffith's lab was closed in 1932 due to lack of funds. After the lab was shut down, there was very little research on sports psychology until the subject experienced a revival of interest during the 1960s.

Ferruccio Antonelli established the International Society of Sport Psychology (ISSP) in 1965 and by the 1970s sports

psychology had been introduced to university course offerings throughout North America. The first academic journal, the *International Journal of Sport Psychology*, was introduced in 1970, which was then followed by the establishment of the *Journal of Sport Psychology* in 1979.

By the 1980s, sports psychology became the subject of a more rigorous scientific focus as researchers began to explore how psychology could be used to improve athletic performance, as well as how exercise could be utilized to improve mental well-being and lower stress levels.

### **Sports Psychology Today**

Contemporary sports psychology is a diverse field. While finding ways to help athletes is certainly an important part of sports psychology, the application of exercise and physical activity for improving the lives of non-athletes is also a major focus.

### **Major Topics**

There are a number of different topics that are of special interest to sports psychologists. Some professionals focus on a specific area, while others study a wide range of techniques.

- **Imagery:** Involves visualizing performing a task, such as participating in an athletic event or successfully performing a particular skill.

- **Motivation:** A major subject within sports psychology, the study of motivation looks at both extrinsic and intrinsic motivators. Extrinsic motivators are external rewards, such as trophies, money, medals or social recognition. Intrinsic motivators arise from within, such as a personal desire to win or the sense of pride that comes from performing a skill.

- **Attentional Focus:** Involves the ability to tune out distractions, such as a crowd of screaming fans, and focus attention on the task at hand.

## **Careers**

Becoming a sports psychologist could be an exciting career choice for many psychology students, especially those who have a strong interest in sports and physical activity. The American Psychological Association describes sports psychology as a “hot career,” suggesting that those working in university athletic departments earn around \$60,000 to \$80,000 per year. If you are interested in this career, learn more about the educational requirements, job duties, salaries and other considerations in this profile of careers in sports psychology.

## **UNIT 5. INDUSTRIAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY**

### **1. Read and translate the key words.**

1. coach
2. to conduct
3. counsel
4. to apply
5. need
6. implement
7. customer
8. satisfaction
9. to identify
10. to assess
11. independent
12. interpersonal
13. company policies
14. construction sites
15. consumer behavior
16. hiring systems
17. human performance
18. organizational behavior
19. performance measurement
20. productivity
21. recruitment
22. responsibility

### **2. Think what the basic concepts of I-O psychology are.**

**3. Read the text. Check if your ideas were right. Don't pay attention to the numbered gaps at this stage.**

The specialty of industrial-organizational psychology (also called I/O psychology) is characterized by the scientific study of human behaviour in organizations and the work place. The specialty focuses on deriving principles of individual, group and organizational behaviour and applying this knowledge to the solution of problems at work.

Specialized knowledge and training in the science of behaviour in the workplace requires 1)..... knowledge of organizational development, attitudes, career development, human performance, consumer behaviour, job and task analysis and individual assessment. Industrial Organizational Psychology addresses issues of recruitment, selection and placement, training and development, performance measurement, workplace motivation and reward systems, quality of work life, structure of work and human factors, organizational development and consumer behaviour.

I/O psychologists:

- Identify training and development needs;
- Design and optimize job and quality of work life;
- Formulate and implement training programs and evaluate their effectiveness;
- Coach employees;
- Develop criteria to evaluate performance of individuals and organizations;
- Assess consumer preferences, customer satisfaction and market strategies.

The industrial side of I/O psychology generally focuses on the individuals and their relationship to the workplace. This might cover such things as job analysis, employee safety, employee training, job performance measurement, and employee hiring systems.

The organizational side of I/O psychology, on the other hand, focuses on the organization and workplace as a whole. Increasing productivity and maximizing the performance of the organization.

For example, professionals concerned with this aspect of I/O psychology will often look at how an organization might affect a worker's individual behaviour. This might include studies on 2)..... relationships in the workplace, as well as workplace environments and organizational policies.

Both sides of industrial and organizational psychology became prominent during two different points in history. Industrial psychology, for example, came about during the First World War. Theories and techniques of this type of psychology were applied in order to assign soldiers to jobs and duty stations that suited them best. The foundations of organizational psychology was largely influenced by what was known as the Hawthorne studies, which was performed in a Western Electric plant in Hawthorne, Illinois, during the 1920's and 1930's. Western Electric officials performed a number of experiments in which they raised and lowered the levels of light to see if the workers in the plant would become more or less productive. Researchers concluded that during the experiments, workers' productivity increased whether the light levels were raised or lowered. After World War II, psychologist Harry Landsberger studied these findings and concluded that the levels of light had nothing to do with increased productivity. They became more productive because the presence of the researchers at the time of the experiments made the workers feel as though someone was interested in their work.

Some of the main responsibilities of an industrial and organizational psychologist are to study the results of existing research or conduct 3)..... research. In order to conduct original research, an I/O psychologist might use a number of different methods. He might observe employees in action or conduct surveys, for instance. An I/O psychologist might also study workplace policies and other similar documents. By looking closely at the

results of research done on workplaces and organizations, an industrial and organizational psychologist might be able to solve any number of problems. For instance, he might be able to: – increase productivity in the workplace; – increase the quality of a workplace; – counsel 4)..... employees on personal and work related matters; help rewrite company policies so that they benefit everyone involved. While working, industrial and organizational psychologists will typically work closely with a number of different people. This might include business owners, CEOs, supervisors, and employees. An industrial and organizational psychologist might work in several different areas and all different types of organizations. They might work in 5)..... collar organizations, like factories, plants, and construction sites. They might also work in 6)..... collar organizations, such as office buildings. Many industrial and organizational psychologists work directly for companies in human resources departments. Others, however, might work as 7)..... consultants, coming onto the scene only when they are needed.

**4. Complete the numbered gaps in the text, using the adjectives from the list below.**

*unhappy; original; white; independent; blue; interpersonal; in-depth*

**5. Comprehension check. Answer the questions.**

- a) What are I/O psychologists' responsibilities?
- b) What do industrial and organizational sides of I/O psychology focus on?
- c) Which historical events led to the development of I/O psychology?

**6. Make collocations, matching the verbs from column A to the nouns from B.**

| A         | B                     |
|-----------|-----------------------|
| Counsel   | knowledge             |
| Conduct   | needs                 |
| Apply     | training programs     |
| Implement | customer satisfaction |
| Identify  | research              |
| Assess    | employees             |

**Compare with the text.**

**7. Make at least three sentences with verb+noun collocations above.**

**8. Watch the video:**

Organisational Psychology <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=DJx1By-a7-4>

**While-watching take notes on the following points:**

- what the work typically involves;
- what psychologists enjoy about their work;
- what they find the most challenging.

**9. Discuss which qualities you possess can help you in the work of I/O psychologist.**

## UNIT 6. SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

### 1. Read and translate the key words.

1. core
2. social
3. branch
4. sociology
5. cognition
6. motivation
7. development
8. information
9. mental
10. personality
11. opinion
12. contemporary
13. language
14. cognitive
15. emphasis
16. to conform to
17. abnormal
18. reason
19. discipline
20. wish
21. opinion
22. event
23. diverse
24. to identify
25. to influence smb/to have an influence on smb
26. life span
27. observable
28. perception
29. to prevent
30. various

## **2. Read the text below and answer the question:**

### **Social Psychology**

Social psychology is that branch of psychology most closely associated with the social sciences, especially sociology. Within the discipline of psychology, social psychology is defined as being concerned with how psychological processes within the individual (e.g., cognition, personality, motivation, development, etc.) are affected by exposure to social stimuli (i.e., events, information, or objects representing one or more people). The most distinctive feature of social psychology in North America for the past 30 years has been its emphasis on the individual's cognitive processes – mental functioning such as attention, perception, memory, thought, and decision making. For that reason, of all the disciplines within psychology, social psychology is perhaps most closely linked to cognitive psychology, the study of mental functioning (memory, thought and language are core topics within the general area of cognitive psychology). Beyond that, social psychology also has ties to the areas of personality, abnormal behavior, development, and motivation.

Social psychology is characterized by its interest in a diverse array of questions and topics. For example, in trying to understand different types of social behavior – such as helping another person in need or conforming to another's wishes or opinions – is the nature of the situation of greater importance than the individual's personality characteristics? How do we come to «know» ourselves and others? What is a good way to change someone's opinion on a given subject? When does our sense of justice lead us to respond unfairly to someone else? What role do cognitive (i.e., mental) processes play in social behavior? Contemporary social psychology provides answers to these and other questions.

1. How is social psychology defined?
2. What is cognitive psychology?
3. Why is social psychology closely linked to cognitive psychology?
4. Does social psychology deal with personality?
5. What is the area of investigation of social psychology?

### **3. Ask questions to the underline words:**

1. The most distinctive feature of social psychology in North America for the past 30 years has been its emphasis on the individual's cognitive processes.

2. Social psychology is most closely linked to cognitive psychology.

3. Social psychology is defined as being concerned with how psychological processes within individual are affected by exposure to social stimuli.

4. Contemporary social psychology provides answers to these and other questions.

5. Social psychology also has ties to the areas of personality, abnormal behavior, development, and motivation.

### **4. Choose the correct preposition:**

to be associated to/with/by

to have ties with/by/to

to be defined by/as/on

to be characterized with/by/to

to be affected by/with/on

to conform to/by/at

to be linked with/by/to

to respond at/in/to.

**5. Read the description of sub-fields of psychology on the right, underline key words and then match with the names on the left.**

|                                                |                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                               |
|------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1. Political psychology                        | a) includes the study and application of psychology for the purpose of understanding, preventing, and relieving psychologically-based distress or dysfunction and to promote subjective well-being and personal development.                                                  |
| 2. The psychology of art                       | b) studies cognition, the mental processes underlying mental activity. Perception, learning, problem solving, reasoning, thinking, memory, attention, language and emotion are areas of research.                                                                             |
| 3. Parapsychology                              | c) Mainly focusing on the development of the human mind through the life span, developmental psychology seeks to understand how people come to perceive, understand, and act within the world and how these processes change as they age.                                     |
| 4. Psycholinguistics or psychology of language | d) is the branch of psychology concerned with the scientific study of human learning. It studies how humans learn in educational settings, the effectiveness of educational interventions, the psychology of teaching, and the social psychology of schools as organizations. |
| 5. Positive psychology                         | e) is an interdisciplinary field focused on the interplay between humans and their surroundings.                                                                                                                                                                              |
| 6. Educational psychology                      | f) applies psychological concepts and methods to optimize human potential in the workplace.                                                                                                                                                                                   |
| 7. Social psychology                           | g) The term has only recently come into use, and typically refers to any non-clinical law-related research. It explores such topics as jury decision-making, eyewitness memory, scientific evidence, and legal policy.                                                        |
| 8. Personality psychology                      | h) seeks an understanding of the relationships between mediated communication and the thoughts, feelings, and behaviors of the senders and recipients of the communication.                                                                                                   |

|                                                    |                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                              |
|----------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 9. Legal psychology                                | i) studies patterns of behavior, thought, and emotion in individuals, commonly referred to as personality.                                                                                                                                                                   |
| 10. Media psychology                               | j) is the study of social behavior and mental processes, with an emphasis on how humans think about each other and how they relate to each other.                                                                                                                            |
| 11. Organizational psychology                      | k) is the branch of psychology that uses scientific understanding and effective intervention to aid in the achievement of a satisfactory life, rather than treating mental illness.                                                                                          |
| 12. Industrial and organizational psychology (I-O) | l) is a subfield of I-O psychology which examines the effects of work environments and management styles on worker motivation, job satisfaction, and productivity.                                                                                                           |
| 13. Environmental psychology                       | m) is the study of the psychological and neurobiological factors that enable humans to acquire, use, comprehend and produce language.                                                                                                                                        |
| 14. Developmental psychology                       | n) is an interdisciplinary field that studies the perception, cognition and characteristics of art and its production.                                                                                                                                                       |
| 15. Cognitive psychology                           | o) is a field of study concerned with the investigation of paranormal and psychic phenomena which include telepathy, precognition, reincarnation, clairvoyance, psychokinesis, near-death experiences, and other paranormal claims. It is often identified as pseudoscience. |
| 16. Clinical psychology                            | p) is an interdisciplinary academic field dedicated to understanding politics, politicians and political behavior from a psychological perspective.                                                                                                                          |

## **6. Speaking. Work in pairs.**

Discuss which field of psychology you are most interested in. Give reasons for your choice.

**7. Find English equivalents in the task 5 above for the following words:**

включати, охоплювати; область, сфера; підхід; (практичне) застосування; запобігати, попереджати; сприяти, пропагувати; тривалість життя; втручання; взаємодія, взаємний вплив; одержувач (реципієнт); модель поведінки; галузь, розділ; розуміти; передбачення; ясновидіння.

