**План прохождения дисциплины «Иностранный язык (английский)»**

**и задания для студентов психолого-педагогического факультета специальности «Психология»**

**заочной формы обучения**

***1 семестр:*** 8 аудиторных часов

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| № | Название темы | Количество аудиторных часов |
| 1 | A New Stage in my Life. I am a Student Now. | **2** |
| 2 | Brest State University. My Studies at the University. | **2** |
| 3 | Social and Political Portrait of the Republic of Belarus. Brest. | **4** |

1. *Подготовить устные высказывания по темам:*
2. Our University. My studies at the University.
3. The Republic of Belarus (general information: geographical position, population, political system, places of interest, outstanding representatives, etc.).
4. The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland
5. *Прочитать и перевести тексты* “Psychoanalysis as a Theory ” *и* “Cognitive Movement in Psychological Thought”*, составив словарь незнакомых слов. Ответить на вопросы после текстов.*
6. *Составить аннотацию текста* “Educational Psychology”.

**Topic 1: OUR UNIVERSITY**

Brest State University was founded in 1945. It was called the Teachers’ Training Institute then. In 1995 it became a university. Its full name is Brest State Alexander Pushkin University.

The University occupies several academic buildings: an old building, the sports complex with gymnasiums, a swimming pool, several lecture halls and tutorial rooms, and a seven-storey building with a canteen, a library, reading halls, laboratories, lecture halls and subject rooms. At the disposal of students there are four hostels, a winter garden, a garden of successive blossoming, an agricultural and biological station. The University has museums of biology, of geology, and of the history of physical culture and sport.

The University educates about 3,500 students at the day-time department and about 3,000 students acquire higher education at the correspondence department. There are 11 faculties at the University: Language and Literature, Foreign Languages, Psychology and Pedagogics, Social Pedagogics, Geography, Biology, Physics and Mathematics, Physical Education and Sports, History, Law, and Pre-University Preparation. Students are educated in 45 specialities.

Teaching is maintained at a high level. About 400 professors, associate professors and tutors teach students at the University.

The course of study lasts four-five years. Each year consists of two terms (autumn and spring) with examination periods at the end of each term. The term is divided between theoretical and practical work: students have a few weeks of lectures followed by seminars. When students have seminars, they spend a lot of time in the reading room revising the material. Fortunately, the Internet helps now a lot. The main form of work for external students is independent work at home.

Students do not only study, they are also engaged in various forms of research work. They write course papers and diploma theses, participate in scientific conferences and publish their articles. This work helps them to better understand the subjects they study and the current requirements of the national economy, to see the results of their work put into practice.

**Topic 2: THE REPUBLIC OF BELARUS**

Belarus is situated in Central Europe. The Republic borders on Russia, the Ukraine, Poland, Lithuania and Latvia. Its territory is 207,600 square kilometres and the population is about 10 million people. Most of the people live in cities, the largest of which are Minsk (the capital), Gomel, Brest, Vitebsk, Grodno and Mogilev.

Belarus is a bilingual republic: the official languages are Belarusian and Russian. The total population of the country is literate. The main religion is Eastern Orthodox (80 %), others include Roman Catholic, Protestant, Jewish and Muslim.

Belarus is a broad plain. One third of the territory is covered with woods and forests. The largest of them are called pushchas, the most famous are the Belovezhskaya and the Nalibockskaya. Other national reserves are Braslavsky and Narochansky National parks, Berezinsky Reserve, etc. They have rich flora and fauna some of which have survived only in Belarus.

There are about 20,000 rivers and brooks in the republic. They flow into the Baltic Sea or into the Black Sea. Seven rivers are more than 500 kilometres long each. They are the Dnieper, the Neman, the Western Dvina, the Pripyat, the Berezina, the Sozh and the Viliya. There are also more than 10,000 lakes in Belarus. The largest of them are Braslav Lakes and Lake Naroch, the pride of the republic. The swamps of Belarus deserve a special mention. These unique natural ecosystems take up nearly a quarter of the country. In general 6 % of the country is officially viewed as specially protected natural territories.

The climate in the republic is moderate continental with comparatively mild and humid winters, warm summers and rainy autumns. The breathing of the Baltic Sea is felt here.

Belarus has a well-developed industry and economy. The main sectors of the economy are industry, agriculture, services. Belarusian industry produces tractors, heavy trucks, combine-harvesters, automatic lines, metal-cutting machine tools, electronic equipment, computers, refrigerators, television sets, bicycles, motorcycles, watches, chemical fibres, fertilizers and textiles. Agriculture specializes in cattle breeding and crops growing. The main crops cultivated here are potatoes, grain, flax, medical herbs, sugar beets, vegetables and fruits. Our nation today faces a crucial task of how to compete in a global economy.

Since 1991 the Republic of Belarus has been a sovereign state, which independently carries out its domestic and foreign policy. The state system of the republic is very much like that of other European states. There are three branches of power – legislative (Parliament), executive (Council of Ministers) and judicial (Supreme Court). The bicameral Parliament, i.e. the National Assembly of the Republic of Belarus, consists of the Council of the Republic and the Chamber of Representatives. The Government, i.e. the Council of Ministers of the Republic of Belarus, is the central body of state management, the executive power in the Republic of Belarus. In its activities, the Government is subordinated to the President and reports to the Parliament. The judicial power in the Republic of Belarus belongs to courts. The control over correspondence of standard laws in the State to the Constitution is performed by the Constitution Court.

Belarus is a member of many international organizations including the United Nations organization.

**Text for reading:**

**PSYCHOANALYSIS AS A THEORY**

Sigmund Freud was a pioneer in the study of unconscious mental activity. His theories on the inner workings of the human mind are now accepted by most schools of psychological thought. In 1896, Freud created the term "psychoanalysis," and later he developed its main principles, objectives, techniques, and methodology of psychoanalysis.

Psychoanalysis is a set of [psychological](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Psychological) and [psychotherapeutic](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Psychotherapeutic) theories and associated techniques, created by Austrian physician [Sigmund Freud](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sigmund_Freud) and stemming partly from the clinical work of [Josef Breuer](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Josef_Breuer) and others. Over time, psychoanalysis has been revised and developed in different directions. Some of Freud's colleagues and students, such as [Alfred Adler](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Alfred_Adler) and [Carl Jung](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Carl_Jung), went on to develop their own ideas independently. The [Neo-Freudians](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Neo-Freudianism) included [Erich Fromm](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Erich_Fromm), [Karen Horney](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Karen_Horney), and [Harry Stack Sullivan](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Harry_Stack_Sullivan).

Psychoanalysis focuses on the unconscious aspects of personality. According to Freud the human mind is like an iceberg. He believed that the conscious level of the mind was similar to the top of the iceberg which could be seen, but the unconscious was mysterious and was hidden.

In An Outline of Psychoanalysis Freud explains the principles of the psychoanalytic theory. He begins with an explanation of the three parts of the psychic apparatus —the id, the ego, and the superego. The id is the unconscious part that contains the instincts. The ego has the quality of being conscious and is responsible for controlling the demands of the id. It serves as a link between the id and the external world. Finally, the superego, whose demands are managed by the id, is responsible for the limitation of satisfactions and represents the influence of others, such as parents, teachers, and role models, as well as the impact of racial, societal, and cultural traditions.

Sigmund Freud's psychoanalytic theory of personality has had a major impact on our understanding of our human makeup. Freud argued that the human personality results from a dynamic struggle between inner physiological drives (such as hunger, sex, and aggression) and social pressures to follow laws, rules, and moral codes. Furthermore, Freud proposed that individuals are aware of only a small portion of the forces that drive their behaviour. From his perspective, humans have a conscious, preconscious, and unconscious mind. This idea — that much of what propels humans to action is a part of the unconscious mind and not available for scrutiny — revolutionized the perception of the human personality.

Psychoanalytic thought had a major impact on marketing in the 1950s. Advertising firms hired psychoanalysts to help develop promotional themes and packaging to appeal to the unconscious minds of consumers. Psychoanalytic theory emphasized the use of dreams, of fantasy, and of symbols to identify the unconscious motives behind a person's actions.

As a therapy, psychoanalysis is based on the concept that individuals are unaware of the many factors that cause their behavior and emotions. These unconscious factors have the potential to produce unhappiness, which is expressed through a number of symptoms such as difficulty in relating to others, or problems with self-esteem. The basic objective of psychoanalysis is to remove neuroses and thereby cure patients by returning the damaged ego to its normal state.

The method of psychoanalysis has several steps. First, analysts gather material from patient's free associations, dreams and slips of the tongue. Second, analysts begin to form hypotheses about what happened to the patients in the past and what is happening to them in their daily life. If analysts reveal their conclusions to patients too soon, resistance due to repression will occur. Overcoming this resistance requires additional time and effort by both the analysts and the patients. Once patients accept the conclusions, they are cured.

The value of psychoanalysis as a theory and as a therapy has been questioned since the early 1900s. Critics dispute the value of the data upon which Freud based his theories; and the method and effectiveness of psychoanalytic treatment. However, we should not forget the revolutionary introduction of the unconscious aspects of personality in the discipline of psychology.

1. What term did Freud create and developed in the field of psychology?
2. What does psychoanalysis focus on?
3. How did Freud describe a human mind?
4. What are the three parts of the psychic apparatus, according to Freud?
5. Which part of the psychic apparatus has the quality of being conscious?
6. Which part of the psychic apparatus represents the influence of others?
7. Which part of the psychic apparatus contains instincts?
8. What concept is psychoanalysis based on?
9. How can unhappiness be expressed?
10. What is the basic objective of psychoanalysis according to Sigmund Freud?
11. What are the main steps of psychoanalysis?

**Text for reading:**

**COGNITIVE MOVEMENT IN PSYCHOLOGICAL THOUGHT**

In the second half of the twentieth century, the invention of the computer and the way of thinking associated with it led to a new approach or orientation to psychology called the cognitive movement. The roots of the cognitive movement

are extremely varied: they include behaviorism, humanism, etc. They include thinkers from linguistics, neuroscience, philosophy, and engineering; and it especially involves specialists in computer technology and the field of artificial intelligence.

Cognition means “knowing” and cognitive processes refer to the ways in which knowledge is gained, used and retained. Cognitivists believe that the study of internal processes is important in understanding behaviour because humans do not passively respond to the environment. Cognitive processes actively organize and manipulate the information we receive. Therefore, cognitive psychologists study perception, attention, memory, thinking, language and problem solving. They also attempted to explain artificial intelligence and abnormality.

Cognitive psychology developed as a separate area within the discipline since the late 1950s and early 1960s (though there are examples of cognitive thinking from earlier researchers). The term came into use with the publication of the book “Cognitive psychology” by Ulrich Neisser in 1967.

However, the cognitive approach was brought to prominence by Donald Broadbent’s book “Perception and Communication” in 1958. Since that time, the dominant paradigm in the area has been the information processing model of cognition that Broadbent put forward. This is a way of thinking and reasoning about mental processes, imagining them like software running on the computer that is the brain. Theories commonly refer to forms of input, representation, computation or processing, and outputs. Interest in mental processes appeared in the works of Tolman and Piaget, but it was the computer that introduced the terminology and metaphor necessary to investigate the human mind. Cognitive psychology compares the human mind to a computer and suggests that we are information processors. From the perspective of the cognitive psychology it is possible to study the internal mental processes that lie between the stimuli we receive and the responses we make.

Cognitive psychologists use a number of experimental techniques, including laboratory-based research with normal and brain-damaged subjects, as well as computer and mathematical models to test and validate theories. This way of conceiving mental processes has pervaded psychology more generally over the past few decades, and it is not uncommon to find cognitive theories within social psychology, personality, abnormal psychology, developmental psychology. The application of cognitive theories in comparative psychology has led to many recent studies in animal cognition.

The information processing approach to cognitive functioning is currently being questioned by new approaches in psychology. Many are hoping that cognitive psychology will prove to be the paradigm we have been waiting for. It is still early to tell, but the significance of cognitive psychology is impossible to deny.

