

МІЖНАРОДНИЙ ГУМАНІТАРНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ
ФАКУЛЬТЕТ ЛІНГВІСТИКИ ТА ПЕРЕКЛАДУ
Кафедра романо-германської філології
та методики викладання іноземних мов

*Шарапановська Ю.В., Рожелюк І.Я.,
Горицька О.В., Першина Л.В.*

Методичний посібник

з дисципліни

**Іноземна мова
за професійним спрямуванням**

для студентів 1 курсу магістратури
спеціальності 053 Психологія
(денна форма навчання)

Одеса-2024

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УДК 81.811'253:159.9 (075.8)

Методичні посібник з дисципліни «Іноземна мова за професійним спрямуванням» для студентів 1 курсу магістратури спеціальності 053 Психологія (денна форма навчання). Одеса : МГУ, 2024. 103 с.

*Рекомендовано до друку Вченою радою
Міжнародного гуманітарного університету.*

Протокол №1 від 31 вересня 2024 р.

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Надані методичні вказівки містять рекомендації та опорний матеріал для студентів 1 курсу магістратури спеціальності 053 Психологія (денна форма навчання) факультету лінгвістики та перекладу з дисципліни «Іноземна мова за професійним спрямуванням».

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Вступ

Методичний посібник з дисципліни «Англійська мова за професійним спрямуванням» розроблений для студентів 1 курсу магістратури за спеціальністю 053 «Психологія» (заочна форма навчання). Основною метою курсу є формування та розвиток мовленнєвих компетенцій, необхідних для професійного спілкування в галузі психології, зокрема у міжнародному науковому та професійному середовищі.

Англійська мова є важливим інструментом для майбутніх психологів, оскільки вона надає доступ до сучасної наукової літератури, досліджень та міжнародних обмінів досвідом. Окрім того, володіння англійською мовою дозволяє фахівцям у галузі психології брати участь у міжнародних конференціях, семінарах та співпрацювати з колегами з інших країн.

Цей посібник створено з урахуванням специфіки професійних потреб психологів і містить навчальні матеріали, що сприяють розвитку навичок читання, письма, говоріння та аудіювання. Окрему увагу приділено роботі з науковими статтями, професійними термінами та дослідницькими проектами, що є ключовими для професійної діяльності психолога.

Посібник також розроблено з урахуванням специфіки заочної форми навчання. Він передбачає самостійну роботу студентів, спрямовану на вдосконалення їхніх мовних навичок через виконання різноманітних завдань, аналіз текстів і виконання практичних вправ, пов'язаних з їхньою професійною діяльністю.

Таким чином, цей посібник стане надійним помічником для студентів магістратури, допомагаючи їм удосконалювати свої знання з англійської мови, розвивати професійні навички та підготуватися до ефективної роботи в міжнародному контексті.

Вивчення англійської мови для психологів: актуальність і особливості

У сучасному світі знання англійської мови є невід'ємною складовою професійної діяльності психологів. Глобалізація, розвиток міжнародних контактів та співпраця в науковій сфері значно підвищують попит на англомовні компетенції у професійній сфері. Для психологів це особливо актуально, оскільки більшість наукових досліджень, міжнародних публікацій і сучасних підходів у психології представлені англійською мовою.

Вивчення англійської мови для психологів передбачає не лише опанування загальних мовних навичок, таких як читання, говоріння, аудіювання та письмо, а й ґрунтовне вивчення фахової термінології, специфічних понять і наукових методів, що використовуються в психологічних дослідженнях. Основна увага приділяється оволодінню професійним лексиконом та вмінням застосовувати його у різних комунікативних ситуаціях.

Англійська мова на сьогодні є універсальним засобом спілкування у багатьох наукових та професійних сферах, і психологія не є винятком. Психологи, незалежно від країни, де вони працюють, постійно стикаються з необхідністю використовувати англійську мову для професійного розвитку, дослідницької діяльності та міжнародної співпраці.

Актуальність вивчення англійської мови для психологів обумовлена кількома ключовими факторами:

1. Доступ до наукових досліджень та ресурсів. Більшість сучасних досліджень з психології публікуються англійською мовою в провідних міжнародних журналах. Володіння мовою дозволяє спеціалістам бути в курсі новітніх досліджень, теорій та методологій.

2. Міжнародна співпраця. Участь у міжнародних конференціях, симпозіумах та програмах обміну вимагає від психологів здатності представляти свої дослідження та обмінюватися досвідом англійською мовою.

3. Розвиток професійної кар'єри. Багато можливостей для кар'єрного росту, зокрема участь у міжнародних проектах або робота

в іноземних організаціях, відкриваються для фахівців з високим рівнем володіння англійською мовою.

4. Навчання та професійна підготовка. Багато програм підвищення кваліфікації та навчальних курсів, які можуть бути корисними для психологів, також проводяться англійською мовою.

Специфіка вивчення англійської мови для психологів

При вивченні англійської мови для професійних цілей психологів необхідно зосередитися на кількох аспектах, які відрізняються від загальної мовної підготовки:

1. **Термінологія.** Важливо засвоїти спеціалізовану лексику, що стосується основних напрямків психології, таких як клінічна, соціальна, когнітивна, дитяча психологія тощо. Багато термінів в англійській психологічній лексиці не мають прямого еквівалента в інших мовах або використовуються в іншому значенні, що робить вивчення термінології критично важливим. Наприклад, такі терміни, як “*cognitive dissonance*” (когнітивний дисонанс), “*emotional intelligence*” (емоційний інтелект) або “*behavioral therapy*” (поведінкова терапія), є основними поняттями у психології, без яких неможливо опанувати фахові статті та дослідження.
2. **Психологічні концепції та їх представлення англійською мовою.** Окрім спеціальної лексики, майбутнім психологам важливо вміти описувати англійською мовою основні теоретичні концепції та методи психології, такі як психоаналіз, когнітивно-поведінкова терапія, гештальт-терапія тощо. Уміння адекватно перекладати та пояснювати ці концепції сприяє не лише професійному спілкуванню, а й участі у міжнародній науковій спільноті.
3. **Академічне письмо та наукові публікації.** Однією з важливих навичок є вміння написати наукову статтю англійською мовою відповідно до міжнародних стандартів. Це включає правильне використання термінів, логічну побудову тексту, чітке формулювання гіпотез та висновків. Знання таких мовних засобів дозволить студентам брати участь у написанні наукових статей, дисертацій та доповідей.

4. Аудіювання та розуміння наукових текстів. Важливим аспектом є вміння розуміти усну та письмову англійську мову на професійні теми. Це стосується як прослуховування лекцій, презентацій на конференціях, так і читання складних наукових текстів. Особливу увагу варто приділяти не лише термінології, а й стилістичним особливостям академічних текстів англійською мовою.

Термінологія в психології

Термінологія в психології є надзвичайно широкою і охоплює як базові поняття, так і складні наукові терміни, що використовуються в спеціалізованих дослідженнях. Вивчення термінів на англійській мові сприяє не лише розумінню фахової літератури, але й кращому усвідомленню понять у рідній мові. Наприклад:

- “*Self-esteem*” — самооцінка;
- “*Cognitive bias*” — когнітивне упередження;
- “*Attachment theory*” — теорія прив’язаності;
- “*Neuroplasticity*” — нейропластичність.

Для студентів магістратури, які вже мають базові знання в галузі психології, вивчення цих термінів англійською мовою дозволяє поглибити розуміння та сприяє використанню іноземних джерел у дослідницькій діяльності.

Актуальність професійної англійської мови для психологів

У сучасному світі, де міжнародні дослідження та обмін інформацією відіграють ключову роль, знання англійської мови для психологів є не лише бажаним, а й необхідним. Вивчення професійної англійської дозволяє студентам магістратури бути конкурентоспроможними на ринку праці, брати участь у міжнародних проектах та дослідженнях, а також вільно користуватися науковими матеріалами з різних джерел.

Таким чином, оволодіння англійською мовою за професійним спрямуванням відкриває широкі можливості для кар’єрного зростання та сприяє підвищенню якості наукових досліджень у галузі психології.

Text 1.

WHAT IS PSYCHOLOGY?

To be human is to be curious about ourselves and the world around us. Psychology's ancestors therefore date to the world's early writings. Before 300 B.C., the Greek naturalist and philosopher Aristotle theorized about learning and memory, motivation and emotion, perception and personality. Today we chuckle at some of his guesses, like a meal making us sleepy by causing gas and heat to collect around the source of our personality, the heart. But credit Aristotle with asking the right questions. At the dawn of modern science in the 1600s, British philosophers adopted a downtoearth approach to knowledge, rooted in observation. One of them, John Locke, rejected the notion of inborn ideas. At birth the mind is, he said, but a "white paper" upon which experience writes. In 1831, an indifferent student but ardent collector of beetles, mollusks, and shells set sail on what was to prove a historic roundtheworld voyage. The 22yearold voyager was Charles Darwin, and for some time afterward, he pondered the incredible species variation he had encountered, including tortoises on one island that would differ from those on other islands of the region. His 1859 *Origin of Species* explained this diversity of life by proposing an evolutionary process. From among chance variations in organisms, he believed, nature selects those that best enable an organism to survive and reproduce in a particular environment. Darwin's big idea — "the single best idea anyone has ever had," says philosopher Daniel Dennett (1996) — is called natural selection, and it is still with us some 140 years later, having become an organizing principle of biology. Evolution has also become an important principle for psychology. This would surely have pleased Darwin, for he believed his theory explains not only animal structures (such as why polar bear coats are white) but also animal behaviors (such as the emotional expressions associated with lust and rage). Thinking about thinking continued to evolve until the birth of psychology as we know it, on a December day in 1879. In a small room on the third floor of a shabby building at Germany's University of 41 Leipzig, two young men were helping a longfaced, austere, middle aged professor, Wilhelm Wundt, create an experimental apparatus. Their machine measured the

time lag between people's hearing a ball hit a platform and their pressing the telegraph key. Later, they compared this to the time required for slightly more complex tasks. Wundt was seeking to measure the "atoms of the mind" — the fastest and simplest mental processes. Thus began what many consider psychology's first experiment, launching the first psychological institute, staffed by Wundt and psychology's first graduate students. The young science of psychology thus evolved from the more established fields of biology and philosophy. Wundt was both a physiologist and a philosopher. Darwin was an English naturalist. Ivan Pavlov, who pioneered the study of learning, was a Russian physiologist. Sigmund Freud, renowned personality theorist, was an American physician. Jean Piaget, this century's most influential observer of children, was a Swiss biologist. William James, author of an important 1890 psychology textbook, was an American philosopher. This list of pioneering psychologists — "Magellans of the mind", as Morton Hunt (1993) calls them — illustrates that psychology has its origins in many countries. So what is psychology? With activities ranging from recording nerve cell activity to psychotherapy, psychology is not easily defined. Psychology began as the science of mental life. Wundt's basic research tool became introspection — self-examination of one's own emotional states, feelings, and thoughts. Thus, until the 1920s, psychology was defined as "the science of mental life". From the 1920s into the 1960s, American psychologists, led by flamboyant and provocative John Watson, dismissed introspection and redefined psychology as "the science of observable behavior." After all, they said, science is rooted in observation. You cannot observe a sensation, a feeling, or a thought, but you can observe people's behavior as they respond to different situations. In the 1960s, psychology began to recapture its initial interest in mental processes through studies of how our minds process and retain information — how we perceive, think, and remember. To encompass psychology's concern both with observable behavior and with inner 42 thoughts and feelings, psychology has become the science of behavior and mental processes. Let's unpack this definition. Behavior is anything an organism does — any action we can observe and record. Yelling, smiling, blinking, sweating, talking, and questionnaire-making are all

observable behaviors. Mental processes are the internal subjective experiences we infer from behavior — sensations, perceptions, dreams, thoughts, beliefs, and feelings. For many psychologists, the key word in psychology's definition is science. Psychology is less a set of findings than a way of asking and answering questions. As a science psychology aims to sift opinions and evaluate ideas with careful observation and rigorous analysis. In its quest to describe and explain nature (human nature included), psychological science welcomes hunches and plausible-sounding theories. And it puts them to the test. If a theory works — if the data support its predictions — so much the better for it. If the predictions fail, the theory gets rejected or revised. Of course, psychology also has content: Its scientific sifting of ideas has produced a smorgasbord of concepts and findings from which we can only sample the fare. Once aware of psychology's well-researched ideas — about how body and mind connect, how a child's mind grows, how we construct our perceptions, how we remember (and misremember) our experiences, how people across the world differ (and are alike) — your mind may never again be quite the same.

I. Give Ukrainian equivalents for the following words and expressions.

To measure mental processes; to focus on inner sensations; to respond to different situations; to dismiss introspection; to retain information; to sift ideas.

II. Make an appropriate choice.

1. At the dawn of modern science in 1600s, John Locke
 - a) adopted the notion of inborn ideas
 - b) rejected the notion of inborn ideas
 - c) ignored the notion of inborn ideas
2. According to Charles Darwin's doctrine, which organisms does nature select?
 - a) those that can reproduce in the environment
 - b) those that are able to survive and reproduce in a particular

environment

c) those that can hardly survive

3. The first psychological institute was launched in

a) January, 1875

b) December, 1876

c) December, 1879

4. The young science of psychology evolved from the fields of

a) biology and sociology

b) philosophy and physiology

c) biology and philosophy

5. According to the text psychology may be defined as

a) the science of mental processes

b) the science of behavior and mental processes

c) the science of emotional states and mental processes

Text 2

CONCEPTUAL APPROACHES TO PSYCHOLOGY

The analysis of psychological phenomena can be approached from several viewpoints. One approach to study of human beings attempts to relate their actions to events taking place inside the body, particularly within the brain and the nervous system. This approach specifies the neurobiological processes that underlie behaviour and mental events. The view that behaviour should be the sole subject matter of psychology was first advanced by the American psychologist John B. Watson in the early 1900s. He believed that, although man may be at times an active agent in his own development and behaviour, he is still basically what his environment makes him. Therefore, the basic problem is to find out how man behaves or responds as a result of changes or improvements in the environment or stimuli. This view focuses on the observable behaviours of man; that is, those factors that influence him in his environment and his reactions to these forces. This approach is often referred to as stimulus-response or SR psychology. Perhaps the spirit of behaviourism is best seen in Watson's belief that he could take any healthy infant at random and, given his own specified world to bring him up in, bring him up to be anything he wished — doctor, prince, lawyer, criminal and so

forth. Another approach to the study of man is psychoanalysis, founded by Sigmund Freud. Freud concluded that personality and our degrees of mental health depend on the actions of three major forces: the id — our unconscious instincts, the ego — our conscious self or intellect — and superego, the conditional reflexes of social rules and internalized values. The ego, or self, is often under strain to withstand the pleasure forces from the id, pressures by the reality forces of the environment and the moral forces of our upbringing (superego). The ego and the superego are the mere tips of the id. It is what is underneath that really counts. For Freudists what is hidden is more important and real than what we feel and do. The humanistic school view is that man becomes what he makes of himself by his own actions and thoughts. It is concerned with the topics having little place in existing theories and systems: e.g. love, creativity, selfactualization, higher values, humour, affection, courage and so on. These are exactly characteristics that describe our human nature. Humanists believe that man is born basically good, and that conscious forces are more important than unconscious forces. Russian psychology was inseparably linked with the development of research into psychophysiology in the works of I. Pavlov, V. Bekh⁴⁵ terev, L. Orbeli and others. In refuting the idealistic and mechanistic influences, Russian scientists asserted in psychology the marxist teaching on activity and its sociohistorical foundation, the ideas of Lenin's theory of reflection. The theoretical and experimental study of the basic problems of psychology was carried out by A. Luria, A. Leontyev, B. Teplov, S. Rubenstein and others. Presentday psychology is a complex and differentiated research system extending throughout general, social, developmental, pedagogical, child, medical, engineering psychology.

Make an appropriate choice.

The view that behaviour should be the sole subjectmatter of psychology was first advanced by

- a) I. Pavlov
- b) S. Freud

- c) J. Watson
- 2. For Freudists
 - a) what we feel is more important and real
 - b) what is hidden is more important and real
 - c) what we do is more important and real
- 3. The word “advanced” in line 7 could best be replaced by
 - a) pushed forward
 - b) put forward
 - c) moved forward
- 4. The author mentions the following characteristics that describe our human nature EXCEPT
 - a) affection
 - b) courage
 - c) honesty
- 5. What does the author mean by “presentday”?
 - a) contemporary
 - b) fashionable
 - c) latest

Text 3.

OBSERVING AND IMITATING PARENTS

Think for a moment about the thousands of hours most children spend observing their parents’ behavior. Often on a daily basis, children watch and listen to their parents’ comment about their work and careers, observe whether they drink too much or not at all, experience their model of marital relationships and whether their mother and father argue a lot or very little, see and hear if they solve problems calmly or with great discharge of anger, view whether they are generous toward others or are more selfish, and see how male and female adults act. Why are children motivated to imitate their parents’ behaviors? Children can gain and maintain their parents’ affection and avoid punishment by behaving like their parents. Children also acquire a sense of mastery over their environment by imitating the behavior of warm, competent, and powerful parents. One issue in observational learning is whether parents can get by with telling their children, “Do what I say, not what I do,” and not harm

their children's development. Such parents often hope that by rewarding their children's positive behavior and/or punishing their negative behaviors, they still can engage in their own maladaptive, selfish, and inappropriate ways without jeopardizing their children's 47 development. Imitation often occurs without parents knowingly trying to influence their children, but when parents verbalize standards and try to get children to abide by them, they are usually consciously shaping their children's behavior. Child developmentalists believe a "do as I say, but not as I do" approach by parents is not a wise parenting strategy. Children who see their parents attend church regularly and hear them talk about how moral they are, but then observe them cheat on their income tax, never give money to charity, turn down requests to help others in need, and treat others with little respect, will often imitate their parents' actions rather than their words. In the case of children's imitation of parents, then, a familiar saying often holds true: Actions speak louder than words.

How much children learn by observing parents also is influenced by what children see are the consequences of that behavior for the parent. If parental models are rewarded for their behavior, children are more likely to imitate their behavior than if the parents receive no reward or are punished for their behavior. The consequences to the model can be either external (someone else says or does something positive to the parents after the parent engages in a particular action) or internal (the parent engages in selfreinforcement by showing pleasure after performing a behavior). For example, a father may give to a charity and subsequently smile and say how good it made him feel. The father's children observe these consequences and then may imitate the father's kind, generous behavior as long as it makes the children feel good. Parents may find it ineffective to exhort their children to share their toys because children will not feel good letting others share what they want themselves. However, if children see their parents derive pleasure from sharing, the selfsacrificing behavior probably will bring more joy to the children. Thus, imitation is an important part of the process in getting children to behave in kind ways toward others.