**8. Write what you know about Consumer, Political, Media and Parapsychology.**

## UNIT 7. POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY

### 1. Read and translate the key words.

1. affirmation
2. consumption
3. to dismiss
4. dysfunction
5. extrinsic
6. impact
7. intrinsic
8. outcome
9. positive mindset
10. sound mind
11. subset
12. treasure
13. virtues
14. volunteering
15. kindness
16. happiness
17. relationship
18. share
19. support
20. to enrich
21. external
22. to cultivate
23. gratitude
24. mindfulness
25. hope
26. grateful
27. spiritual

**2. Work in pairs. Share your ideas as for the notion and the task of Positive psychology.**

**3. Work in small groups. Brainstorm and write a list of your associations with Positive psychology. Report to the whole class.**

**4. Read the text. While-reading the text, underline the ideas which are similar to yours, expressed in previous activities.**

### **What Is Positive Psychology?**

Positive psychology is the study of happiness. Psychology has traditionally focused on **dysfunction** and how to treat it. Positive psychology, in contrast, is a field that examines how ordinary people can become happier and more fulfilled. Positive psychology studies what makes life most worth living.

Positive Psychology is a **subset** within the broader field called the Science of Happiness, which extends to the natural as well as social sciences. For example, Positive Psychology is largely focused on the study of positive emotions and “signature strengths”, yet the Science of Happiness extends, for example, to such areas as exercise and psychological well-being as well as the **impact** of social media on happiness in human relationships. Positive psychology is the scientific study of what makes life most worth living. It is a call for psychological science and practice to be as concerned with strength as with weakness; as interested in building the best things in life as in repairing the worst; and as concerned with making the lives of normal people fulfilling as with healing pathology.

Nowhere does this definition say or imply that psychology should ignore or **dismiss** the very real problems that people experience. Nowhere does it say or imply that the rest of psychology

needs to be discarded or replaced. The value of positive psychology is to complement and extend the problem-focused psychology that has been dominant for many decades.

Positive psychology is science and science requires checking theories. Accordingly, positive psychology is not to be confused with untested self-help and footless **affirmation**. Consider what has been learned in recent years about the psychological good life, none of which was mentioned in any of the psychology courses a few decades ago:

- Most people are happy.
- Happiness is a cause of good things in life.
- People who are satisfied with life eventually have more reason to be satisfied, because happiness leads to desirable outcomes at school and work, to fulfilling social relationships, and even to good health and long life.
- The good life can be taught.

This latter point is especially important because it means that happiness is not simply the result of a fortunate spin of the genetic roulette wheel. There are things that people can do to lead better lives.

**5. Look at the words in bold in the text above. Choose the correct meaning: a) or b).**

- dysfunction
  - a) unhealthy interaction; b) abnormal functioning;
- subset
  - a) division; b) portion;
- impact
  - a) pressing together; b) direct effect;
- dismiss
  - a) to reject; b) to permit to leave;

- affirmation
- a) emotional support or encouragement; b) pronouncement;
- outcome
- a) result; b) walking out.

**6. Read about the seven habits of happy people. Put them in the order of importance personally for you (where 1 – is the most important, 7 – the least important).**

### **The 7 Habits of Happy People**

#### **1. Relationships**

Express your heart. People who have one or more close friends are happier. It doesn't seem to matter if we have a large network of close relationships or not. What seems to make a difference is if and how often we cooperate in activities and share our personal feelings with a friend or relative. "Active-constructive responding", which is the ability to express genuine interest in what people say, and respond in encouraging ways, is a powerful way to enrich relationships and cultivate positive emotions.

#### **2. Acts of Kindness Cultivate kindness.**

People who volunteer or simply care for others on a consistent basis seem to be happier and less depressed. Although "caring" can involve volunteering as part of an organized group or club, it can be as simple as reaching out to a colleague or classmate who looks lonely or is struggling with an issue.

#### **3. Exercise and Physical Well-being**

Keep moving and eat well. Regular exercise has been associated with improved mental well-being and a lower incidence of depression. The Cochrane Review (the most influential medical review of its kind in the world) has produced a landmark analysis of 23 studies on exercise and depression. One of the major conclusions was that exercise had a "large clinical impact" on depression. Many studies

are proving the ancient adage, “sound body, sound mind”, including the recent discovery of a “gut-brain axis”, and a possible link between excessive sugar consumption and depression.

#### 4. Flow

Find your flow. If we are deeply involved in trying to reach a goal, or an activity that is challenging but well suited to our skills, we experience a joyful state called “flow”. Many kinds of activities, such as sports, playing an instrument, or teaching, can produce the experience of flow. According to Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi, a pioneer of the scientific study of happiness, flow is a type of intrinsic motivation. In his words, “you do what you’re doing primarily because you like what you’re doing. If you learn only for external, extrinsic reasons, you will probably forget it as soon as you are no longer forced to remember what you want to do”.

#### 5. Spiritual Engagement and Meaning

Studies demonstrate a close link between spiritual and religious practice and happiness. Spirituality is closely related to the discovery of greater meaning in our lives. As the psychologist Martin Seligman emphasizes, through the meaningful life we discover a deeper kind of happiness.

#### 6. Strengths and Virtues

Discover and use your strengths. Studies by experts such as Martin Seligman in the new field of Positive Psychology show that the happiest people are those that have discovered their unique strengths (such as persistence and critical thinking) and virtues (such as humanity) and use those strengths and virtues for a purpose that is greater than their own personal goals.

#### 7. Positive mindset: optimism, mindfulness and gratitude

Treasure gratitude, mindfulness, and hope. Of all the areas studied in the relatively young field of positive psychology, gratitude has perhaps received the most attention. Grateful people have been shown to have greater positive emotion, a greater sense of belonging, and lower incidence of depression and stress.

**7. Compare your results in groups. Justify your answers.**

**8. Role play. Work in pairs. Choose your roles. Make a conversation.**

Student A You are a positive psychologist. You have done a lot of research. A patient comes to you with his/her problem. Listen to the complaints and give advice.

Student B You have recently started feeling depressed. You don't see the sense of your life. You go to a specialist to get consultation. Invent all necessary details.

*Use the following structures to give advice:*

I think you should/shouldn't...

You'd better....

If I were you, I'd...

## **UNIT 8. THE HUMAN BRAIN AND ITS FUNCTIONS**

### **1. Read and translate the key words.**

1. temporal lobe
2. frontal lobe
3. occipital lobe
4. auditory cortex
5. hemisphere
6. amygdala
7. brainstem
8. thalamus
9. limbic system
10. to expose
11. consonant
12. neuroscientist
13. rotate
14. dissonant
15. insight
16. repress
17. mature
18. neuromodulator
19. neurotransmitter
20. wire
21. intuition
22. relax
23. unique
24. insomnia
25. to disappear
26. dominant
27. medulla
28. hypothalamus
29. pituitary gland

**2. Read the text and decide whether the statements below are TRUE or FALSE.**

**Anatomy of the Human Brain**

The largest part of the human brain is the cerebrum, which is divided into two hemispheres. Underneath lies the brainstem, and behind that sits the cerebellum. The outermost layer of the cerebrum is the cerebral cortex, which consists of four lobes: the frontal lobe, the parietal lobe, the temporal lobe and the occipital lobe.

Like all vertebrate brains, the human brain develops from three sections known as the forebrain, midbrain and hindbrain. Each of these contains fluid-filled cavities called ventricles. The forebrain develops into the cerebrum and underlying structures; the midbrain becomes part of the brainstem; and the hindbrain gives rise to regions of the brainstem and the cerebellum.

The cerebral cortex is greatly enlarged in human brains, and is considered the seat of complex thought. Visual processing takes place in the occipital lobe, near the back of the skull. The temporal lobe processes sound and language, and includes the hippocampus and amygdala, which play roles in memory and emotion, respectively. The parietal lobe integrates input from different senses and is important for spatial orientation and navigation.

The brainstem connects to the spinal cord and consists of the medulla oblongata, pons and midbrain. The primary functions of the brainstem include: relaying information between the brain and the body; supplying some of the cranial nerves to the face and head; and performing critical functions in controlling the heart, breathing and consciousness.

Between the cerebrum and brainstem lie the thalamus and hypothalamus. The thalamus relays sensory and motor signals to the cortex and is involved in regulating consciousness, sleep and alertness. The hypothalamus connects the nervous system to the endocrine system – where hormones are produced – via the pituitary gland.

The cerebellum lies beneath the cerebrum and has important functions in motor control. It plays a role in coordination and balance, and may also have some cognitive functions.

1. The smallest part of the human brain is the cerebrum.
2. Cerebrum is divided into two hemispheres.
3. The human brain develops from four sections.
4. Visual processing takes place in the occipital lobe.
5. The hypothalamus connects the nervous system to the endocrine system via the pituitary gland.

**3. Match the terms (1–6) with their definitions (a–f).**

1. Brain
2. Neuron
3. Process
4. White matter
5. Gray matter
6. Sensory information

- a) information that comes from the sense organs
- b) the organ in the body responsible for thinking
- c) to take in and understand something
- d) a part of the CNS that does not contain nerve cell bodies
- e) a nerve cell
- f) a part of the CNS that contains nerve cell bodies

**4. Read the text and decide whether the statements below are TRUE or FALSE.**

**The Best Way to Keep Your Brain Younger**

The brain is particularly sensitive during the middle years. The brains of obese individuals are physiologically 10 years older than

lean individuals, new research finds. Scientists looked at the brain's white matter. The white matter is the tissue that connects the areas and enables them to communicate with each other. Dr. Lisa Ronan, first author of this study, said: "As our brains age, they naturally shrink in size, but it isn't clear why people who are overweight have a greater reduction in the amount of white matter. We can only speculate on whether obesity might in some way cause these changes or whether obesity is a consequence of brain changes". The study looked at the brains of 473 people aged between 20 and 87. Overweight individuals had significantly less white matter in their brains than lean individuals. The differences were only seen from middle-age onwards. Professor Paul Fletcher, senior author of the study, added: "We're living in an ageing population, with increasing levels of obesity, so it's essential that we establish how these two factors might interact, since the consequences for health are potentially serious. The fact that we only saw these differences from middle-age onwards raises the possibility that we may be particularly vulnerable at this age. It will also be important to find out whether these changes could be reversible with weight loss, which may well be the case". Professor Sadaf Farooqi, co-author of the study, said: "We don't yet know the implications of these changes in brain structure. Clearly, this must be a starting point for us to explore in more depth the effects of weight, diet and exercise on the brain and memory".

1. The brain is particularly sensitive during the young years.
2. The white matter is the tissue that connects the areas and enables them to communicate with each other.
3. It is clear why people who are overweight have a greater reduction in the amount of white matter.
4. We're living in an ageing population.

5. The brains of obese individuals are physiologically 10 years older than lean individuals.

**5. Find English equivalents in the text for the following words:**

товстий/ожирілий; худорлявий; скорочуватися; зменшення; міркувати; наслідки; уразливий; оборотний; об'єм; нестача; здібність

**6. Is there a direct dependence of cognitive abilities on the people's weight according to the article?**

**7. What is your opinion of the article?**

## **UNIT 9. THE SENSE ORGANS. THE SENSE OF HEARING**

### **1. Read and translate the key words.**

1. bell
2. sound
3. ear
4. hear
5. vibration
6. wave
7. canal
8. eardrum
9. bone
10. skin
11. hammer
12. anvil
13. stirrup
14. nerve
15. message
16. deaf
17. warn
18. siren
19. ambulance
20. danger
21. cause
22. across
23. liquid
24. press
25. sense
26. to bark
27. to cry
28. world
29. air

## **2. Read the text and answer the questions below:**

### **The Sense of Hearing**

A bell rings, a baby cries, and a dog barks. Every day we hear thousands of sounds. Our world is full of sound. What causes sound? How do our ears let us hear sounds?

Sound is caused by vibrations, the quick back-and-forth movements of an object. The vibrations move through air, water, the ground, or some other substance. The vibrations move in waves. They are called sound waves. In order to understand how people hear sound waves, you must understand how the ear works.

There are three important parts of the ear: the ear canal, the eardrum, and the small bones. Each part is important for hearing. Sound waves enter the ear through the ear canal and hit the eardrum.

The eardrum is a thin skin that is stretched tightly across the inside of the ear. It is like the material that is stretched across the top of a drum. The eardrum begins to vibrate, or move back-and-forth quickly. This vibration causes three very small bones in the ear to vibrate. These little bones are called the hammer, anvil, and stirrup. They get their names because they look like these objects.

These vibrations of the eardrum cause more vibrations in a liquid that fills the deepest part of the ear. The moving liquid presses on the hearing nerves. These nerves pass the sound message on to the brain. When the message reaches the brain, the person can hear the sounds.

It is important for humans to be able to hear sound. Sounds can warn of danger and emergencies. If you see a person cross the street into the path of an oncoming car, you would call to the person to watch out. The driver of the oncoming car would honk the horn to warn the person. Fire alarms warn people of fire. Sirens on ambulances and police cars tell you to move to the side. Some people cannot hear. They are deaf and cannot be warned of danger in the same way. In this text you learned about the sense of hearing, about the ear and how humans hear.

- 1) Name the three parts of the ear.
- 2) What happens to the eardrum when sound waves hit it?
- 3) What are the three small bones in the ear called?
- 4) How did they get their names?
- 5) What presses on the hearing nerve cells?
- 6) What do nerves inside the ear do?