1. What conditions led to the development of a cognitive approach?

2. What are the roots of the cognitive movement?

3. What does the word “cognition” mean?

4. What do cognitive psychologists think about the study of internal processes?

5. What do cognitive psychologists study?

6. What phenomena do cognitive psychologists try to explain?

7. When did the term “cognitive psychology” come into use?

8. What model of cognition did Broadbent describe in his book?

9. Who were the first psychologists interested in mental processes?

### Text for annotation:

### EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

[Educational psychology](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Educational_psychology) is the study of how humans learn in educational settings, the effectiveness of educational interventions, the psychology of teaching, and the [social psychology](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Social_psychology) of [schools](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/School) as [organizations](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Organization). Although the terms "educational psychology" and "school psychology" are often used interchangeably, researchers and theorists are likely to be identified as [educational psychologists](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Category:Educational_psychologists), whereas practitioners in schools or school-related settings are identified as [school psychologists](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/School_psychologist). Educational psychology is concerned with the processes of educational attainment in the general population and in sub-populations such as [gifted](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gifted) children and those with specific [disabilities](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Disabilities).

Educational psychology can in part be understood through its relationship with other disciplines. It is informed primarily by [psychology](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Psychology), bearing a relationship to that discipline analogous to the relationship between [medicine](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Medicine) and [biology](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Biology). Educational psychology, in turn, informs a wide range of specialties within educational studies, including [instructional design](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Instructional_design), [educational technology](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Educational_technology), curriculum development, [organizational learning](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Organizational_learning), [special education](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Special_education) and [classroom management](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Classroom_management). Educational psychology both draws from and contributes to [cognitive science](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cognitive_science) and the [learning sciences](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Learning_sciences). In universities, departments of educational psychology are usually housed within faculties of education, possibly accounting for the lack of representation of educational psychology content in introductory psychology textbooks.

***2 семестр:***  2 аудиторных часа

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| № | Название темы | Количество аудиторных часов |
| 1 | The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland | **2** |

1. *Подготовить устные высказывания по темам:*
2. The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland
3. *Прочитать и перевести текст* “Memory ”*, составив словарь незнакомых слов. Ответить на вопросы после текстов.*
4. *Составить аннотацию текста* “Attention”.

**Topic 1: THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN**

**AND NORTHERN IRELAND**

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is situated on the British Isles which contain more than 5,000 small islands. It consists of four parts: England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. The capital of Scotland is Edinburgh, the capital of Wales is Cardiff, the capital of Northern Ireland is Belfast, and the capital of England and the whole of the UK is London. England, Wales and Scotland occupy the territory of Great Britain. Northern Ireland is situated in the northern part of Ireland.

The territory of the United Kingdom is about 244,8 square kilometres. The population is more than 60 million. About 80 % of the population is urban.

Great Britain is surrounded by seas on all sides (the North Sea, the Irish Sea and the Atlantic Ocean). It is separated from the continent by the English Channel which is 34 km wide in its narrowest point.

The surface of Great Britain varies greatly. The northern and western parts of the country are mountainous and called the Highlands. All the rest (south, east and centre) is a vast plain which is called the Lowlands. The mountains are not very high. The highest mountain peaks are Ben Nevis in Scotland and Snowdon in Wales. The rivers are not long. The most important of them are the Thames, the Mersey, the Severn, the Clyde, the Trent. There are many beautiful lakes in the mountainous parts of the country.

The mountains, the Atlantic Ocean and the warm waters of the Gulf Stream influence the climate of Great Britain. It is mild the whole year round. The weather in Britain is very changeable and people like to say that they have no climate but only weather.

Great Britain is a highly developed industrial country. It is famous first of all for its heavy and textile industries. Britain is one of the world’s largest producers and exporters of iron and steel products, machinery and electronics, chemicals and textile, aircraft and navigation equipment. One of the chief industries of the country is shipbuilding. 7 % of the population is engaged in farming. The biggest industrial cities are London, Glasgow, Liverpool, Sheffield, Birmingham, Manchester.

Great Britain is a country of old cultural traditions and customs. It has the world known educational centres such as Oxford and Cambridge universities. They are considered to be the intellectual centres of Europe.

The United Kingdom is a parliamentary monarchy and the Queen is the head of the state (since 1952 – Elizabeth II). She summons and dissolves Parliament. She normally opens the sessions of Parliament with the speech from the throne. But in practice Britain is ruled by the elected government with a Prime Minister at the head. He/she has a great deal of power in contrast to that of Monarch. Number 10, Downing Street is the official residence of the British Prime Minister.

The legislative branch of power is the British Parliament which consists of two chambers: the House of Lords and the House of Commons. The Parliament sits in the House of Parliament in Westminster. It makes new laws, gives authority for the government to spend state money, keeps a close eye on the government activities.

There are three main political parties in Great Britain: the Labour, the Conservative and the Liberal parties. There’s no written constitution in Great Britain, they act only on precedents and traditions.

**Text for reading:**

**MEMORY**

Over the years memory researchers have wrestled endlessly with one major question relating to memory storage: How is knowledge represented and organized in memory? In other words, what forms do our mental representations of information take? Most theorists seem to agree that our mental representations probably take a variety of forms, depending on the nature of the material that needs to be tucked away in memory. For example, memories of visual scenes, of how to perform actions (such as typing or hitting a backhand stroke in tennis), and of factual information (such as definitions or dates in history) are probably represented and organized in very different ways. Many psychologists believe that there are three main kinds of memory: sensory, short-term and long-term. What makes up each of them?

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

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

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

A schema is an organized cluster of knowledge about a particular object or sequence of events. People are more likely to remember things that are consistent with their schemas than things that are not. Information stored in memory is often organized around schemas. Thus, recall of an object or event will be influenced by both the actual details observed and the person's schemas for these objects and events.

Entering information into long-term memory is a worthy goal, but an insufficient one if you can't get the information back out again when you need it. Fortunately, recall often occurs without much effort. But occasionally a planned search of LTM is necessary. For instance, imagine that you were asked to recall the names of all 50 states in the United States. You would probably conduct your memory search systematically, recalling states in alphabetical order or by geographical location. Although this example is rather simple, retrieval is a complex process.

The tip-of-the-tongue phenomenon is the temporary inability to remember something you know, accompanied by a feeling that it's just out of reach. The tip-of-the-tongue phenomenon is a common experience that occurs to the average person about once a week. It clearly represents a failure in retrieval. Fortunately, memories can often be jogged with retrieval cues — stimuli that help gain access to memories. This was apparent when Roger Brown and David McNeill studied the tip-of-the-tongue phenomenon. They gave participants definitions of obscure words and asked them to think of the words. Brown and McNeill found that subjects groping for obscure words were correct in guessing the first letter of the missing word 57% of the time. This figure far exceeds chance and shows that partial recollections are often headed in the right direction.

1. What are the kinds of memory?
2. Where is the information stored?
3. What does the short-term memory hold?
4. What does the form of our mental representation depend on?
5. What is a schema?
6. What is a tip-of-the-tongue phenomenon?
7. What are retrieval cues?

Text for annotation:

ATTENTION

Some students try to learn while listening to the radio, talking to friends, and thinking about a coming to-an-end-week. They believe that studying requires only a little attention. But when people divide their attention between several different tasks, performance usually suffers.

In one study that supports this idea, the psychologists compared what students could do under several conditions. Subjects in one group listened to a tape of an unfamiliar passage from a psychology text. At the same time, they pushed a button whenever a signal light brightened.

Another group of students confronted a more challenging situation. In addition to monitoring the light and attending to the unfamiliar material, they had to ignore a familiar passage presented simultaneously in the other ear by the same voice.

Subjects in the «easy» condition reacted more quickly to the signal light and comprehended the passage much more better than the students in the «difficult» condition. While attention can be divided (especially if one task is familiar and easy), concentration helps the processing of complex information. Even something as automatic as reading is not a simple task. You have to identify written words on a page. You must also combine words into phrases and sentences and comprehend the meaning. At the same time, you must think about the meaning of the material and associate new facts with old information and experiences.

In short, attention is very important in everyday life. The ability to attend and its opposite, distraction, have been widely studied by the psychologists. The number of outstanding people in psychology studying the phenomenon of attention is rather impressive, including such names as E.B. Titchener, W. James, R.S. Woodworth and G. Piaget.

***3 семестр:***  6 аудиторных часов

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| --- | --- | --- |
| № | Название темы | Количество аудиторных часов |
| 1 | What is Psychology | **2** |
| 2 | History of Psychology | **2** |
| 3 | Psychological Approaches | **2** |

1. *Подготовить устные высказывания по темам:*
2. What is Psychology
3. History of Psychology
4. *Прочитать и перевести тексты* “Humanistic Approach and Psychology of Carl Rogers ” *и* “Stereotype and Stereotyping ”*, составив словарь незнакомых слов. Ответить на вопросы после текстов.*
5. *Составить аннотацию текста* “Artificial Intelligence”.

**Topic 1: WHAT IS PSYCHOLOGY**

Psychology is the scientific study of mental processes and behavior. The word psychology comes from two Greek words: "Psyche" mean­ing "mind" or "soul" and "Logos" meaning "study of**"**. Therefore, psy­chology means "study of the mind". There are many modern definitions of the term. One of them belongs to Atkinson, who defined psychology as "the scientific study of behaviour and mental processes". Psychologists observe and record how people and other animals relate to one another and to the environment. They look for patterns that will help them understand and predict behavior, and they use scientific methods to test their ideas. Through such studies, psychologists have learned much that can help people fulfill their potential as human beings and increase understanding between individuals, groups, nations, and cultures.

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

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

Topic 2: HISTORY OF PSYCHOLOGY

Psychology has a long past and a short history. It means that although psychology has its roots in philosophy, as a scientific discipline psychology is only a little over 130 years old. The roots of psychology can be easily traced back about 2,400 years to ancient Greek philosophers. However, the beginning of scientific psychology is usually associated with the date 1879, the year that a German scientist named Wilhelm Wundt founded the first psychological laboratory at the University of Leipzig in Germany. Modern psychology arose in the context of what are known as schools of psychology. Wundt was also the first person to refer to himself as a psychologist. Other important early contributors to the field include [Hermann Ebbinghaus](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hermann_Ebbinghaus) (a pioneer in the study of [memory](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Memory)), [William James](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/William_James) (the American father of [pragmatism](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pragmatism)), and [Ivan Pavlov](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ivan_Pavlov) (who developed the procedures associated with [classical conditioning](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Classical_conditioning)).

From a historical perspective, the first school of psychology to be established was structuralism. Its founding personality was W. Wundt. He became interested in studying not so much the physiology of the sense organs such as the eyes and ears, but in how simple sensations associated with the sense organs combined to form what we call human consciousness. Wundt concluded that all visual experiences are structured out of these same three types of elemental experiences. According to Wundt, the primary purpose of psychology is to study the structure of consciousness. By the structure of consciousness, Wundt meant the relationship of a group of sensations, a relationship that produces the complex experiences we think of as our conscious mental life. This approach to psychology has been called mental chemistry.

William James, teaching at Harvard in the 1870s, was following Wundt's research with interest. James had an interest not only in psychology, but also in physiology and eventually in philosophy. James founded a psychological laboratory at Harvard; he also wrote The Principles of Psychology, the first psychology textbook published in the United States. The book was published in 1890, and this can also be taken as the date when the school of psychology known asfunctionalismwas born.

The German psychologist Max Wertheimer(1880-1943), like James, was also dissatisfied with Wundt's structuralism. Wertheimer believed that Wundt's emphasis on the importance of simple sensations as the building blocks of perceptions was misguided. The general pattern that induces a complex perception is described with the German word Gestalt. Gestalt is usually translated as a "pattern," a "configuration," or an "organized whole." In 1910 Wertheimer published an article setting forth the basic assumptions of Gestalt psychology, and this is usually taken to be the starting date of the school.

Ivan Pavlov performed and directed experiments on digestion, eventually publishing *The Work of the Digestive Glands* in 1897, after 12 years of research. His experiments earned him the 1904 Nobel Prize in Physiology and Medicine. His work on reflex actions involved involuntary reactions to stress and pain. Pavlov extended the definitions of the four temperament types under study at the time: phlegmatic, choleric, sanguine, and melancholic.