Make an appropriate choice.

1. Why do children try to imitate their parents' behavior?
 - a) to gain and maintain their parents' affection
 - b) to act like male and female adults do
 - c) to be rewarded
2. Child developmentalists believe a "do as I say, but not as I do" approach is
 - a) a good parenting strategy
 - b) a harmful parenting strategy
 - c) an unwise parenting strategy
3. What do children imitate in their parents more often?
 - a) words
 - b) actions
 - c) gestures
4. The word "to exhort" in line 13 (last §) most nearly means
 - a) to advise
 - b) to press
 - c) to urge
5. From this text it may be concluded that imitation is
 - a) an important part of the process in getting children to behave in kind ways toward others
 - b) an insignificant part of the process in getting children to behave properly
 - c) a crucial part in the process of bringing up children

Text 4.

**BRINGING UP A BETTER BABY
(AND GOODBYE DR. SPOCK)**

Dr. Benjamin Spock, the famous American pediatrician, reassured several generations of anxious parents in his best selling Baby and Child Care. He wrote "Your baby is born to be a reasonable friendly human being". Today's parents are not sure this is enough. There is a growing number of American professional parents with obsessive ambitions for their children. They are dedicating their lives to creating brilliant

children. The Age of Spock is over! Why have a merely “normal” baby when you can have an improved model, a Better Baby? In the world of baby care, common sense has given way to competition and connoisseurship. The Better Baby Institute This was founded by an American called Glenn Doman. Four to six times a year the Institute opens its doors to a group of about eighty parents who have paid \$490 each for a seven-day seminar entitled “How to multiply your baby’s intelligence”. After studying children for over forty years, Doman has developed an apparently brilliant, internally consistent, and completely idiosyncratic brand of science that commingles developmental psychology, neurology and anthropology. He introduces the parents to his “89 Cardinal Facts for Making Any Baby into a Superb Human Being”. Cardinal Fact No. 6: “Our individual genetic potential is that of Leonardo da Vinci, Mozart, Michelangelo, Edison and Einstein.” Doman claims that up until the age of six, when brain growth slows, a child’s intellectual and physical abilities will increase in direct proportion to stimulation. Thus any child, given the proper stimuli, can become the next

Leonardo.

Cardinal Fact No. 26: “Tiny kids would rather learn than eat.” Doman claims that they’d rather learn Greek than baby talk, since higher orders of complexity offer more stimulation. He makes the average adult seem like a tree sloth in comparison with a two-year-old. “Every kid,” he asserts, “learns better than every adult”. Parents at the Better Baby Institute learn to regard their mewling puking infants not so much with respect as awe. So the question is now one of technique. How can parents create the kind of brain growth that leads to expertise in reading, math, gymnastics, and the like? Say you want to teach your six-month-old how to read. Write down a series of short, familiar words in large, clear letters on flashcards. Show the cards to your infant five or six times a day, simultaneously reciting the word written on each one. With his extraordinary retentive powers he’ll soon be learning hundreds of words, then phrases. The idea is to try to treat the baby’s mind as a sponge. By the age of three, Doman guarantees, your child will be entertaining himself and amazing your friends by reading “everything in sight”. In like manner he can learn to perform staggering mathematical stunts, or to distinguish and

thoughtfully analyze the works of the Great Masters or the classical composers. Doman declines to prove his claims to the scientific community; he's happy, as long as parents are convinced. These Professional Mothers (it is usually the mother) turn out to be paragons. Attractive young Mrs DiBattista printed up 9,000 flashcards for fiveyearold Michael. Stout, solemn Mrs Pereira patiently explained that she "took time off" from her allday routine of teaching elevenyearold Josh to devote several weeks exclusively to making Josh's French and Spanish flashcards for the coming year. Wasn't Josh lonely? "No", his proud mother replied. He was "socially excellent". What does Dr. Benjamin Spock think of the better baby phenomenon? Like most octogenarians he thinks the world has gone to hell; he argues that competitive pressures are taking a psychic toll on most Americans, especially young people, and blames "excessive competi tiveness" for the extraordinary rise in teenage suicide over the last twenty years. Efforts to improve infants' cognitive abilities only prove to him that the scramble for success has finally invaded the cradle.

Make an appropriate choice.

1. The main idea of the first paragraph is that
 - a) B. Spock's ideas are still popular and his selling "Baby and Child Care" is still in great demand.
 - b) There is a growing number of American parents who do not consider that Spock's statement "The Baby is born to be a reasonable human being" is enough.
 - c) Common sense has given way to competition and connoisseurship.
2. The word "multiply" in line 15 could best be explained as
 - a) expand
 - b) broaden
 - c) widen
3. According to the text Glenn Doman has developed a brand of science that commingles
 - a) developmental psychology, neurology and sociology

- b) developmental psychology, physiology and anthropology
- c) developmental psychology, neurology and anthropology

4. These statements are in the text EXCEPT

- a) By the age of three, Doman guarantees, your child will be able to perform staggering mathematical stunts.
- b) By the age of three, Doman guarantees, your child will thoughtfully analyze the works of classical composers.
- c) By the age of three, Doman guarantees, your child will be able to discuss the works of classical writers.

5. The author mentions that Dr. B. Spock thinks that

- a) the world has changed for the better
- b) “excessive competitiveness” has caused an extraordinary rise in teenage suicide over the last twenty years
- c) the person’s scramble for success at an early age facilitates his further success in life.

Text 5.

IMAGES OF LIFE SPAN DEVELOPMENT

The Doman “Better Baby Institute” and What Is Wrong with It
Matthew is 1 year old. He has already seen over 1,000 flash cards with pictures of shells, flowers, insects, flags, countries, and words on them. His mother, Billie, has made almost 10,000 of the 11inchsquare cards for Matthew and his 4yearold brother, Mark. Billie has religiously followed the regimen recommended by Glenn Doman, the director of the Philadelphia Institute for the Achievement of Human Potential and the author of How to Teach Your Baby to Read. Using his methods, learned in a course called “How to Multiply Your Baby’s Intelligence,” Billie is teaching Matthew Japanese and even a little math. Mark is learning geography, natural science, engineering, and fine arts, as well. Parents using the card approach print one word on each card using a bright red felttipped pen. The parent repeatedly shows the card to the infant while saying the word aloud. The first word is usually mommy, then comes daddy, the baby’s name, parts of the body, and all the things the infant can touch. Infants are lavishly praised when they recognize the word. The idea is to imprint the large red words in the infant’s memory, so that in

time the baby accumulates an impressive vocabulary and begins to read. The parent continues to feed the infant with all manner of information in small, assimilable bits, just as Billie Rash has done with her two boys. With this method, children should be reading by 2 years of age, and by 4 or 5 should have begun mastering some math and be able to play the violin, not to mention the vast knowledge of the world they should be able to display because of a monumental vocabulary. Maybe the SAT or ACT test you labored through on your way to college might have been conquered at the age of 6 if your parents had only been enrolled in the “How to Multiply Your Baby’s Intelligence” course and made 10,000 flash cards for you. Is this the best way for an infant to learn? A number of developmentalists believe Doman’s “better baby institute” is a moneymaking scheme and is not based on sound scientific evidence. They believe that we should not be trying to accelerate the infant’s learning so dramatically. Rather than pour information into infants’ minds, we should permit infants more time to spontaneously explore the environment and construct their knowledge. Jean Piaget called “What should we do to foster cognitive development?” the American question, because it was asked of him so often when he lectured to American audiences. Developmentalists worry that children exposed to Doman’s methods will burn out on learning. What is more important is providing a rich and emotionally supportive atmosphere for learning.

Make an appropriate choice.

1. The flash card approach aims at
 - a) introducing an infant with as many new words as possible
 - b) imprinting the large amount of words in the infant’s memory
 - c) demonstrating the differences between objects
2. According to this text with this method children should be able
 - a) to read and write by 2 years
 - b) to play the violin by 2 years
 - c) to master some math by 4 or 5 years
3. Jean Piaget called the question “What should we do to foster cognitive development?” an American one because
 - a) it was asked of him so often when he lectured to American

audiences

b) it concerned only children in America

c) it was studied only by American scientists

4. The word “religiously” in line 5 can best be replaced by

a) consistently

b) fanatically

c) scrupulously

5. The developmentalists believe that the best way for an infant to learn is

a) to pour information into the infant’s mind

b) to create a rich and emotionally supportive atmosphere for learning

c) to accelerate the infant’s learning dramatically.

Text 6.

OUTSIDE THE SANDBOX

What is the best approach to solving a problem? From kindergarten on, most children are taught that there is one optimal answer to any question. And that they should work logically, step by step, to reach that prize. In many cases that tactic works. But in other situations, the newest concepts, wisest insights and most creative solutions arise only when people abandon established approaches and habitual ways of thinking. Yet we are not teaching children how to solve problems in unconventional ways. Outside the box thinking can be difficult to achieve in adulthood, because often it has been driven out of us over the course of our education and professional experience. Children, however, begin with a clean slate, so teachers and parents ought to challenge themselves to help them discover unusual paths. Boys and girls who grow up with this exposure will grasp new material better, retain their creativity and be ready to make the intuitive leaps that lead to great new ideas. During learning, our brains process information stored in the so called cognitive maps of the cerebral cortex. These associations among neurons are very flexible, as psychologist Martha Farah of the University of Michigan at Ann Arbor demonstrated a decade ago. Farah studied how the brain of

Canadian postal workers recognize letters and numbers. But Canadian postal codes consist of a mix of these symbols, such as H3A 1Y2 in Montreal. Sure enough, postal workers who have sorted mail for years process letters and numbers together in a simple cognitive map. The same plasticity is used when reaching outside the box. In cognitive maps, learned information is always connected with other, associated information. One strategy, therefore, is to take children out of the classroom atmosphere, for example, to visit experts in various fields. This approach has the added advantage of making learning fun; studies show that understanding is improved considerably when positive emotions are involved. Children will later remember what they learned because the special setting or interesting person will stick in their head. In addition, they will observe how to interact constructively with others and see the joy people feel in sharing knowledge. Adults can find opportunities to influence a child's creative thinking simply by taking advantage of opportunities based on what a child is interested in at a given moment. For example, Manny, a four year old, once asked his babysitter on a trip to the store: "Who sits inside the traffic light and makes it turn red?" Amy, the 19 year old sitter, replied spontaneously: "I don't know. Should we take a closer look?" 56 She pulled over and had the boy wrap his arms around the light pole, so he could get a feel for its size. "There isn't room for anybody inside," Manny concluded. "Then how does it work?" Amy told Manny that once they were home they could find out. After returning, Amy had Manny paint a picture of the crosswalk as a bird would see it from above. Meanwhile she logged on to the Internet to find out more about traffic lights and showed Manny a few pictures about how they work and how they are repaired. The next day Amy called the city's transportation department while Manny stood next to the phone, to ask if anyone could perhaps show them around the repair shop. The officials agreed, and Amy and Manny had a short but educational visit. Above all else, Manny learned through Amy's actions that it is fun to discover things and that friendly adults are willing to share interesting information. Making visits to experts or inviting them to schools and daycare centers is one means of showing kids that there are many ways, beyond books, to learn. That, in turn, encourages creative

thinking. Teachers and parents can enrich a child's day with simple but offbeat perspectives, too, which do not require new lessons, plans or expensive purchases. They can present math problems during circuit training in a gym class or at a park, or play motion games during math class, or translate the rules for classroom or household behavior into French. To learn how a lever works, kids can put a broomstick under their arms (against their chest) and experience firsthand how the force of weights hung on either end effects their own bodies. A visit to a fitness center followed by some study of the various exercise machines will make the principle of counterweights clear.

Make an appropriate choice.

1. According to the text the most creative solutions arise when
 - a) people use habitual ways of thinking and established approaches
 - b) people abandon established approaches and habitual ways of thinking
 - c) people use both conventional and unconventional ways of thinking
2. Boys and girls whom teachers and parents help to discover unusual paths will
 - a) grasp new material better
 - b) forget the material soon
 - c) not be ready to make the intuitive leaps
3. The author thinks that one of the strategies of learning is
 - a) to involve negative emotions in the process of learning
 - b) to create special atmosphere in the classroom
 - c) to take children out of classroom atmosphere to make learning fun
4. The word "enrich" in line 1 nearly means (the second § from the bottom)
 - a) enhance
 - b) improve
 - c) build
5. The author mentions all of the following ways to encourage

creative thinking EXCEPT

- a) making visits to experts in various fields or inviting them to schools
- b) using offbeat perspectives
- c) exposing children to cultural resources outside the home, such as art and natural history museums.

Text 7.

STEREOTYPES

A stereotype is a set of characteristics believed to be shared by all members of a social category. A stereotype is a special kind of schema that may be based on almost any distinguishing feature, but is most often applied to sex, race, occupation, physical appearance, place of residence, and membership in a group or organization. When our first impressions of people are governed by a stereotype, we tend to infer things about them solely on the basis of their social category and to ignore facts about individual traits that are inconsistent with the stereotype. As a result, we may remember things about them selectively or inaccurately, thereby perpetuating our initial stereotype. For example, with a quick glance at almost anyone, you can classify that person as male or female. Once you have so categorized the person, you may rely more on your stereotype of that gender than on your own perceptions during further interactions with the person. Stereotypes can easily become the basis for selffulfilling prophecies. One study paired college-aged men and women who were strangers and arranged for each pair to talk by phone. Before the call, each male was given a snapshot, presumably of the woman whom he was about to call. In fact, the snapshot was a randomly selected photo of either an attractive or unattractive woman. Attractiveness carries with it a stereotype that includes sociability and social adaptiveness. The males in the experiment therefore expected the attractive partners to display these qualities and the unattractive partners to be unsociable, awkward, and serious. These expectations produced radically different behavior in the men. Those who believed they were talking to an attractive woman were warm, friendly, and animated; in response, the women acted in a friendly, animated way. The other men spoke to their partners in a cold, reserved

manner. In response, the women reacted in a cool, distant manner. Thus, the stereotype took on a life of its own as the perceptions of the men determined their behavior, which in turn subtly forced the women to conform to the stereotype. Recent studies indicate that sorting people into categories is not automatic or inevitable. People are more likely to apply stereotyped schemata in a chance encounter than in a structured, task-oriented situation (such as a classroom or the office); more likely to pay attention to individual signals than to stereotypes when they are pursuing a goal; and consciously or unconsciously suppress stereotypes that violate social norms. For example, a man who has operated according to stereotyped schemata may expect women in gender-typed role, such as a nurse or secretary or his wife, to be warm and gentle, but not hold these expectations toward women he meets in his work life or in their professional roles (as lawyers, executive, or telephone repair person).

Make an appropriate choice.

1. All these definitions are in the text EXCEPT

- a) A stereotype is a set of characteristics believed to be shared by all members of a social category.
- b) A stereotype is a set image; a standardized or typical image or conception held by or applied to members of a certain group.
- c) A stereotype is a special kind of schema that may be based on almost any distinguishing feature, but is most often applied to sex, race, occupation, physical appearance, place of residence, and membership in a group or organization.

2. According to the text when our first impressions of people are governed by a stereotype, we tend to infer things about people

- a) solely on the basis of individual traits
- b) solely on the basis of our personal impressions
- c) solely on the basis of their social category

3. The word “to conform” in line 10 (§3) could best be replaced by

- a) to coordinate

- b) to correspond
- c) to agree with
- 4. The author mentions that sorting people into categories is
 - a) automatic
 - b) inevitable
 - c) not automatic or inevitable
- 5. What does the author mean by “schemata”?
 - a) pattern
 - b) syllabus
 - c) background

Text 8.

PARENT ADOLESCENT CONFLICT

While attachment and connectedness to parents remains strong during adolescence, the attachment and connectedness is not always smooth. Early adolescence is a time when conflict with parents escalates beyond childhood levels. This increase may be due to a number of factors: the biological changes of puberty, cognitive changes involving increased idealism and logical thinking, social changes focused on independence and identity, maturational changes in parents, and violated expectations on the part of parents and adolescents. The adolescent compares her parents to an ideal standard and then criticizes the flaws. A 13 year old girl tells her mother, “That is the tackiest looking dress I have ever seen. Nobody would be caught dead wearing that.” The adolescent demands logical explanations for comments and discipline. A 14 year old boy tells his mother, “What do you mean I have to be home at 10 p.m. because it’s the way we do things around here? Why do we do things around here that way? It doesn’t make sense to me.” Many parents see their adolescent changing from a compliant child to someone who is noncompliant, oppositional, and resistant to parental standards. When this happens, parents tend to clamp down and put more pressure on the adolescent to conform to parental standards. Parents often expect their adolescents to become mature adults overnight instead of understanding that the journey takes 10 to 15 years. Parents who recognize that this transition takes time handle their youth more competently and calmly

than those who demand immediate conformity to adult standards. The opposite tactic — letting adolescents do as they please without supervision — is also unwise. Conflict with parents does increase in early adolescence, but it does not reach the tumultuous proportions G. Stanley Hall envisioned at the beginning of the twentieth century. Rather, much of the conflict involves the everyday events of family life such as keeping a bedroom clean, dressing neatly, getting home by a certain time, not talking forever on the phone, and so on. The conflicts rarely involve major dilemmas like drugs and delinquency. It is not unusual to hear parents of young adolescents ask, “Is it ever going to get better?” Things usually do get better as adolescents move from early to late adolescence. Conflict with parents often escalates during early adolescence, remains somewhat stable during the high school years, and then lessens as the adolescent reaches 17 to 20 years of age. Parentadolescent relationships become more positive if adolescents go away to college than if they stay at home and go to college. The everyday conflicts that characterize parentadolescent relationships may actually serve a positive developmental function. These minor disputes and negotiations facilitate the adolescent’s transition from being dependent on parents to becoming an autonomous individual. For example, in one investigation, adolescents who expressed disagreement with parents explored identity development 62 more actively than adolescents who did not express disagreement with their parents. One way for parents to cope with the adolescent’s push for independence and identity is to recognize that adolescence is a 10to 15year transitional period in the journey to adulthood rather than an overnight accomplishment. Recognizing that conflict and negotiation can serve a positive developmental function can tone down parental hostility, too. Understanding parentadolescent conflict, though, is not simple. In sum, the old model of parentadolescent relationships suggested that as adolescents mature they detach themselves from parents and move into a world of autonomy apart from parents. The old model also suggested that parentadolescent conflict is intense and stressful throughout adolescence. The new model emphasizes that parents serve as important attachment figures and support systems as adolescents explore a wider, more complex social world. The new model also emphasizes that in the

majority of families, parentadolescent conflict is moderate rather than severe, and that everyday negotiations and minor disputes are normal and can serve the positive developmental function of helping the adolescent make the transition from childhood dependency to adult independence.