**3. The following words define the parts of the ear responsible for hearing except two. Find and cross them out.**

Hammer, sound waves, eardrum, anvil, message, ear canal, hearing nerves, stirrup.

**4. Match the verbs and the nouns from the chart below, write the phrases in your notebook. You can get more than six of them. Don't forget to translate the phrases:**

|       |     |         |
|-------|-----|---------|
| pass  | the | ear     |
| enter |     | horn    |
| reach |     | brain   |
| get   |     | message |
| warn  |     | person  |
| honk  |     | names   |

**5. Make phrases using the prepositions.**

|         |                 |
|---------|-----------------|
| Through | some substances |
| In      | ear canal       |
| Into    | ground          |
| On      | hearing nerves  |
| For     | hearing         |
| To      | water           |
|         | the path        |
|         | the side        |
|         | air             |

## **UNIT 10. THE SENSES OF SMELL AND TASTE**

### **1. Read and translate the key words.**

1. smell
2. odor
3. papillae
4. tongue
5. salty
6. to sniff
7. sweet gas
8. bitter
9. smoke
10. sour
11. fragrance
12. bump
13. aromatherapy
14. to spray
15. tip
16. sting
17. ammonia
18. coolness
19. menthol
20. pepper
21. mouth
22. around
23. cell
24. transmit
25. throat
26. food
27. protect
28. damage
29. chemical

## **2. Read and find the details in the text.**

- 1) What are the bumps on the tongue called?
- 2) What is located inside the bumps on your tongue?
- 3) Where are sweet things tasted?
- 4) What is an odor?
- 5) Why do people sniff?
- 6) What is the psychological mechanism of smelling and tasting?
- 7) How is it connected to brain?
- 8) What the name of smell and taste system is?
- 9) Why is it important to be able to smell things?
- 10) What is aromatherapy based on?

### **The Senses of Smell and Taste**

Why does a potato chip taste salty?

Why does sugar taste sweet?

There are two sense organs you use to taste. One of these sense organs is the tongue. If you look in the mirror and stick out your tongue, you will see little bumps on it. These bumps are called papillae. Inside each of these bumps are tiny taste buds. Taste buds are cells that are connected to nerves. The nerves carry messages about the food you eat to the brain. The nerves tell your brain how something tastes. You can taste if something is bitter, sour, sweet, or salty.

You taste bitter things at the back of your tongue, sour and salty things on the sides, and sweet things on the tip. The tongue is only one part of the sense of tasting.

The other sense organ you use to taste is your nose. The nose is also the sense organ you use to smell. The smell of food plays a big part in how food tastes. If food smells good, it usually tastes good! Sometimes when you have a cold and your nose is stopped up, you cannot smell anything. When this happens, nothing you eat will taste

very good either. Everything that has a smell gives off a small amount of gas. This gas is called an odor.

When you breathe in, the odor enters your nose. Some things have a weak odor. When things have a weak odor, you have to sniff to bring the odor into your nose. There are special nerves in the nose that send the “smell message” to the brain. Odor enters through the nose and passes to the nerves. The nerves send a “smell message” to the brain.

Is it important to be able to smell things? Your sense of smell protects you from danger. You smell smoke when there is a fire. Food begins to smell bad when it is no longer good to eat. Animals such as skunks spray a liquid that has a bad odor to protect them from danger.

In this text you learned about the senses of taste and smell and their two sense organs, the tongue and the nose. You also learned why these two senses are important.

How do smell and taste work? Smell and taste belong to our chemical sensing system, or chemo sensation. The complicated processes of smelling and tasting begin when molecules released by the substances around us stimulate special nerve cells in the nose, mouth or throat. These cells transmit messages to the brain, where specific smells or tastes are identified.

Olfactory (smell nerve) cells are stimulated by the odours around us – the fragrance from a rose, the smell of bread baking. These nerve cells are found in a tiny patch of tissue high up in the nose, and they connect directly to the brain.

Taste cells react to food or drink mixed with saliva and are clustered in the taste buds of the mouth and throat. Many of the small bumps that can be seen on the tongue contain taste buds. These surface cells send taste information to nearby nerve fibers, which send messages to the brain.

Taste and smell cells are the only cells in the nervous system that are replaced when they become old or damaged. Scientists are examining this phenomenon while studying ways to replace other damaged nerve cells.

A third chemosensory mechanism, called the common chemical sense, contributes to our senses of smell and taste. In this system, thousands of free nerve endings – especially on the moist surfaces of the eyes, nose, mouth and throat – identify sensations like the sting of ammonia, the coolness of menthol and the “heat” of chili peppers.

**3. Group the following words according to whether they describe the sense of taste or smell, or both.**

Brain, papillae, tongue, throat, smell, odor, nerves, organs, salty, sweet gas, sniff, bitter, buds, smoke, olfactory, sour, nose, bumps, fragrance.

**4. Translate the following word combinations from the text:**

*The sting of ammonia, the coolness of menthol and the “heat” of chili peppers.*

**5. Find all word combinations with the word nerve in the text and translate them.**

## **UNIT 11. THE SENSES OF SIGHT AND TOUCH**

### **1. Read and translate the key words.**

1. iris
2. muscle
3. sight
4. pigment
5. retina
6. eyelid
7. image
8. astigmatism
9. enlarge
10. eye
11. pupil
12. farsighted
13. nearsighted
14. distance
15. receive
16. skin
17. hug
18. kiss
19. pressure
20. touch

### **2. Read the text and find the details.**

- 1) Could you name the main parts of the eye?
- 2) What is the function of the iris?
- 3) When does the pupil change size?
- 4) Name two important functions of the eyelid.
- 5) On which part of the eye does a picture form?
- 6) How does the brain help you to see?

- 7) Name a common eye problem.
- 8) How can eye problems be corrected?
- 9) Why are human eyes better than a camera?

### **The Sense of Sight**

Which part of your body lets you read the book, check out a rainbow, and see a ball heading your way? Which part lets you cry when you are sad and makes tears to protect itself? Which part has muscles that adjust to let you focus on things that are close up or far away? If your guess is the eye, you are right!

The eye is the sense organ of sight. You see with your eyes. Your eyes work like a very good camera. They can take pictures that are still or moving, in color or in black and white, and from a distance or close up. Of course, your eyes are better than a camera!

The eye is made up of different parts: the iris, pupil, eyelid, and retina. The iris is a muscle. It is the part of the eye that lets in the right amount of light. The big, coloured circle in the centre of the eye is the iris. Pigment gives the iris its color. The color of the iris is different in different people. Look at your classmates' eyes. What color irises do you see?

In the centre of the iris there is a hole that lets in the light. This hole is the pupil. The iris muscle can change or adjust the size of the pupil. The pupil will enlarge if the light is dim and get smaller when the light is bright.

The eyelid is another important part of the eye. It has two important functions. The eyelid controls the amount of light that enters the eye. When you want to keep out light, you can lower your eyelid. Also, raising and lowering the eyelids helps keep the eyes moist.

Another important part of the eye is the retina. The retina is the part of the eye that receives the image and focuses the light. A picture forms on the retina in the back of the eye. The image on the retina is upside down. How does the image get right side up, so you see normally?

Light enters through the pupil in the eye and is received by the nerves in the retina. When the nerves in the retina receive the light, they send a “picture message” to the brain. This picture message is upside down. The brain changes the message into a right-side-up picture. The brain performs a very important function in the sense of sight.

Sometimes people need glasses because they cannot focus the light properly. The picture is not clear. Three of the most common eye problems are being nearsighted, farsighted, or having an astigmatism. If you are nearsighted, you can see things clearly only if they are very near. If you are farsighted, you can see things clearly only if they are far away. If you have an astigmatism, things look blurry whether they are near or far. All three problems can be corrected with eyeglasses or contact lenses.

Visual impairments can mean a number of things. If you are visually impaired it doesn’t necessarily mean you are blind, it could mean you are blind or have impaired vision. A person who is totally blind cannot see light or anything else. Some people use different things to help with their visual impairments by using adaptations such as glasses, Braille, seeing eye dogs, canes, and adaptive computer technology. Eyeglasses or contact lenses help focus the light properly so that you can see clearly all the time.

There are many devices such as screen readers, computers and many other inventions that were made and still being made to help people that are visually impaired. There are many inventions for computers that make other technological devices then usable to the Visually Impaired – and can change their lives forever.

Seeing Eye dogs and canes are used more for helping people get around from place to place. A Seeing Eye dog is specially trained to help a visually impaired or blind person get back and forth from work, school, or even to the neighbor’s house. The dogs go to a special school where they learn to obey traffic lights, veer the person out of the way of poles, and help him/her down steps. They

wear a harness and the owner holds on to it and tells the dog where to go. Many people like Seeing Eye dogs for their ability to get the person where they're going pretty fast. Then again, some people dislike them because if the person wants to go somewhere new, the dog might not know how to get there. Seeing Eye dogs help people get where they're going though they are not for everyone.

Canes are like Seeing Eye dogs, in that they are mobility oriented but the person uses it by swinging it back and forth to tell if objects are close by. The cane is one of the earliest forms of getting around for a blind person and still is widely used today. Over the years we will have new technologies for blind people but I still feel that the cane will remain one of the leading forms of transportation for Visually Impaired people.

Braille is a system of raised dots that a blind person can read with their fingertips. There are two grades of Braille; grade one and two. Grade one is a little bit harder but will teach the person the basic letters and short words. Grade two is a combination of letters that forms a word. For example, the word him is HM. This allows the person to read the Braille faster.

There are many machines that coordinate with the use of Braille, such as the Braille typewriter, a machine that reads the text and prints it out in Braille, and there are many libraries that now carry Braille books. There is also Braille printers that allow computer files to be transformed into Braille, even graphics.

### **3. The following are the words from the text with opposite meanings. Match them.**

Lower, still, colour, moving, from a distance, back, forth, close up, back, enlarge, raise, black and white, dim, front, far away, nearsighted, bright, upside down, get smaller, farsighted, near, right-side-up.

**4. The following words are parts of the eye. Cross the odd ones out.**

Iris, harness, pupil, muscle, sight, pigment, retina, eyelid, cane, image.

**5. Here are some important words from the text. Do you understand all of these words? Find the words in the text. Talk about the meaning of these words with your classmates. See if you can use them in the sentences of your own.**

Astigmatism, enlarge, eye, eyelid, pupil, farsighted, iris, nearsighted, pigment, retina.

**6. Read the text and render it in English.**

### **The Sense of Touch**

Your skin can help if you are feeling too hot or too cold. Your blood vessels, hair, and sweat glands cooperate to keep your body at just the right temperature. If you were to run around in the heat, you could get overheated. If you play outside when it is cold, your inner temperature could drop. Either way, your skin can help.

Your body is pretty smart. It knows how to keep your temperature right around 37 °C to keep you healthy. Your skin can respond to messages sent out by your hypothalamus, the brain's inner thermometer.

The skin is the sense organ of touch. It has millions of nerves that make it sensitive to touch. When something touches the skin, the sensory nerves in the skin send messages to the brain. The brain receives the messages as unpleasant or pleasant feelings. There are five kinds of messages the brain can receive from the sensory nerves

in the skin. These messages are pain, heat, cold, pressure, and light touch.

The sense of touch is very important. You can learn about your body through the sense of touch. Babies learn much of what they know about the world through their sense of touch. If a baby touches a hot stove, the nerves in the skin send a message of pain and heat to the brain. Almost immediately, the baby will remove his or her hand. If babies did not have this warning signal, they could seriously injure themselves.

When you are injured, you often wish you could not feel pain; yet, it is important that you feel pain. Pain protects you and lets you know if there is something wrong in your body.

**7. A stranger might tap (touch lightly with his or her fingers) another stranger on the shoulder in order to get the other's attention. The following verbs that describe different ways of touching may help you. Translate the verbs using a dictionary.**

Caress, poke, slap, nudge, hug, kiss, smack, tickle, prod, pat, punch, tap.

**8. Work with a partner and brainstorm a list of as many different situations as you can in which it is permissible or acceptable for one person to touch another person in your culture. Note which part of the body is used to make the touch, on which part of the body the touch may occur, and who the toucher and touched might be. Describe the age, social status and job position of both people.**

## **UNIT 12. MEMORY**

### **1. Read and translate the key words.**

1. ability
2. to allow
3. to create
4. to interact
5. major
6. memory
7. encoding
8. storage
9. retrieval
10. awareness
11. sensory
12. short-term
13. auditory information
14. to generate
15. recall
16. trigger
17. associated
18. permanent
19. to record
20. to involve

### **2. Now read text and decide whether these sentences are true (T) or false (F):**

1. The ability to create new memories allows us to learn and interact with the world around us.
2. There are two major processes involved in memory.
3. Encoding is the process through which the information is changed into a usable form.