*Behaviorism* became a fourth classical school of psychology. Its founding personality is John B. Watson(1878-1958).Behaviorism proposed emphasizing the study of overt behavior, because that could be quantified and easily measured. Early behaviorists considered study of the "[mind](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mind)" too vague for productive scientific study. Watson came to the conclusion that psychology was placing too much emphasis on consciousness. In fact, he asserted that psychology is not a mental science at all. The "mind" is a mushy, difficult-to-define concept. It can't be studied by science because it can't be observed. Only you can know what's going on in your mind.

Starting in the 1890s, employing the case study technique, the Viennese physician [Sigmund Freud](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sigmund_Freud) developed and applied the methods of hypnosis, free association, and dream interpretation to reveal putatively [unconscious](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Unconscious_mind) beliefs and desires that he argued were the underlying causes of his patients' "[hysteria](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hysteria)." Freud was a medical doctor with a specialty in neurology. His findings and conclusions are based primarily on his work with patients.

He dubbed this approach [psychoanalysis](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Psychoanalysis). Freudian psychoanalysis is particularly notable for the emphasis it places on the course of an individual's sexual development in [pathogenesis](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pathogenesis). In order to explain chronic emotional suffering, Freud asserted that human beings have an unconscious mental life. This is the principal assumption of psychoanalysis. No other assumption or assertion that it makes is nearly as important. The unconscious mental level is created by a defense mechanism called repression. Psychoanalytic concepts have had a strong and lasting influence on Western culture, particularly on the arts.

Psychoanalysis is not only a school of psychology, but also a method of therapy. Freud believed that by helping a patient explore the contents of the unconscious mental level, he or she could obtain a measure of freedom from emotional suffering. It is important to note that of the five classical schools of psychology, psychoanalysis is the only one that made it an aim to improve the individual's mental health.

**Text for reading:**

**HUMANISTIC APPROACH AND PSYCHOLOGY OF CARL ROGERS**

The humanistic approach was developed in America in the early 1960’s. It was also called the third force in psychology since it aimed to replace the two main approaches in the field – behaviourism and psychoanalysis.

There are several factors which distinguish the humanistic approach from other approaches within psychology. They are the emphasis on subjective meaning, rejection of determinism, and concern for positive growth rather than pathology. Most psychologists believe that behaviour can only be understood objectively (by an impartial observer)**,** but the humanists argue that this results in concluding that an individual is incapable of understanding their own behaviour. Instead, humanists like Rogers argue that the meaning of behaviour is personal and subjective; they further argue that accepting this idea is not unscientific, because ultimately all individuals are subjective: what makes science reliable is not that scientists are purely objective, but that the nature of observed events can be agreed upon by different observers. The humanistic approach aimed to investigate all the uniquely human aspects of existence such as love, hope, creativity and emphasized the importance of the individual’s interaction with the environment. Bugental, the first president of the American Association for Humanistic Psychology described some of its fundamental assumptions. First of all, a proper understanding of the human nature can be gained from studying humans, not animals. Second, psychology should study an individual case rather than the average group performance. Third, psychology should study internal as well as external behaviour and consider that individuals can show some degree of free will.

Carl Rogers was not the only one of the founders of the humanistic approach, but also the most influential therapist in the 20th century: a number of surveys**,** including several done after his death, found that more therapists cited Rogers as a major influence on their thinking and clinical practice than any other person in psychology (including Freud).

There are two fundamental ideas in the work of Rogers which are particularly important. First, Rogers talked about healthy development in terms of how the individual perceived their own being. A healthy individual will tend to see congruence between one’s sense of who he or she is (self) and who the person feels he or she should be (ideal self). While no one tends to experience perfect congruence at all times, the relative degree of congruence is an indicator of health.

The second fundamental idea in the work of Rogers is his concept of the conditions for healthy growth, and the role of a therapist in fostering healthy growth. Through a process of what Rogers called a person-centered therapy, the therapist seeks to provide empathy**,** openness, and unconditional positive regard.

1. Why did the humanistic approach start to develop?

2. When and where was the humanistic approach developed?

3. Why was it called “the third force in psychology”?

4. What are the factors that distinguish the humanistic approach from other approaches within psychology?

5. What do humanists think about objective understanding of psychological behaviour?

6. Where is the meaning of behaviour from humanistic point of view?

7. What makes psychological science reliable?

8. What aspects of existence does the humanistic approach aim to investigate?

9. Why can Carl Rogers be named the most influential therapist in the 20th century?

10. Who is a healthy individual according to the Rogers’s concept of healthy development?

11. What is an indicator of health according to Rogers?

12. What should a therapist do during a therapy according to Rogers?

**Text for reading:**

**STEREOTYPES AND STEREOTYPING**

Stereotyping is a simplification and generalization process. It helps people categorize and understand their world, but at the same time it often leads to errors.

Stereotypes can be positive or negative, such as when various nationalities are stereotyped as friendly or unfriendly. We often find people stereotyped around characteristics of age (“All teenagers love rock and roll and have no respect for their parents.”), sex (“men want just one thing from a woman.”), race (“All Japanese look and think alike.”), religion (“All Catholics love the Pope more than their country.”), profession (“All lawyers are greedy.”) and nationality (“All Germans are Nazis”).

Objects can be stereotyped around characteristics of places (“All cities are corrupt and sinful.” “Small towns are safe and clean.” “In England, it rains all the time.”) and things (“All Korean cars are cheaply made.”).

The term “stereotype” initially referred to a printing stamp which was used to make multiple copies from a single model, but the great journalist and commentator Walter Lippmann adopted the term in his 1922 book “Public Opinion” as a means of describing the way society is set about categorizing people – “stamping” human beings with a set of characteristics – as well. In his pioneering work, Lippmann identified four aspects of stereotypes. A brief look at them will serve as a summary of this valuable popular cultural tool.

Lippmann wrote that stereotypes are: 1) Simple:certainly more simple than reality, but also often capable of being summarized in only two to three sentences. 2) Acquired secondhand**:** people acquire (and absorb) stereotypes from someone else rather than from their own experience. The culture “distills” reality and then expresses its beliefs and values in stereotypical images.

3) Erroneous: all stereotypes are false. Some are less false than others, and (more importantly) some are less harmful than others. But all are false by their very nature. They are attempts to claim that each individual human being in a certain group shares a set of common qualities. Since an individual is different from all other individuals by definition, stereotypes are a logical impossibility. 4) Resistant to change**:** during the last twenty-five years the difficulties with racial and gender inequalities in American life have alerted most people to the tragic consequences of popular stereotypes.

Despite the fact that stereotyping is a natural method of classification and despite the fact that stereotyping has some useful functions under certain circumstances**,** it can be problematic.

Stereotypes can reduce a wide range of differences in people to simplistic categorizations; transform assumptions about particular groups of people into “realities”.

1. What is stereotyping?

2. What is the main function of stereotyping?

3. What characteristics are people most often stereotyped around?

4. What does the term stereotype initially refer to?

5. Who adopted the term in its modern meaning?

6. What are the four aspects of stereotypes according to Lippmann?

7. What does it mean that stereotypes are acquired second-hand?

8. Are all stereotypes false?

9. What is negative about stereotyping?

**Text for annotation:**

**ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE**

Artificial Intelligence (AI) is the science of making computers performs operations that appear intelligent. A hybrid of cognitive psychology and computer science, AI has moved in two directions, one practical, and the other theoretical.

Thanks to a massive amount of stored information and rules for retrieving it, the practical side of AI has given us chess programs that can beat all but the masters, industrial robots that can sense their environment, and “expert systems” that can carry out chemical analyses, offer tax planning, advice, forecast weather, and help physicians diagnose their patients’ diseases.

The theoretical efforts, pioneered by psychologist Herbert Simon, study how humans think by attempting to make computers mimic or rival human thought processes. The goal is a “unified theory of cognition” embodied in a computer program that can process information, solve problems, learn from experience, and remember much as humans do.

Simon’s basic assumption is not that the mind is a computer or that computers have minds but rather, that both are information processors. Both receive information from the environment: computers via keyboards, disks; our minds via our senses. Both store this information, retrieve it as needed, and manipulate it in order to perform specific tasks. Both express the results of their information processing as output. The computer displays it on a screen or in a printout; we talk and write. Thus, the issue in artificial intelligence is not whether machines can think, but rather how skillfully can computer programs process information.

***4 семестр:***  10 аудиторных часов

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| № | Название темы | Количество аудиторных часов |
| 1 | Fields of Psychology | **2** |
| 2 | The Scientific Methods in Psychology | **4** |
| 3 | The Education of Physically Handicapped Children | **2** |
| 4 | What Type of Psychologist Would You Like To Be? | **2** |

1. *Подготовить устные высказывания по темам:*
2. Fields of Psychology
3. The Scientific Methods in Psychology
4. *Прочитать и перевести тексты* “Classification of Mental Disorders ” *и* “Key Processes of Sensation: Taste, Touch, Smell, Kinesthesia, Sense of Balance”*, составив словарь незнакомых слов. Ответить на вопросы после текстов.*
5. *Составить аннотацию текста* “Sensory Registers”.

Topic 1: FIELDS OF PSYCHOLOGY

Psychology as a profession expresses itself in different fields, or domains of interest. There are a number of fields of psychology, such as clinical, experimental, counseling, developmental, physiological, human factors, and industrial.

*Clinical psychology* is the field associated with psychotherapy and psychological testing. A clinic is a place where sick people go for help; consequently, clinical psychologists try to help persons with both well-defined mental disorders and serious personal problems. The word *psychotherapy*, in terms of its roots, means a "healing of the self." In practice, a clinical psychologist who employs psychotherapy attempts to work with a troubled person by using various methods and techniques that are designed to help the individual improve his or her mental health. This is done without drugs. An informal description of psychotherapy refers to it as "the talking cure."

A clinical psychologist should not be confused with a psychiatrist. A fully qualified clinical psychologist has earned a Ph.D. degree (doctor of philosophy with a specialization in psychology). *Psychiatry* is a medical specialty that gives its attention to mental disorders. A fully qualified psychiatrist has earned an M.D. degree (doctor of medicine). Although psychiatrists can and do practice psychotherapy, they can also prescribe drugs. Clinical psychologists, not being medical doctors, do not prescribe drugs. Clinical psychology is the largest single field of psychology. About 40 percent of psychologists are clinical psychologists.

*Experimental psychology* is the field associated with research. Experimental psychologists investigate basic behavioral processes such as learning, motivation, perception, memory, and thinking. Subjects may be either animals or human beings. Ivan Pavlov's experiments on conditioned reflexes, associated with the learning process, used dogs as subjects.

The great majority of experimental psychologists are found at the nation's universities. Their duties combine research and teaching. In order to obtain a permanent position and achieve academic promotion, it is necessary for the psychologist to publish the results of experiments in recognized scientific journals. Experimental psychology is not a large field of psychology in terms of numbers of psychologists. Only about 6 percent of psychologists are experimental psychologists.

On the other hand, experimental psychology represents a cutting edge of psychology; it is where much progress is made. The overall concepts and findings in a book such as this one have been made possible primarily by experimental work.

The remaining fields of psychology will be briefly described in terms of what psychologists associated with them do.

A *counseling psychologist* provides advice and guidance, often in a school setting. Sometimes he or she will, like a clinical psychologist, attempt to help individuals with personal problems. However, if the problems involve a mental disorder, the individual will be referred to a clinical psychologist or a psychiatrist.

A *developmental psychologist* is concerned with maturational and learning processes in both children and adults. Although a developmental psychologist is usually thought of as a "child psychologist," it is important to realize that a given developmental psychologist might have a particular interest in changes associated with middle-aged or elderly people.

A *physiological psychologist*, like an experimental psychologist, does research. Subject areas include the structures and functions of the brain, the activity of neurotransmitters (i.e., chemical messengers), and the effect that hormones produced by the endocrine glands have on moods and behavior.

A *human factors psychologist* combines a knowledge of engineering with a knowledge of psychology. For example, he or she may be part of a team that is attempting to redesign an aircraft control panel in an attempt to make it more "user friendly" in order to reduce pilot error associated with misperceptions.

An *industrial psychologist* usually works for a corporation. The principal aim is to provide a work environment that will facilitate production, reduce accidents, and maintain employee morale. A theme that guides industrial psychology is "the human use of human beings".