Make an appropriate choice.

1. Early adolescence is a time when
 - a) conflict with parents lessens
 - b) conflict with parents is moderate
 - c) conflict with parents escalates
2. The reasons of the conflict between parents and adolescents mainly are
 - a) drugs and delinquency
 - b) everyday events of family life
 - c) parents' ignorance
3. According to the text the transitional period of adolescents to adulthood is
 - a) 4—6 years
 - b) 7—8 years
 - c) 10—15 years
4. The word “escalates” in line 3 is closest in meaning to
 - a) increases
 - b) broadens
 - c) climbs
5. According to the new model of parentadolescent relationships
 - a) parentadolescent conflict is intense and stressful throughout adolescence
 - b) adolescents detach themselves from parents and move into a world of autonomy apart from parents
 - c) parentadolescent conflict is moderate and can serve a positive developmental function

Text 9.

LONELINESS

Some of us are lonely individuals. We may feel that no one knows us very well. We may feel isolated and sense that we do not have anyone we can turn to in times of need or stress. Our society's contemporary emphasis on selffulfillment and achievement, the importance we attach to commitment in relationships, and the decline in stable close relationships are among the reasons feelings of loneliness are common today. Loneliness is associated with an individual's gender, attachment history, selfesteem, and social skills. A lack of time spent with females, on the part of both males and females, is associated with loneliness. Individuals who are lonely often have a history of poor relationships with their partners. Early experiences of rejection and loss (as when a parent dies) can cause a lasting effect of feeling alone. Lonely individuals often have low selfesteem and tend to blame themselves more than they deserve for their inadequacies. And lonely individuals are deficient in social skills. For example, they show inappropriate selfdisclosure, selfattention at the expense of attention to a partner, or an inability to develop comfortable intimacy. The social transition to college is a time when loneliness may develop as individuals leave behind the familiar world of their hometown and family. Many college freshmen feel anxious about meeting new people and developing a new social life. As one student commented: My first year here at the university has been pretty lonely. I wasn't lonely at all at high school. I lived in a fairly small town — I knew everyone and everyone knew me. I was a member of several clubs and played on the basketball team. It's not that way at the university. It is a big place and I've felt like a stranger on so many occasions. I'm starting to get used to my life here, and the last few months I've been making myself meet people and get to know them, but it hasn't been easy. As reflected in the comments of this freshman, individuals usually can't bring their popularity and social standing from high school into the college environment. They may even be a dozen high school basketball stars, National Merit scholars, and former student council presidents in a single dormitory wing. Especially, if students attend college away from home, they face the task of forming completely new social relationships. In one

investigation conducted 2 weeks after the school year began, 75 percent of 354 college freshmen said they felt lonely at least part of the time since arriving on campus. More than 40 percent said their loneliness was moderate to severe in intensity. Students who were the most optimistic and had the highest self-esteem were more likely to overcome their loneliness by the end of their freshmen year. Loneliness is not reserved only for college freshmen, though. It is not uncommon to find a number of upperclassmen who are also lonely. How do you determine if you are lonely? Questions on scales of loneliness ask you to respond to questions such as these: “I don’t feel in tune with the people around me.” “I can’t find companionship when I want it.” If you consistently respond that you never or rarely feel in tune with people around you and rarely or never can find companionship when you want it, you are likely to fall into the category of individuals described as moderately or intensely lonely. How can individuals who are lonely reduce their loneliness? Two recommendations are to (1) change your actual social relations or (2) change your social needs and desires. Probably the most direct and satisfying way to become less lonely is to improve your social relations. This can be accomplished by forming new relationships, by using your 66 existing social network more competently, or by creating “surrogate” relationships with pets, television personalities, and the like. A second way to reduce loneliness is to reduce your desire for social contact. Over the short run, this might be accomplished by selecting activities you can enjoy alone rather than selecting activities that require someone’s company. Over the long run, though, effort should be made to form new relationships. A third coping strategy some individuals unfortunately adopt is to distract themselves from their painful feelings by drinking to “drown their sorrows” or by becoming a workaholic. Some of the negative health consequences of loneliness may be the product of such maladaptive coping strategies. If you perceive yourself as being a lonely individual, you might consider contacting the counseling center at your college for advice on ways to reduce your loneliness and improve your social relations skills.

Make an appropriate choice.

1. According to the text loneliness is associated with
 - a) neurosis
 - b) social standing
 - c) an individual's gender, self-esteem and social skills
2. When may loneliness develop?
 - a) when individuals change their familiar environment and try to form new social relationships
 - b) when individuals blame themselves for their inadequacies
 - c) when individuals are not on friendly terms with their partners
3. According to the investigation conducted 2 weeks after the school year began, 40 percent of college freshmen said that their loneliness was
 - a) mild to moderate in intensity
 - b) moderate to severe in intensity
 - c) mild to severe in intensity
4. The word "to distract" in line 13 (last §) nearly means
 - a) to divert
 - b) to mislead
 - c) to bewilder
5. The author mentions all of the following recommendations to reduce loneliness EXCEPT
 - a) you should change your actual social relations
 - b) you should reduce your desire for social contact
 - c) you should consult a psychologist

Text 10

GROUP CONFLICT, ORDER AND DISORDER

Wars, revolutions, rebellions, riots, protest demonstrations — all are instances of group conflict, sometimes involving millions of people. Recent scholarship has powerfully confirmed that revolutions usually occur in the aftermath of wars, especially following defeat in war, at the very least when states have been weakened as a result of successive wars. The twentieth century began in historical as distinct from chronological time with the Great War of 1914—1918. A consequence of that war was

the latter seizure of state power by Communist, Fascist, and National Socialist movements that led to the even deadlier Second World War. That war was followed by over forty years of “cold war” between the United States and the Soviet Union, the two remaining great powers or “superpowers” as they came to be called. It is possible to hope that this disastrous sequence of events, this “history that we did not want,” came to an end in 1989—1991 with the collapse of Communism in Russia and Eastern Europe. As recently as a decade ago I used to argue with Marxists that the two world wars of the present century had a greater impact upon our lives than all the class struggles since the very beginnings of modern capitalism. The waning of intense class struggles in the late twentieth century and the decline of classes themselves as cohesive if loosely bounded conflict groups are today undeniable as the century draws to a close. Yet at the same time ethnic and religious conflicts within and between divided nation states have by no means disappeared and have even become more silent with the end of the nuclear deadlock between the superpowers. Group conflict and the threat it poses to the order and even the survival of societies organized into nationstates are hardly things of the past. Nations, classes, and ethnic and religious communities are all large scale “macro” groups that may under certain conditions be transformed into and increasingly come to define themselves as conflict groups. The presence of some line of demarcation between members and nonmembers is a defining criterion of a social group as distinct from a mere aggregate of individuals or a network linked through interesting chains of interaction. As is true of virtually all sociological concepts, there are ambiguous borderline cases, both as to whether or not a particular aggregate of persons, some of whom interact regularly with others, can properly be considered a group. But a degree of shared consciousness of boundaries including some persons and excluding others amounts to the collective selfdefinition by an assemblage of individuals that they compose a group. The existence of a group also provides its individual members with a new social identity as well as creating the negative identity of outsider for nonmembers. The difference between member and nonmember may be purely nominal and of little significance, but it also contains the potentiality of invidious

distinction. Whether or not a prospective new member should really be considered “one of us” may come as issue even in the case of such groups as families based primarily on hereditary membership but which can be entered through marriage. A Jules Feiffer cartoon depicts an unpopular high school “nerd” who with a few others of his kind forms a club of nerds; they still feel like isolated deviants until 69 a new unambiguously “nerdy” individual appears and the group votes not to accept him as a member. The last panel of the cartoon shows the original member beaming happily while declaring that they now have a real club since “it’s not real until you reject someone.” This nicely illustrates how the exclusion of someone else may succeed in enhancing the perceived value of a group to its members. Such a sense of invidious distinction may conceivably lead to conflict with excluded groups but may also coexist peaceably with the “nesting” of smaller groups within larger ones that create wider allegiances and more inclusive social identities. There is a continuum from the sheer difference between members and nonmembers implied by group boundaries to invidious distinction, to intergroup hostility, to overt conflict. Only the conversion of a sense of difference into conflict poses a possible threat to the social order that includes the rival parties. Conflict itself is obviously a matter of degree. Some conflicts may crystallize into ritualized forms of expression that provide emotional satisfactions to participants without producing much in the way of further consequences. Other conflicts may be over real issues that are at stake and yet be regulated according to approved procedures with the result that their outcome is accepted by the contesting parties whose conflict therefore poses no threat to social order. Conflict may reinforce rather than undermine stability, which is the major argument of Lewis Coser in his examination of its many forms and effects. Social conflicts can be located along a continuum from ritualized gesture, through various forms of negotiation and bargaining, to the nonviolent use of force, to allout violence subject to little or no restraint. The latter, amounting to a war of group against group as distinct from a Hobbesian war of all against all, is what is frequently imagined in menacing images of society disintegrating or falling into “disorder.” Even violent conflict may lead to deadlock or stalemate directly on the

field of battle, as in the trench warfare of 1914—1918, or a balance of power in which both sides are able to threaten sufficient force to deter each other from actual use of force, as in the more than forty years of cold war between the West and the Soviet bloc. Conflict may also, of course, be a source of social change, as asserted in Marx’s famous claim for class struggle in the opening sentence of *The Communist Manifesto* and also in Leon Trotsky’s statement that “war is the locomotive of history.” Trotsky’s dictum might be regarded as asserting a rival claim to Marx’s because it elevates to the major cause of change “external” wars between separate nationstates or political units rather than the internal conflicts between classes produced by the contradiction between the forces and the relations of production. Recent studies of revolution suggest that Trotsky was closer to being right. Both statements, however, treat conflict as a transforming social and historical process. Conflict most obviously leads to social change when one side wins and imposes its exclusive control over a society or social situation that was previously partly shaped by the power, interests, and values of the defeated party. In extreme cases the victor may even eliminate the other side altogether.

Make an appropriate choice.

1. Recent scholarship has powerfully confirmed that revolutions usually occur

- a) as the result of economic and political unrest
- b) as the aftermath of wars, particularly following victory in war
- c) in the aftermath of wars, especially following defeat in war

2. According to the text they are all largescale “macro” groups EXCEPT

- a) nations
- b) families
- c) ethnic and religious communities

3. In paragraph 4 the author states that the existence of a group also provides its individual members with a new social identity as well as creating

- a) the positive identity of outsider for nonmembers
- b) the negative identity of outsider for nonmembers

- c) the formal identity of outsider for nonmembers
- 4. The word “conversion” in line 23 (§ 4) could best be replaced by
 - a) change
 - b) transmutation
 - c) transformation
- 5. The author doesn’t mention one of the following types of a conflict
 - a) violent
 - b) armed
 - c) social
- 6. The statement that “war is the locomotive of history” belongs to
 - a) Leon Trotsky
 - b) Karl Marx
 - c) Dennis Wrong

T e x t 11

MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY

Should I get married? If I wait any longer, will it be too late? Will I get left out? Should I stay single or is it too lonely a life? If I get married, do I want to have children? How will it effect my marriage? These are the questions that many young adults pose to themselves as they consider their lifestyle options. But before we explore these lifestyle options, let’s examine the nature of the family life cycle. The Family Life Cycle As we go through life, we are at different points in the family life cycle. The stages of the family cycle include leaving home and becoming a single adult, the joining of families through marriage (the new couple), becoming parents and a family with children, the family with adolescents, the family at midlife, and the family in later life. Leaving Home and Becoming a Single Adult Leaving home and becoming a single adult is the first stage in the family life cycle and involves launching. Launching is the process in which youths move into adulthood and exit their family of origin. Adequate completion of launching requires that the young adult separate from the family of origin without cutting off ties completely or fleeing in a reactive way to find some form of substitute emotional refuge. The launching period is a time for the youth and young adult to formulate personal life goals, to develop

an identity, and to become more independent before joining with another person to form a new family. This is a time for young people to sort out emotionally what they will take along from the family of origin, what they will leave behind, and what they will create themselves into. Complete cutoffs from parents rarely resolve emotional problems. The shift to adult-to-adult status between parents and children requires a mutually and personal form of relating, in which young adults can appreciate parents as they are, needing neither to make them into what they are not nor to blame them for what they could not be. Neither do young adults need to comply with parental expectations and wishes at their own expense.

The Joining of Families Through Marriage: The New Couple

The new couple is the second stage in the family life cycle, in which two individuals from separate families of origin unite to form a new family system. This stage involves not only the development of a new marital system, but also a realignment with extended families and friends to include the spouse. Women's changing roles, the increasingly frequent marriage of partners from divergent cultural backgrounds, and the increasing physical distances between family members are placing a much stronger burden on couples to define their relationships for themselves than was true in the past. Marriage is usually described as the union of two individuals, but in reality it is the union of two entire family systems and the development of a new, third system. Some experts on marriage and the family believe that marriage represents such a different phenomenon for women and men that we need to speak of "her" marriage and "his" marriage. In the American society, women have anticipated marriage with greater enthusiasm and more positive expectations than men have, although statistically it has not been a very healthy system for them.

Becoming Parents and Families with Children

Becoming parents and a family with children is the third stage in the family life cycle. Entering this stage requires that adults now move up a generation and become caregivers to the younger generation. Moving through this lengthy stage successfully requires a commitment of time as a parent, understanding the roles of parents, and adapting to developmental changes in children. Problems that emerge when a couple first assumes that parental role are struggles with each other about taking

responsibility, as well as refusal or inability to function as competent parents to children.

The Family with Adolescents The family with adolescents represents the fourth stage of the family life cycle. Adolescence is a period of development in which individuals push for autonomy and seek to develop their own identity. The development of mature autonomy and identity is a lengthy process, transpiring over at least 10 to 15 years. Compliant children become noncompliant adolescents. Parents tend to adopt one of two strategies to handle noncompliance — they either clamp down and put more pressure on the adolescent to conform to parental values, or they become more permissive and let the adolescent have extensive freedom. Neither is a wise overall strategy; a more flexible, adaptive approach is best.

MidLife Families The family at midlife is the fifth stage in the family cycle. It is a time of launching children, playing an important role in linking generations, and adapting to mid life changes in development. Until about a generation ago, most families were involved in raising their children for much of their adult lives until old age. Because of the lower birth rate and longer life of most adults, parents now launch their children about 20 years before retirement, which frees many midlife parents to pursue other activities.

The Family in Later Life The family in later life is the sixth and final stage in the family life cycle. Retirement alters a couple's life style, requiring adaptation. Grandparenting also characterizes many families in this stage.

Trends in Marriage Until about 1930, the goal of a stable marriage was widely accepted as a legitimate endpoint of adult development. In the last 60 years, however, we have seen the emergence of personal fulfillment both inside and outside a marriage that competes with marriage's stability as an adult developmental goal. The changing norm of malefemale equality in marriage has produced marital relationships that are more fragile and intense than they were earlier in the twentieth century. More adults are remaining single longer in the 1990s, and the average duration of a marriage in the United States is currently just over 9 years. The divorce rate, which increased astronomically in the 1970s, has finally begun to slow down, although it still remains alarmingly high. Even with adults remaining single for longer and divorce being a

frequent occurrence, Americans still show a strong predilection for marriage — the proportion of women who never marry has remained at about 7 percent throughout the twentieth century, for example.

The sociocultural context is a powerful influence on the nature of marriage. The age at which individuals marry, expectations about what the marriage will be like, and the developmental course of the marriage may vary not only across historical time within a given culture, but also across cultures. For example, a new marriage law took effect in China in 1981. The law sets a minimum age for marriage — 22 years for males, 20 years for females. Late marriage and late childbirth are critical efforts in China's attempt to control population growth.

Make an appropriate choice.

1. How many stages are there in a family cycle?
 - a) 4
 - b) 3
 - c) 6
2. According to the text launching is the process in which
 - a) youths move into adulthood and exit their family of origin
 - b) youths try to overcome the conflict between identity and role confusion
 - c) youths comply with parental expectations
3. What is the second stage of the family cycle like?
 - a) It is the stage in which two individuals become parents and a family with children.
 - b) It is the stage in which individuals from separate families unite to form a new family system.
 - c) It is the stage in which individuals seek to develop their own identity.
4. What is the best strategy to handle a noncompliant child?
 - a) to put more pressure on the adolescent to conform to parental values
 - b) to let the adolescent have extensive freedom
 - c) to be more flexible towards a child

5. What is the age at which individuals can marry?
- a) It varies in different cultures
 - b) It is the same in different countries
 - c) It is 20—22 years

Text 12.

JEALOUSY: A VOICE OF POSSESSIVENESS PAST

Before “THE GREENeyed monster” was a universal cliché, it was a dragon mocking Othello, the original and perhaps ultimate exemplar of jealousy, tormented by the villainous Iago’s prediction that Othello’s beautiful wife, Desdemona, would cuckold him. The logic of Othello, and of millions of other jealous men and women, speaks to the dark logic of genes. You don’t think in perfect iambic pentameter, but you likely have your own Yago: “What’s my wife doing talking to that new guy from the neighborhood? Is she laughing at his jokes? I think she just touched his arm.” When you feel a surge of sexual jealousy, you’re responding to the possibility of being abandoned by your partner. But on a deeper level, jealousy is sounding a genetic alarm. Of course, your genes are the last thing on your mind as you watch your beloved flirt with an attractive stranger, but it is our genetic booty that jealousy’s urgent stab has evolved to defend. Our bodies and minds spring from thousands of generations of successful survival and mating ploys, all of which now operate in us. The most basic strategy is mateguarding, on display during any cocktail party or Sunday stroll through the park: the innocent urge to put your arm around your partner in casual conversation; the notsoinnocent mention of a partner’s flaws, as if to say, “Trust me, this person is not the dazzling package she appears to be.” These are timehonored techniques to fend off potential rivals. Like many emotional adaptations (xenophobia, fear of the dark) jealousy is an imperfect and often overzealous call to arms. That’s because the human life span was, until not long ago, perilously short. Evolutionary psychologists and anthropologists believe that our ancestors rarely got a second chance to woo a mate. And the pool of potential dates on Cavematch.com was in the low two digits. It therefore behooved our ancestors to be hypervigilant about any real or imagined threats to their relationships.