4. Much of the stored memory lies inside our awareness most of the time.

5. During sensory memory sensory information from the environment is stored for a very long period of time.

6. We attend to only certain aspects of sensory memory.

7. Short-term memory is also known as active memory.

8. In Freudian Psychology, long-term memory would be called conscious.

9. The specific way information is organized in long-term memory is well understood.

10. A memory of a specific place might activate memories about related things that have occurred in that location.

### **What is Memory?**

Have you ever wondered how you manage to remember information for a test? The ability to create new memories, store them for periods of time, and recall them when they are needed allows us to learn and interact with the world around us. Consider for a moment how many times a day you rely on your memory to help you function, from remembering how to use your computer to recollecting your password to log-in to your online bank account. The study of human memory has been a subject of science and philosophy for thousands of years and has become one of the major topics of interest within cognitive Psychology. But what exactly is memory? How are memories formed? The following overview offers a brief look at what memory is, how it works, and how it is organized.

Memory refers to the processes that are used to acquire, store, retain, and later retrieve information. There are three major processes involved in memory: encoding, storage, and retrieval.

In order to form new memories, information must be changed into a usable form, which occurs through the process known as

encoding. Once information has been successfully encoded, it must be stored in memory for later use. Much of this stored memory lies outside of our awareness most of the time, except when we actually need to use it. The retrieval process allows us to bring stored memories into conscious awareness.

While several different models of memory have been proposed, the stage model of memory is often used to explain the basic structure and function of memory. Initially proposed in 1968 by Atkinson and Shiffrin, this theory outlines three separate stages of memory: sensory memory, short-term memory, and long-term memory.

Sensory memory is the earliest stage of memory. During this stage, sensory information from the environment is stored for a very brief period of time, generally for no longer than a half-second for visual information and 3 or 4 seconds for auditory information. We attend to only certain aspects of this sensory memory, allowing some of this information to pass into the next stage short-term memory.

Short-term memory, also known as active memory, is the information we are currently aware of or thinking about. In Freudian Psychology, this memory would be referred to as the conscious mind. Paying attention to sensory memories generates the information in short-term memory. Most of the information stored in active memory will be kept for approximately 20 to 30 seconds. While many of our short-term memories are quickly forgotten, attending to this information allows it to continue on the next stage – long-term memory.

Long-term memory refers to the continuing storage of information. In Freudian Psychology, long-term memory would be called the preconscious and unconscious. This information is largely outside of our awareness, but can be called into working memory to be used when needed. Some of this information is fairly

easy to recall, while other memories are much more difficult to access.

The ability to access and retrieve information from long-term memory allows us to actually use these memories to make decisions, interact with others, and solve problems. But how is information organized in memory? The specific way information is organized in long-term memory is not well understood, but researchers do know that these memories are arranged in groups.

Clustering being used to categorize information, it becomes easier to remember and recall. For example, consider the following group of words: desk, apple, bookshelf, red, plum, table, green, pineapple, purple, chair, peach, yellow. Spend a few seconds reading them, then look away and try to recall and list these words. How did you group the words when you listed them? Most people will list using three different categories: color, furniture and fruit.

One way of thinking about memory organization is known as the semantic network model. This model suggests that certain triggers activate associated memories. A memory of a specific place might activate memories about related things that have occurred in that location. For example, thinking about a particular campus building might trigger memories of attending classes, studying, and socializing with peers.

### **3. Answer the following questions.**

1. For how many years has the study of human memory been a subject of science and philosophy?
2. What does memory refer to?
3. How many major processes are there involved in memory?
4. What is encoding?
5. What process follows after encoding?

6. What is the retrieval process?
7. What stages of memory does the stage model of memory outline?
8. What is sensory memory?
9. What is short-term memory?
10. What is long-term memory?
11. How do you understand clustering?
12. What is the semantic network model?

**4. Give Ukrainian equivalents of the following words and word combinations and illustrate them in your own sentences:**

Encoding, storage, retrieval, conscious awareness, the stage model of memory, sensory memory, short-term memory, long-term memory, visual information, auditory information, active memory, to pass into the next stage, to generate, to be called into, working memory, to recall, to be arranged in groups, clustering, categorized information, semantic network model, trigger, associated memories.

**5. Find definitions to the following:**

- a) Long-term memory
  - b) Episodic memory
  - c) Sensory memory
  - d) Human information processing
  - e) Short-term memory
  - f) Learning
- 1) What our minds do in response to information we get from the world around us. This information includes data from the five senses, including language that we hear or read.
  - 2) The conscious repetition of information for retention purposes.

3) ... comprises more-detailed knowledge of particular events that we have experienced.

4) Also known as working memory, it stores and processes information selected from sensory memory.

5) A type of memory that keeps a relatively permanent record of information.

6) Lasting only for a second or less, this memory holds information from the world in its original form.

**6. How many collocations can you make with the verb to remember or the noun memory? What can people remember?**

**7. Make a short summary of the text.**

## UNIT 13. EMOTIONS

### 1. Read and translate the key words.

1. extrovert
2. introvert
3. pessimistic
4. optimistic
5. aggressive
6. passive
7. joy
8. fear
9. anger
10. disgust
11. grief
12. disappointment
13. sadness
14. anticipation
15. happiness
16. emotion wheel
17. trust
18. disposition
19. response
20. obscure
21. terror
22. rage
23. shame
24. guilt
25. excitement
26. significant
27. distinct
28. ecstasy
29. pleasant
30. to predict

## **2. Read the text below and answer the question:**

### **Experiencing Emotion**

Our feelings are obscure and confused. But their obscurity has not deterred psychologists from attempting to sort them out. Some psychologists have identified dimensions of emotional experience, such as pleasant versus unpleasant and mild versus intense. (Terror is more frightening than fear, rage is angrier than angry, ecstasy is happier than happy.) Other psychologists have sought to identify the fundamental emotions – emotions that are biologically, facially, and experientially distinct. Carroll Izard believes that there are ten 46 fundamental emotions (interest-excitement, joy, surprise, distress, anger, disgust, contempt, fear, shame, and guilt), most of which are present in infancy. Other emotions, he says, are combinations of these (love, for instance, being a mixture of joy and interest-excitement). Among various human emotions, we looked closely at three: fear, anger, and happiness.

#### **Fear.**

Fear is an adaptive emotion, even though it can be traumatic. Although we seem biologically predisposed to acquire some fears, the enormous variety of human fears is best explained by learning.

#### **Anger.**

Anger is most often aroused by events that are not only frustrating or insulting but also interpreted as willful and unjustified. Although blowing off steam may be temporarily calming, it does not, in the long run, reduce anger. Expressing anger can actually arouse more anger.

#### **Happiness.**

A good mood boosts people's perceptions of the world and their willingness to help others. The moods triggered by the day's

good or bad events seldom last more than that day. Even seemingly significant good events, such as a substantial raise in income, seem not to increase happiness for long. The apparent relativity of happiness can be explained by the adaptation-level and relative-deprivation principles. Nevertheless, some people are usually happier than others, and researchers have identified factors that predict such happiness.

1. Is it possible to sort out feelings and emotions?
2. What emotions are considered to be fundamental?
3. What kind of emotion is fear?
4. What can anger be aroused by?
5. When do we experience happiness?

### **3. Choose which word best fits each blank.**

#### **1. Passive/optimistic**

A. A(n)..... person expects to be happy.

B. If someone is ....., he or she avoids arguments.

#### **2. Pessimistic/aggressive**

A. .... people believe that their lives will get worse and worse.

B. A(n) ..... person might yell at other people to achieve a goal.

#### **3. Disposition/response**

A. The subject's..... to the question showed that she was unhappy.

B. The man's ..... is usually friendly and kind.

### **4. Compose a table: Positive and Negative emotions.**

**5. Make adjectives for the given nouns:**

joy  
enthusiasm  
pride  
grief  
fear  
anger  
hostility  
sadness  
jealousy  
disgust

**6. Ask your partner about the last time he/she felt sad, proud etc. Ask follow-up questions if possible.**

**7. Read the text and decide whether the statements below are TRUE or FALSE.**

**Development of Emotions**

From birth until about the age of four the whole of the child's emotional needs are centered on the mother.

The division which the child may be imagined to be making at this stage is between what is "me" – what is "not me". "Not me" comes to be recognized as a constant element against an inconstant background. This soon turns into a recognition of the mother as another person.

From the age about four to about seven there is a change in his relationship occasioned by the child's growing capacity to form separate relationships with other people. Although the influence of the mother are of supreme importance in forming the child's attitude to these relationships.

The normal child is by nature eager and accepting, but these qualities will emerge provided that the parents are accepting in their attitude towards the child. Children are both remarkably plastic and resilient. It is always possible for the child to regain an emotional equilibrium if the parental troubles can be removed.

1. From birth until about the age of four the whole of the child's emotional needs are centered on the father.

2. "Not me" comes to be recognized as a constant element against an inconstant background.

3. This soon doesn't turn into a recognition of the mother as another person.

4. The normal child is by nature eager and accepting.

5. It is impossible for the child to regain an emotional equilibrium even if the parental troubles can be removed.

## UNIT 14. ADDICTIONS

### 1. Read and translate the key words.

1. adverse effect
2. allay
3. beverage
4. cessation
5. consumption
6. drunkenness
8. emerge
9. relate
10. excessive
11. sober
12. guilt
13. substance
14. indulge
15. justify
16. depend
17. refer
18. abuse
19. consume
20. substance
21. habitually
22. recreational stage
23. paramount
24. implementation
25. compulsivity

### 2. Read the text and find the details.

#### Alcoholism

Alcoholism is a behavioural and or chemical addiction to either or both the consumption of or the inebriating effects of alcohol.

Whereas “addiction” is defined as “compulsive drug use despite negative consequences”, alcoholism is the continued abuse of alcohol regardless of the detrimental consequences to the health of mind or body.

Alcoholism in the social sense refers to the excessive use of alcoholic beverages leading to disturbances which affect the individual and society. In a medical sense it is considered a form of toxicomania in which the substance abused is alcohol. There are various stages of alcoholism, along with the different syndromes, psychotic and otherwise, that develop. These include the personality changes found in alcoholism.

On etiology alcohol is used because of its effects on mental and physical state and that it has relaxing, sedative and euphoriant effects. The need for this effect is greater in people with neurotic or psychopathic traits, although social and psychological factors are also important. These include tradition, education, the micro-social environment (family life), physical and mental strain, psychotraumatic events. A genetic component is also recognized, although the etiological role of physiological factors is not established.

To justify their drinking alcoholics try to create so-called alibi system. Weighty arguments are presented as to why excessive drinking was necessary in each particular situation. When no alibi is any longer sufficient to explain regular drunkenness, an explanatory system of universal type emerges, postulating drunkenness as style of life. Society and other people relate to the person in a condemnatory, even hostile manner. The person feels guilty and endeavours to mitigate his guilt by conscientiously doing what is required of him. When sober, such people are very meticulously dressed, are always exaggeratedly polite, sugary, accommodating, and immediately ready to fulfill any desire one may have. The development of this expiatory behavior is the basis of the myth that all alcoholics are nice people. They are simply forced to be nice because of their problem. The person acts in a way that will restore his esteem in the eyes of others and allay his guilt.

The pattern of alcohol abuse depends upon personality traits. Thus, hyperthymic personalities may indulge in wild taking these to excess as they are prone to do in all aspects of life, for instance with various adventures, sexual or otherwise. Hysterics put on a show of drinking bravado to gain attention. Schizoid individuals may also abuse alcohol, but this likely to be in small, regular amounts, mainly in an attempt to relieve tension.

Because of the emphasis on premorbid personality there is no distinction between primary and secondary alcoholism, although “symptomatic” alcoholism, occurring in psychiatric disorders such as schizophrenia is recognized.

1. What is meant by the term alcoholism?
2. Why do people use alcoholic beverages?
3. What factors may influence the individual’s alcohol intake?
4. What is the common alcoholics’ behavior? Why do they have act like that?
5. Are alcoholics nice people indeed?
6. What does the pattern of alcohol abuse depend on?
7. Is there any difference between primary and secondary alcoholism while classifying them?

**3. Ask the questions to the underlined parts of the sentences.**

1. There are various stages of alcoholism, along with the different syndromes that develop.

2. On etiology alcohol is used because of its effects on mental and physical state and that it has relaxing, sedative and euphoriant effects.

3. To justify their drinking alcoholics try to create so-called alibi system.

4. The person acts in a way that will restore his esteem in the eyes of others and allay his guilt.

5. The pattern of alcohol abuse depends upon personality traits.
6. Schizoid individuals may also abuse alcohol.

#### **4. Match the words with their definitions.**

- |                         |                                                                                                                                                                                                 |
|-------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1) alcohol              | a) one who meets criteria for alcohol dependence or has experienced physical, psychological, social, or occupational impairment as a consequence of habitual, excessive consumption of alcohol; |
| 2) alcoholism           | b) common, alcohol-induced organic mental disorder characterized by varying stages of behavior alteration, depending on the amount of alcohol used and individual variation in tolerance;       |
| 3) alcoholic            | c) primary chronic disease with genetic, psychosocial, and environmental factors influencing its development and manifestations. It is characterized by impaired control over drinking;         |
| 4) alcohol intoxication | d) state of complete abstinence from alcohol and other drugs of abuse in conjunction with a satisfactory quality of life;                                                                       |
| 5) sobriety             | e) short-acting sedative that by pharmacological classification shares certain properties with sedative/hypnotic drugs, including a similar withdrawal syndrome.                                |

### **5. Put in the prepositions.**

1. Alcoholism refers ... the excessive use of alcoholic beverages.

2. ... etiology alcohol is used because ... its effects on mental and physical state.