Topic 2: THE SCIENTIFIC METHODS IN PSYCHOLOGY

**GENERAL SCIENTIFIC METHODS**

The method used to investigate the behavior of human beings was *rationalism.* This is the point of view that great discoveries can be made just by doing a lot of hard thinking. This is still a workable approach in some fields of philosophy, and it has certainly been a workable method in mathematics.

In psychology, however, rationalism alone can lead to contradictory conclusions. Contemporary psychology combines rationalism with empiricism. Naturally, thinking is used. However, facts are gathered. *Empiricism* is the point of view that knowledge is acquired by using the senses—by seeing, hearing, touching, and so forth. Empiricism represents what William James called a *tough-minded attitude*.

Today's researchers do their best to gather data, information relevant to questions they ask about human behavior. But there is the general approach, which is called the *scientific method.* It is a systematic approach to thinking about an interesting possibility, gathering data, and reaching a conclusion. There are three main steps in the scientific method. The first step is to form a hypothesis, a proposition about a state of affairs in the world. Informally, a hypothesis is an educated guess about the way things are. The second step is gathering data. The third step in the scientific method is to accept or reject the hypothesis

Psychological Methods.

*Naturalistic Observation:* Looking at behavior without interference requires a researcher to study behavior as it is happening in its own setting. The researcher should have a "no interference" policy. When people or animals know they are being observed, they may not behave in the same way as when they're not being observed.

*The Clinical Method* is a research technique associated primarily with the treatment of individuals with mental or behavioral disorders. It arose within the associated frameworks of psychiatry and clinical psychology.

*The Survey Method:* large samples from larger populations. A survey attempts to take a large, general look at an aspect of behavior. Examples of topics include sexual behavior, eating behavior, how people raise children, spending habits, and so forth. A researcher may be interested in studying a population. Consequently, it is common to conduct the survey taken on a sample of the population. The sample should be taken at random from the population. A *random sample* allows the laws of chance to operate and provides an equal opportunity for any member of the population to be included in the sample. Members of the population fill out questionnaires, are interviewed, or are otherwise evaluated. This constitutes the survey.

*The Testing Method* explores human behavior by using psychological tests of attributes such as intelligence, personality, and creativity. In some cases the test is given in interview form on a one-to-one basis by an examiner. Individual intelligence tests are often administered in this manner.

Two problems associated with psychological testing are *validity* and *reliability.* In order for a psychological test to be useful it needs to be both valid and reliable. A valid test measures what it is supposed to measure. If a test that is given to measure the intelligence of subjects instead actually measures the individual's motivation to take the test, the test is invalid.

A reliable test gives stable, repeatable results. If a subject is tested twice with the same instrument within a few days, the two scores obtained should be very close to each other. One of the functions of the next method to be identified, the *correlational method*, is to establish both the validity and reliability of psychological tests.

*The Correlational Method:* When X is associated with Y. The word correlation refers to the relationship between two variables. These are usually designated as X and Y on a graph. If scores on one variable can be used to predict scores on the second variable, the variables are said to covary. In some cases there is no relationship. Then a *zero correlation* is said to exist.

*The Experimental Method* is a research tool characterized by a control over variables, the identification of a cause (or causes), and a well-defined measure of behavior. These aspects of the experimental method give it great power. Four key concepts will help you understand the experimental method: (1) the control group, (2) the experimental group, (3) the independent variable, and (4) the dependent variable.

The *control group* receives no treatment; it is dealt with in a more or less conventional manner. It provides a standard of comparison, a set of observations that can be contrasted with the behavior of the experimental group. The *experimental group* receives a novel treatment, a condition (or set of conditions) that is presumed to affect behavior. It is the target group, the one that will perhaps provide original or particularly interesting data.

The *independent variable* is one that is assigned to the subjects by the experimenter. There will be at least two values, or measures, of this variable. It is the variable that is thought of as a cause of behavior. The *dependent variable* is a measure of the behavior of the subjects. In most experiments, this variable can be expressed as a set of scores. The dependent variable is associated with the effect of a cause. Scores make it possible to compute statistical measures and make evaluations based on the data. It is important to note that the process by which subjects are assigned to groups is a *random process*, meaning all subjects have an equal chance of being included in either group. The aim of this procedure is to cancel out the effects of individual differences in the subjects that may have an effect on the experiment. An experiment can, of course, be much more interesting than the one described, and there can be two or more independent variables.

**Text for reading:**

**CLASSIFICATION OF MENTAL DISORDERS**

World War II created a greater need for classification systems of mental disorders. The existence of several different classification systems such as APA (American Psychological Association), the US Army, and the US Navy, and the Veterans Administration (which all had separate classification systems) made communication among mental health professionals difficult.

Therefore, in 1952 the American Psychological Association created the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM), which was designed to be the standard for mental health classifications in the US. The DSM has since undergone four revisions.

Diagnostic criteria for the most common mental disorders include: description, diagnosis, treatment, and research findings. The Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders is published by the American Psychiatric Association. The book is considered the ‘bible’ for any professional who makes psychiatric diagnoses in the United States and many other countries.

Some of the disorders described in the manual are listed below.

**Anxiety Disorders** include different types of phobias, obsessive compulsive disorder (obsessive thoughts and compulsive rituals), and panic disorder (panic attacks). Anxiety is a feeling of tension associated with a sense of threat or danger when the source of the danger is not known. In contrast, fear is a feeling of tension that is associated with a known source of danger. It is normal for us to have some mild anxiety present in our daily lives. However, heightened anxiety is emotionally painful. It disrupts a person’s daily functioning.

**Eating Disorders** are characterized by disturbances in eating behavior. This can mean eating too much, not eating enough, or eating in an extremely unhealthy manner. Many people argue that simple overeating should be considered a disorder, but at this time it is not in this category. Eating disorders include anorexia nervosa (self imposed starvation) and bulimia nervosa (binge eating and dieting).

**Mood Disorders** include those where the primary symptom is a disturbance in mood**.** To be diagnosed with a mood disorder, your feelings must be to the extreme. Mood disorders include bipolar disorder**,** cyclothymic disorder (mania with depression), dysthymic disorder (prolonged minor depression with mania) and major depressive disorder (major depression without mania).

**Personality Disorders** are a group of mental disturbances defined as a pattern of inner experiences and behaviors that are rigid and deep-seated to bring a person into repeated conflicts with his or her social and occupational environment. In addition, the patient usually sees the disorder as being consistent with his or her self image and may blame others. They include antisocial personality disorder

(impulsive, aggressive, manipulative), borderline personality disorder (impulsive,

self-destructive, unstable), paranoid personality disorder (suspicious**,** distrustful),

suspicious personality disorder (socially distant, detached) and others.

**Substance Related Disorders** include alcohol dependence**,** cocaine dependence, nicotine dependence, seductive dependence. Other disorders listed in the manual include **autistic disorder, dementia** and **delirium.**

1. Why did World War II create a greater need for classification system of mental disorders?

2. What does DSM mean?

3. When did the American Psychological Association create the first DSM?

4. What do the diagnostic criteria for the most common disorders include?

5. How many editions of DSM have been published?

6. What is anxiety?

7. What is fear?

8. How are eating disorders characterized?

9. What is the primary syndrome of mood disorders?

10. What do the personality disorders include?

11. What do the substance related disorders include?

**Text for reading:**

**KEY PROCESSES OF SENSATION: TASTE, TOUCH, SMELL, KINESTHESIA, SENSE OF BALANCE**

The stimuli that control much of the sense of taste are various chemical compounds such as those associated with salt, sugar, or lemon juice. The units that make taste possible are clusters of neurons located on the tongue called **taste buds.** The taste buds respond in such a way that they produce four basic taste sensations. These sensations are quite familiar. They are known as *sweet, salty, bitter,* and *sour.* The four sensations are able to produce many flavors.

Taste buds are gathered in specific areas of the tongue. For example, the taste buds that produce the sensation of sweetness are located near the tip of the tongue. It is estimated that we have about 10,000 taste buds.

It should also be noted that the sense of taste interacts with other senses such as smell, vision, and touch. The aroma of a soup, the look of a steak, and differences in texture on the tongue all change our taste impressions.

It is common to refer to touch as one of the basic senses. It is more accurate, however, to speak of the **skin senses,** basic experiences associated with different kinds of receptor neurons located in the skin. There are four skin senses: (1) light touch, (2) deep touch, (3) temperature, and (4) pain. The sensation of **light touch** can be induced by placing very little pressure on the surface of the skin or by slowly stroking the skin. You are aware that you are being touched even if your eyes are closed. Neurons located near the surface of the skin are the ones that give us the sensation of light touch.

**Deep touch** can be induced by placing substantial pressure on the surface of the skin. If someone shakes your hand too tightly or grips your arm with force, you will experience deep touch. Deep touch is also known as the sensation of *pressure.* Neurons located well below the surface of the skin are the ones that give us the sensation of deep touch.

**Temperature** is induced by variations in the amount of heat being conducted to or away from the skin. When heat is being conducted toward the skin, we usually experience an increase in warmth. When heat is being conducted away from the skin, we usually experience an increase in cold. This is because the skin of your feet makes such good contact with the hard surface that heat is carried away from your body. Two basic kinds of neurons for temperature are ―hot‖ receptors and ―cold‖ receptors.

**Pain** is a skin sense induced by tissue damage. A hard blow to the body or being cut by a knife will usually cause pain. Be clear that the kind of pain being described here is not the only type of pain. But the kind of pain associated with the skin is called *cutaneous pain.* Neurons in the skin that can detect tissue damage are the ones that give us this particular pain sensation.

You may think to yourself, ―Someone in this room is wearing a perfume that I can‘t stand!‖ How do you know? You can‘t see the perfume. You can‘t hear the perfume. But you, with your sense of smell, *know.*

The sense of smell allows us to detect the presence of some, but not all, airborne chemical substances. The sense of smell is also known as **olfaction.** The receptor organ that makes the sense of smell possible is called the **olfactory epithelium,** and it is located high in the nose. It is to smell what the retina is to vision. Several kinds of neurons differentially sensitive to chemicals in gaseous forms induce the various smell sensations.

If you *can* touch the tip of your nose with your eyes closed, as most people can, you have an intact sense of kinesthesia. **Kinesthesia,** also known as **proprioception,** is the capacity to know the position in space of various parts of your body. (The term *proprioception* is related to the word property. Your body belongs to you—it‘s your property.) Close your eyes and lift or lower a single finger. You know where it is at all times. When you walk you can sense the position of your legs even if you‘re not looking at them. Pianists and dancers rely heavily on kinesthesia. The receptor neurons for kinesthesia are located in the connective tissue surrounding the body‘s joints as well as within the joints themselves.

The sense of balance informs you that you are walking in an upright position. What you are sensing is the relationship of your body, and in particular your head, to the Earth‘s gravitational field. The sense of balance is made possible by receptor neurons located in the **semicircular canals.** Located in the inner ear, the canals are tubular bones filled with fluid. The movement of this fluid stimulates the firing of receptor neurons within the canals, and the information is transmitted to the brain.

The sense of balance is also known as the **vestibular sense.** A **vestibule** is a small antechamber or passageway. This is one way to describe the semicircular canals, important components of the apparatus involved in the sense of balance.

(*adopted from “Psychology: A Self-Teaching Guide*‖ *Frank J. Bruno*)

1. What are taste buds, located on the tongue?

2. What are the four basic taste sensations?

3. What are the four skin senses?

4. What skin sense can be induced by placing substantial pressure on the surface of the skin?

5. When do we usually experience an increase in cold?

6. What skin sense is induced by tissue damage?

7. How is the sense of smell also known?

8. How is the receptor organ that makes smell possible called?

9. How is kinesthesia also known?

10. What is kinesthesia?

11. How is the sense of balance also known?

12. What makes the sense of balance possible?

**Text for annotation:**

**SENSORY REGISTERS**

Consider what one intriguing memory experiment revealed about how sensory information first enters the memory system. As part of his doctoral research, George Sperling (1960) showed people three rows of three letters each for only 1/20th of a second. It was like trying to read by the flashes of a lightning storm. After the nine letters had disappeared from the screen, the subjects could recall only about half of them.