Our ancestors succeeded in acquiring mates and guarding them long enough to spawn — those who couldn't are ancestors to no one. It makes sense that humans developed jealousy as a builtin infidelity detection system in this competitive social cauldron. The desire for certainty and genetic possession of a partner is an ancient commandment, based on maintaining one's status and honor. While status continues to occupy a central psychological role for us, in the past it was a universal and inviolable metric. Today, you can round the corner into a new neighborhood and invent a new life. Your emotions, unfortunately, have not caught on to this. That makes most of your experiences of jealousy historically urgent but mismatched to modernity — a perfect setup for Neanderthink. The main way to defend one's honor in the ancient environment was through sheer force and threat of violence. Even now, men in certain cultures feel they have to defend their name by acting violently against women who have “dishonored” them. Evolutionary psychologists argue that violence resulted in enhanced status and power more often in prehistoric times than it does today's culture of laws. The deterrent effect of penalizing violent men forces some — but not all — to keep their jealous natures in check. There are two ways jealousy manifests itself: as an appropriate concern and as a destructive disturbance. Jealousy is either a fine featherduster or a blunt mallet, depending on how we perceive our own value on the mate market. Someone who thinks he'll never find another partner as good as the current one will obviously go to great lengths to keep the one he's got. When jealousy simply alerts us, it is likely to result from a concern for the relationship. But when it is destructive, it is usually triggered by insecurity about our prospects. People with a poor sense of self (that is, those who are desperate to preserve their mating prospects) are more prone to the deep hurt and fury that precede angry outbursts. Disturbed jealousy demands a guarantee of absolute fidelity. When your odds of living to 40 are bleak and your opinions for mating bleaker, homicidal rage effectively wards off wouldbe interlopers and intimidates a potentially unfaithful mate. Today your odds of longevity and fecundity are much better, but if you feel that you're worthless, then you might as well be living in the Pleistocene, so tenaciously will you try to retain

your mate. The trouble is, it won't work. Because the easily tripped alarm of excessive jealousy stimulates Neanderthink, the consequences of abandonment (the worstcase scenario) are exaggerated. Getting dumped requires an adjustment, and although that adjustment is rarely life or (genetic) death, as it might have been eons ago, we still fear the loss of our partner and crave constant reassurance. Paradoxically, however, a person who needs reassurance of devotion and fidelity will drive a partner away and into the arms of a rival. Othello instructed us: Harmful jealousy springs from a weak sense of self; Othello is nothing without Desdemona's pure love. The key to dealing with jealousy properly is to see that guaranteed fidelity is unattainable — no absolute certainty of eternal commitment can be granted. Rational jealousy, which is a passionate concern and respect for the relationship ("Although I prefer your love, I never need a guarantee of it"), can help us attend to our partner's feelings without the rage, selfcriticism and despair that characterize Neanderthink jealousy. Neanderthink jealousy functions largely below the level of conscious awareness. But you can tune in; it operates most often as a demand for constant reassurance that you will always be the first and only being in your partner's life and that you'd be diminished if your partner rejected you. By accepting that perfect reassurance cannot really exist and that you do not absolutely need it, you can redirect your efforts to improving your relationship. The energy spent seeking an ironclad guarantee of fidelity could be better spent, say, being the funloving person with whom your partner would want to have an affair.

Make an appropriate choice.

1. All these timehonored techniques to fend off potential rivals are mentioned in the text EXCEPT
 - a) to put your arm around your partner in casual conversation
 - b) an innocent kiss on the cheek on display
 - c) the notsoinnocent mention of a partner's flaws
2. According to the text our ancestors
 - a) often got a second chance to woo a mate

- b) were not hypervigilant about any threats to their relation ships
- c) succeeded in acquiring mates and guarding them long enough to spawn
- 3. The word “exemplar” in line 3 could best be replaced
 - a) example
 - b) model
 - c) sample
- 4. Rational jealousy
 - a) springs from a weak sense of self
 - b) demands a guarantee of absolute fidelity
 - c) is a passionate concern and respect for the relationship
- 5. The author thinks that you can redirect your efforts to improving your relationship by
 - a) fending off potential rivals
 - b) accepting that perfect reassurance cannot really exist
 - c) seeking an ironclad guarantee of fidelity

Text 13.

WHY ARE SOME PEOPLE HAPPIER THAN OTHERS?

What is the nature of happiness? For psychologists, happiness is just one aspect of subjective well being (SWB). In addition to happiness, SWB includes having more positive than negative emotions and having feelings of overall life satisfaction. To understand the roots of happiness and feelings of wellbeing, researchers looked first at external events and the demographic characteristics of happy people. But after decades of research, and despite what “common sense” might suggest, they found that external events and demographic characteristics have very little influence on SWB. More specifically, they found no correlation between age, gender, or intelligence and happiness. Researchers did not find that people who are married, wealthy, welleducated, and in good health tend to be happier than others, but the difference is often small. If these variables don’t have a major effect on happiness, then what does? Increasingly, researchers are coming to believe that the keys to happiness are the goals people have, their ability to adapt to conditions around

them, and their personalities. Consistent with this view is the fact that personality is a strong and consistent predictor of wellbeing over a period of years. Also people who are happy in one area of their lives (such as at work) tend to be happy in other areas as well. Thus, researchers believe that stable personality factors predispose people to feel happy or unhappy in a wide range of situations, though current life events may significantly influence happiness at any given moment.

Using the Big Five trait model of personality, DeNeve and Cooper (1998) found that happy people and those reporting more positive than negative emotions tend to be high on extraversion and low on neuroticism. They also found that people who are satisfied with their lives tend to be high on conscientiousness and low on neuroticism. To a lesser extent, people high in agreeableness also tend to be more satisfied with their lives. Thus happy people in general tend to be enthusiastic, accommodating, understanding, flexible, gregarious, energetic, confident, optimistic, and affectionate. Why personality should predict happiness so well is not known. Some evidence suggests that people may be genetically predisposed to be happy or unhappy. Exactly how genes might affect happiness is currently explored. Evolutionary psychologists argue that differences between our ancestral environment and the contemporary world may also contribute to the human experience of happiness. For instance, evolved mechanisms that foster friendship, mating bonds, kinship, and cooperativeness probably make a positive contribution to the experience of happiness. Conversely, evolved mechanisms for survival may also include a competitive component, principally designed to benefit the success of the individual at the expense of the group. In the modern world these latter mechanisms may, under some circumstances, serve as a source of subjective stress, reducing one's overall feeling of happiness. Techniques for adapting and coping also seem to contribute to happiness. Many people who suffer severe injuries or who are imprisoned for long periods of time report that within a relatively short time following these episodes, they regain their normal levels of happiness. Most people who lose life partners take longer to return to normal, but many do so eventually. We don't yet know exactly how adaptation contributes to happiness. It may be that

most people simply “get used to” unpleasant situations, it may be that they change the way they perceive the new situation, it may be that they restructure their lives to fit the changed conditions, or the explanation may lie elsewhere entirely. But adaptive techniques could help to explain the relative stability of happiness and feelings of wellbeing over time.

Make an appropriate choice.

1. The second paragraph can best be entitled as
 - a) External events and the demographic characteristics of happy people.
 - b) The roots of happiness and feelings of wellbeing.
 - c) What did researchers find out about the nature of happiness?
2. According to the text the keys to happiness are all these EXCEPT
 - a) a stable personality factor
 - b) the ability to adjust to the environment
 - c) overall life satisfaction
3. The word “agreeableness” in line 6 (§ 4) could best be explained as
 - a) compliance
 - b) softness
 - c) obsequiousness
4. According to the text all mentioned below can contribute to happiness in the modern world EXCEPT
 - a) friendship
 - b) competition
 - c) adaptation
5. The relative stability of happiness can best be explained with the help of
 - a) adaptive techniques
 - b) techniques for coping with difficult problems
 - c) evolved mechanisms

Text 14.

UPSTAGING STAGE FRIGHT

Fear is good: in emergencies, it enables us to fight or flee. But often we get scared at the wrong time — when we step onto the field for a big

soccer game or up to the microphone at a contentious town meeting. Professional athletes and actors say some nervousness helps them concentrate better. But when performance anxiety is too powerful, it undermines our efforts: a player's legs become wobbly, a violinist cannot find the correct notes, a manager in a meeting forgets all the talking points. Survival may not hang in the balance, but social, professional or financial success can seem to be in grave danger. The human anxiety reaction begins almost automatically and includes clear physiological symptoms: a racing heart, sweating, stomach pains, even diarrhea. Some people have trouble breathing or feel faint. Thus alarmed, victims may withdraw into themselves or shock others around them with aggressive outbursts. If the need to perform is a regular requirement, they may suffer from nightmares or fall into depression. All these symptoms eat away at the very resources needed to rise to the occasion: steady hands, clear memory and a cool head. Studies reveal that anxietyplagued executives are less able to apply logical intelligence on standard tests than calmer colleagues. Because performance anxiety arises when other people are present, many psychologists believe that the condition is a subcategory of social anxiety. Yet psychologist Douglas H. Powell of Harvard Medical School is convinced that severe stage fright is a phenomenon unto itself, given that it appears in only certain welldefined situations. Sociophobes, in contrast, suffer merely when others are present. Whereas people with social phobias fear the negative feelings of others, those with performance anxiety are their own harshest critics. They are perfectionists and would rather cancel an appearance — or avoid it — than not meet their own standards and, by extension, not be able to demonstrate how good they are. This catastrophic style of thinking often arises from a lack of self esteem. The individual begins by imaging failure, works himself or herself into a state and then deprecates his or her own abilities. Previous bad experience can be a trigger — an embarrassing experience in a school play or a single botched test can sometimes evoke such strong feelings of shame in youngsters that as adults they will avoid any remotely similar undertaking. If you are prone to stage fright, you can choose from several tactics that can allay fears. Socalled cognitive methods are based on the observation that you can

control your feelings through directed thinking. To ward off negative thoughts, begin with writing them down. Then, find a quiet time and place to review them and consciously block them by replacing them with favorable notions. Afraid to give a short speech? Recall a great talk you gave to your son or daughter. Worried you'll forget a line? Remember how well you tell stories to your friends. It also helps to examine the real risk involved. Decide what value the upcoming performance in question has for you. If you fail, will the world really come to an end? Does your inner peace really depend on stunning success in this situation? Over the long term, your sense of selfworth depends mostly on things unconnected to any given performance, such as having a happy family or enjoying good friends. Another proven technique for overcoming fear of failure is called desensitization. After some initial guidance from an expert, you can do it for yourself. The technique exploits the fact that anyone who regularly finds himself or herself in the same fearinducing situation gradually gets used to it. The first step to lessen a fear of public speaking, for example, would be to talk through your presentation while imagining that you are explaining the topic to your always supportive parents or siblings. Then read the talk aloud while sitting with a good friend. The next step in difficulty would be to choose a somewhat larger group of acquaintances and work from only a couple of note cards. Then invite some outsiders into the audience. Graduation from this desensitization training would be speaking extemporaneously to a hall full of strangers. Some therapists utilize techniques that act against the physical symptoms of fear. Examples include restful breathing cadences and calminducing regiments such as the Jacobson exercise, which uses a controlled, progressive plan to systematically relax the body's muscles. If the root of the performance anxiety is inadequate psychic stability, a controversial technique called eye movement desensitization and reprocessing may help. The approach, discounted by some psycholo 85 gists, should be carried out only with a therapist trained in this method. Individuals face frightening situations or feelings while the left and the right hemispheres of the brain are stimulated in alternation, by concentrating on different points of light or hand movements. The activity appears to reduce emotional pressure and promote a positive attitude toward the difficult

performance situation. Avoiding stage fright for an impending speech may well come down to better preparation. Study the content until you know it cold, write out the entire presentation, rehearse it alone and in front of a few volunteers until you could give it in your sleep. Then perhaps the actual event won't seem so foreboding.

Make an appropriate choice.

1. Professional athletes and actors say some nervousness helps them
 - a) train better
 - b) concentrate better
 - c) feel better
2. The word “flee” in line 1 can best be replaced by
 - a) take refuge
 - b) slip away
 - c) escape
3. According to the text human anxiety reaction includes physiological symptoms:
 - a) a racing heart, shallow and rapid respiration with a fast and weak pulse and stomach pains
 - b) increased beat rate, nausea, sweating and even diarrhea
 - c) a racing heart, sweating, stomach pains, even diarrhea
4. The author mentions several tactics that can allay fears EXCEPT
 - a) positive thinking
 - b) relaxation
 - c) desensitization
5. What does the author mean by “foreboding” (the last line)?
 - a) misgiving
 - b) frightening
 - c) threatening

Text 15.

BITTER COULD BE BETTER

Ashley grimaces. She really wants to spit out the vegetables she has just put in her mouth — they are horribly bitter. But politeness forbids. After all, the man from Cameron and his wife have invited her to their

home for dinner. And strangely, the hosts seem to be savoring the spinachlike ndole, a favorite from their homeland, which can be found in some specialty stores under the name “bitterleaf.” That’s certainly the right name, Ashley has just discovered. But how can the experience be so different to her? Because the way individuals perceive flavors is determined not only by cultural familiarity but by molecular biology as well. Researchers are finding that genes activate very different sensitivities in each person’s set of taste buds. Ultimately these reactions are responsible for the “tastes” we perceive in our brains, especially bitterness. As scientists learn more, executives at food manufacturing companies are experimenting with special compounds that could cover up unpleasant flavors that turn some people off healthful foods. And pharmaceutical manufacturers are testing such bitter blockers to make a range of medicines more palatable.

Supertasters Provide a Clue Scientific examination into our sense of taste began in earnest in 1931, after a mishap at a DuPont laboratory in Willington, Del. Chemist Arthur Fox had just synthesized a substance named phenylthiocarbamide (PTC) when the powdery material was swirled into the air by a gust of wind. His colleague, who got a bit of the powder in his mouth when he inhaled, complained about its awful pungency. Fox, however, did not experience any offensive sensation. He immediately tested his compound on other lab hands; some of them described PTC as mildly or extremely bitter, and others said it was tasteless. About 60 years after Fox’s incident, Linda Bartoshuk of Yale University determined that around 25 percent of men and women belong to the “PTCnontasters” group. Another 25 percent react intensely to both PTC and a related chemical called PROP (6n propylthiouracil). These sensitive individuals respond more strongly to all four basic tastes — sweet, sour, salty and bitter. Investigators have also found that the same people are sensitive to the proposed fifth fundamental taste, “umami”, demonstrated in recent years. (The term is a Japanese word, meaning “meaty and hearty,” a sensation typical of highprotein foods.) Studies of these supertasters in the past few years have elucidated how we taste and why the same food that is deplorable to individuals such as Ashley can be delectable to her hosts. Painting a tongue with methylene blue dye stains most of it blue, leaving tiny pink

dots — the taste papillae in which the taste buds reside. Although an average tongue contains 100 to 200 of the little knobs per square centimeter, supertasters may have twice as many, with individual papillae merging into one another. Nontasters have half the normal number of papillae, but each one is much larger. “Supertasters live in a neon taste world, and nontasters live in a pastel taste world,” Bartoshuk says. But the number of papillae only partly determines whether someone might want to spit out a bite of ndole. Which flavors we detect strongly, and how extreme they seem to us, depends above all on the molecular biology of our taste receptors. Some years ago researchers⁸⁸ identified the first genes that code for bitter receptors, among them the ones that detect PTC and PROP. Soon thereafter, UnKyung Kim and his colleagues at the National Institute on Deafness and Other Communication Disorders discovered that several variants existed and were correlated with supertasters and nontasters. Experts have since tried an assortment of techniques to further define our taste apparatus. Bernd Bufo and Wolfgang Meyerhof of the German Institute of Human Nutrition in Potsdam created an “artificial tongue” — a group of specially prepared taste bud cells in a petri dish. When the cells were stimulated with bitters, substances would be bound by the buds’ receptors and calcium levels inside the cells would rise, indicating the degree of perception. Separate results from the Human Genome Project indicate that 25 genes are responsible for encoding receptors that detect bitter flavors, according to Bufo. Different receptor molecules detect different categories of substances. For example, the PTC/PROP receptor, known as TAS2R38, binds only to molecules related to PTC and PROP, which are found abundantly in broccoli, cabbage and other cruciferous plants. On the other hand, TAS2R16 specializes in the so-called glucopyranosides — which include substances that contain cyanide — such as those found in bitter almonds. Other receptors seem to be less selective, reacting to several classes of substances. Bufo notes that because variations exist for all 25 bitter genes, scientists are now aware of 104 different receptor types for such compounds. Our sense of “bitter” is therefore highly refined and very individual

Make an appropriate choice.

1. Tastes differ because the way individuals perceive flavors is determined
 - a) by cultural familiarity and individual preferences
 - b) by individual preferences alone
 - c) not only by cultural familiarity but by molecular biology as well
2. Scientific examination into our sense of taste began in earnest in 1931 by
 - a) Linda Bartoshuk
 - b) Bernd Bufe and Wolfgang Meyerhof
 - c) Arthur Fox
3. According to the text there are several basic tastes. They are
 - a) sweet, sour, salty and bitter
 - b) sweet, sour, salty, bitter and “umami”
 - c) sweet, sour, salty, pungent, bitter and “umami”
4. The word “compound” in line 8 (§ 3) can best be replaced by
 - a) combination
 - b) connection
 - c) formation
5. The author mentions that according to B.Bufe the genes which are responsible for encoding receptors that detect bitter flavors constitute
 - a) 104
 - b) 25
 - c) from 100 to 200

Text 16.