3. Hyperthymic personalities may indulge ... excess alcohol drinking.

4. The pattern of alcohol abuse depends ... personality traits.

5. An alcoholic acts ... a way that will restore his esteem in the eyes of others.

6. The need ... alcohol is greater in people with neurotic or psychopathic traits.

7. There are various stages of alcoholism, along ... the different syndromes.

### **6. Translate into Ukrainian:**

Drug abuse has a wide range of definitions, all of them relating to the use, misuse or overuse of a psychoactive drug or performance enhancing drug for a non-therapeutic or non-medical effect. Some of the most commonly abused drugs include alcohol, amphetamines, barbiturates, caffeine, cannabis, cocaine, methaqualone, nicotine, opium alkaloids, and minor tranquilizers.

### **7. Make derivatives:**

#### **noun**

depend

withdraw

predispose

#### **verb**

addiction

abuse

implication

## **8. Read the text and render it in English.**

### **Theories of Drug Addiction**

There are three models of why people become addicted to drugs:

- the disease model
- the physical dependency model
- the positive reinforcement model.

At one time people with problems associated with alcohol or other drugs were regarded as sinners or criminals. Towards the end of the 19th century the medical profession began to use the word addiction as both an explanation for, and diagnosis of, excessive drug use. This idea was formalized in the 1950s when the World Health Organization (WHO) and American Medical Association (AMA) classified alcohol and drug abuse as a disease. One consequence of this change in attitude is the notion that the addict is not in control of their behavior, that they require treatment rather than punishment.

One problem with the disease model is that it not clear how one catches this disease. The presence of withdrawal symptoms led to the idea that the avoidance of withdrawal symptoms was the reason people continued to self-administer drugs. This is the essence of the physical dependency model.

After repeated exposure to certain drugs, withdrawal symptoms appear if the drug is discontinued.

Withdrawal symptoms are compensatory reactions that oppose the primary effects of the drug. Therefore they are the opposite of the effects of the drug.

Withdrawal effects are unpleasant and reduction in these effects would therefore constitute negative reinforcement. Negative reinforcement is the reinforcement of behaviour that terminates an aversive stimulus. Negative reinforcement could explain why addicts continue to take the drug. However some addicts will

endure withdrawal symptoms in order to reduce their tolerance so that they can recommence drug intake at a lower dose which costs less to purchase.

Concentrating on the role of physical withdrawal effects at the expense of other psychological factors led to the failure to recognize the addictive properties of cocaine. Cocaine does not produce physical dependency (tolerance and withdrawal symptoms) but it is more addictive than heroin.

It is also important to emphasize that reduction in withdrawal symptoms does not explain why people take drugs in the first place. Negative reinforcement may account for initial drug taking in some situations. For example, someone who is suffering from unpleasant emotions may experience a reduction in these feelings (i.e. negative reinforcement) following drug administration.

However the most likely reason for drug taking involves positive reinforcement.

The reinforcing properties of a drug are thought to be reason why most people become addicted to drugs.

Addictive drugs are positive reinforcers. As you know positive reinforcement can lead to learning a new response, and the maintenance of existing behaviours. It follows that the behaviours associated with taking an addictive drug (i.e. injecting or smoking it) will increase in probability. One way of testing this claim is to examine the reinforcing properties of drugs in animals. At one time it was believed that animals could not be made addicted to drugs, but that view is now rejected because technical developments have shown that animals will learn new behaviours that cause injection of drugs into their body.

The most popular contemporary view of why humans self-administer potentially lethal drugs is that these chemicals activate the reinforcement system in the brain. This system is normally activated by natural reinforcers such as food, water, sex etc.

Reinforces are thought to increase the effect of dopamine at 234 receptors in the mesolimbic system which originates in the ventral tegmental area and terminates in the nucleus accumbens. Reinforces all share one physiological effect: They increase the release of dopamine (DA) in the nucleus accumbens. This effect can be produced by addictive drugs such as amphetamine, cocaine, opiates, nicotine, alcohol, PCP, and cannabis as well as natural reinforces such as food, water and sexual contact.

### **9. Answer the questions to the text:**

1. What are the three models of why people become addicted to drugs?
2. When did the medicine begin to use the word addiction?
3. What is the essence of physical dependency model?
4. How are withdrawal symptoms defined?
5. What is considered to be the reason why most people become addicted to drugs?
6. What is the role of nature reinforces?

## UNIT 15. FEARS

### 1. Read and translate the key words.

1. fear
2. approximately
3. toddler
4. separation
5. change
6. profoundly
7. index
8. consequence
9. attachment
10. recognition
11. intense
12. overcoming
13. overwhelming
14. reinforce
15. eliminate
16. thunderstorm
17. hesitate
18. strength
19. hence
20. hesitate

### 2. Read the text and choose the best answer to the questions below.

#### Children's Fears

1. Children's fears come and go, but most children experience similar types of fears at approximately the same age. For toddlers, the worst fears are often associated with separation and change.

Toddlers want their own mommy, daddy, spoon, chair, and bed. They are profoundly conservative little people. The most daring toddlers feel content if they can hold onto what they already know. Yet, children's fears are a useful index of their development. Fear of strangers appears to be a consequence of their first specific attachment, and its ending is a sign that they have acquired a more inclusive schema of faces and people in general. A child who is afraid of cats, but not of rabbits, evidently can differentiate one small animal from another. Fear of a particular person implies recognition of that person.

2. Just as children learn to fear things, they can learn what not to fear. As long as fears do not become too intense, a child's natural impulse to explore and discover things will be of help. Parents can be of assistance, both in overcoming fears and in preventing their development. They can prepare a child through play, stories, and happy prognostications for dealing with new situations that might be overwhelming; give prompt and unstinted comfort after a frightening experience or a bad dream; provide a night-light if the child is afraid of the dark; and devise ways in which a child can be gently and gradually – not abruptly – encouraged to take another look at feared objects and situations. Avoidance of the feared object reinforces the fear, and the fear becomes increasingly intense. Children's fears should be taken seriously, never ridiculed or dismissed as silly or babyish. Often, if the caregiver can get the child to explain exactly what it is that is so frightening, the child can be reassured. The one thing not to do is force children into confronting a feared situation before they are ready to do so.

3. Almost all children are afraid of something and, as with adults, these fears are often well-grounded. If we are in an open field during a thunderstorm, we probably have good reason to be afraid of lightning.

4. But occasionally fear of something gets out of control and becomes a phobia. A phobia is an irrational fear of something. A child may be afraid of the dark and hesitate to go up the stairs alone at night. But when the child refuses to remain in a place where there is no light, such as the movies or his or her bedroom, the fear is taking too great a toll on the child's development.

5. There are many different ways that phobias are treated in children. One of these techniques, commonly referred to as contact desensitization, is a behavioral technique designed to eliminate unnatural fears. The basic premise of the technique is that any fear is learned, and that anything that is learned can be unlearned. If a child is overly sensitive to something like water, for example, the gradual introduction of the feared object coupled with a pleasant experience can help reduce the strength of the fear, making it more manageable.

6. This exact technique was used in one study with fifty snake-avoidant children ranging in age from three to nine years. To see which technique was most effective, the fifty children were divided into five groups:

A. Members of the "contact desensitization group" were told about snakes and how to approach them, were encouraged by an adult to approach a snake, were given praise when they tried, and watched one adult hold the snake.

B. The "contact desensitization without touch group" received all that group A did, but no one touched the snake.

C. The "verbal input plus modeling group" received verbal input and modeling (when the adult touched the snake).

D. The "verbal input only" received only verbal assurances from the adult.

E. Finally, one group of children received no treatment and, hence, was called the "no treatment group."

7. The researchers used something called the Behavior Avoidance Test to see if there was a reduction in avoidance of the snake. Here,

an adult reads a series of instructions to each child, asking him or her to do things such as approach the snake, pet it, pick it up, and hold it. The instructions go from little contact with the snake to increasing contact. This way the researchers can see which group of children has the most contact.

8. The results showed that 82 per cent of the children in the contact desensitization group reduced their fear of snakes. Children in the other groups also reduced their fear, but not as dramatically.

9. Fears are something we all have to live with. When they get out of hand, a technique like the one we described here can be very useful in assisting a child through a difficult experience.

1) Which of the following details best supports the authors' point that children can be helped to overcome fears?

a) Fear of strangers usually ends when a child develops a more inclusive schema of faces and people.

b) Children should never be forced to confront a feared situation before they are ready to do so.

c) A child can sometimes be reassured after a caregiver has encouraged the child to explain the fear.

d) Many of children's fears are well-grounded and reasonable.

2) In paragraph 1, the sentence "The most daring toddlers feel content if they can hold onto what they already know" can best be described as having which of the following effects on the reader?

a) It focuses the reader's attention on the wide variety of children's fears.

b) It informs the reader of a specific type of fear.

c) It helps the reader understand children's fears from an adult perspective.

d) It allows the reader to decide how best to handle children's fears.

3) Based on the information presented in this selection, a child can best be helped to overcome a fear of riding an escalator by:

a) talking with an adult about why riding an escalator is frightening.

b) watching an adult ride an escalator, being encouraged to try it, and being praised if he or she does.

c) being allowed to avoid escalators until the fear has diminished naturally.

d) watching an adult ride an escalator and receiving verbal assurances from the adult that it is safe.

4) Which of the following details from the passage is least relevant to the authors' main topic?

a) Parents can help prevent the development of fears in their child.

b) Just as children learn to fear things, they can learn what not to fear.

c) A child's fears should be taken seriously; they should not be ridiculed.

d) In one study of children's fears, fifty children were divided into five groups.

**3. Think about your childhood. Can you remember any children's fears that you experienced? What was the reason for these fears? Do you think they were well-grounded or irrational? What did your parents do to help you overcome these fears? Share your memories with your partner.**

**4. Do you understand all of these words? Circle the words you do not understand. Then find the words in the text above. Talk about the meaning of these words with your partner and make your own sentences.**

Index, strangers, to prevent, to overcome, to overwhelm, to avoid, irrational, sensitive, desensitization, treatment.

**5. This is a self-discovery test to help you discover the level of your unhealthy fears. Please understand that there is a difference between an awareness of real danger and an unhealthy fear.**

*I do not fear rattle-snakes and have killed a number of them in my youth, but I don't stick my hand in a dark hole under a rock where there may be a rattlesnake.*

Please check the appropriate answer with 0 being the weakest or none and 5 being the strongest fear.

1. Fear of the dark.
2. Fear of heights.
3. Fear of falling.
4. Fear of sickness and disease.
5. Fear of failure.
6. Fear of evil.
7. Fear of dying.
8. Fear of large animals.
9. Fear of dogs.
10. Fear of cats.
11. Fear of being poisoned.
12. Fear of closed spaces.
13. Fear of success.
14. Fear of the future.
15. Fear of divorce.
16. Fear of snakes or other reptiles.
17. Fear of spiders.
18. Fear of crawling bugs.
19. Fear of birds.
20. Fear of storms.
21. Fear of loud sounds.
22. Fear of evil spirits.

23. Fear of Hell.
24. Fear of losing your salvation.
25. Fear of public speaking.
26. Fear of end time events.
27. Fear of open spaces.
28. Fear of being alone.
29. Fear of germs.
30. Fear of anyone in authority.
31. Fear of men (male gender).
32. Fear of women (female gender).
33. Fear of haunted houses.
34. Fear of being around dead people.
35. Fear of flying (travel).
36. Fear of driving (travel).
37. Fear of getting old.
38. Fear of getting married.
39. Fear of being “found out”.
40. Fear of being poor.
41. Fear of what others may think about you.
42. Fear of guns, knives or other weapons.
43. Fear of insects.
44. Fear of the unknown.
45. Fear that God doesn’t love or accept you.
46. Fear of being in a crowded place.
47. Fear of personal mental illness.
48. Fear of seeing blood.
49. Fear of dirt.
50. Fear of going to sleep.
51. Fear of being overweight.
52. Fear of being underweight.
53. Fear of going to church.

54. Fear of not being prepared.
55. Fear of being punished.
56. Fear of evil people.
57. Fear of losing control of your emotions.
58. Fear of not awaking from sleep.
59. Fear of being ugly.
60. Fear of being naked.
61. Fear of being poor.
62. Fear of losing weight.
63. Fear of making decisions.
64. Fear of losing your family.
65. Fear of disorder/not having your life planned.
66. Fear of being emotionally wounded.
67. Fear of giving birth (child bearing).
68. Fear of recalling a past event.
69. Fear of remaining single.
70. Fear of aliens.
71. Fear of crying.
72. Fear of being angry.
73. Fear of being happy.
74. Fear of committing suicide.
75. Fear of having relations.
76. Fear of being labeled by others.
77. Fear of being emotionally intimate with others.
78. Fear of fire or being burned.
79. Fear of being tortured.
80. Fear of being without medication.
81. Fear of committing the unpardonable sin.
82. Fear of being in a hospital.
83. Fear of having surgery.
84. Fear of someone looking over your shoulder.