Why? Was it because they had insufficient time to see them? No, Sperling cleverly demonstrated that even at such lightning-flash speed, people actually *can* see and recall all the letters, but only momentarily. Rather than ask subjects to recall all nine letters at once, Sperling instead would sound a high, medium, or low tone immediately after the nine letters were flashed. This cue directed the subject to report only the letters of the top, middle, or bottom row, respectively.   
Now the subjects rarely missed a letter. Because they did not know in advance which row would be requested, all nine letters must have been momentarily available for recall.

Sperling's experiment revealed that we do have a fleeting photographic memory called *iconic memory.* For a moment, the eyes register an exact representation of a scene, and can recall any part of it in amazing detail. But only for a moment. If Sperling delayed the tone signal by as much as a second, the iconic memory was gone and the subjects once again recalled only about half of the letters. The visual screen clears quickly, as it must, lest new images be superimposed over old ones. For sound, the auditory sensory image, called *echoic memory,* disappears more slowly. The last few words spoken seem to linger for 3 or 4 seconds. Sometimes, just as you ask "What did you say?" you can hear in your mind the echo of what was said.

***5 семестр:*** 8 аудиторных часов

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| № | Название темы | Количество аудиторных часов |
| 1 | The Application of Psychology to Educational Problems | **2** |
| 2 | Special Education | **2** |
| 3 | The Education of Physically Handicapped Children | **2** |
| 4 | Deductive And Inductive Reasoning | **2** |

1. *Подготовить устные высказывания по темам:*

1. The Application of Psychology to Educational Problems

2. Special Education

1. *Прочитать и перевести тексты* “Emotions” *и* “Forming Concepts ”*, составив словарь незнакомых слов. Ответить на вопросы после текстов.*
2. *Составить аннотацию текста* “Knowing What We Know”.

**Topic 1: THE APPLICATION OF PSYCHOLOGY TO EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS**

Generally speaking, psychology is the study of the mind and how it works. The main issues studied by psychologists include learning cognition, intelligence, motivation, emotion, personality, and the extent to which individual differences are shaped by genetics o environment. The methods used in psychological research include observation, interviews, psychological testing, laboratory experimentation, and statistical analysis. The fields of psychology which are closely connected with education include child psychology, educational psychology, and school psychology.

Child psychology is the study of the psychological processes of children, specifically, how these processes differ from those of adults, how they develop from birth to the end of adolescence, and how and why they differ from one child to the next. The data of child psychology are gathered from a variety of sources. The principal topics of child psychology include language acquisition and development, personality development, and emotional and intellectual growth.

Educational psychology is a branch of psychology concerned with the psychological problems associated with teaching and learning. The optimization of teaching and learning is the main purpose of educational psychology. The educational psychologist studies the cognitive development of students as it affects learning and behaviour, their ability to take part in the creative process, the way in which students and teachers behave towards each other and affect each other, and the application of psychology to the art of teaching. Educational psychology provides teachers with methods to measure and test students' intelligence and their ability to learn.

School psychologists deal largely with psychological testing and student consultation in elementary and secondary schools. Psychological testing is the systematic use of tests to quantify psychophysical behaviour, abilities, and problems and to make predictions about psychological performance.

**Topic 2: SPECIAL EDUCATION**

Special education is the education of children who deviate socially, mentally, or physically from the average to such an extent that they require major modifications of usual school practices. The children include the emotionally disturbed, children who have learning disabilities, the gifted, the mentally retarded, those with impairments of vision, hearing, or speech, and those with orthopedic and neurological handicaps.

The Education of Children with Maladaptive Behaviour

Socially and emotionally maladjusted children are referred for special programs by parents or by teachers when they find it difficult to manage the child at home or in school. Autistic children make a separate part of maladjusted children. Autism is a severe mental illness that affects children and prevents them from communicating with other children or people. Psychiatrists together with social workers and teachers, determine the eligibility of maladjusted and autistic autistic children for special programs. Children with learning disabilities are assessed by psychoeducational diagnosticians, who through educational and psychological diagnostic tests determine the child's potential for learning and his level of achievement.

The Education of Gifted or Mentally Retarded Children

For the gifted and the mentally retarded, the primary criterion of identification is an intelligence test. If the child is high (for the gifted, generally above 125 IQ) or low (for the mentally retarded, below 75), he is considered for the special program. The determination is made by psychologists who in most cases must certify the child for eligibility for special programs.

The Education of Physically Handicapped Children

For children with sensory handicaps the evaluation of the problem is made by medical personnel. Speech therapists make a diagnosis for those with speech defects. Children with motor handicaps are sent to special programs upon the results of orthopedic or neurological examination by doctors, with supplementary ass psychological and educational diagnosticians.

Text for reading:

EMOTIONS

An emotion is generally a response of a person to a situation in which he finds himself. A situation which is out of the ordinary one for an individual is likely to result in emotional activity. This emotional activity is generally random and disorganized. It is accompanied by feelings of pleasantness or unpleasantness and universally associated with marked changes in the chemistry of the body.

Emotions are powerful reactions that have motivating effects on behaviour. Emotions are physiological and psychological responses that influence perception, learning, and performance. Unfortunately, there is no basic definition of emotions. For example, some people take the position that emotion is an entirely different process from motivation. Others say that emotions are simply one class of motives. Some define emotion subjectively – in terms of feelings experienced by the individual. Others see emotions as bodily changes. Most of these people have emphasized the reaction as the main component in emotion, but others concentrate on the perception of the situation that arouses the emotion or the effects of the emotion on ordinary behaviour.

We know an emotion is not an independent element which comes or goes at will. It is initiated by certain perceptions and accompanies the activities which are stimulated by the situation. We all know how much easier it is to work long hours on something we enjoy and how surprised we are to discover that we are suddenly fatigued after such activity. On the other hand, it is exceedingly difficult to work at something we dislike and find ourselves restless settling down to work at something with conscious effort and intent.

Most of our emotions are learned. We are born with a capacity for emotions and physiological structure capable of handling emotionally charged situations, but emotional behaviour as a reaction to particular objects or events is learned. A young child in such a situation as that of frustration may respond by an emotional storm. As he gets older he learns to inhibit the purely emotional response and to exhibit voluntarily controlled behaviour. As he learns to do this, emotional behaviour becomes less common and less intense. Uninhibited emotional responses amongst human adults are normally rare, and when an individual does exhibit outbreaks of rage, panic etc., these are recognised as pathological. They are one of the symptoms of regression or a going back to infantile modes of behaviour.

Throughout the life people may experience different kinds of emotions. The most characteristic for human beings are the so-called altruistic emotions. They may be of two types, i.e. sympathetic and disinterested emotions. We may experience the emotion of fear when we hear a scream of a frightened person or anger, when we hear a friend's voice raised angrily towards some person. The emotion called out in this way is called a sympathetic emotion. Similarly, we may feel anger at an insulting speech about another person which he has not himself heard. The emotion called out in this way on behalf of another person is called a disinterested emotion. The altruistic emotions are of obvious importance in social behaviour.

1. In what way do psychologists define emotions?
2. What definition do you think is the most significant in the psychological thought?
3. What is an emotional activity accompanied by?
4. What is an emotion initiated by?
5. Are our emotions learned or inborn?
6. What is a child's reaction to a situation characterized by?
7. Is it easy or difficult for a grown-up person to inhibit an emotional response?
8. What altruistic emotions do you know?
9. What is a sympathetic emotion called?
10. What is a disinterested emotion called?

**Text for reading:**

**FORMING CONCEPTS**

The study of thinking has a long and respectable tradition in both philosophy and psychology. William James, the founding personality of a school of psychology called **functionalism**, defined psychology as the science of mental life. And this is close to the commonsense view of psychology. Most people think of it in this way. It is the science of the mind; and the concept of the mind includes both our conscious awareness and our ability to think.

**Thinking** is a mental process characterized by the use of symbols and concepts to represent both inner and outer reality. A symbol is a word, mark, sign, drawing, or object that stands for something else. The process of thinking about thinking is called metathought.

**A concept** is a mental category. Concept is an idea that represents a class of objects or events. They are powerful tools because they allow us to think more abstractly, free from distracting details. It is a way in which we organize and simplify information. Concept formation is the process of classifying information into meaningful categories. Adults more often acquire concepts by learning or forming rules. For example, a triangle must be a closed shape with three sides made of straight lines. Rule learning is generally more efficient than examples, but examples remain important. It is unlikely that memorizing a series of rules would allow an uninitiated listener to accurately categorize punk, new wave, fusion, salsa, heavy metal, and rap music.

Concepts put the world of experience into mental boxes. There are three basic kinds of concepts: conjunctive, disjunctive and relational.

**A conjunctive concept** strings together perceived attributes. A conjunction in grammar has the function of joining words and phrases. Similarly, a conjunctive concept joins attributes to make a perceptual whole. It refers to a class of objects having more than one feature in common. Sometimes called "and" concepts: to belong to the concept class, an item must have "this feature and this feature and this feature." For example, a motorcycle must have two wheels and an engine and handle bars. The concept of a lemon is conjunctive because to most of us a lemon is an object that has a yellow skin and an elongated shape and a somewhat sour taste.

Concepts are formed by both positive and negative exemplars. A positive exemplar is an object or an idea that fits the concept that can be contained within it. A negative exemplar is an object or an idea that does not fit the concept that cannot be contained within it.

A disjunctive concept treats perceived attributes in either-or terms. It refers to objects that have at least one of several possible features. These are "either-or concepts." To belong, an item must have "this feature or that feature or another feature." In the game of baseball, a strike is either a swing and a miss or a pitch down the middle or a foul ball. The either-or quality of disjunctive concepts makes them difficult to learn.

A relational concept treats perceived attributes in terms of some connection between objects or ideas such as ―more than,‖ ―less than,‖ ―bigger than, ‖ ―more beautiful than,‖ and so forth. A concept such as ―cheapskate‖ is a relational concept.

Concepts have two types of meaning: denotative and connotative meaning. The denotative meaning of a word or concept is its exact definition. Connotative meaning is its emotional or personal meaning. Connotations of some one thing can differ.

1. How did William James define psychology?

2. What is thinking?

3. What is metathought?

4. What is a concept and concept formation?

5. How many kinds of concepts are there? What are they?

6. What kind of a concept treats perceived attributes in terms of some connection between objects or ideas such as «more than» or «less than»?

7. What kind of a concept strings together perceived attributes?

8. Which exemplar identifies an object or an idea that fits a concept that can be contained within it?

9. In what way does connotative meaning differ from denotative one?

**Text for annotation:**

**KNOWING WHAT WE KNOW**

Sometimes we know more than we are aware of. Other times—perhaps when taking an exam—we discover that we do not know something as well as we thought we did. The difficulties of knowing what you know are strikingly evident in the amnesic patients who know how to do things without knowing that they know. The parallel to learning during infancy is intriguing: We recall nothing, yet what we learn reaches far into our future.

How accurate are we at assessing what we know? John Shaughnessy explored this question in an ex­periment with two groups of Hope College students. One group was (1) repeatedly shown dozens of factual statements, (2) asked to judge the likelihood that they would later remember each fact, and then (3) actually tested on their recall. Students in this group tended to feel fairly confident of their knowledge, even on the questions they later missed. Instead of constantly reading the statements, students in a second group also spent much of their time evaluating their knowledge by answering practice test questions. These students learned the facts just as well as did the mere-repetition group. What is more, the practice-test group could better discriminate what they did and didn't know. Thus, self-testing not only encourages active rehearsal, it also can help you to know what you know—and thus to focus your study time on what you do not yet know. As the British statesman Benjamin Disraeli once said, "To be conscious that you are ignorant is a great step to knowledge."

***6 семестр:*** 4 аудиторных часов

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| № | Название темы | Количество аудиторных часов |
| 1 | Careers in Psychology | **2** |
| 2 | My Future Profession | **2** |

1. *Подготовить устные высказывания по темам:*

1. Careers in Psychology

2. My Future Profession

1. *Прочитать и перевести тексты* “Learned Aspects of Perception” *и* “Living in a Three –dimensional World ”*, составив словарь незнакомых слов. Ответить на вопросы после текстов.*
2. *Составить аннотацию текста* “Learning by Heart”.