FUNCTIONS OF SLEEP

Assuming that you live to be 75, you will have spent up to 25 years asleep. Are you wasting onethird of your life, or does sleep serve important functions for you? Is sleep serves no function, why do we benefit from naps and why do we eventually succumb to sleep no matter how hard we try to stay awake? Among the many hypothesized functions of sleep, three kinds are especially prominent: sleep as restorative, sleep as a state of adaptive inactivity, and sleep as an aid to memory. Sleep as Restorative The most commonsense view of sleep holds that it restores

the body and the mind after the wear and tear imposed by waking activities by eliminating waste materials, replenishing chemicals, and repairing tissues. One way of testing this view is to observe the effects of sleep deprivation. In the case of Peter Tripp, sleep deprivation caused hallucinations and delusional thinking, which disappeared after a single night's sleep. In a similar case, Randy Gardner, a 17 year old San Diego high school student, stayed awake 264 hours to get his name in the Guinness Book of World Records (a record since broken). He experienced less severe disturbances than Tripp, including some fatigue, irritability, and perceptual distortions. Yet, on his eleventh day without sleep, Gardner beat William Dement, a noted sleep researcher, 100 consecutive times at a pinball game. After 15 hours of sleep, Gardner awoke restored both physically and mentally. More formal research has provided evidence of the negative effects of sleep loss and the restorative effects of sleep. In one study, subjects who stayed awake for 60 hours experienced mood disturbances and difficulty performing cognitive tasks, including mental arithmetic. Even a loss of as little as 2 hours of sleep a night may impair waking performance, most notably in school and on the job. Chronic sleep deprivation is one of the major stressors of medical residents, who may be asked to make life and death decisions and perform delicate procedures after being awake for 24 hours or more. This is potentially dangerous because the loss of sleep slows reaction time and impairs the ability to concentrate on tasks. Even performance on everyday activities, such as driving, is adversely affected by sleep deprivation. In fact, one of the most common causes of automobile accidents is a lack of alertness caused by sleepiness. Sleepiness-induced accidents are especially common in shift workers. Fortunately, even if we fail to let our normal nightly quo of sleep during the week (a common problem with college students) we will regain our optimal level of alertness after a single night's normal sleep on the weekend. Another source of evidence for the restorative function of sleep is research on the effects of vigorous physical activity on sleep. Sleep, especially deep sleep, increases in duration on the nights after vigorous exercise. A study of runners who participated in a 57 mile ultramarathon race found that they had a significant increase in sleep, particularly stage 3 and stage 4

sleep, on the two nights following the race. Despite the evidence that sleep has a restorative function, we still do not know exactly what sleep restores.

Sleep as Adaptive Inactivity An alternative view, put forth by sleep researcher Wilse Webb (1975), is that sleep evolved because it protected the sleeper from harm. Our prehistoric ancestors who slept at night would be less likely to gain the attention of hungry nocturnal predators. The limb paralysis accompanying REM sleep may have evolved because it prevented cave dwellers from acting out their dreams, when they might have bumped into trees, fallen off cliffs, or provided dinner for sabertoothed tigers. Evidence for this function of REM sleep comes from studies showing that destruction of a portion of the pons that normally induces REM paralysis in cats produces stalking and attacking movements during sleep, as though they are acting out their dreams. Another reason to believe that sleep may be a period of adaptive inactivity is because it conserves energy. Evidence supporting this view comes from studies of the foodfinding habits of different species. Because of normal duration of sleep of a given species is negatively correlated with how long it takes members of that species to find their daily food, perhaps animals stay awake only long enough to eat sufficient food to meet their energy needs. Animals may have evolved sleep to conserve energy the remainder of the time. Thus, the typical adult's need for about seven and onehalf hours of sleep might mean that our prehistoric ancestors needed about sixteen and onehalf hours to find their daily food.

Sleep as an Aid to Memory Sleep, particularly REM sleep, may help to consolidate longterm memories. When subjects learn new material and are then deprived of REM sleep, their memory for the material is impaired relative to subjects who are not deprived. Moreover, the amount of REM sleep increases on nights following the learning of difficult material. And memory improves as the length of REM sleep increases. In one study, undergraduates learned Morse code just before bedtime on three consecutive nights. After awakening, their performance on a Morse code task was tested. The results showed a positive correlation between the length of REM sleep and their performance. In another study, competitors in a marathon 146hour tennis match slept 4 or 5 hours a night less than normal. Physiological recordings indicated that

they continued to get their normal NREM sleep, but at the cost of a reduction in their REM sleep. They also showed a memory decline after the match, perhaps because of their decrease in REM sleep.

Make an appropriate choice.

1. The author mentions the following functions of sleep EXCEPT

- a) restoration
- b) information processing
- c) aid to memory

2. One of the negative effects of sleep loss is

- a) fast reaction time
- b) inability to concentrate
- c) lack of mood disturbances

3. The word “succumb” in line 4 could be best replaced by

- a) give in
- b) respond to
- c) yield to

4. According to the text evolved sleep is necessary for

- a) protecting the sleeper from harm
- b) regaining an optimal level of alertness
- c) relaxation

5. The last paragraph mostly tells us about

- a) correlation between length of REM sleep and performance
- b) sleep as an aid to memory
- c) Morse code experiment

T e x t 17.

**CULTIVATING CURIOSITY: DEVELOPING A SENSE OF
WONDER CAN BE ITS OWN REWARD**

Decades before Even Schaeffer started practicing law, he developed an interest so all consuming it verged on obsession: makes. By the time

he entered the fourth grade, he had so many reptile books that they took up an entire shelf, and he counted the gloves, golf putter and pillowcase he used for snakehunting among his most prized possessions. The snake fascination gradually faded, but Schaeffer's determination to learn as much as he could about everything that interested him remained. "I never have to try to have hobbies — they just seem to find me," he says. Outside of work, he plays the guitar, writes songs, is an amateur astronomer and photographer, and maintains a blog called Even Schaeffer's Legal Underground. "I like that my mind gets to focus on things I've chosen on my own," he says. "It gives me a sense of freedom I wouldn't have otherwise." Schaeffer is what psychologists call a "trait curious" person: someone with a tendency to delve deeply into subjects that grab his attention, learning more about himself and the world in the process. Curious people are used to being joshed for their obsessions — monikers like "band geek" and "bookworm" are a way of saying. Just relax, already!" According to a new study by Todd Kashdan of George Mason University, however, the unusually curious often have the last laugh. Kashdan asked students how much they agreed with statements such as, "When I am actively interested in something, it takes a great deal to interrupt me." People who exhibit high levels of curiosity, he found, experience higher levels of satisfaction with life than their more disengaged peers. While the less curious derive more pleasure from hedonistic behaviors such as sex and drinking, curious people report finding a greater sense of meaning in life, which is a better predictor of sustainable, lasting happiness. What accounts for the link between curiosity and wellbeing? Kashdan speculates that while dabbling in new activities or subject areas maybe uncomfortable at first, curious people are likely to be rewarded for their efforts over the long run. These rewards can be social, like enjoying weekly lunches with friends you met in a beginning windsurfing class. Most of the time, though, the pleasure is intrinsic to the activity itself, as when you master the unicycle or a Mozart piano sonata. Because the sheer high of such an accomplishment is its own reward, the curious tend to be highly selfmotivated. "There's this paradoxical route to wellbeing," Kashdan says. "Maybe the real way to make yourself happy is by doing something that challenges you,

makes you stretch.” “Self-reported curiosity, he adds, tends to build over time, which suggests that the knowledge and experience curious people gain give them satisfaction, motivating them to learn even more”. Curiosity can be a double-edged sword, though. The same adventurous impulses that drive curious people to books and hobbies may also lead them to partake in dangerous activities such as skydiving or experimenting with psychotropic drugs. Still, according to Paul Silvia, a social psychologist at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro, the enrichment that curious people experience generally outweighs the negative effects of the risks they take. “I doubt curiosity kills too many cats,” he says. A strong sense of curiosity is a stable trait that you either have or don’t, but even if you don’t think of yourself as naturally curious, Kashdan says, it’s helpful to remember that curiosity can be cultivated. You can learn to work with what you have. Just about everyone is interested in something, but in many cases social pressures stifle these curious instincts, making us forget we ever had them. “Lots of people played an instrument when they were younger, and they say, “I don’t do it anymore because I work now,” Kashdan says. “But really there’s no definition of what an adult’s supposed to be, and for some people, that’s earthshaking to hear.” Surmounting your fear or failure will also help you realize your full curiosity potential. Silvia recommends enlisting a friend to join you in pursuing a new interest that seems intimidating, like kickboxing or watercolors. Still, occasional slipups are an inevitable part of learning and discovery. “In curious people, there’s internal growth that takes place regardless of the outcome,” Kashdan says. “Let’s say you’ve never tried barracuda before, but you decide to order it at a restaurant. If you like it, that’s great, but even if you don’t, you have a story you can use to connect with people: “Have you ever tried barracuda? It’s disgusting!” Either way, you’ve expanded yourself a bit.”

Make an appropriate choice.

1. According to the text what psychologists call a “trait curious” person is someone who
 - a) delves deeply into subjects and learns more about himself and the world

- b) wants to find out about smth.
 - c) asks a lot of questions
2. Kashdan found that people with high level of curiosity experience
- a) higher levels of satisfaction with life than their disengaged peers
 - b) lower levels of satisfaction with life than their disengaged peers
 - c) more pleasure from hedonistic behaviours (sex, drinks)
3. The author of the article says that curiosity can be a double edged sword which means
- a) curiosity drives people only to books and hobbies
 - b) curiosity drives people only to dangerous activities
 - c) curiosity drives people to books, hobbies and dangerous activities as well.
4. The word “cultivated” in line 43 (§ 9) most nearly means
- a) developed
 - b) elevated
 - c) nurtured
5. All these statements are in the text EXCEPT
- a) curious people are highly motivated
 - b) social pressures may stifle curious instincts
 - c) people who are extremely creative are considered gifted.

Text 18.

SLEEP

Human beings spend about one-third of their lives in the altered state of consciousness known as sleep: a natural state of rest characterized by a reduction in voluntary body movement and decreased awareness of the surroundings. No one who has tried to stay awake longer than 20 hours at a time could doubt the necessity of sleep. Some people claim they never sleep, but when observed under laboratory conditions, they actually sleep soundly without being aware of it. When people are sleep-deprived, they crave sleep just as strongly as

they would food or water after a period of deprivation. Sleep deprivation impairs cognitive skills to a greater extent than many people realize. When deprived of sleep we react more slowly, have more trouble focusing attention, and are more prone to making errors in judgment. Emergency room doctors often lose sleep because of the unpredictable and demanding nature of their work. This can be a serious problem when they are called on to make critical decisions quickly. Merely resting doesn't satisfy us.

Humans are not alone in their need for sleep. All birds and mammals sleep, and although scientists are not sure about reptiles, frogs, fish, and even insects go into "rest states" similar to sleep. Indeed, *Drosophila* fruit flies, a favorite subject for genetic studies because they reproduce rapidly, are remarkably like us. They are active during the day and somnolent at night; when deprived of sleep they need long naps to recover: and caffeine keeps them awake, whereas antihistamines make them drowsy.

How long organisms sleep, where, in what positions, and other details vary from species to species. In general, large animals sleep less than small animals, perhaps because eating enough to support their size requires more time awake. Elephants get by on about 4 hours sleep, and giraffes on only 2 hours. In contrast, bats, armadillos, and opossums sleep more than 18 hours a day. Lions, who consume enough from a single kill to keep going for a day or two, sleep for 16 hours at a time. House cats have inherited this tendency, though they spend more time in light sleep (eyes closed but in an upright posture with ears alert) than in deep sleep (muscles relaxed, almost oblivious to their surroundings). Dolphins and other aquatic mammals actually sleep on the move.

If they didn't keep one flipper paddling and periodically surface to breathe, they would drown. How do they accomplish this? By sleeping with only one hemisphere of their brain at a time. Birds are also half-brain sleepers, but apparently for a different reason: to keep one eye open for predators. Other organisms, such as fish, usually find a protected place and rest for just minutes at a time by slowing their metabolism down. Brightly colored reef fish can even "turn down"

their colors when they rest to reduce the risk of being seen by predators. The parrot fish secretes a mucous layer to cover its body, thus cloaking its scent while napping.

Nobody knows exactly why we need to sleep. Evolutionary psychologists see sleep as an adaptive mechanism that evolved to allow organisms to conserve and restore energy. In support of this theory, researchers have shown that people use less energy when they are asleep than when they are awake. Another possibility is that some vital substance in the nervous system is resynthesized during sleep. But what that substance might be is still a mystery, although a recent study suggests that the naturally occurring chemical adenosine may be involved. In this study, cats kept awake an abnormally long time were found to have elevated levels of adenosine in their brains during wakefulness. When the cats were finally permitted to sleep, the adenosine levels dropped. To determine whether the adenosine buildup actually caused the sleepiness, the investigators injected adenosine into well-rested cats. These cats immediately became sleepy and began to exhibit the EEG patterns typical of drowsiness. Exactly why a high level of adenosine appears to trigger sleepiness is not known, but additional research along this line may soon provide us with a better understanding of the neurological processes underlying the need for sleep.

Circadian Cycles: The Biological Clock

Like many other biological functions, sleep and waking follow a daily, or circadian, cycle (from the Latin expression *circa diem*, meaning “about a day”). Circadian rhythms are an ancient and fundamental adaptation to the 24-hour solar cycle of light and dark, found not only in humans and other animals but also in plants and even one-celled organisms. The human biological clock is actually a tiny cluster of neurons in the hypothalamus that responds to levels of proteins in the body. When the protein supply gets low, these neurons “turn on” and stimulate production of more proteins. When the proteins reach a certain level, they “turn off” again. In turn, these proteins are the building blocks of hormones, neurotransmitters, and other essential body chemicals.

Over the course of a day, metabolism, stomach acidity, alertness, body temperature, blood pressure, and the level of most hormones also vary predictably. But all body cycles do not follow the same pattern. For example, the level of the hormone epinephrine (which causes the body to go on alert) reaches a peak in the late morning hours and then steadily declines until around midnight, when it suddenly drops to a very low level and remains there until morning. By contrast, levels of melatonin (which promotes sleep) surge at night and drop off during the day. Normally, the rhythms and chemistry of all these different cycles interact smoothly, so that a shift in one brings about a corresponding shift in others.

The biological clock is self-sustaining and continues to function in the absence of external cues to the cycle of day and night. For example, Czeisler, Duffy, and Shanahan studied 24 people who volunteered to live in an artificial environment for 3 weeks. The only time cues participants had were a weak cycle of light and dark set at 28 hours and a bedtime signal. Even in this misleading environment, their body temperatures, hormone levels, and other biological processes showed that their bodies continued to function according to their own internal 24-hour cycle.

Under normal environmental conditions, however, our body clocks reset themselves to match prevailing cycles of light and dark. Our sleep- wake cycles change as the days grow longer or shorter with the seasons. Melatonin seems to play a key role in adaptation to light and dark. Suppose you are camping in a remote area, away from artificial light. When the sun goes down, the pineal gland deep in your brain begins to produce melatonin, which lowers your body temperature and makes you drowsy. Melatonin levels remain high all night. When the sun comes up, you open your eyes, light hits your retinas, and melatonin production stops. By midmorning, there is little or none left in your system. At nightfall, production begins again. The hypothalamus does not distinguish between natural and artificial light, however. Exposure to bright light after dark — in our homes, offices, and other locations — suppresses our natural response to changes in the light cycle.

We rarely notice circadian rhythms until they are disturbed. Jet lag is a familiar example. Travelers who cross several time zones in one day often feel “out of sorts” for several days. The reason for jet lag is not so much lack of sleep as desynchronization. Sleep and wake cycles adapt quickly, but hormones, body temperature, and digestive cycles change more slowly. As a result, bodily functions are out of synch. Likewise, shift workers often lose weight and suffer from irritability, insomnia, and extreme drowsiness for some time after changing to a new shift. People can adapt to night work fairly quickly, but night and day shifts are often assigned on a rotating basis, so the workers’ bodies do not have time to resynchronize. Pilots who work variable shifts and cross and cross time zones are especially vulnerable.

But what counts is not the number of hours we sleep, but “quality” sleep. To be fully alert and function at our peak, we need a good night’s sleep: An afternoon siesta and naps here and there do not meet our sleep requirements. We can reprogram ourselves to different sleep schedules, but our adaptability is limited. Extended periods with too little regular sleep lead to slower reaction times, difficulty processing information and making decisions, and unplanned, involuntary naps lasting a few minutes — or even hours. These disruptions of the biological clock pose a threat to safety in the case of pilots or workers operating dangerous equipment.

Researchers may have found a way to adjust our biological clocks. Light inhibits the production of melatonin, which goes up as the sun goes down. A small dose of melatonin taken in the morning (the time when the hormone is usually tapering off) sets back or slows the biological clock. Taken in the evening, melatonin speeds up the biological clock, making the person fall asleep earlier than usual. A team of investigators applied this reasoning to treat a child with severe insomnia brought on by a tumor of the pineal gland, which suppressed the gland’s output of melatonin. After melatonin was artificially supplied to the child for two weeks, a normal sleep-wake cycle was restored. Results like these suggest that someday a melatonin pill, perhaps used in conjunction with timed exposure to sunlight or darkness, may help

people adjust their circadian rhythms at will.

I. Choose the word from the box to match the definition on the left.

Sleep	Biological clock	Sleep attack
Desynchronization	Melatonin	Circadian rhythm

1. An overwhelming urge to sleep, much time compelling than mere sleepiness.
2. Basically, a particular loss of consciousness characterized by a variety of behavioural and neurophy-siological effects.
3. A hormone produced by the pineal gland that enhances the immune system and helps people with jetlag or sleeplessness.
4. A term used for any set of circumstances in which there is a breakdown or disruption in synchrony.
5. A cycle or rhythm that is roughly 24 hours long, sleepwakefulness, body temperature, and water excretion follow a circodian rhythm,as do a number of behavioral and psychological variables.
6. A hypothesized biochemical mechanism that is responsible for the control of the behavioral systems which show periodicity.

II. Answer the questions to the text.

1. What is sleep?
2. How do people behave when deprived of sleep?
3. Why is a drosophila fly a favorite subject for genetic studies?
4. Does the duration of sleep vary in different organisms?
5. Why do we need to sleep?
6. What does a circadian cycle mean?
7. How may a biological clock be defined?

8. What hormone plays a key role in adaptation to light and darkness? How does it work?
9. Why do people experience jet lag after transcontinental or international flights?
10. What is more important: the number of hours we sleep or “quality” sleep?
11. Will it be possible to help people adjust their circadian rhythms at will someday?

III. Choose the facts to prove that:

1. Different organisms sleep in different positions and the length of sleep varies from species to species.
2. We rarely notice circadian rhythms until they are disturbed.
3. Researchers may have found a way to adjust our biological clocks.