85. Fear of water or drowning.
86. Fear of mirrors.
87. Fear of certain foods.
88. Fear of being starved.
89. Fear of moving.
90. Fear of changes in your routine.
91. Fear of angels.
92. Fear of electronic gadgets.
93. Fear of sudden disaster.
94. Fear of what someone said about you may come true.
95. Fear of not being able to do what was told you.
96. Fear that you will never be a success.
97. Fear of open spaces.
98. Fear of losing a family member through death.
99. Fear that God may or may not speak to you.
100. Fear that is not otherwise listed.

**6. Complete the sentences using a suitable word:**

*terror, situation, harm, height, crew, board, fear, takeoff, phobia, rush, tunnel, enclosed*

- 1) The people who work on airplanes and ships are called the ... .
- 2) Tom found himself in a difficult ... and he didn't know what to do.
- 3) A ... is an illogical fear of something.
- 4) ... is a very strong word for fear.
- 5) ... is the feeling you have when you are afraid.
- 6) When you are in a hurry, you ... .
- 7) Some dogs bite, but most of them won't ... anyone.
- 8) Passengers check in at the airport. Then they ... plane.

9) After ..., the airplane crew usually brings around drinks and food.

10) Some people become terrified when they are in an ... space.

11) What is the ... of the tallest building in your city.

**7. Answer the questions and discuss the problems with a partner.**

1) What are some phobias? Name some.

2) Do you have any phobias?

3) How is fear to fly called? Give four reasons people are afraid of flying.

4) Is there any way to help people with phobias?

## UNIT 16. ABNORMAL BEHAVIOR

### 1. Read and translate the key words.

1. pervasive
2. developmental
3. responsiveness
4. distortion
5. bizarre
6. sympathy
7. participation
8. insufficiency
9. error
10. problem
11. specific
12. usual
13. poor
14. show
15. obtain
16. develop
17. exhibit
18. aphasia
19. echolalia.
20. perplexing
21. silent
22. shyness
23. heartbeat
24. insensitivity
25. confidence
26. attractive
27. inferior
28. exaggerated
29. isolation
30. reject

## **2. Read the text below and answer the questions below:**

### **Infantile Autism**

Infantile autism is a category of pervasive developmental disorders that is marked by serious distortions in psychological functioning. There may be deficits in language, perceptual, and motor development; defective reality testing; and an inability to function in social settings. There is a lack of responsiveness to other people, gross impairment in communication skills, and bizarre responses to various aspects of the environment, all developing within the first 30 months of age. It is a rare condition, occurring in only 2 to 10 children out of 10,000. It occurs more often in boys than in girls.

The cause of the disorder is unknown, but it is believed to be a result of multiple factors, including genetics, perinatal complications and perhaps problems with biochemical substances in the body. As many as 50 % of children with the disorder are also cognitively impaired.

#### **Common Symptoms in the Child with Autism**

- Social isolation, abnormal social interaction
- Stereotyped behaviors
- Resistance to any change in routine
- Abnormal responses to sensory stimuli
- Insensitivity to pain
- Inappropriate emotional expressions
- Disturbances of movement
- Poor development of speech, impaired communication
- Specific, limited intellectual problems

Because of the lack of responsiveness to people that is part of the syndrome, normal attachment behavior does not develop. Infants fail to cuddle or make eye contact or exhibit facial unresponsiveness. They do not reach to be picked up. They are unable to play

cooperatively or make friendships. Parents may first bring a child to a healthcare facility thinking he or she is deaf because of this.

The impairment in communication is shown in both verbal and nonverbal skills. Language may be totally absent. If a child does speak, grammatical structure may be impaired (the use of “you” when “I” is intended is common). There is inability to name objects (nominal aphasia) and abnormal speech melody, such as question-like rises at the end of statements. Echolalia (repetitive words or phrases spoken by others) and concrete interpretation also may be present.

### **Therapeutic Management**

Autism is a perplexing condition. Parents need a great deal of support so that they do not reject the child because he or she seems to be rejecting them. Behavior modification therapy may be effective in controlling some of the bizarre mannerisms that accompany autism, but because the basic cause of the disorder is not known, therapy will not always succeed.

As children mature, they develop greater awareness of and attachment to parents and other familiar adults. A day care program can help to promote social awareness. Some children may eventually reach a point where they can become passively involved in loosely structured play groups. Some children may be able to lead independent lives, although social ineptness and awkwardness may remain, especially if accompanied by cognitive impairment.

1. What areas are important to address for the child who is cognitively challenged to reach his optimal level of functioning?
2. What assessment findings would you expect to find with a child with infantile autism?
3. What is the cause of infantile autism?
4. Why may parents first bring a child with infantile autism to a healthcare facility thinking he or she is deaf?
5. How is impairment in communication shown?
6. What does therapeutic management of autism include?

**3. Ask questions to the underlined words:**

1. Infantile autism is marked by serious distortions in psychological functioning.

2. The lack of responsiveness to other people, gross impairment in communication skills, and bizarre responses to various aspects of the environment develop within the first 30 months of age.

3. This rare condition occurs more often in boys than in girls.

4. Because of the lack of responsiveness to people that is part of the syndrome, normal attachment behavior does not develop.

5. The impairment in communication is shown in both verbal and nonverbal skills.

6. Behavior modification therapy may be effective in controlling some of the bizarre mannerisms that accompany autism.

**4. Choose a synonym to the underlined word:**

1. There may be deficits in language, perceptual, and motor development.

- a) insufficiency
- b) errors
- c) problems

2. There is a lack of responsiveness to other people.

- a) sympathy
- b) participation
- c) respect

3. Children with infantile autism have bizarre responses to various aspects of the environment.

- a) specific
- b) usual
- c) poor

4. Infants fail to make eye contact or exhibit facial unresponsiveness.

- a) show
- b) obtain
- c) develop

5. Autism is a perplexing condition.

- a) severe
- b) strange
- c) normal

**5. Tell your partner what you know about these notions:**

- infantile autism
- nominal aphasia
- echolalia.

**6. Read the text below and answer the questions:**

- 1) What happens when a person blushes?
- 2) Do you think black people blush?
- 3) What types of people blush more?
- 4) What is blushing related to?
- 5) How can you define shy people? What are three theories about shy people?

**Shyness and Blushing**

Blushing is related to general anxiety, when people feel worried and nervous about what is going to happen.

Shy people blush because they are always worried about what others think of them. They don't have any confidence in themselves. Shy people are anxious about themselves all the time. They can't think about other people's feelings very much because they are too

worried about themselves and what others are thinking about them. They think other people are more intelligent and can do everything better. They think other people are more attractive and more popular. They believe others have more knowledge. How do you feel when you realize you just gave a stupid answer in class? Or how would you feel if you were in the cafeteria, you dropped your dishes, and everyone stared at you when they heard the loud crash? You would feel embarrassed. When you are embarrassed, you want to sink through the floor so no one can see you. If you are really unlucky, you also blush. Your face gets red as a beet, and you can't do anything about it. It seems to stay red forever. People stare at you even more, and you feel even more embarrassed. Why do people blush? Not much research has been done on it. Psychologists say that people of all skin colors blush. Women blush more than men, and young people blush more than older people. Some people blush only a few seconds, but the blush can appear and disappear for five or ten minutes in other people. Usually only the face or upper part of the body blushes come very shy if they have to deal with people from a different social class, or if they have to work with more intelligent or more skilled people. Shy people get very anxious when they don't know how to act in situations that other people think are just ordinary. They feel inferior and want to get out of the situation.

Everything that shy people do with other people is difficult for them. Two researchers asked hundreds of men and women what made them most anxious. They said going to a party with strangers was the worst. That was even worse than having to give a speech or have an interview for a new job. They also felt unhappy when people asked them personal questions in public or when they talked to someone in a superior position. Young people were anxious when they met the parents of a date. The first day on a new job was also hard for shy people.

Shy people behave differently from more confident people. They don't want to complain about bad service in a store or restaurant. They don't make suggestions or volunteer to do things. They avoid social gatherings. They usually speak in a low voice.

Some shy people have physical reactions when they have to face one of these situations. Their hands get cold and moist or shaky, their mouth gets dry, they break out in a cold sweat, and their heart beats faster. They might have butterflies in their stomach, or feel nauseated.

There are three theories about why people are shy. One theory says that a person inherits shyness from the parents, that is, the person is born with this personality characteristic because the parents were shy. Another theory is that shy people never learned how to act with other people because no one ever taught them social skills.

The third theory says that shy people learned to be shy when they were children because their parents didn't encourage them to be more confident. The parents probably comforted them and gave them extra attention when they acted shy, so the children learned that being shy was a good way to get extra love and attention. Now researchers say that apparently all three theories are true. A study at Harvard University showed that even some infants acted shy when they were faced with something new and strange. They became silent and their heartbeat changed. Other infants were not afraid when faced with something unfamiliar, and their heartbeat didn't change. They appeared to have more confidence. This seems to prove that some of these infants inherited shyness; they didn't learn it.

These children were observed again when they were in kindergarten. None of the non-shy children had become shy. A few of the shy ones were less shy; apparently their parents had helped them learn to be more confident. Most of these children who had become more confident were boys.

Shy people have exaggerated feelings about themselves. They are very concerned about their outward behavior, their feelings of self-consciousness, and their physical symptoms of shyness. They are so anxious about themselves that the feelings of others don't touch them. They think everyone else is very self-confident. Obviously, no one is completely self-confident about their babies.

**7. Write what you know about “Learning Disabilities” (10–15 sentences).**

## **UNIT 17. PSYCHOLOGICAL DISORDERS**

### **1. Read and translate the key words.**

1. paranoid personality disorder
2. avoidant personality disorder
3. dependent personality disorder
4. depression
5. schizotypal personality disorder
6. narcissistic personality disorder
7. exaggerated
8. APA
9. ICD
10. WHO
11. DSM
12. self-esteem
13. self-image
14. self-absorption
15. hostility
16. to diagnose
17. bipolar disorder
18. stress disorder
19. multi-axial system
20. PTSD
21. generalized anxiety disorder
22. OCD
23. mood disorder
24. compulsion
25. to identify

## 2. Read the text below and answer the questions below:

### **Mental Retardation in Children**

The DSM-IV defines *cognitive impairment* on the basis of two criteria: significantly sub average general intellectual functioning – an intelligence quotient (IQ) of 70 or below – and concurrent deficits in adaptive functioning in at least 2 major areas. For infants, because available intelligence tests do not yield numerical values, a clinical judgment of significant sub average intellectual function must be made.

Approximately 2 % of children in the United States are cognitively challenged. This is not the result of a single cause, but conditions such as genetic abnormalities (e.g., fragile X syndrome and Down syndrome [trisomy 21]) and metabolic disorders (e.g., phenylketonuria).

### **Classification**

**Mild Mental Retardation.** About 80 % to 90 % of children who are cognitively challenged fall into this category. In this group, a child's IQ is between 70 and 50. During early years, these children learn social and communication skills and are often not distinguishable from average children. They are able to learn academic skills up to about the sixth-grade level. As adults, they can usually achieve social and vocational skills adequate for minimum self-support. They need guidance and assistance when faced with new situations or unusual stress.

**Moderate Mental Retardation.** Children in this category have an IQ between 55 and 35. About 10 % of cognitively challenged children fall into this category. During preschool years, these children learn to talk and communicate but they have only poor awareness of social conventions. They can learn some vocational skills during adolescence or young adulthood and take care of themselves with 190 moderate supervision. They are

unlikely to progress beyond the second-grade level in academic subjects. As adults, they may be able to contribute to their own support by performing unskilled or semiskilled work under close supervision in a sheltered workshop setting. They may learn to travel alone to familiar places. They need supervision and guidance when in stressful settings.

**Severe Mental Retardation.** Children in this group have an IQ between 40 and 20. About 4 % of cognitively challenged children fall into this category. During the preschool period, these children develop only minimal speech and little or no communicative speech. They usually have accompanying poor motor development. During school years, they may learn to talk and can be trained in basic hygiene and dressing skills. As adults, they may be able to perform simple work tasks under close supervision but as a group do not profit from vocational training. They need constant supervision for safety.

**Profound Mental Retardation.** The IQ of this group of children is below 20. Less than 1 % of cognitively challenged children fall into this group. During the preschool period, these children show only minimal capacity for sensorimotor functioning. They need a highly structured environment and a constant level of help and supervision. Some children respond to training in minimal self-care, such as tooth-brushing, but only very limited self-care is possible.

1. What level of development would you expect to see in a child who is cognitively challenged with an IQ of 45, 60, 30?
2. What are the four major categories of cognitive impairment?
3. How can intellectual functioning in infants be evaluated?
4. When do children with mild and moderate mental retardation need guidance and assistance?
5. When is the diagnosis of severe mental retardation made?
6. What do children with profound mental retardation need?