**Topic 1: CAREERS IN PSYCHOLOGY**

There are many careers in psychology. Psychology includes both research, through which we learn fundamental things about human and animal behaviour, and practice, through which that knowledge is applied in helping people to solve problems. Psychology is an extremely varied field. Psychologists conduct research, serve as consultants, diagnose and treat people, and teach future psychologists and other types of students. They test intelligence and personality.

As scientists, psychologists use scientific methods of observation, experimentation,

and analysis. But psychologists also need to be creative in the way they apply scientific findings.

Psychologists are frequently innovators, inventing new approaches to people and societies. They develop theories and test them in their research. As they collect new information, these findings can be used by practitioners in their work with clients and patients.

As practitioners psychologists work in laboratories, hospitals, courtrooms, schools and universities, prisons, and corporate offices. They work with business executives, performers, and athletes to reduce stress and improve performance. They advise lawyers on jury selection and cooperate with educators on school reform. Immediately following a disaster, such as a plane crash or bombing, psychologists help victims and bystanders recover from the shock of the event.

Involved in all aspects of our world, psychologists must keep up with what is happening around us. When you’re a psychologist, your education never ends.

Most psychologists say they love their work. They say that they have a variety of daily tasks and the flexibility of their schedules.

The study of psychology is a good preparation for many other professions. Many employers are interested in the skills of collecting, analyzing, and interpreting data, and their experience with statistics and experimental design.

Psychology is a very diverse field with hundreds of career paths. We all know about caring for people with mental and emotional disorders. Some other jobs like helping with the design of computer systems are less well known. What all psychologists have in common is an interest in the minds and behaviors of both humans and animals.

**Topic 2: MY FUTURE PROFESSION**

I am a student of Brest State University Psychology-pedagogical Faculty. In a several years I’ll graduate from the University and become a professional psychologist. To become a good psychologist one must know much. So at the University we are taught various general and special subject such as children psychology, philosophy, pedagogy, general psychology, psychodiagnostics, English, history of Belarus.

There are many careers in psychology. Psychology includes both research, through which we learn fundamental things about human and animal behaviour, and practice, through which that knowledge is applied in helping people to solve problems. Psychology is an extremely varied field. Psychologists conduct research, serve as consultants, diagnose and treat people, and teach future psychologists and other types of students. They test intelligence and personality.

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Involved in all aspects of our world, psychologists must keep up with what is happening around us. When you are a psychologist, your education never ends. What all psychologists have in common is an interest in the minds of both humans and animals.

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Psychology is a very diverse field with hundreds of career paths. We all know about caring for people with mental and emotional disorders. Some other jobs like helping with the design of computer systems are less well-known. Whether I will be a good psychologist or become successful in some other field of social life remains to be seen. But I'm sure that my knowledge received at the University will help me succeed in my future work.

**Text for reading:**

**LEARNED ASPECTS OF PERCEPTION**

The Gestalt laws may play a primary role, but learning certainly plays a secondary, and important, role.

Let‘s say that a simple melody is played on the piano in the presence of Tina, a two-week-old infant. Assume that Tina has had little or no experience with hearing music. Does she now actually perceive a melody in somewhat the same way that you perceive it? Or does she just hear a lot of disconnected tones? You can put yourself in Tina‘s position to some extent by imagining yourself listening to the music of another country, one that uses a tonal scale and patterns of harmony that are unfamiliar to you. When you first hear a song, it may seem to have little or no pattern. However, hearing it two or three times will help you to perceive the pattern. To the extent that you, or Tina, can hear any pattern at all on the first presentation, it is probably due to the Gestalt laws. The sharpening of perception on repeated presentations can be attributed to learning.

One way to explain this sharpening of perception is to suggest that patterns of stimulation set off chain reactions in neurons located in the association areas of the brain‘s cortex. Each time a given stimulus is presented, the same set of neurons fire. The research of the Canadian psychologist Donald O. Hebb suggests that repeated firings form a **cell assembly,** a stable group of neurons that are used over and over by the brain to create a representation of the external pattern. A pattern can, of course, be quite complex. If this is so, a given cell assembly may represent only a portion of a pattern. Hebb called a set of cell assemblies grouped together to form a larger pattern a **phase sequence.**

The existence of cell assemblies helps account for a memory of patterns and perceptual objects. When you hear a melody or recognize something you have seen before, it is quite possibly because an established cell assembly is firing. Learning also plays a role in perception because we are conscious beings who attach labels to perceptual objects. This brings us to the **cognitive hypothesis** in perception, the hypothesis that we not only perceive, but know what we are perceiving. **Cognitive learning,** learning in which consciousness plays an important role, is an important aspect of the perceptual process.

An **illusion** is a false perception, a perception that does not fit an objective description of a stimulus situation. An illusion is usually associated with a particular sense. Consequently, there are optical illusions, auditory illusions, and so forth. Illusions tend to be remarkably stable. They affect most normal observers in the same way. For example, for almost all of us the Moon is perceived to be larger when low and near the horizon than when it is high and overhead.

It is important to distinguish the concept of an illusion from a delusion and a hallucination. A **delusion** is a false belief. If Ray, a schizophrenic mental patient, believes that he has an eye with X-ray vision on the back of his head, this is a delusion. A **hallucination** is a perception created by the individual. It has no relationship to reality at all. If Ray sees and hears an invisible companion that nobody else can see or hear, this is a hallucination. Illusions are thought to be normal and experienced by most of us. Delusions and hallucinations are thought to be abnormal and experienced in an idiosyncratic fashion.

1. What can the sharpening of a perception on repeated presentations of a stimulus be attributed to?

2. What is a cell assembly according to Hebb?

3. How is the hypothesis that we not only perceive, but know we perceive called?

4. What is an illusion?

5. What is a delusion?

6. What perception is called a hallucination?

**Text for reading:**

**LIVING IN A THREE-DIMENSIONAL WORLD**

One of the fascinating questions of perception is this one: Why do we perceive a world of rounded shapes, of near and far things, of *depth* instead of a flat world with one surface? A second, related question is: How is this accomplished?

Depth perception is made possible by various *cues,* signals or stimuli that provide an observer with information. Depth perception is made possible by cues arising from binocular vision and monocular vision.

**Binocular vision** is vision with two eyes. The principal cue for depth perception associated with binocular vision is **retinal disparity.** The pupils of the eyes are about three inches apart. This gives the right eye a somewhat different view of a scene than the one obtained with the left eye. Notice that although you sense two images, you only perceive one. (This is another example of the difference between sensation and perception.) This is sometimes called the **zipper function** of the brain, the capacity of the visual portion of the cortex to integrate two images into a meaningful whole. The whole image, in part because of retinal disparity, appears to be three-dimensional.

**Monocular vision** is vision with one eye. If a person is deprived of binocular vision, then he or she can still perceive depth with the assistance of monocular cues. (Although the loss of the use of an eye *impairs* depth perception, it does not destroy it completely.) **Monocular cues** are available to one eye. These are the kinds of cues that give a landscape painting depth. Although you normally look at such a painting with both eyes open, in this case depth perception is not arising because of retinal disparity. Close one eye and look at the painting. The perception of depth will remain.

A first monocular cue is **linear perspective,** the tendency of parallel lines to seem to converge as they approach the horizon. Linear perspective was referred to earlier in connection with the Moon illusion. A second monocular cue is **interposition,** a cue created when one object blocks some portion of another object. If a person is standing in front of a tree, and the tree is partly blocked, it is easy to see that the tree is behind, not in front of, the person.

A third monocular cue is **shadows.** Shadows are differences in illumination gradients. These tend to help us see rounded surfaces as convex or concave. A fourth monocular cue is **texture gradient.** A texture gradient is perceived when we can see less detail in far away objects than those that are closer to us. Such a gradient appears spontaneously when we look at a field strewn with rocks.

A fifth monocular cue is **motion parallax,** the tendency when moving forward fairly rapidly to perceive differential speeds in objects that are passing by and in those that are being approached. For example, in a traveling car, nearby telephone poles approach rapidly and then flash by. Look down the road. The telephone poles seem to be approaching slowly. If you can see telephone poles very far away, they seem to be almost stationary.

All of these monocular cues work together to enhance depth perception.

Telepathy belongs to a larger category of phenomena called **extrasensory perception.** Extrasensory perception, or **ESP,** is the capacity to be aware of external events without the use of one of the conventional senses such as vision or hearing. ESP is referred to as the *sixth sense,* there are at least seven readily identified senses. ESP should more accurately be called the *eighth sense.*

There are three kinds of extrasensory perception: (1) precognition, (2) telepathy, and (3) clairvoyance. **Precognition** is the power to know what will happen in the future. Living almost five hundred years ago, the French physician and astrologer Nostradamus is one of the more famous individuals in history purported to have had precognitive powers.

**Telepathy** is the power to send and receive mental messages. The ability to read the minds of people who can‘t read yours is also considered to be a telepathic power. A spy with this ability would have a useful psychological tool.

**Clairvoyance** is the power to have visions and ―see‖ something out of the range of normal vision. (The word *clairvoyance* has French roots meaning ―clear seeing.‖) Some clairvoyants are asserted to be able to give medical readings and visualize an illness in another person in the same way that an X-ray machine can. A person who can combine the two powers of precognition and clairvoyance is thought to be able to both predict and visualize future events. The term *seer* implies an ability to combine these powers.

Although not a form of ESP, there is another power often associated with it. This is **psychokinesis** or **PK.** Psychokinesis is the power to move objects using only energy transmitted by the mind.

All four of the phenomena mentioned above are combined into a general class of mental abilities called **psi powers,** powers of the mind that are thought to transcend the conventional laws of physics and our ordinary understanding of natural science. Psi powers are sometimes also called ―wild talents.It is not possible at this time to make a simple statement saying that psychology either accepts psi abilities as real or rejects them as false. It *can* be asserted that many psychologists—perhaps most—are unwilling to accept the reality of these phenomena. They don‘t believe that the data are sufficiently convincing. The reality of psi powers is still open to question.

(*adopted from “Psychology: A Self-Teaching Guide* *Frank J. Bruno*).

1. How is binocular vision defined?

2. What is the principal cue for depth perception arising from binocular vision?

3. What kind of vision is monocular one?

4. What are the five monocular cues?

5. How is the tendency of parallel lines to seem to converge as they approach the horizon called?

6. What monocular cue are differential speeds associated with?

7. What are the three kinds of extrasensory perception?

8. How is the power to know what will happen in the future called?

9 What is telepathy?

**Text for annotation:**

**LEARNING BY HEART**

Some people have good memories, and can learn easily long poems by heart. But they often forget them as quickly as they learn them. There are other people who can only remember things when they repeat them many times, and then they don't forget them.

Charles Dickens, the famous English author, said he could walk down any long street in London and then tell you the name of every shop he had passed. Many of the great men of the world have had wonderful memories.

A good memory is a good help in learning a language. Everybody learns his own language by remembering what he hears when he is a small child, and some children — like boys and girls who live abroad with their parents — seem to learn two languages almost as easily as one. In school it is not so easy to learn a second language because the pupils have so little time for it, and they are busy with other subjects as well.

The best way for most of us to remember things is to join them in our mind with something which we know already, or which we easily remember because we have a picture of it in our mind. That is why it is better to learn words in sentences, not by themselves; or to see, or do, or feel what a word means when we first use it.

The human mind is rather like a camera, but it takes photographs not only of what we see but of what we feel, hear, smell and taste. And there is much work to be done before we can make a picture remain forever in the mind.

Memory is the diary that we all carry about with us.

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2. Голованев, В. В. Английский язык для психологов / В. В. Голованев. – Минск : Тетра Системс, 2005.
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**ГРАММАТИЧЕСКИЙ МАТЕРИАЛ**

**ДЛЯ САМОСТОЯТЕЛЬНОГО ИЗУЧЕНИЯ**

*Рекомендуемые учебники для изучения грамматического материала:*

1. Murphy, Raymond. English Grammar in Use / Raymond Murphy. – Cambridge University Press, 2003. – 350 с.
2. Практическая грамматика английского языка для среднего и продвинутого уровней. Под ред. Л.М. Лещёвой. В 2-х ч. – Минск: Акад. упр. при Президенте Респ. Беларусь, 2004.
3. Христорождественская, В.Н. Intermediate English (в 3-х ч.) / В.Н. Христорождественская. – Минск : ООО «Плопресс», 1998.