Text 19. THE WORLD OF DREAMS

For the most part, dreams are not taken very seriously in Western societies. Paradoxically, though, Robert Van de Castle (1994) points out that dreams have sometimes changed the world. For example, Van de Castle describes how Rene Descartes’s philosophy of dualism, Frederick Banting’s discovery of insulin, Elias Howe’s refinement of the sewing machine, Mohandas Gandhi’s strategy of nonviolent protest, and Lyndon Johnson’s withdrawal from the 1968 presidential race were all inspired by dreams. He also explains how Mary Shelley’s *Frankenstein* and Robert Louis Stevenson’s *The Strange Case of Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde* emerged out of their dream experiences. In his wide-ranging discussion, Van de Castle also relates how the Surrealist painter Salvador Dali characterized his work as “dream photographs,” and how legendary filmmakers Ingmar Bergman, Orson Welles, and

Federico Fellini all drew on their dreams in making their films. Thus, Van de Castle concludes that “dreams have had a dramatic influence on almost every important aspect of our culture and history”.

The Nature and Contents of Dreams

What exactly is a dream? This question is more complex and controversial than you might guess. The conventional view is that dreams are mental experiences during REM sleep that have a storylike quality, include vivid visual imagery, are often bizzare, and are regarded as perceptually real by the dreamer. However, theorists have begun to question virtually every aspect of this characterization. Decades of research on the contents of dreams have shown that dreams are not as bizarre as widely assumed. In recent years, there has been renewed interest in the fact that dreams are not the exclusive property of REM sleep. Moreover, studies that have focused on dream reports from non-REM stages of sleep have found that dreams appear to be less vivid and storylike than REM dreams. And work on reflective awareness in dreams suggests that dreamers realize they are dreaming more often than previously thought. Thus, the concept of dreaming is undergoing some revision in scientific circles.

What do people dream about? Overall, dreams are not as existing as advertised. Perhaps, dreams are seen as exotic because people are more likely to remember their more bizarre nighttime dramas. After analyzing the contents of more than 10,000 dreams, Calvin Hall (1966) concluded that most dreams are relatively mundane. They tend to unfold in familiar settings with a cast of characters dominated by family, friends, and colleagues, with a sprinkling of strangers. Researchers have found that certain themes are more common than others in dreams. For example, people dream quite a bit about sex, aggression, and misfortune. According to Hall, dreams tend to center on classic sources of internal conflict, such as the conflict between taking chances and playing it safe. Hall was struck by how little people dream about public affairs and current events. Typically, dreams are very self-centered; people dream mostly about themselves.

Though dreams seem to belong in a world of their own, what people

dream about is affected by what is going on in their lives. If you're struggling with financial problems, worried about an upcoming exam, or sexually attracted to a classmate, these themes may very well show up in your dreams. Freud noticed long ago that the contents of waking life tend to spill into dreams. He labeled this spillover *the day residue*. The connection between a person's real world and his or her dream world probably explains why thematic continuity can be found among successive dreams occurring in different REM periods on a given night. On occasion, the contents of dreams can also be affected by external stimuli experienced while one is dreaming. For example, William Dement sprayed water on one hand of sleeping subjects while they were in the REM stage. Subjects who weren't awakened by the water were awakened by the experimenter a short time later and asked what they had been dreaming about. Dement found that 42% of the subjects had incorporated the water into their dreams. They said that they had dreamt that they were in rainfalls, floods, baths, swimming pools, and the like. Some people report that they occasionally experience the same phenomenon at home when the sound of their alarm clock fails to awaken them. The alarm is incorporated into their dream as a loud engine or a siren, for instance.

Culture and Dreams

Striking cross-cultural variations occur in beliefs about the nature of dreams and the importance attributed to them. In modern Western society, we typically make a distinction between the "real" world we experience while awake and the "imaginary" world we experience while dreaming. Some people realize that events in the real world can affect their dreams, but few believe that events in their dreams hold any significance for their waking life. Although a small minority of individuals take their dreams seriously, in Western cultures dreams are largely written off as insignificant, meaningless meanderings of the unconscious. In many non-Western cultures, however, dreams are viewed as important sources of information about oneself, about the future, or about the spiritual world. Although no culture confuses dreams with

waking reality, many view events in dreams as another type of reality that may be just as important as, or perhaps even more important than, events experienced while awake. In some instances, people are even held responsible for their dream actions. Among the New Guinea Arapesh, for example, an erotic dream about someone may be viewed as the equivalent of an adulterous act. In many cultures, dreams are seen as a window into the spiritual world, permitting communication with ancestors or supernatural beings. People in some cultures believe that dreams provide information about the future — good or bad omens about upcoming battles, hunts, births, and so forth.

The tendency to remember one's dreams varies across cultures. In modern Western societies where little significance is attributed to dreams, dream recall tends to be mediocre. Many people remember their dreams only infrequently. In contrast, dream recall tends to be much better in cultures that take dreams seriously.

In regard to dream content, both similarities and differences occur across cultures in the types of dreams that people report. Some basic dream themes appear to be nearly universal (dreams of falling, being pursued, having sex). However, the contents of dreams vary from one culture to another because people in different societies deal with different worlds while awake. For example, a 1950 study of the Siriono, a hunting-and-gathering people of the Amazon who were almost always hungry and spent most of their time in a grim search for food, found that half of the reported dreams focused on hunting, gathering, and eating food. Shared systems for interpreting the contents of dreams also vary from one society to another.

Many theories have been proposed to explain the purposes of dreaming. Sigmund Freud (1900), who analyzed clients' dreams in therapy, believed that the principle purpose of dreams is wish fulfillment. He thought that people fulfill ungratified needs from waking hours through wishful thinking in dreams. For example, someone who is sexually frustrated would tend to have highly erotic dreams, while an unsuccessful person would dream about great accomplishments.

Other theorists, such as Rosalind Cartwright, have proposed that

dreams provide an opportunity to work through everyday problems. According to her cognitive, problem-solving view, there is considerable continuity between waking and sleeping thought. Proponents of this vies believe that dreams allow people to engage in creative thinking about problems because dreams are not restrained by logic or realism.

J. Allan Hobson and Robert McCarley have argued that dreams are simply the by-product of bursts of activity emanating from subcortical areas in the brain. Their activation-synthesis model proposes that dreams are side effects of the neural activation that produces “wide awake” brain waves during REM sleep. According to this model, neurons firing periodically in lower brain centers send random signals to the cortex. The cortex supposedly constructs a dream to make sense out of these signals. In contrast to the theories of Freud and Cartwright, this theory obviously downplays the role of emotional factors as determinants of dreams.

These theories are only three of a host of ideas about the functions of dreams. All of these theories are based more on conjecture than research. In part, this is because the private, subjective nature of dreams makes it difficult to put the theories to an empirical test. Thus, the purpose of dreaming remains a mystery.

I. Choose the word from the box to match the definition on the left.

Dream	Dream interpretation	Day residue
REM Sleep	Wish fulfillment	Dream analysis

1. The psychological interpretation of dreams used to gain insight into a person’s unconscious intentions or conflicts.
2. In the classical Freudian concept for the action of wish fulfillment. In reaming, for example, the primal id fails to distinguish between fantasies, images or hallucinations and reality,

so the dreamer may represent as fulfilled in symbolic form wishes that would have otherwise disrupted sleep because of their unacceptability.

3. A lot of people have wrestled with this one; let's define it simply as "imagery during sleep". Dreaming appears to occur in many organisms and is intimately related to rapid-eye movement (or REM) sleep.

4. This term is used almost exclusively in the study of dreams to refer to the fragments of recent experiences during waking hours that emerge as dream images.

5. A stage of sleep named for the rapid eye movements which are among its most salient characteristics

6. A psychological technique in which clients report their dreams as accurately as possible and the therapist interprets the elements of the dreams as symbols of desires and conflicts.

II. Answer the questions to the text.

1. What is a dream?
2. What is the difference between dreams of non-REM stages of sleep and REM sleep?
3. What do people dream about?
4. What are the contents of dreams affected by?
5. Why do the contents of dreams vary from one culture to another?
6. How did Sigmund Freud propose to explain the purposes of dreams?
7. What did other theorists propose concerning dreams?
8. What does the activation-synthesis model mean

according to

J. Allan Hobson and Robert McCarley?

9. What are all these theories based on?

III. Choose the facts to prove that:

1. What people dream about is affected by what is going on in their lives.
2. The contents of dreams vary some from one culture to another.
3. According to Sigmund Freud, the principle purpose of dreams is wish fulfillment.

Text 20.

SLEEP DISORDERS

About 90% of adults sleep 6 to 9 hours per night, with the largest number sleeping 7 ¹/₂ to 8 hours. While some people sleep only 6 to 7 hours, most of these people have measurable signs of sleepiness during the daytime, even if they not realize it. It appears that most adults require 8 to 9 hours of sleep to be free from daytime sleepiness. A sleep disorder exists when inability to sleep well produces impaired daytime functioning or excessive sleepiness.

Deprivation

Whether they are aware of it or not, most people occasionally or chronically deprive themselves of adequate sleep. Consider a few examples:

Thirty percent of high-school and college students fall asleep in class at least once a week.

Thirty-one percent of all drivers have fallen asleep at the wheel at least once a week.

Fatigue is the primary factor that detrimentally affects the ability of pilots.

The nuclear accidents at Chernobyl and Three Mile Island occurred in the early morning hours, when night-shift workers were fatigued and

missed, or were confused by, warning signals on their control panels.

Recent Gallup surveys have found that 56% of the adult population reports daytime drowsiness as a problem. According to a leading sleep researcher, many of these individuals are “waking zombies” carrying years of accumulated “sleep debt.” He points out that “a one-hour sleep loss every night for an entire week is equivalent to having pulled one all-nighter.” A common sign of sleep deprivation is inability to get through the day without a temporary loss in energy and alertness, usually occurring in mid-afternoon. Many people attribute this state to a heavy meal, a low dose of alcohol, or environmental conditions such as sitting in a warm room and listening to a dull lecture. But these factors do not cause sleepiness — they merely reveal the presence of sleep debt. With adequate sleep, a normal person is alert throughout the day, even when engaged in nonstimulating, sedentary activities.

Sleep researchers have demonstrated that alertness significantly increases when people who normally get eight hours of sleep get an additional two hours of sleep. While most people can operate satisfactorily on eight hours of sleep, they are not at their best. Moreover, they lack a “safety margin” to make up for the times when they get less than that amount of sleep. The loss of as little as an hour of sleep increases the likelihood of inattentiveness, mistakes, illness, and accidents.

Even if you cannot arrange to get 10 hours of sleep at night, you can avoid excessive sleep debt by getting 8 or 9 hours of restful sleep.

Insomnia

The term insomnia refers to complaints about a symptom, namely, dissatisfaction with the amount or quality of one’s sleep. Whether or not a person has insomnia is a largely subjective matter. Many people who complain of insomnia are found to have perfectly normal sleep when studied in a sleep laboratory, whereas others who do not complain of insomnia have detectable sleep disturbances. This does not mean that insomnia is not a real condition, only that subjective reports of sleeplessness do not always correlate well with more objective measures. A perplexing feature of insomnia is that people seem to overestimate the amount of sleep lost. One study that monitored the sleep of

people who identified themselves as insomniacs found that only about half of them were actually awake as much as 30 minutes during the night. The problem may be that some people remember only time spent awake and think they have not slept because they have no memory of doing so.

Narcolepsy and Apnea

Two relatively rare but severe sleep disorders are narcolepsy and apnea. A person with narcolepsy has recurring, irresistible attacks of drowsiness and may fall asleep at any time — while writing a letter, driving a car, or carrying on a conversation. If a student falls asleep while a professor is lecturing, that may be perfectly normal; but if a professor falls asleep while lecturing, he or she may be suffering from narcolepsy. Such episodes may occur several times a day in severe cases, and last from a few seconds to 15—30 minutes. Narcoleptics have difficulty keeping jobs because of their daytime sleepiness, and are potentially dangerous if they are driving a car or operating machinery when an attack occurs. Approximately one in a thousand individuals suffers from debilitating narcolepsy, and the incidence of milder, unrecognized cases may be much higher.

Essentially, narcolepsy is the intrusion of REM episodes into daytime hours. During attacks, victims go quickly into a REM state, so rapidly in fact that they may lose muscle control and collapse before they can lie down. Moreover, many report experiencing hallucinations during an attack as reality is replaced by vivid REM dreams. Narcolepsy runs in families, and there is evidence that a specific gene or combination of genes makes an individual susceptible to the disorder.

In apnea, the individual stops breathing while asleep. There are two reasons for apnea attacks. One reason is that the brain fails to send a “breathe” signal to the diaphragm and other breathing muscles, thus causing breathing to stop. The other reason is that muscles at the top of the throat become too relaxed, allowing the windpipe to partially close and thereby forcing the breathing muscles to pull harder on incoming air, which causes the airway to completely collapse. During

an apnea episode, the oxygen level of the blood drops dramatically, leading to the secretion of emergency hormones. This reaction causes the sleeper to awaken in order to begin breathing again.

Most people have a few apnea episodes each night, but people with severe sleep problems may have several hundred episodes per night. With each one, they wake up in order to resume breathing, but these arousals are so brief that the person generally is unaware of them. The result is that people who suffer from apnea can spend 12 or more hours in bed each night and still be so sleepy the next day that they cannot function and may even fall asleep in the middle of a conversation.

Sleep apnea is common among older men. Sleeping pills, which make arousal more difficult, lengthen periods of apnea (during which the brain is deprived of oxygen) and may prove fatal. Failure to awaken, and thereby terminate a period of apnea, is probably one of the main reasons that some people die in their sleep.

I. Choose the word from the box to match the definition on the left.

Sleep disorder	Apnea	Narcolepsy
Insomnia	Sleep Deprivation	Drowsiness

1. The state when you are inclined to sleep resulting from sleepiness.
2. When inability to sleep well produces impaired daytime functioning or excessive sleepiness.
3. Cessation of breathing. Typically temporary in nature and usually observed either immediately or soon after a period of heavy, deep breathing, which suggests that it is caused by a reduction in the stimulation of the respiratory centre because of lowered dioxide levels.
4. A situation in which you do not have sleep which you need or want.
5. A general term for chronic inability to sleep normally, as evidenced by difficulty in falling asleep, frequent waking

- during the night, and/or early morning waking with attendant difficulty in falling back to sleep.
6. Recurring, irresistible attacks of drowsiness with the likelihood of falling asleep at any time.

II. Answer the questions to the text.

1. When does a sleep disorder exist?
2. What is a common sign of sleep deprivation?
3. How many hours are necessary for a normal person to be free from daytime sleepiness?
4. Which techniques can be used to ensure a good night's sleep?
5. What do we mean by insomnia?
6. What two rare but severe sleep disorders do you know?
7. How can narcolepsy be defined?
8. What is apnea characterized by?
9. What are two reasons for apnea attacks?
10. Who is sleep apnea common among?

III. Choose the facts to prove that:

1. Most people occasionally or chronically deprive themselves of adequate sleep.
2. With adequate sleep, a normal person is alert throughout the day, even when engaged in nonstimulating, sedentary activities.
3. Whether or not a person has insomnia is a largely subjective matter.

Text 21 **GET OVER YOURSELF!**

The ability to self-reflect — to think consciously about ourselves — offers many benefits by allowing us to plan ahead, reminisce about the

past, consider options, innovate and evaluate ourselves. However, self-awareness also sets us up for a host of problems. It distorts people's perceptions of the world. It conjures up a great deal of personal suffering in the form of depression, anxiety, anger and jealousy by allowing people to ruminate about the past or imagine what might befall them in the future. The inherently egocentric manner in which the self processes information can blind people to their own shortcomings and undermine their relationships with others.

We are almost always at least one step removed from the real world, separated from it by our ongoing thoughts, interpretations, opinions and judgments. And, perhaps most troubling, we are nearly blind to the illusions we have about ourselves.

The “Better” than Average Effect

Perhaps the biggest bias in people's perceptions of themselves involves their penchant for overestimating their own positive qualities. People tend to judge themselves as better than the average person or virtually every dimension, and this egotistical bias can lead to a great deal of conflict and unhappiness. In one study university students rated themselves and the “average college student” of their own sex on 20 positive traits (such as dependability, intelligence, maturity and friendliness) and 20 negative attributes (such as insecurity, humorlessness, meanness and unpleasantness). Results showed that the average participant rated him- or herself more positively than average on 38 of the 40 traits. Similarly, most people rate themselves as safer than the average driver, more sexually adroit than the average lover and more ethical than the average person. An Australian study revealed that 86 percent of employees rate their job performance as “above average,” whereas only 1 percent say that they perform below average at work. Most people also tend to see themselves as less prejudiced than other people they know.

People also think that they are more likely to go to heaven when they die than are other people. *U.S. News and World Report* survey asked 1,000 Americans to rate whether they and various celebrities were likely to go to heaven. Of the celebrities, Mother Teresa ranked highest on the list;

79% of the respondents thought she was likely to go to heaven. When asked about themselves, though, 87 percent of the respondents indicated that they were destined to go to heaven. Put simply, respondents thought that they were personally more likely to go to heaven than anybody else on the list, including Mother Teresa.

People also think that they understand other people better than other people understand them, and people assume that they understand themselves better than other people do. Furthermore, people expect others to be less objective and fair than they themselves are. Not only do these assumptions lead us to think that we have an inside track on accuracy and that other people's interpretations are wrong, but it leads us to underestimate that we might learn from other people and overestimate that they might learn from us. Perhaps this explains why most people offer advice much more willingly than they accept it from others.

Your Name: Nothing Sounds so Sweet

Our tendency to judge ourselves positively extends to objects, symbols and events that are associated with us. One example of this phenomenon is the mere ownership effect. People evaluate things that they own — their houses, cars, clothes, books and other possessions — more favorably than those that they don't. On one level it is not surprising that people possess things they like. However, research suggests that this is due to more than just the fact that people own things that they like; people also come to like things that they possess.

Of all of the things that we "own," few are more intimately tied to our sense of who we are than our names. This observation suggests that people may come to like their names, better than other names and letters. As outlandish as this possibility may seem, people, in fact, like the letters of the alphabet that appear in their own names much more than they like letters that are not in their names. The effect is particularly strong for people's first and last initials. This preference has been documented in at least 14 countries.

The natural tendency to self-enhance affects our perception of other people as well. For example, merely sharing the same birthday with another person can influence our evaluation of him or her. In one study, participants read one of two essays about Rasputin, the “mad monk of Russia.” Rasputin was filthy and violent, drank heavily and sexually assaulted women. Yet participants who thought that they and Rasputin were born on the same day of the year rated him significantly more favorably than participants who did not think he shared their birthday.