**3. Match the terms (1–4) with their definitions (A–D).**

1. exaggerated
  2. characteristic
  3. self-esteem
  4. self-image
- A. the way a person thinks others view him or her
  - B. a category of qualities or features
  - C. the way a person views him- or herself
  - D. overemphasized

**4. Read the text below and render it in English:**

**Childhood Schizophrenia**

Schizophrenia is actually a group of disorders of thought processes characterized by the gradual disintegration of mental functioning. It is a devastating mental illness that usually strikes at a young age in adolescence or young adulthood. Symptoms during childhood are usually undifferentiated or ill defined.

Over the years there has been a great deal of debate about the cause of schizophrenia. For a long time it was hypothesized that schizophrenia resulted solely from an impaired parent-child relationship. Current research, however, indicates that there is as much a genetic as an environmental basis for this disorder. It may well be that a combination of predisposing genetic factors that produce chemical reactions in combination with poor parent-child communication is responsible for the development of the disorder. The influence of the family on the course of the illness has been the subject of intense research over the past 20 years. Some family environments – for example, those with high expressed emotion, or frequent, intense expression of emotion and a critical attitude – have been categorized as those most likely to cause relapse in children

with schizophrenia discharged from hospitals. Neurologic studies have shown a linkage between schizophrenia and temporolimbic disease or frontal lesions.

Children with schizophrenia experience hallucinations (hear or see people or objects that other people cannot). They are not responsive (have a flat affect) and may withdraw so completely that they are stuporous (catatonia). Although schizophrenic manifestations may occur suddenly following a major stress in a child's life (such as rejection by a boyfriend or girlfriend) subtle signs of mental illness have usually been present for some time.

A diagnosis of a psychotic disorder of this extent is a shock to parents. Fortunately, therapy with modern antipsychotic drugs is effective in reducing children's hallucinations and bizarre thinking. Drugs that may be prescribed include trifluoperazine, chlorpromazine, and prochlorperazine. Parents need help to support a child during a long period of therapy. Many children who are diagnosed as having schizophrenia in childhood will continue to have mental illness as adults. Continuing support and long-term follow-up are essential.

### **5. In groups discuss the questions on the text.**

1. What is meant by schizophrenia?
2. When can it develop?
3. What are the causes of childhood schizophrenia?
4. What symptoms can children with schizophrenia experience?
5. Is the disease curable?
6. What treatments can reduce the symptoms of schizophrenia?
7. Can the disease subside with age?

### **6. Write an essay about the DSM.**

## GLOSSARY

**Absolute threshold** – the minimum stimulus required for a person to experience a specific sensation

**Acquisition** – the process by which we initially perceive, register, and record information in our memory

**Adaptation** – an adjustment in sensory capacity

**Ad hoc categories** – categories which are used in planning but are not as useful for organizing memory as natural categories

**Affect** – emotional response

**Affective disorder** – disturbance of mood

**Aggression** – any act that is intended to cause pain, damage, or suffering to another

**Altruism** – prosocial behaviour showing unselfish concern springing from a combination of emotional distress at another's plight and an understanding his/her needs

**Amnesia** – a condition in which a person has a severely impaired ability to remember old material or to learn new material

**Analogy** – a solution strategy in which the solver devises a solution based on an analogical correspondence between two systems

**Analytic Psychology** – a school of psychoanalysis founded in 1913 by Carl Jung  
**Anxiety** – a feeling of dread, apprehension or fear

**Arousal** – a series of physiological changes, primarily in the autonomic system, that take place when an individual has an emotion

**Autogenic training** – a technique for reducing physiological arousal based on selfsuggestion

**Automatic nervous system** – part of the nervous system, which controls visceral muscles and glands

**Basic needs** – fundamental physiological needs and intermediate psychological needs (safety and selfesteem)

**Behaviour** – everything that a person does including thoughts, feelings and dreams

**Behaviourism** – the study of observable and measurable responses to specific stimuli

**Beliefs** – knowledge structures about objects and events

**Bipolar disorder** – a disorder characterized by extreme moods, beginning with a manic episode of euphoria, excitement, and activity, followed by a depressive episode

**Case study** – an intensive investigation of one or few individuals, usually with reference to a single psychological phenomenon

**Central core** – the area of the brain that carries out functions necessary for survival

**Central nervous system (CNS)** – the part of the nervous system that is primary responsible for the transmission and storage of the information

**Cerebral cortex** – the part of the brain that is involved in higher mental functions: planning, reasoning and learning

**Character** – the combination of qualities which make a particular person different from others; nature

**Chunks** – sequences of patterns of elements in shorttime memory which include the incoming information organized into clusters

**Clinical Psychology** – the study of the diagnosis and treatment of the abnormal behaviour

**Cognition** – the process of knowing which encompasses thinking, decision making, judging, imaging, problem solving, categorizing, and reasoning – all the higher mental processes of human being

**Community Psychology** – the study of the prevention of mental disorders

**Compulsion** – the repeated performance of a particular irrational act

**Conformity** – the tendency to shift one's views or behaviour closer to the norms expressed by other people

**Consciousness** – an awareness of the mind's operations

**Consumer Psychology** – the study of the preferences, buying habits and responses to advertising

**Continuity** – a principle of grouping

**Coping** – the process of maintaining external and internal pressures that at first seem intolerable

**Creativity** – the combination of previously unconnected ideas in new and unusual ways

**Delusions** – irrational beliefs that are maintained despite overwhelming evidence that they have no basis in reality

**Dependent variable** – the behaviour sought to be tested in an experiment

**Depressant** – a drug that retards the action of the central nervous system so that neurons fire more slowly

**Developmental Psychology** – the study of the behavioural development over the life span

**Difference threshold** – the smallest change in a stimulus that produces a change in sensation

**Displacement** – the process through which items appear to be slowly deactivated from shortterm memory

**Drive** – an internal motivational factor

**Drug** – any inorganic substance that can interact with a biological system

**Dyslexia** – disorder in which children with normal intelligence and adequate environmental opportunities have extreme difficulty learning to read

**Educational Psychology** – the approach to psychology that investigates all the psychological aspects of the learning process

**Ego** – the psychic component the task of which is finding ways in the real world to satisfy the id's demands

**Egocentrism** – in cognitive development, a child's belief that others literally see things as the child does

**Emotions** – complicated psychological phenomena which arise from biological, sensory and cognitive sources and consist of three aspects: arousal, expression, experience

**Empirical approach** – the approach that is guided by experience  
**Encoding** – the process of transforming information into the form in which it will be recorded

**Environmental Psychology** – the approach to psychology that studies the relationship between people and their physical settings

**Experiment** – the comparison of two conditions that are identical in all respects except the factors being investigated

**Experimental Psychology** – investigation of basic behavioural processes shared by various species

**Extroversion** – the personality orientation in which the person is primarily oriented to the external world and thus is outgoing, sociable, and excitementseeking

**Fear of success** – the motive to avoid success

**Field experiment** – the research in the real world  
**Fixation** – the tendency to automatically apply an inappropriate strategy to a problem and then rigidly cling to that approach

**Frustration** – interference with any form of goaldirected behaviour

**Gender identity** – the child's understanding that she or he is female or male and will always remain so

**Gender roles** – attitudes and patterns of behaviour that society considers acceptable for one's own gender

**Gestalt** – a meaningful pattern or figure into which human beings group perceptual information

**Grammar** – the system of regularities governing language production and comprehension; the rules that describe the levels of speech in our language and the way those levels are related

**Hallucinations** – spontaneous sensory perceptions, usually of sounds, that are unrelated to external stimuli

**Heuristics** – intuitive rules of thumb that often give fairly accurate results

**Homeostasis** – a process of self-regulation to maintain a balanced internal environment

**Hormones** – chemical substances used by the endocrine system to transmit messages

**Hostile aggression** – aggression that aims at hurting another person

**Hypnagogic state** – the state lying between waking and sleep

**Hypochondriasis** – the preoccupation with bodily symptoms as possible signs of serious illness

**Hypotheses** – propositions to be tested Id – the part of the psyche which is primitive and animallike

**Identity** – an individual's sense of personal sameness and continuity

**Identity crisis** – an internal conflict that requires the adolescent to develop a new selfconcept

**Illusions** – perceptions that do not correspond to real objects or events Incentives – external motivational stimuli in the shape of certain cues from the environment

**Independent variable** – any factor whose change is expected to affect the event being studied Individual psychology – the school of psychology founded by Alfred Adler in 1911

**Individual trait** – a unique way of organizing the world that cannot be applied to all people

**Industrial psychology** – field of psychology concerned with human behaviour in the workplace Inferiority complex – inability to overcome a childhood sense of incompleteness

**Insight** – the sudden perception of a new relationship that leads to an innovative solution Interference – a complementary factor

promoting forgetting, the case when other material in memory blocks out the sought for memory

**Internalization** – the child's incorporation of society's values to such an extent that violation these standards produces a sense of guilt

**Interneurons** – cells that transmit information throughout the body  
**Introversion** – the personality orientation in which the person directs his interest inward rather than toward the external world and consequently is quiet, reserved, cautious, and slow to react to external events

**James Lange theory of emotion** – the theory which postulates that the perception of bodily changes is emotion  
**Kinesthesia** – the sense of body movement and position

**Latent content of dreams** – according to Freud, the unconscious wishes, primarily derived from unresolved early emotional conflicts, veiled by symbolic images in dreams

**Limbic system** – a system that is involved in emotional behaviour

**Long-term memory** – the type of memory storage capable of storing a limitless amount of information indefinitely

**Lucid dreams** – dreams in which a person is aware that he or she is dreaming

**Maintenance rehearsal** – a form of rehearsal to maintain information in shorttime memory

**Major depression** – one or more depressive episodes with no intervening episodes of euphoria

**Manifest content of dreams** – according to Freud, that level of content in dreams that is a weaving of daily events, sensations during sleep, and memories

**Meditation** – the change of consciousness by retraining attention

**Memory** – 1) repository of our accumulated knowledge of specific and general things; 2) the process of memorizing and remembering

**Metacognition** – an understanding of the cognitive processes

**Metamemory** – knowledge about how one's own memory works

**Metaneeds** – the highest motives having to do with creativity and self actualization

**Mnemonic (memoryassisting) systems** – systems which organize information so that it can be remembered

**Motivation** – the process corresponding to the property of behaviour called “motive”

**Motive** – the dynamic property of behaviour that causes it to be initiated, gives it organization over time, defines its states, and influences its vigour and persistence  
**Motor neurons** – cells that control muscle movements

**Multiple personality** – a division into two or more complete behaviour organizations, each well-defined and highly distinct from the others

**Natural categories** – categories made up of some class of objects in the world (male vs female) which are typically fuzzy, consisting of a prototype

**Nerves** – bundles of neuron fibers

**Neurons** – nerve cells adapted to transmit information by means of electrochemical impulses

**Neuropsychology** – the study of the connections between the nervous and endocrine system

**Neurosis** – any condition in which a person develops some maladaptive behaviour as a protection against unconscious anxiety

**Norms** – a society rules that prescribe “right” and “wrong” behaviour

**Obedience** – any behaviour that complies with the explicit commands of a person in authority

**Obsession** – a recurring irrational thought

**Oedipal conflict** – the most important conflict in the child's psychological development, in which children perceive themselves

as rivals of their same sex parents for the affection of the parent of the opposite sex

**Olfaction** – the sense of smell

**Olfaction epithelium** – the sense organ for olfaction

**Optic nerve** – the nerve that relays visual information to the brain

**Organism** – the total range of a person's possible experiences

**Pain thresholds** – points at which pains are first perceived

**Panic attack** – a brief period during which tension and anxiety become completely disabling

**Panic disorder** – panic attacks preceded by no specific stimulus

**Parapsychology** – the psychology of events that go beyond what is probable

**Parasympathetic nervous system** – part of the nervous system, which conserves energy functioning during normal or relaxed situations

**Perception** – is an organism's awareness of, or response to, objects and events in the environment brought about by stimulation of its sense organs

**Perceptual set** – a readiness to attend to and perceive certain stimuli in a specific way and to ignore other stimuli

**Peripheral nervous system** – part of the nervous system that carries our commands from the central nervous system

**Personality** – the organization of a person's cognitive, motivational, and social characteristics

**Personality disorder** – disorder involving inflexible and maladaptive personality traits that impair functioning

**Personality Psychology** – the study of the relation between the individual attitudes and behaviour

**Personnel Psychology** – a branch of industrial psychology. Personnel psychologists screen job applicants, evaluate job performance, and recommend employees for promotion

**Phobia** – anxiety that is irrationally focused on a particular object or situation

**Physiological Psychology** – the approach to psychology that attempts to untangle the connections between the endocrine and nervous systems and behaviour

**Pragmatics** – the study of linguistic function

**Primary drive** – an important natural human need which must be fulfilled

**Progressive relaxation** – a technique for reducing physiological arousal through deep breathing and muscle relaxation

**Proposition** – the form in which the thought occurs in our consciousness consisting of a subject with a predicate

**Prosocial behaviour** – action intended to benefit another person, taken without expectation of external reward, and generally involving some cost of the individual