Существительное: множественное число существительных, притяжательный падеж.

Определенный, неопределенный, нулевой артикль.

Личные, притяжательные, указательные, относительные, вопросительные, неопределенные местоимения.

Прилагательные, степени сравнения прилагательных.

Наречие, степени сравнения наречий.

Формальные признаки сказуемого: позиция в предложении (повествовательном, вопросительном).

Временная система изъявительного наклонения.

Согласование времен изъявительного наклонения.

Условное наклонение.

Неличные формы глагола: причастия настоящего и прошедшего времени, отглагольное прилагательное, деепричастие, герундий.

Строевые слова – средства связи между элементами предложения.

Побуждение к действию / просьба – глагол в повелительной форме.

Средства выражения долженствования / необходимости / желательности.

Структура сложноподчиненного предложения.

Причинно-следственные отношения – придаточные предложения (причины, следствия).

**GRAMMAR TEST**

**Active Voice Tense forms in comparison**

**1. Open the brackets putting the verbs into the appropriate form.**

**(A)**

I am a doctor and I have to drive a lot. I (1) (to drive) for twenty years. For all that time the police never (2) (to stop) me. But last Tuesday police officers (3) (to catch) me for speeding. It was afternoon. I (4) (to drive) fast because I (5) (to be) late. I (6) (to go) to the airport to meet a friend. I was late because a patient (7) (to telephone) before I (8) (to leave) the house. The police (9) (to wait) at the side road outside town. When they (10) (to see) me go past, they (11) (to follow) me and (12) (to stop) me. They (13) (to tell) me 1 was booked for speeding. I (14) (to try) to explain to them that my friend's plane (15) (to land) a few minutes before and he (16) (to wait) for me, but they (17) (not to want) to listen to my excuse. They (18) (to say) 1(19) (to have) to pay $50 the next day. I paid, of course. But since then I never (20) (to violate) traffic rules.

**(B)**

David William (21) (to have) such a terrible time this year that he ought to be in the Guiness Book of Records.

The trouble (22) (to start) one morning last January when David (23) (to find) that his car (24) (to disappear) from outside his house. He (25) (not to see) it ever since.

In March he (26) (to buy) a new car, but he (27) (not to have) it for more than a week when someone (28) (to crash) into the back of it. These disasters (29) (to continue) for more than a year right up to the present time. Two days ago David (30) (to sit) on a seat that someone (31) (to finish) painting only some minutes before. He (32) (to wear) a new suit he (33) (to buy) only the previous week.

The worst thing happened in August. David (34) (to spend) 3 days of his holiday at airports because of strikes. When he (35) (to arrive) home finally, he (36) (to discover) that someone (37) (to break) into his house. The burglars (38) (to steal) his video-recorder and TV-set. David doesn't know what he (39) (to do) to deserve all this bad luck. But he (40) (to hope) his luck will change soon.

**(C)**

1) Two days ago I (41) (to put) an ad in the local newspaper so that I could find a buyer for my old car. Yesterday I (42) (to sell) it. A man who (43) (to look) for an old car (44) (to buy) it. Today a friend of mine told me that he (45) (to want) to buy my old car, but he was too late. By the time he (46) (to talk) to me, I already (47) (to sell) my car.

2) After the teacher (48) (to return) the test papers to the students in class tomorrow, the students (49) (to receive) their next assignment.

3) Ever since they (50) (to build) the Taj Mahal three centuries ago, it has always been described as the most beautiful building in the world. A Turkish architect (51) (to design) it and it (52) (to take) 20.000 workers 20 years to complete it. Though it is so ancient, I'm sure, people always (53) (to like) it.

**(D)**

"Dear Sirs,

I (54) (to want) to complain to you about some fashion boots I (55) (to buy) from your Westborough branch last Wednesday. When I (56) (to put) them on for the first time at the weekend, it (57) (to rain) and after a few minutes the boots (58) (to let) the water in. The next day I took the boots to your shop and asked the assistant who (59) (to sell) them to me to replace the boots. But she said she (60) (not to replace) the boots because I (61) (to wear) already them. But how could I have seen the defect without wearing them? I can't believe that boots are made to wear in dry weather only! And I (62) (not to want) the boots which (63) (not to be) waterproof. I'll be grateful if you (64) (to send) me a replacement pair that will not let water in.

Look forward to your response.

Sincerely yours

Mary Crawford."

**(E)**

It (65) (to rain) when I (66) (to wake) up last Saturday. It always (67) (to rain) when I am not working. We (68) (to plan) to go to the seaside but in the end we (69) (to decide) to go to the theatre instead. We (70) (to miss) the bus and (71) (to arrive) late. We (72) (to arrange) to meet Joe outside the theatre and he (73) (to wait) for twenty minutes when we (74) (to get) there. The play already (75) (to start) when we (76) (to go) in.

It's Monday again today, and I (77) (to work) as usual. I (78) (to sit) here in the office for the last two hours, but I (79) (not to do) much work yet -1 (80) (to feel) I am fed up with work. I already (81) (to have) my holiday this year. I (82) (to go) to Scotland in July and, of course, it (83) (to rain) every day. Tomorrow I (84) (to book) a holiday for next April in Spain.

**(F)**

Will Kelogg, famous for Kelogg's cornflakes, was taken out of school at thirteen because he (85) (to be) a slow learner. Since he (86) (to fail) as a salesman, his brother, a doctor, (87) (to give) him a job in his hospital. He (88) (to shine) shoes for ten years when a fortunat» baking accident in the hospital kitchen (89) (to give) him an idea for Kelogg's cornflakes. This breakfast cereal already (90) (to become) one of the most successful business ideas. Every morning thousands of people (91) (to have) cornflakes for breakfast.

**(G)**

Mrs Winfred Weave (92) (to get involved) in politics ever since she (93) (to be) a student. She (94) (to go) to Hull University, where she (95) (to study) agriculture. She (96) (to have) a distinguished career in politics and (97) (to represent) her constituency for 30 years.

For the past few months she (98) (to write) her memoirs, although she insists her political career (99) (not to finish) yet. Who knows, maybe in some years she (100) (to become) a prominent politician.

from *Практическая грамматика английского языка для среднего и*

*продвинутого уровней. Под ред. Л.М. Лещёвой. Часть ІІ. – Минск:*

*Акад. упр. при Президенте Респ. Беларусь, 2004. - c. 278-280.*

**GRAMMAR TEST**

**Passive Voice Tense forms in comparison**

**1. Choose the correct variant:**

1) Nylon … since 1938 and today it … in many things.

A) has been produced; is being found

B) has produced; is found

C) has been produced; is found

D) has been produced; has been found

2) Wait for a while .He … now.

A) is being interviewed C) has been interviewed

B) is interviewed D) will be interviewed

3) She … about the results of the research as soon as it ….. .

A) will have been informed; is finished

B) will be informed; will be finished

C) will be informed; is finished

D) will have been informed; will have been finished

4) The Houses of Parliament … between 1849 and 1857.

A) were being built C) were built

B) was built D) had been built

5) Acid rain … by burning coal or oil

A) is caused C) has been caused

B) is being caused D) has caused

6) Boss says I ….. a pay-rise.

A) was giving C) will given

B) will be given D) was be given

7) Two million books ….. to America every year.

A) are being sent C) were being sent

B) will send D) are sent

8) The students of our Institute ….. every opportunity to master the language.

A) give C) had been given

B) was being given D) are given

9) The room ….. for a month.

A) hasn't lived in C) has not been lived in

B) is not lived in D) is not being lived in

10) By the time she comes, the problem ….. .

A) will have discussed C) will have been discussed

B) will being discussed D) will be discussed

11) By the time Mr. Brown returned, the old fireplace ….. .

A) had been taken out C) was taken out

B) had taken out D) has been taken out

12) The cats ….. hen Mary entered the room.

A) were fed C) had fed

B) fed D) were being fed

13) The new night club ….. by the council last week.

A) was closed C) closed

B) had been closed D) had closed

14) I'm going home now because all the work ….. .

A) is doing C) does

B) has been done D) has done

15) Jim's house is very modern. It …... only 2 years ago.

A) had been built C) was being built

B) built D) was built

16) This piece of music ….. yet. I have just composed it.

A) hasn't been recorded C) hasn't recorded

B) wasn't recorded D) wasn't being recorded

17) This tree is very old. It ….. in the 19-th century.

A) had been planted C) was planted

B) planted D) was being planted

18) The house ….. at this time yesterday.

A) was painting C) was being painted

B) had been painted D) was painted

19) A valuable painting ….. from the Art Gallery last night.

A) was stolen C) stole

B) had been stolen D) had stole

20) By the time I arrived, all the tickets ….. .

A) had been sold C) were sold

B) had sold D) sold

21) The garages ….. every day

A) are being cleaned C) are cleaned

B) clean D) will clean

22) Two hundred people ….. to the wedding last week.

A) were invited C) were being invited

B) invited D) have been invited

23) A new spaceship ….. by our scientists now.

A) is being examined C) has examined

B) is examined D) has been examined

24) After the work ….. , they went home.

A) was finished C) was being finished

B) had finished D) had been finished

25) This letter recently ….. by the secretary.

A) has brought C) is brought

B) has been brought D) was brought

26) The meal … now.

A) is preparing C) will prepare

B) has been prepared D) is being prepared

27) By the time I returned from work, my new washing machine ….. .

A) had been delivered C) has been delivered

B) was delivered D) was being delivered

28) We ….. all the time we were there

A) were watched C) watched

B) had been watching D) were being watched

29) A plan to build a helicopter near Westminster ... last year.

A) was considered C) had been considered

B) considered D) has been considered

30) The burglar ….. yesterday.

A) arrested C) was arrested

B) had been arrested D) was being arrested

31) They didn't leave the restaurant until the bill ….. .

A) was paid C) had been paid

B) had paid D) was being paid

32) When I entered the room, the politician ….. .

A) was being interviewed C) had been interviewed

B) interviewed D) has interviewed

33) The prisoners ….. to prison now.

A) are taken C) take

B) are being taken D) will be taken

34) When I returned, I noticed that the dog ….. yet.

A) wasn't fed C) hadn't fed

B) hadn't been fed D) fed

35) The window ... now.

A) is being replaced C) will have replaced

B) will replace D) will being replaced

36) Millions of pounds' worth of damage ….. by a storm which swept across the north

of England last night. (refer to the Present)

A) has been caused C) caused

B) had been caused D) were caused

37) Too many offices ….. in London over the last 10 years.

A)were built C) have been built

B) are building D) had been built

38) When she discovered that all the biscuits ….. she got angry.

A) were eaten C) had eaten

B) had been eaten D) ate

39) I hope that the missing money ….. soon.

A) will be found C) is found

B) has been found D) will find

40) The antique car ….. by an expert, at the moment

A) is restored C) is being restored

B) is restoring D) has been restored

**2. Open the brackets. Use the proper tense and voice form.**

41) The new proposal (to discuss) at our next meeting.

42) The man (to send) to prison for 6 months after he (to find) guilty of fraud.

43) Much of London (to destroy) by the fire in the 17-th century.

44) The Government is apparently winning the fight against inflation. A steady fall (to record) over the last 6 months.

45) The builders will start work as soon as the plans (to approve).

46) The motorist (to disqualify) some five years ago.

47) They say this book (to publish) next year.

48) The naughty boy (to teach) a good lesson by his friends.

49) The meat must be nearly ready. It (to cook) for nearly an hour.

50) I read in the paper a few weeks ago that Richard (to make) Vice-president of the company.

51) Their behaviour was so outrageous that we (to force) to leave the house.

52) The letter (to hand) to Lord Henry on the day of his departure.

53) Mind, you (to punish) if you disobey my orders.

54) The preparations for the party just (to finish) and the guests are arriving.

55) When I came into the kitchen I smelt something delicious. My favourite cookies (to bake) in the oven.

56) You can't use the fax now. It (to fix) at the moment.