You Are the Thief of Memory

Most of us have had the experience of walking or driving from one place to another so absorbed in self-thought that we arrive with no memory whatsoever of the sights along the way.

Self-preoccupation interferes with memory. When being held captive by their own thoughts, people often miss part (or all) of what happens around them. Imagine that you are attending the first day of a new class or the first meeting of a new group. Each person is asked to introduce and say a few things about him- or herself. Your self shifts into high gear as you consider various possibilities, imagine how the other people might react to each disclosure, finally settle on what you will say and then rehearse in your mind how you will say it. As a result, you have no idea who these people are or what they just said about themselves. This phenomenon is called the next-in-line effect because people are at least likely to remember what the person who immediately preceded them said because that was when they were most self-absorbed.

Self Chokes Man

Self-preoccupation also interferes with people's ability to remember things that they already know. We can see this effect quite clearly in the case of test anxiety. For some students, taking tests is an exceptionally anxiety-provoking ordeal. Rather than focusing

single-mindedly on the test questions, these students' minds are filled with a cacophony of irrelevant, self-generated thoughts that edge out their ability to think about the test itself: *Why didn't I study more for this test? Boy, am I stupid! I should know this stuff. I'm going to be so embarrassed when I get my grade....* And so their selves go, on and on. After this sort of experience, students often say that their "minds went blank" as they tried to answer the test questions. In reality, however, their minds were not blank at all but filled up with the self's competing chatter.

In other instances, the problem is not that people's self-thought interfere with cognitive processes (such as memory) but, rather, that they pay conscious attention to tasks that are best performed automatically and nonconsciously. In such cases, the self not only fails to help performance but dramatically hinders it.

This process is responsible for what we commonly call choking under pressure. Athletes choke in games, public speakers and actors choke when they stand in front of an audience, and job applicants choke during job interviews. In each case the individual knows that he or she is capable of behaving skillfully but cannot pull it off at the critical time. Ironically, research shows that as the importance of performing well goes up, people are increasingly more likely to choke. The more important it is for them to perform well, the worse they do.

In Bed with Yourself

When asked how herself affects the quality of her life, one female university student pointed immediately to its effects on her sleep and said: "I often lay awake at night worrying about what will happen after I graduate. What if I don't pay a parking ticket that I have forgotten about, and they withhold my diploma? What if my boyfriend never asks me to marry him, or what if he doesn't like the names I have picked out for our children? I could 'what if' myself all night long."

Research confirms that people who are worrying, planning or

making decisions do not fall asleep easily. Furthermore, many people with insomnia begin to obsess about the fact that they can't sleep. These intrusive thoughts about their insomnia can further fuel the problem by cluttering their mind with chatter and by inducing arousing emotions such as frustration, anger and worry.

The age-old remedy for sleeplessness is to “count sheep.” The benefits of sheep-counting have not, to my knowledge, been empirically investigated, but the rationale behind such practices is sound. Occupying one's mind with meaningless tasks prevents worrying, planning and thinking about self-relevant topics.

The self is also perhaps the greatest enemy of sexual satisfaction. Many experts believe that problems involving sexual arousal and orgasm often stem from people being overly self-focused during sex. “Spectatoring” refers to monitoring one's own engagement in sex rather than being unself-consciously immersed in it. To the extent that people are thinking about themselves and their performance during sex, they will be distracted from the visual and sensory stimuli that foster arousal. In addition, because they may critically judge their appearance and performance, they may become nervous, and thus allow anxiety to interfere with sexual arousal.

The ability to self-reflect creates havoc in people's lives, leading to suffering, selfishness, troubled relationships, disastrous decisions and behavior that is dangerous to ourselves and to others. But the self is not in any way inherently flawed. Because we have a self, we can decide to do things to minimize its totalitarian control over our lives and to make it work for us rather than against us.

I. Choose the word from the box to match the definition on the left.

Selfhood	Self-reflection	Test anxiety
Overestimation	Choking	Self-preoccupation

1. Uneasiness of mind respecting the event, future or

- uncertain; distress, inability to focus single- mindedly on the test questions.
2. The state of being mentally occupied with oneself; totally absorbed in self-thought.
 3. The evaluation of one's abilities too high; overrating; regarding as having more valuable qualities than is really the case.
 4. The character of being oneself; the mode of being an individual person; personality; selfishness.
 5. Observation of one's emotional and mental self; introspection.
 6. Stopping or moderating the motion of smth.; restraint in action; hindrance.

II. Answer the questions to the text.

1. What does the biggest bias in people's perception of themselves involve?
2. What can explain why most people offer advice much more willingly than they accept it from others?
3. What does a mere ownership effect mean?
4. What is called the next-in-line effect?
5. What process is responsible for what we commonly call choking under pressure?
6. What may the consequences of insomnia be?
7. Where do the problems involving sexual arousal and orgasm stem from?

III. What does the ability to self-reflect lead to? Choose the facts to prove that:

1. Self-awareness sets us up for a host of problems.
2. Our tendency to judge ourselves positively extends to objects, symbols and events that are associated with us.

3. Self-preoccupation interferes with memory.
4. The self is also perhaps the greatest enemy of sexual satisfaction.

Text 22

VIEWPOINTS ON PSYCHOLOGICAL DISORDERS

Even when psychologists agree on the presence of a particular psychological disorder, they may disagree on its causes. That is, they favor different *viewpoints* regarding the causes of psychological disorders. Since ancient times, human beings have tried to explain the unusual or distressing behavior patterns that we now call psychological disorders. Many ancient Greek authorities assumed that the gods inflicted psychological disorders on people to punish them for their misdeeds. But the Greek physician Hippocrates (460—377 B.C.) argued, instead, that psychological disorders had natural causes. Hippocrates believed that temperament depended on the relative amounts of fluids he called humors, which included blood, phlegm, black bile, and yellow bile. According to Hippocrates, and later the Greek physician Galen (A.D. ca. 130—200), imbalances in these humors caused psychological disorders. For example, depression was supposedly caused by an excess of “melancholer” (black bile from the spleen) in the brain. To this day, we call depressed people “melancholic”.

Despite the efforts of Hippocrates and his followers, supernatural explanations existed alongside naturalistic ones throughout the Middle Ages and the Renaissance. Robert Burton’s (1621) *Anatomy of Melancholy*, a classic book on the causes of depression, looked to supernatural causes (including God, the devil, or demons) and natural causes (including the planets, bad marriages, or inadequate diets). Until the nineteenth century, supernatural and natural explanations of psychological disorders

vied for dominance.

Today, some authorities believe that many of those who were executed as witches in Renaissance and Reformation Europe and in the infamous Salem, Massachusetts, witch trials of 1692 actually had psychological disorders. The accused behaved in such bizarre ways that others became convinced they were in league with the devil. Of course, the conjecture that the accused suffered from psychological disorders is based on written records of the trial interpreted three centuries later. Other authorities who have evaluated the same records have concluded that the accused witches did not suffer from psychological disorders. An alternative, naturalistic explanation is that the accused witches suffered from ergot poisoning. Ergot, a fungus that grows on moist rye grain, is the source of LSD and can induce hallucinations and bizarre behavior. But the explanation has been discredited by those who claim that the described behaviors of the accused witches were not characteristic of ergot poisoning.

The sixteenth and seventeenth centuries saw the beginning of opposition to the supernatural view of psychological disorders, which was led by religious authorities. In the late sixteenth century, the Spanish nun Teresa of Avila saved a group of other nuns from being punished as witches. The nuns had inexplicably begun yelling and jumping about with abandon, a phenomenon known as *tarantism* or *St. Vitus's dance*. Teresa convinced the religious authorities that the nuns were not possessed but, rather were “as if sick.” That is, they were suffering from “mental illness.”

The sixteenth-century Swiss physician Paracelus (1493—1541) also rejected the supernatural viewpoint. Instead of attributing unusual behavior to demons, he attributed it to the moon. Paracelus called the condition *lunacy* and the people who exhibited it *lunatics*. These terms were derived from the Latin word for “moon.” Today, half of all college students believe that the full moon can make people behave abnormally. But, contrary to popular belief, the moon does not increase the incidence of crime, mental illness, or

other abnormal behavior.

During the past two centuries, the growth of interest in naturalistic explanations has led to a decline in supernatural explanations of psychological disorders. In *The English Malady*, George Cheyne (1734)

noted that depression was more common in the English than in either Europeans. This made him look for causes of depression in factors specific to England, including overcrowding, bad weather, and polluted air. In the late eighteenth century, Anton Mesmer gained notoriety in Paris by using magnetism to cure hysteria, the loss of motor or sensory functions without apparent physical cause. The practice of *mesterism*, after being scientifically discredited, gave way to the practice of hypnosis, which gained popularity in France as a way to demonstrate the psychological causes and treatment of hysteria.

Even *phrenology*, promoted a naturalistic approach to the study of psychological disorders. Phrenologists assumed that psychological disorders were caused by the overdevelopment or underdevelopment of brain regions. The degree of development of particular regions could supposedly be determined by feeling the contours of the skull. Though phrenology became scientifically discredited, it contributed to the belief that brain dysfunctions cause psychological disorders.

Current viewpoints on psychological disorders attribute them to natural factors. The viewpoints differ in the extent to which they attribute psychological disorders to biological, mental, or environmental factors.

I. Choose the type of psychological disorders from the box to match the definition on the left.

Humanistic	Diathesis-Stress	Biopsychological
Cognitive	Psychoanalytic	Behavioral

1. Inherited or acquired brain disorders involving imbalances in neurotransmitters or damage to brain structures.
2. Unconscious conflicts over impulses such as sex and aggression, originating in childhood.
3. Reinforcement of inappropriate behaviors and punishment or extinction of appropriate behavior.
4. Irrational or maladaptive thinking about one's self, life events, and the world in general.
5. Incongruence between one's actual self and public self as a consequence of trying to live up to the demands of others.
6. A biological predisposition interacting with stressful life experience.

II. Answer the questions to the text.

1. What were ancient supernatural explanations of psychological disorders?
2. What did the sixteenth-century Swiss physician Paracelsus attribute unusual behavior to?
3. How did he call the people who exhibited such behavior?
4. What is hysteria?
5. What gained popularity in France as a way to demonstrate the psychological causes and treatment of hysteria?
6. Who assumed that psychological disorders were caused by the overdevelopment or underdevelopment of brain regions?
7. What do current viewpoints on psychological disorders attribute them to?

III. Choose the facts to prove that:

1. There are no general viewpoints on the causes of psychological disorders.
2. During the past two centuries the growth of interest in naturalistic explanations has led to a decline in supernatural explanations of psychological disorders.

Text 23

MOOD DISORDERS

As their name suggests, **mood disorders** are characterized by disturbances in mood or prolonged emotional state, sometimes referred to as affect. Most people have a wide emotional range — that is, they are capable of being happy or sad, animated or quiet, cheerful or discouraged, overjoyed or miserable, depending on the circumstances. In some people with mood disorders, this range is greatly restricted. They seem stuck at one or the other end of the emotional spectrum — either consistently excited and euphoric or consistently sad — whatever the circumstances of their lives. Other people with a mood disorder alternate between the extremes of euphoria and sadness.

The most common mood disorder is **depression**, a state in which a person feels overwhelmed with sadness, loses interest in activities, and displays other symptoms such as excessive guilt or feelings of worthlessness. People suffering from depression are unable to experience pleasure from activities they once enjoyed. They are tired and apathetic, sometimes to the point of being unable to make the simplest everyday decisions. They may feel as if they have failed utterly in life, and they tend to blame themselves for their problems. Seriously depressed people often have insomnia and lose interest in food and sex. They may have trouble thinking or concentrating — even to the extent of finding it difficult to read a newspaper. In fact, some research indicates that difficulty concentrating and subtle changes in short-term memory are sometimes the first signs of the onset of depression. In very serious cases, depressed people

may be plagued by suicidal thoughts or even attempt suicide.

It is important to distinguish between clinical depression and the “normal” kind of depression that all people experience from time to time. It is entirely normal to become sad when a loved one has died, when you’ve come to the end of a romantic relationship, when you have problems on the job or at school — even when the weather’s bad or you don’t have a date for Saturday night. Most psychologically healthy people also get “the blues” occasionally for no apparent reason.

It has been even postulated that depression may in some cases be an adaptive response, one that helped our ancestors survive periods of hardship. But in all of these instances, the mood disturbance is either a normal reaction to a “real-world” problem (for example, grief) or passes quickly. Only when depression is serious, lasting, and well beyond the typical reaction to a stressful life event it is classified as a mood disorder. There are some distinguishes between two forms of depression.

Major depressive disorder is an episode of intense sadness that may last for several months; in contrast, dysthymia involves less intense sadness (and related symptoms) but persists with little relief for a period of 2 years or more. Some theorists suggest that major depressive disorder is more likely to be caused by a difficult life event, whereas dysthymia is a biological problem, but this is just speculation at this time. It is true, however, that some depressions can become so intense that people become psychotic — that is they lose touch with reality. For example, consider the case of a 50-year-old depressed widow who was transferred to a medical center from a community mental health center. This woman believed that her neighbors were against her, that they had poisoned her coffee, and that they had bewitched her to punish her for her wickedness.

Children and adolescents can also suffer from depression. In very young children, depression is sometimes difficult to diagnose because the symptoms are usually different than those seen in adults. For instance, in infants or toddlers, depression may be

manifest as a “failure to thrive” or gain weight, or as a delay in speech or motor development. In school-age children, depression may be manifested as antisocial behavior, excessive worrying, sleep disturbances, or unwarranted fatigue. Moreover, research suggests that as many as 20 to 50 percent of children and adolescents with depression also have another disorder, such as disruptive disorder, anxiety disorder, or substance abuse.

A disorder that is often mistaken for depression sometimes occurs following a head injury, as may result from an automobile accident or a sudden jolt. The symptoms, which may include fatigue, headache, loss of sex drive, apathy, and feelings of helplessness, generally last for only a few days, although they can persist for a couple of months. When such symptoms arise following a sudden trauma to the brain, they are more likely to be diagnosed as mild traumatic brain injury (MTBI) than depression.

Borderline personality disorder is both common and serious. The available evidence indicates that although it runs in families, genetics does not seem to play an important role in its development. Instead, studies of people with borderline personality disorder point to the influence of dysfunctional relationships with their parents, including a pervasive lack of supervision, frequent exposure to domestic violence, and physical and sexual abuse. Moreover, it is often accompanied by mild forms of brain dysfunction (such as attention-deficit disorder), schizophrenic-like conditions, and mood disorders, which has led some psychologists to question whether borderline personality disorder should be considered a separate and distinguishable category of personality disorder. On the other hand, family studies show that relatives of people diagnosed as borderline individuals are much more likely to be treated for borderline disorder than for other types of personality disorders. This finding supports the position that borderline disorder is a legitimate category of personality disorder.

I. Choose the word from the box to match the definition on the left.

Mood disorders	Dysthymia	Anxiety disorders
Psychotic disorders	Depression	Borderline personality disorder

1. A mood disorder characterized by overwhelming feeling of sadness, lack of interest in activities, and perhaps excessive guilt or feelings of worthlessness.
2. A group of mental disorders characterized by intense anxiety or by maladaptive behavior designed to relieve anxiety. Includes generalized anxiety and panic disorders, phobic and obsessive compulsive disorders.
3. A general cover term for a number of severe mental disorders of organic or emotional origin. The defining feature of these disorders is gross impairment in reality-testing.
4. A mental disorder in which the individual has manifested unstable moods, relationships with others, and self-perceptions chronically since adolescence or childhood.
5. A mood disorder characterized by a general depression, lack of interest in the normal, standard activities of living and a ubiquitous "down in the dumps" feeling. It is not meant to be used for cases of acute depression.
6. A category of disorders characterized by disturbance of mood or emotional tone to the point where excessive and inappropriate depression or elation occurs.

II. Answer the questions to the text.

1. What are mood disorders characterized by?

2. What is the most common mood disorder?
3. How do people suffering from depression feel?
4. What is meant by the “normal” kind of depression?
5. What is the difference between major depressive disorder and dysthymia?
6. Why is depression sometimes difficult to diagnose in very young children?
7. Why is a disorder often mistaken for depression?
8. What is a borderline personality disorder characterized by?

III. Choose the facts to prove that:

1. Almost everyone experiences the “normal” kind of depression from time to time.
2. Some depressions can become so intense that people become psychotic.
3. Genetics do not seem to play an important role in the development of borderline personality disorder.

Text 24.

ANTISOCIAL PERSONALITY DISORDER

One of the most widely studied personality disorders is **antisocial personality disorder**. People who exhibit this disorder lie, steal, cheat, and show little or no sense of responsibility, although they often seem intelligent and charming on first acquaintance. The “con man” exemplifies many of the features of the antisocial personality, as does the person who compulsively cheats business partners because he or she knows their weak points. Antisocial personalities rarely show the slightest trace of anxiety or guilt about their behavior. Indeed, they are likely to blame society or their victims for the

antisocial actions that they themselves commit. Antisocial personalities are responsible for a good deal of crime and violence, as seen in this case history of a person with antisocial personality disorder:

Although intelligent, the subject was a poor student and was frequently accused of stealing from his schoolmates. At the age of 14, he stole a car, and at the age of 20, he was imprisoned for burglary. After he was released, he spent another two years in prison for drunk driving and then eleven years for a series of armed robberies. Released from prison yet one more time in 1976, he tried to hold down several jobs but succeeded at none of them. He moved in with a woman whom he had met one day earlier, but he drank heavily (a habit that he had picked up at age 10) and struck her children until she ordered him out of the house at gunpoint. On at least two occasions, he violated his parole but was not turned in by his parole officer. In July of 1976, he robbed a service station and shot the attendant twice in the head. He was apprehended in part because he accidentally shot himself during his escape. "It seems like things have always gone bad for me," he later said. "It seems like I've always done dumb things that just caused trouble for me."

Psychiatric evaluation showed this man to have a superior IQ of 129 and a remarkable store of general knowledge. He slept and ate well and exhibited no significant changes of mood. He admitted to having "made a mess of life" but added that "I never stew about the things I have done." This person, Gary Gilmore, was executed for murder in 1977.

Approximately 3 percent of American men and less than 1 percent of American women suffer from antisocial personality disorder. Not surprisingly, the prevalence of the disorder is high among prison inmates. One study categorized 50 percent of the population of two prisons as having antisocial personalities. Not all people with antisocial personality disorder are convicted criminals, however.