**Prototype** – central core which encompasses the very best examples of the concept

**Psychiatrist** – a physician who specializes in the diagnosis and treatment of mental illness

**Psychoactive drug** – a drug that interacts with the central nervous system to alter mood, perception, and behaviour

**Psychoanalysis** – the process by which Freud attempted to bring unconscious material into the patient's awareness, where it could be examined rationally

**Psycholinguistics** – the field of psychology which studies the language function, or how it is used

**Psychological test** – an objective and standardized measure of a sample of behaviour that provides a systematic basis for making inferences about people

**Psychology** – the study of behaviour

**Psychopharmacology** – the study of the relationship between the drugs and behaviour

**Psychosis** – a condition in which the person's perceptions of reality are highly distorted

**Psychotherapy** – a systematic series of interactions between a therapist trained to aid in solving psychological problems and a person who is troubled or who is troubling others

**Psychotic disorder** – a disorder characterized by a generalized failure of functioning in all areas of a person's life

**Puberty** – the period of sexual maturation that transforms a child into a physical adult

**Range** – the difference between the smallest and the largest scores in a statistical distribution

**Reality anxiety** – in Freud's terms, anxiety over danger that comes from the outside world

**Receptor neurons** – cells that receive sensory information from the environment

**Reflexes** – immediate or involuntary responses to stimuli

**Regression** – defense mechanism in which a person returns to an earlier stage of development in response to some perceived threat

**Rehearsal** – mental repetition through which old material can be retained

**Repression** – the fundamental defense mechanism, one that keeps threatening thoughts and memories from consciousness and pushes them back into the unconscious

**Resistance** – a client's attempts to block the therapist's treatment

**Retention** – the process by which we maintain information in storage in our memory

**Retrieval** – the process by which we get information out of storage and bring it back into our awareness

**Role taking** – being able to imagine oneself in another's place

**Schemas** – the organized cluster of knowledge about any topic which improves comprehension for material that fits the schema

**Schizophrenia** – a group of disorders characterized by thought disturbance that may be accompanied by delusions, hallucinations, attention deficits, and bizarre motor activity

**School psychology** – the study of children who have learning or emotional problems

**Secondary trait** – a characteristic mode of behaviour that is less prominent than a central trait and is seen in fewer situations

**Selective attention** – the kind of attention when people choose which material will be registered

**Self** – the parts of the total range of a person's possible experiences that the individual recognizes and accepts

**Selfactualization** – fulfillment of an individual's capabilities

**Selfmonitoring** – controlling our words, actions, and nonverbal displays of emotion so as to create a favourable impression

**Sensory memory** – the momentary persistence of sensory information after stimulation has ceased

**Shorttime memory** – a temporary form of memory that lasts about fifteen seconds; it's also known as active or primary memory

**Social cognition** – the child's understanding of the social world and the process by which the child comes to understand why people behave the way they do in social situations

**Social influence** – waiting for others to define the situation as an emergency  
**Social interest** – the inborn desire to strive for the public good

**Social psychology** – the study of the behaviour of people in groups

**Socialization** – the process of absorbing society's attitudes, values, and customs

**Sociopath** – one who is indifferent to the rights of others

**Somatic nervous system** – part of the nervous system, which senses and acts on the external world

**Speech act** – an utterance

**Stimulant** – a drug that increases heart rate, blood pressure, and muscle tension by stimulating the central nervous system

**Stimulus** – any form of energy that can evoke a response

**Stress** – 1) any stimulus that places a strain on a person's physical or psychological capacity to adjust; 2) an internal response to some disruptive or disquieting situation

**Subjects** – human beings or other animals that are the source of responses in an experiment

**Superego** – according to Freud, that part of the personality that represents the moral standards of the society as conveyed to the child by the parents  
**Survey** – method of collecting data in which researchers obtain information about people's characteristics, attitudes, opinions, or behaviour by asking them questions

**Sympathetic nervous system** – a part of the nervous system, which expends energy in coping with stressful situations

**Taste buds** – the structures in the mouth and tongue that contain receptor cells for taste stimuli

**Temperament** – the individual's pattern of activity, response to stimuli, and general mood

**Theory** – a system of rules or assumptions about natural phenomena that can be used to predict future events or to explain how these phenomena work

**Trait** – a particular quality of a person

**Transference** – a client's transfer to the analyst of childhood feelings toward important people in his or her life, particularly with the parents

**Traumatic** – psychologically damaging

**Two-factor theory of emotion** – the theory which postulates that the labeling of an emotion is based on a physiological change plus a cognitive interpretation of that change

**Type A personalities** – people who are highly competitive, hostile when thwarted, and always seem to be working against the pressures of time

**Unconditioned response** – an unlearned response to a stimulus

**Unconditioned stimulus** – a stimulus that evokes a response without having been learned

**Unconscious** – an aspect of personality unknown to the mind of the subject

**Uniformity** – common features or behaviour shared by almost all members of a given group

**Verbal encoding** – naming or verbally describing material to be stored into shortterm memory

**Vestibular sense** – the sense of balance

**Visual cortex** – area of brain most involved in receiving and analyzing visual information

**Weber's law** – the law stating that the amount of stimulus needed to produce a just noticeable difference is a constant fraction of the intensity of the stimulus

## УКРАЇНСЬКО-АНГЛІЙСЬКИЙ СЛОВНИК

абстрагування – abstraction, discretion  
аналіз – analysis  
антагоністичний – antagonistic, opposing  
античний – antique  
бажання – wish  
блаженство – bliss, felicity  
боязкість – dread, fear  
буття – being, existence  
вестибулярний – vestibular  
вдача – humour  
взаємозв'язок – correlation, interdependence  
вибірковий – selective  
виконувати – to carry out, to fulfil  
виникати – to appear  
виокремлювати – to single out  
вирівнювання – smoothing  
витримка – selfcontrol, endurance  
виховання – education, upbringing  
вища нервова діяльність – higher nervous activity  
вияв – exposure  
виявити, встановити – to detect  
відбивати – to reflect  
відновлювати (у пам'яті) – to retrieve  
відношення – relation  
відображення – reflection, representation  
відповідальність – responsibility  
відповідно до – according to  
відтворювати – to retrieve  
відчуття – sensation  
відв'язаний (про значення) – abstract  
віра – faith, belief

вічність – eternity  
властивість – property, characteristics  
вольовий – volitional  
воля – will  
впливати – to influence, to affect  
вроджений – innate  
всупереч – in spite of, despite  
вчення – studies  
вчинок – action, deed  
дані – data  
ділитися – split  
довільний – arbitrary, free  
довготривалий – longterm  
дозрівання – maturation  
допитливість – curiosity  
дотик – touch  
доцільність – appropriateness, aptness  
духовний – spiritual  
душа – soul  
емоція – emotion  
емоційний – emotional  
жест – gesture  
завдяки – thanks to, due to, owing to  
задовольнити потребу – to meet the needs  
закономірність – regularity  
закріплення – attaching  
закріплюватися – to be attached to  
замкненість – reticence, reserve  
запам'ятовувати – to memorize  
запам'ятовувати механічно – to rote  
засвоювати – to learn, to adopt  
захворювання – illness, disease  
захисний – protective

збагнути – to comprehend, to understand  
збереження – retention, storage  
збуджуватися – to be excited  
звукова хвиля – sound wave  
зв'язок – connection  
здатність – ability, faculty  
здібність – ability, aptitude, capacity  
зміст – content, substance, matter  
знання – knowledge  
значення – meaning  
значущий – significant, meaningful  
знижувати – to lower, to reduce  
зовнішній – external  
зоровий – visual  
зумовлювати – to cause  
зусилля – effort  
індивід – individual  
інстинкт – instinct, urge  
істота – being, creature  
кінестетичний – kinaesthetic  
коливання – vibration  
компонент – component  
координація рівноваги – balance, coordination  
короткочасний – shortterm  
латентний – latent, hidden, hedged  
меланхолійний – melancholy, melancholic  
мимовільний – involuntary, reflex  
мислення – thinking  
мисленнєва операція – thought operation  
мова – language  
мовлення – speech  
мораль – morality  
мотив – motive

навіювання – evoking  
навичка – skill  
навчання – learning  
надавати перевагу – to prefer  
надбання, набуття – acquisition  
надбудовувати – superstructure  
наділяти – to endow with  
надцінний – supervalued  
намагання – attempt, endeavour  
наполегливість – persistence  
наслідок – consequence, result  
настрій – mood  
начало – origin, entity  
наявність – availability, presence  
неадекватний – inadequate  
невід’ємний – inseparable  
недосконалий – unaccomplished  
необачний – imprudent  
необмежений – unlimited, unrestricted  
неповторний – unique  
нервовий імпульс/сигнал – neural impulse/signal  
нескінченний – endless, infinite  
нестриманий – uncontrolled  
носій – bearer  
носова порожнина – nasal cavity  
нюховий – olfactory  
обґрунтування – substantiation  
образ – image  
обробляти – to process  
оволодіння – mastering  
ознака – feature, characteristics  
опосередкований – indirect  
органи відчуття – sense organs

органічний – organic, natural, biological  
освоєння – exploration  
осмислений – sensible  
особистий – personal, private  
особистість – personality  
оточення – environment  
охоплювати – to include, to embrace  
оцінювати – to assess, to evaluate  
пам'ять (сміслова/механічна) – memory (generic/skill)  
певний – definite  
перебільшувати – to exaggerate  
переважно – mainly, chiefly  
передбачати – to predict, to foresee  
переломлюватися – to be refracted, to be interpreted  
перемістити, передавати – to transfer  
передаватися, успадковувати – to be inherited, to be passed on  
перепона – obstacle, barrier  
підкорятися – to submit to, to obey  
підвладний – subject to  
пізнавальний – cognitive  
пізнання – cognition  
поводитися – to behave  
пов'язувати – to connect, to link  
подолання – overcoming  
подразник – stimulus  
подумки – in mind  
поживний, харчовий – nutritional  
показник – quality, index  
покоління – generation  
покращити – enhance  
положення (погляд, гіпотеза) – speculation  
поняття – concept  
попередній – preceding

порівняння – comparison, grading  
послаблювати – to weaken  
потреба – necessity, need  
потяг – incentive, drive  
похідний – derivative  
походження – origin  
почуттєвий – sensory  
прагнення – aspiration, striving  
приємний – pleasant, agreeable  
пристосовуватися – to adapt oneself, to adjust oneself  
пристрасть – passion  
притаманний – characteristic, inherent  
прихильність – sympathy, disposition  
провідний – leading, guiding  
провина – fault  
проводити дослідження з – to conduct research into  
проникнутий – penetrated  
протиборство – contradiction  
протиставляти – to oppose, to contrast  
прояв – manifestation  
психіка – psychics  
психічний – psychic  
речовина – substance  
реагувати – to respond  
реакція – response, reaction  
рецептор – receptor  
рівновага – balance  
різноманітний – diverse, various  
річ – thing  
рішучий – resolute, decisive  
рішучість – resolution, firmness  
розвиватися – to evolve  
розкривати – to disclose

розмір – size  
розпад – disintegration  
розрізняти – to discriminate  
розумний, раціональний – rational  
розумовий – mental, intellectual  
ротова порожнина – mouth cavity  
руховий – motive  
самовладання – selfcontrol, selfpossession  
самосвідомість – selfawareness  
сангвінічний – sanguine  
свідомість – consciousness  
свідомий, умотивований – conscious  
сила тяжіння – pull of gravity  
синтез – synthesis  
складний – complex, intricate  
складник – constituent  
словесний – verbal  
слуховий – auditory, acoustic  
слабнути, стиратися (про пам'ять) – to fade  
смаковий – gustatory  
смысл – sense, meaning, point  
смысловий – semantic  
спілкування, зв'язок – communication, lifeline  
спонукання – incentive, motive  
спостерігати – observe  
спотворювати – to distort  
сприймання – perception, apprehension  
сприймати – to perceive, to apprehend  
спрямовувати – to direct, to turn  
ставлення – attitude, treatment  
стан – state  
стосунки – relations, terms  
страждання – suffering  
стриманість – restraint

субстанція – substance  
судження – opinion, statement, judgment  
сукупність – totality  
сумісність – compatibility  
супроводжуватися – to be accompanied by  
сутність – essence, gist  
схильність – inclination, disposition  
темперамент – temperament  
тілесний – physical  
тон – hue  
травмувати – to hurt, to shock  
тривалий – durable, lasting, permanent  
тривалість – duration, length  
тривалість життя – life span  
узагальнений – generalized  
усталений – steady, stable, constant  
установка – aim, purpose  
утримувати, зберігати (у пам'яті) – to retain  
уявлення – conception, idea  
уява – imagination  
фіксувати (про пам'ять) – to register  
флегматичний – phlegmatic  
форма – shape  
характер – character  
характеризувати – to characterize  
характеристика – characteristic, description  
холеричний – choleric  
цілеспрямованість – goal directedness  
цілісний – integral  
чинник – factor  
чіткий – distinct, clear, accurate  
чутливість – sensitivity  
явище – phenomenon

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