57) Many towns (to destroy) by the earthquake in Japan last year.

58) You ever (to teach) how to play chess?

59) The exposition (to open) when we drove up to the picture gallery.

60) I can't believe my eyes! My book (to publish) already!

61) The helicopter (to construct) in Russia many years ago.

62) You'll have your copy soon, the contract (to type) now.

63) The sportsmen (to give) instructions before the match.

64) I'm happy as 1 just (to allow) to stay here for an extra day.

65) I wonder, when my project paper (to publish) (refer to the Future).

66) We felt happy that the car (to repair) the next day.

67) When they joined us, we already (to show) a lot of places of interest.

68) The house (to repaint) since they moved out.

69) She greatly (to impress) by the size and beauty of our capital every she visits Minsk.

70) He escaped when he (to move) from one prison to another.

71) They invited Jack, but Tom (not to invite).

72) The escaped convict (to arrest) in a few days.

73) After a million pounds (to spend) on the project, they decided that it impracticable and gave it up.

74) He said he (to involve) in an accident that month.

75) The bomb (to carry) to a safe place when it exploded.

76) The water level (to check) every week.

77) A whistle (to blow) if there is an emergency.

78) Your shoes (to mend) at the moment.

79) The children already (to tell) about the party.

80) The outside of the ship (to paint) when the accident happened.

**GRAMMAR TEST: MODAL VERBS**

**l. Supply the modal verbs *can*, *could*, *to be able to*,or *managed to*.**

1) A good 1500-metre runner ... run the race in under four minutes.

2) Bill is so unfit he ... run at all!

3) Our baby is only nine months and he ... stand up.

4) When I was younger, I ... speak Italian much better than I... now.

5) ... she speak German well? - No, she ... speak German at all.

6) He ... draw or paint at all when he was a boy, bat now he is a famous artist.

7) After weeks of training, I ... swim a length of the baths underwater.

8) It took a long time, but in the end Tony ... save enough to buy his car.

9) Did you buy any fresh fish in the market?- No, I ... get any.

10) For days the rescuers looked for the lost climbers in the snow. On the forth day they saw them and ... reach them without too much trouble.

**2. Rewrite these sentences using the modal verb *can/could*.**

11) Do you see that man over there?

12) I smell something burning.

13) I understood what he said.

14) Did you understand what he said?

15) I don't hear anything!

**3. Rewrite these sentences so that each sentence contains the modal verb *can* and the meaning remains the same.**

16) I knew how to skate before I was five.

17) I hope one day we will meet again in more favourable circumstances.

18) It is still very cold here in March.

19) Some supermarket beef tends to be rather tough.

20) In the end we managed to communicate with sign language.

21) If you don't feel you'll make a contribution, just say so.

**4. Fill in the gaps using the modal verbs *can* or *to be able to*.**

22) They asked if they ... go.

23) I ... solve her problems for her.

24) I'd like to ... write as well as that.

25) ... you speak Spanish?

26) I might... help you.

**5. Insert the modal verbs *may* or *can* into each gap.**

27) The engines don't seem to be working properly. There ... be some ice in them.

28) Planes flying in cold countries in winter ... have problems because of ice on the wings.

29) Both engines have failed. I'll try to find a place to land. We haven't much chance of surviving, but we ... be lucky.

30) The engines were not working properly. The pilot said he thought there ... be some ice on the wings.

31) He said there wasn't much chance of surviving, but we ... be lucky.

32) He told me that planes flying in cold countries in winter ... have problems because of ice on the wings.

**GRAMMAR TEST: CONDITIONALS**

**1. Choose the correct answer.**

1) If she ... not so slowly she would enjoy the party.

A) were B) is C) will be

2) If you ... my library book I will have to buy a new one.

A) will lose B) lost C) loose

3) If she ... you were in hospital she would have visited you.

A) had known B) knew C) would have known

4) I wish I ... rich.

A) would be B) were C) had been

5) I wish I ... his opinion before.

A) would know B) had known C) knew

6) I wish I ... to the Tower when I was in London.

A) had gone B) went C) would go

7) I wish I ... much yesterday.

A) didn't eat B) hadn't eaten C) were not eating

8) If she ... not so slowly she would enjoy the party.

A) were B) is C) will be

**2. Match the two parts of the sentences.**

9) He wouldn't have become so strong;... a) ... I wouldn't be worried now.

10)They would have come... b) ... I would have gone to the library.

11) If they had been ready the day before... c) ... we wouldn't have come so early.

12) If I hadn't needed the book... d) ... unless he had done sports.

13) If they had had a city map... e) ... they wouldn't have been lost.

14) If you had warned us... f) ... if Jane had invited them.

15) He wouldn't know much... g) ... unless you had agreed with us.

16) We wouldn't have wasted so much time... h) ... unless he had read much.

17) If you had sent me a telegram... i) ... they would have taken their exam.

18) We had never done this ... j) if you have bought everything beforehand

**3. Correct the errors, if necessary.**

19) If I knew her well I will visit her.

20) If I were you I would have visited Jane yesterday.

21) If I have a computer I would learn Computer Studies.

22) If the weather would be nice tomorrow we'll go on excursion.

23) You did not miss the plane if you had taken a taxi.

24) I wish you have a car.

25) I wish things were different in the past.

26) I wish the weather were warmer.

27) I wish I did not decide to work in New York.

28) I wish I did not go to bed early yesterday.

**4. Complete the following radio programme by putting the verbs in brackets into the correct form.**

**Interviewer:** Welcome once again to our weekly programme in which we ask the questions "If you (29) \_\_\_ (be) alone on a tropical island for a month, what two items (30) \_\_\_ you \_\_\_ (choose) to take with you and why?" My two guests are racing driver Charles Brown and journalist Helen Howk, Charles?

**Charles:** Well, I think (31) \_\_\_ (get) very bored on this island if I (32) \_\_\_ (not have) anything to do. So, I (33) \_\_\_ (take) a knife and a ball of string. Then I (34) \_\_\_ (be able) to make useful things to catch food, and, maybe, build some kind of house to live in.

**Interviewer:** (35) \_\_\_ you \_\_\_ (try) to escape from the island?

**Charles:** If I (36) \_\_\_ (manage) to make a boat, I think I (37) \_\_\_ (try).

**Interviewer:** Helen, what about you?

**Helen:** Well, I definitely (38) \_\_\_ (not try) to escape. I'm totally impractical. So, if I (39) \_\_\_ (try) to make anything, I'm sure it (40) \_\_\_ (fall) to pieces very quickly. No, if I (41) \_\_\_ (have) to spend a month on the island, I (42) \_\_\_ (want) to have a good book and a pair of sunglasses.

**Charles:** But how (43) \_\_\_ you \_\_\_ (catch) things to eat if you (44) \_\_\_ (not have) any tools?

**Helen:** Oh, I expect there (45) \_\_\_ (be) plenty of fruit on the island. And I'm sure it (46) \_\_\_ (not hurt) me if I (47) \_\_\_ (not eat) meat or fish for a month.

**Interviewer:** (48) \_\_\_ either of you \_\_\_ (be) lonely?

**Charles:** Definitely. I (49) \_\_\_ (find) it very difficult if I (50) \_\_\_ (not speak) to anyone for a month.

**Helen:** I think (51) \_\_\_ (enjoy) the peace and quiet at first, but after a couple of weeks, yes, I (52) \_\_\_ (begin) to feel lonely.

**Interviewer:** Charles and Helen, thank you very much.

**5. Make up sentences.**

53) She / it / so / have / had / fallen / slippery / been / wouldn't / if/ not

54) had /1 / you / chosen / would /1 / have / If/ been / green / been / the / one

55) lot / if / would / trained / the / they / have / had / Our / won / a / team /

game

56) would / to / ill / place / have / your / if/ been / had / He / come / not / he

57) lay / would / gone /country / had / if / not / a / have / it / I / the / been / nasty / to

58) it / were / wish / now / summer /1

59) I / had /1 / been / wish / so / not / modest

60) redundant / been / made / If /1 / only / hadn't

**GRAMMAR TEST: VERBALS**

**1. Put in the correct form of the Infinitive choosing from А, В or С**

1) There was nothing now … for.

A) to wait B) to be waiting C) to be waited

2) She put on her wedding dress and turned round … .

A) to be admired B) to be abmiring C) to admire

3) He appeared to have plenty of money, which was said … for a couple of years at that company.

A) to be saved B) to save C) to have been saved

4) Stan seemed … silence intently, waiting for Susan to dismiss the subject.

A) to keep B) to be keeping C) to have been keeping

5) For the last few days she happened … to nobody but strange men.

A) to talk B) to be talking C) to have been talking

6) He is said … away a small fortune. So, he is safe.

A) to put B) to have put C) to be put

7) She couldn't help but … thankful for what her uncle had done for her sake.

A) to feel B)feel C) be feeling

8) You'd better … me back to my parents at once, or they' 11 be really angry with you.

A) take B) to take C) be taken

9) I'd rather … than ask him for another penny.

A) die B) to die C) to be dying

10) Jackie felt her blood in her veins when she saw what was left of the house.

A) to freeze B) freeze C) have frozen

**2. Complete the sentences choosing the verbs from А, В or С**

11) We … to leave the building as soon as possible.

A) hoped B) succeeded C) dreamed

12) Fred … in solving the problem.

A) failed B) succeeded C) looked forward

13) I … to going away next week.

A) hope B) am thinking C) am looking forward

14) Mary … to buy me a drink.

A) promised B) insisted C) objected

15) The police … the criminal lie on the ground.

A) forced B) allowed C) made

**3. Complete choosing the right preposition from A, B or С**

16) The President began his speech … explaining his point of view on the situation in the area.

A) in B) by C) with

17) Rachel seemed upset … hearing the news.

A) after B) before C) by

18) Melany left the company after her unsuccessful interview … being confused.

A) by B) without C) with

19) In many countries of the Middle East husbands prevent their wives … taking a job outside their homes.

A) against B) of C) from

20) Furious with his employees … turning up late each morning, the director decided to have a serious talk with them.

A) at B)for C) on

21) Nothing is gained … delaying.

A) without B) in C) by

22) The Foreign Minister was accused … interfering in the political affairs of another state.

A) of B)for C) with

23) Mary wouldn't dream … going to Spain.

A) of B) about C) on

24) We were warned … signing any contract with the company without a lawyer.

A) about B) against C) from

25) … discussing the future contract a lot of factors are to be taken into consideration.

A) in B) by C) at

**4. Complete with the correct form of the Verbals choosing them from A, В or С**

26) When Paul went out he remembered … the letter. He put it into the mail box.

A) posting B) having posted C) to post

27) Jane regrets … the firm after twenty years.

A) to leave B) leaving C) having been left

28) After approving the agenda we went on ... finance.

A) to discuss B) discussing C) discuss

29) Angela enjoys … tricks at people.

A) to play B) to have played C) playing

30) Julia has been ill but now she is beginning … better.

A) to get B) getting C) be getting

31) You are looking great. You seem … weight.

A) to lose B) losing C) to have lost

**5. Complete the sentences using the correct form of Participles from the verbs in brackets.**

32) … seven hundred miles, he was now near the border of the United States. (travel)

33) There was a silly smile … about the corners of his mouth. (play)

34) He had a beautiful house, and … a man of taste he had furnished it admirably. (be)

35) … him by his figure and his movements, he was still young. (judge)

36) … by the beauty of the twilight, he strolled away from the hotel. (stir)

37) For a moment the trio stood as if … to stone. (turn)

38) Cecilia had heard very little … in her own thoughts. (absorb)

39) … he went out. (dine)

40) If … to myself, I shouldn't lose my chance. (leave)

41) Thus absorbed, he would sit for hours … no interruption. (want)

42) She considered herself … to Mr Bennet. (engage)

43) It … now too dangerous to stay in the car any longer, Mark was waiting for a chance to escape. (be)

44) He sat with his feet … on the chair. (put)

45) If … , she slammed the door. (annoy)

46) When … , she never objected. (tell)

47) Douglas … to prove that he was right, reminded him of the promise. (determine)

48) She looked at Mike as if … of his manners. (disapprove)

49) While … the message she thought what she should tell the manager. (read)

50) Let them have the details … .(settle)