Many skillfully and successfully manipulate others for their own gain while steering clear of the criminal justice system.

Antisocial personality disorder seems to result from a combination of biological predisposition, adverse psychological experiences, and an unhealthy social environment. Some findings suggest that heredity is a risk factor for the later development of antisocial behavior. Impulsive violence and aggression have also been linked with abnormal levels of certain neurotransmitters. Evidence suggests that in some people with antisocial personalities the autonomic nervous system is less responsive to stress. Thus, they are more likely to engage in thrill-seeking behaviors, which can be harmful to themselves or others. In addition, because they respond less emotionally to stressful situations, punishment is less effective for them than for other people.

Another intriguing explanation for the cause of antisocial personality disorder is that it arises as a consequence of damage to the prefrontal region of the brain during infancy. One case study reported that two infants who had experienced damage to the prefrontal cortex prior to 16 months of age had defective social and moral reasoning and displayed no empathy as adults. Although these patients' cognitive abilities were not impaired, both appeared insensitive to the future consequences of their decisions. As adults, both parents were also compulsive liars and thieves and never expressed guilt or remorse for their actions.

Some psychologists feel that emotional deprivation in early childhood predisposes people to antisocial personality disorder. The child for whom no one cares, say psychologists, cares for no one. The child whose problems no one identifies with can identify with no one else's problems. Respect for others is the basis of our social code, but if you cannot see things from the other person's perspective, rules about what you can and cannot do will seem nothing more than an assertion of adult power to be defied as soon as possible.

Family influences may also prevent the normal learning of rules of

conduct in the preschool and school years. Theorists reason that a child who has been rejected by one or both parents is not likely to develop appropriate social behavior. They also point out the high incidence of antisocial behavior in people with an antisocial parent and suggest that antisocial behavior may be partly learned and partly inherited from parents. Once serious misbehavior begins in childhood, there is an almost predictable progression: The child's conduct will result in rejection by peers and failure in school, followed by affiliation with other children who have behavior problems. By late childhood or adolescence, the deviant patterns that will later show up as a full-blown antisocial personality disorder are well established.

Cognitive theorists emphasize that in addition to the failure to learn rules and develop self-control, moral development may be arrested among children who are emotionally rejected and inadequately disciplined.

I. Choose the word from the box to match the definition on the left.

Antisocial behavior	Emotional deprivation	Biological predisposition
Antisocial personality	Antisocial personality	Impulsive aggression disorder

1. Impulsive or emotion-driver aggression formed in reaction to situations in the "heat of themoment."
2. A general term for any situation in which one individual is deprived of emotional reactions from others. It is used almost exclusively of children who are raised in situations lacking in love, affection and contact.
3. Specifically, any genetic factor or set of factors that

increases the likelihood of its possessor displaying a particular trait or characteristic.

4. Behavior that opposes the customs, mores and taboos of a given society.
5. A disorder marked by a history of irresponsible and antisocial behavior beginning in childhood or early adolescence and continuing into adulthood. Early manifestations include lying, stealing, fighting, vandalism, running away from home, and cruelty. In adulthood the general pattern continues, characterized by such factors as significant unemployment, failures to conform to social norms and so on.
6. A type of personality marked by impulsivity, inability to abide by the customs and laws of society, and lack of anxiety or guilt regarding behavior.

II. Answer the questions to the text.

1. What is one of the most widely studied personality disorders?
2. What is antisocial personality disorder characterized by?
3. Whom do antisocial personalities usually blame for their antisocial actions?
4. Among what kind of people is the prevalence of antisocial personality disorder high?
5. What does antisocial personality disorder result from?
6. Why is punishment less effective for some kind of people with antisocial personality disorder?
7. What are other causes of antisocial personality disorder?
8. What predisposes people to antisocial personality disorder in early childhood?
9. What may prevent the normal learning of rules of

conduct in the preschool and school years?

III. Choose the facts to prove that:

1. People who exhibit antisocial personality disorder lie, steal, cheat, and show little or no sense of responsibility, although they often seem intelligent.
2. One of the causes of antisocial personality disorder is that it arises as a consequence of damage to the prefrontal region of the brain during infancy.
3. Emotional deprivation in early childhood predisposes people to antisocial personality disorder.

Text 25

THE NATURE OF STRESS

The term *stress* has been used in different ways by different theorists. We'll define stress as *any circumstances that threaten or are perceived to threaten one's well-being and that thereby tax one's coping abilities*. The threat may be to immediate physical safety, long-range security, self-esteem, peace of mind, or many other things that one values. This is a complex concept.

Stress as an Everyday Event

The word stress tends to spark images of overwhelming, traumatic crises. People may think of hijackings, hurricanes, military combat, and nuclear accidents. Undeniably, major disasters of this sort are extremely stressful events. However, these unusual events are only a small part of what stress is. Many everyday events such as waiting in line, having car trouble, shopping for Christmas presents, misplacing your checkbook, and staring at bills you can't pay are also stressful. Of course, major and minor stressors are not entirely

independent. A major stressful event, such as going through a divorce, can trigger a cascade of minor stressors, such as looking for an attorney, moving, taking on new household responsibilities and so forth. You might guess that minor stresses would produce minor effects, but that isn't necessarily true. Research indicates that routine hassles may have significant harmful effects on mental and physical health.

Appraisal: Stress Lies in the Eye of the Beholder

The experience of feeling stressed depends on what events one notices and how one appraises them. Events that are stressful for one person may be routine for another. For example, many people find flying in an airplane somewhat stressful, but frequent fliers may not be bothered at all. Some people enjoy the excitement of going out on a date with someone new; others find the uncertainty terrifying.

Often, people aren't very objective in their appraisals of potentially stressful events. A study of hospitalized patients awaiting surgery showed only a slight correlation between the objective seriousness of a person's upcoming surgery and the amount of fear experienced by the patient. Clearly, some people are more prone than others to feel threatened by life's difficulties. A number of studies have shown that anxious, neurotic people report more stress than others, as do people who are relatively unhappy. Thus, stress lies in the eye (actually in the mind) of the beholder. People's appraisals of stressful events are highly subjective.

Major Types of Stress

An enormous variety of events can be stressful for one person or another. Although they're not entirely independent, the four principal types of stress are (1) frustration, (2) conflict, (3) change, and (4) pressure.

Frustration

As psychologists use the term, *frustration is experienced whenever the pursuit of some goal is thwarted*. In essence, you experience frustration when you want something and you can't have it. Everyone has to deal with frustration virtually every day. Traffic jams, for instance, are a routine source of frustration that can affect mood and blood pressure. Fortunately, most frustrations are brief and insignificant. You may be quite upset when you go to a repair shop to pick up your ailing stereo and find that it hasn't been fixed as promised. However, a week later you'll probably have your stereo back, and the frustration will be forgotten. Of course, some frustrations — such as failing to get a promotion at work or losing a boyfriend or girlfriend — can be sources of significant stress.

Conflict

Like frustration, conflict is an unavoidable feature of everyday life. The perplexing question “Should I or shouldn't I?” comes up countless times in one's life. *Conflict occurs when two or more incompatible motivations or behavioral impulses compete for expression*. Sigmund Freud proposed a century ago that internal conflicts generate considerable psychological distress. The link between the conflict and distress was measured with new precision in studies by Laura King and Robert Emmons. They used an elaborate questionnaire to assess the overall amount of internal conflict experienced by subjects. They found that higher levels of conflict were associated with higher levels of anxiety, depression, and physical symptoms.

Conflicts come in three types, which were originally described by Kurt Lewin (1935) and investigated extensively by Neal Miller (1944, 1959). These three basic types of conflict — approach-approach, avoidance-avoidance, and approach-avoidance.

In an approach-approach conflict a choice must be made between two attractive goals. The problem, of course, is that you choose just one of the two goals. For example: You have a free afternoon — should you play tennis or racquetball? You can't afford both the blue sweater and the gray jacket — which should you buy? Among the three kinds of conflict, the approach-approach type tends to be the less stressful. Nonetheless, approach-approach conflicts over important issues may sometimes be troublesome. If you're torn between two appealing college majors or two attractive boyfriends, for example, you may find the decision-making process quite stressful.

In an avoidance-avoidance conflict a choice must be made between two unattractive goals. Forced to choose between two repellent alternatives, you are, as they say, "caught between a rock and a hard place." For example, should you continue to collect unemployment checks, or should you take the degrading job at the car wash? Or suppose you have painful backaches. Should you submit to surgery that you dread, or should you continue to live with the pain? Obviously, avoidance-avoidance conflicts are most unpleasant and highly stressful.

In an approach-avoidance conflict a choice must be made about whether to pursue a single goal that has both attractive and unattractive aspects. For instance, imagine that you are offered a promotion that will mean a large increase in pay, but you'll have to move to a city that you hate. Approach-avoidance conflicts are common and can be quite stressful. Any time you have to take a risk to pursue some desirable outcome, you're likely to find yourself in an approach-avoidance conflict. Should you risk rejection by approaching that attractive person in class? Should you risk your savings by investing in a new business that could fail? Approach-avoidance conflicts often produce vacillation. That is, you go back and forth, beset by indecision. You decide to go ahead, then you decide not to, and then you decide to go ahead again.

Change

Thomas Holmes and Richard Rahe have led the way in exploring the idea that life changes — including positive events, such as getting married or getting a promotion — represent a key type of stress. *Life changes are any noticeable alterations in one's living circumstances that require readjustment.* Based on their theory, Holmes and Rahe developed the Social Readjustment Rating Scale (SRRS) to measure life change as a form of stress. The scale assigns numerical values to 43 major life events. These values are supposed to reflect the magnitude of the readjustment required by each change. In using the scale, respondents are asked to indicate how often they experience any of these 43 events during a certain time period. The numbers associated with each event checked are then added. This total is an index of the amount of change-related stress the person has recently experienced. The SRRS and similar scales based on it have been used in thousands of studies by researchers all over the world. Overall, these studies have shown that people with higher scores on the SRRS tend to be more vulnerable to many kinds of physical illness and to many types of psychological problems as well. These results have attracted a great deal of attention, and the SRRS has been reprinted in many popular newspapers and magazines. The attendant publicity has led to the widespread conclusion that life change is inherently stressful.

However, experts have criticized this research, citing problems with the methods used and problems in interpreting the findings. At this point, it's a key interpretive issue that concerns us. A variety of critics have collected evidence showing that the SRRS does not measure change exclusively. In reality, it assesses a wide range of different kinds of stressful experiences. Thus, we have little reason to believe that change is inherently or inevitably stressful. Undoubtedly, some life changes may be quite challenging, but others may be quite benign.

Table. Social Readjustment Rating Scale

Life event value	Mean
Death of a spouse	100
Divorce.....	73
Marital separation	65
Jail term	63
Death of a close family member	63
Personal injury or illness.....	53
Marriage.....	50
Fired at work	47
Marital reconciliation.....	45
Retirement.....	45
Change in health of family member.....	44
Pregnancy.....	40
Sex difficulties	39
Gain of a new family member.....	39
Business readjustment	39
Change in financial state	38
Death of a close friend	37
Change to a different line of work	36
Change in number of arguments with spouse	35
Mortgage or loan for major purchase (home)	31
Foreclosure of mortgage at work	30

Life event value	Mean
Change in responsibilities at work	29
Son or daughter leaving home	29
Trouble with in-laws	29
Outstanding personal achievement	28
Wife begins or stops work	26
Begin or end school.....	26
Change in living conditions	25
Revision of personal habits	24
Trouble with boss	23
Change in work hours or conditions	20
Change in residence	20
Change in school.....	20
Change in recreation	19
Change in church activities.....	19
Change in social activities.....	18
Mortgage or loan for a lesser purchase (car, TV)	17
Change in sleeping habits.....	16
Change in number of family get-togethers	15
Change in eating habits.....	15
Vacation	13
Christmas	12
Minor violations of the law	11

Pressure

At one time or another, most people have remarked that they're "under pressure." What does this mean? *Pressure involves expectations or demands that one behave in a certain way.* You are under pressure to perform when you are expected to execute tasks

and responsibilities quickly, efficiently, and successfully. For example, sales people are usually under pressure to move merchandise. Professors at research institutions are often under pressure to publish in prestigious journals. Stand-up comedians are under intense pressure to make people laugh.

Pressures to conform to others' expectations are also common in our lives. Businessmen are expected to wear suits and ties. Suburban homeowners are expected to keep their lawns well manicured. Teenagers are expected to adhere to their parents' values and rules.

Although widely discussed by the general public the concept of pressure has received scant attention from researchers. However, Weiten has devised a scale to measure pressure as a form of little stress. It assesses self-imposed pressure, pressure from work and school, and pressure from family relations, and intimate relations. In research with this scale a strong relationship has been found between pressure and a variety of psychological symptoms and problems. In fact, pressure has turned out to be more strongly related to measures of mental health than the SRRS and other established measures of stress.

I. Choose the word from the box to match the definition on the left.

Conflict	Frustration	Pressure
Stress	Stressors	Stress management

1. Events that an individual perceives as endangering his or her physical or psychological well-being.
2. An extremely broad term used to refer to any situation in which there are mutually antagonistic events, motives, purposes, behaviours, impulses and etc.

3. A cognitive behavioral approach stressful situations by understanding their own stressors and coping skills to find appropriate responses.
4. An annoyed or impatient feeling that you get when you are prevented from doing what you want.
5. A state that occurs when people receive as endangering their physical or psychological well-being.
6. The emotional experience of feeling compelled to respond to somebody's wishes or to extreme forces.

II. Answer the questions to the text.

1. How may stress be defined?
2. What does the experience of feeling stressed depend on?
3. What types of stress are known to you?
4. When do people usually experience frustration?
5. When does conflict occur?
6. What types of conflict have been identified by psychologists?
7. What do we mean by life changes?
8. Why did psychologists develop the Social Readjustment Rating Scale?
9. What does pressure involve?
10. When are people usually under pressure?
11. What is pressure more strongly related to?

III. Choose the facts to prove that:

1. Most frustrations are brief and insignificant.
2. People aren't very objective in their appraisals of potentially stressful events.
3. Pressures to conform to others' expectations are.

Text 26.

EFFECTIVENESS OF PSYCHOTHERAPY

Duration of treatment

Which Type of Therapy Is Best for Which Disorder?

We have seen that researchers generally agree that psychotherapy is usually effective. This raises a second question: Is any particular form of psychotherapy more effective than the others? Is behavior therapy, for example, more effective than insight therapy? In general, the answer seems to be “not much.” Most of the benefit of treatment seems to come from being in some kind of therapy, regardless of the particular type.

The various forms of psychotherapy are based on different views of the causes of mental disorders, and at least on the surface, they approach the treatment of mental disorders very differently. So how can they all be equally effective? First, all forms of psychotherapy provide people with an *explanation for their problems*.

Along with the explanation often comes a new perspective, providing the people with specific actions to help them cope more effectively. Second, most forms of psychotherapy offer *hope*. Because most people who seek therapy have low self-esteem and feel demoralized and depressed, hope and the expectation for improvement increases their feelings of self-worth. And third, all major types of psychotherapy engage the client in a *therapeutic alliance* with the therapist. Despite differing therapeutic approaches, effective therapists are warm, empathetic, and caring people who understand the importance of establishing a strong emotional bond with their clients built on mutual respect and understanding. Together, these *nonspecific factors*, which are common to all forms of psychotherapy, appear at least in part to account for why most people who receive therapy show some benefits compared to those who receive no therapeutic help at all.

Still, some kinds of psychotherapy seem to be particularly appropriate for certain people and for certain types of problems. Insight therapy, for example, seems to be best suited to people seeking

profound self-understanding, relief of inner conflict and anxiety, or better relationships with others. Behavior therapy is apparently most appropriate for treating specific anxieties or other well-defined behavioral problems such as sexual dysfunctions. Family therapy is generally more effective than individual counseling for the treatment of drug abuse. Cognitive therapies have been shown to be effective treatments for depression and seem to be a promising treatment for anxiety disorders as well.

To assist psychologists in selecting the most effective treatment methods, the Clinical Division of the American Psychological Association (1995) appointed the Task Force on Psychological Intervention Guidelines to review the scientific literature and develop a list of treatments shown to be effective through controlled research. This list of *empirically supported therapies*, or ESTs, is designed to help therapists decide on the most appropriate therapy for a specific disorder. Since its publication, many psychologists have advanced the position that these therapies should be emphasized over those with less or no empirical support, particularly in training programs for clinical psychologists. The race, culture, ethnic background, and gender of both client and therapist can also influence which therapy is effective.

I. Choose the word from the box to match the definition on the left.

Psychiatrist	Psychotherapy	Psychologist
Medication	Marriage counselor	Mental disorder

1. Psychological methods of treatment to correct maladjustments and mental disorders.
2. A physician specializing in psychiatry.
3. A person who gives advice on the problems of marriage and family relationships.
4. A medical preparation used to treat or cure an ailment, an

act or process of treating with medicine or medicaments.

5. A specialist who deals with human mind, carefully examines human consciousness and behavior.

6. Disturbance or interruption of the normal, healthy functions of the mind.

II. Answer the questions to the text.

1. How many people does therapy help according to H. Eysenck?

2. What is the general consensus upon the effectiveness of psychotherapy?

3. What is the correlation between the improvement and the duration of therapy?

4. What do different forms of psychotherapy have in common?

5. How can you characterize an effective therapist?

6. When is insight therapy used?

7. What kind of therapy is the most appropriate for treating specific anxieties or other well-defined behavioral problems?

8. Which therapy is used for the treatment of depression?

9. What is more effective for the treatment of drug abuse?

10. What are ESTs designed for?

III. Choose the facts to prove that:

1. It is possible that the recovery rate for people who receive no therapeutic help at all is even less than one-third.

2. The "Consumer Reports" study lacked the scientific rigor of more traditional investigations designed to assess psychotherapeutic efficacy.

3. Most forms of psychotherapy offer help.

4. Some kinds of psychotherapy seem to be particularly appropriate for certain people and for certain types of problems.

3MICT

Text 1.....	7
Text 2.....	10
Text 3.....	12
Text 4.....	14
Text 5.....	17
Text 6.....	19
Text 7	22
Text 8.....	24
Text 9.....	27
Text 10	29
Text 11	33
Text 12	37
Text 13	40
Text 14	42
Text 15	45
Text 16	48
Text 17	51
Text 18	54
Text 19	60
Text 20	66
Text 21	70
Text 22	77
Text 23	81
Text 24	85
Text 25	90
Text 26	99

