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ХАРКІВСЬКА ДЕРЖАВНА АКАДЕМІЯ КУЛЬТУРИ

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Professional English:

Частина І.

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Мета матеріалів Professional English: "Професійно–орієнтоване читання" – сприяти формуванню у студентів умінь і навичок читання англомовних фахових текстів та здатності до їх критичного аналізу, а також дати студентам змогу ознайомитися з деякими актуальними проблемами галузі психології і підвищити свій фаховий рівень.

У сучасних умовах глобалізації і виходу України в єдиний освітній, культурний та інформаційний простір володіння англійською мовою набуває особливої ваги. Англійська практично стала мовою міжнародного професійного спілкування: ділової кореспонденції, наукових та практичних конференцій, наукових публікацій. Лише за допомогою англійськоїмови можна одержати доступ до більшості ресурсів світової інформаційної комп'ютерної мережі Інтернет. Тому для майбутніх спеціалістів з психології володіння англійською мовою є невід'ємною частиною їхньої професійної підготовки.

Мета матеріалів Professional English: "Професійно-орієнтоване читання" двоєдина: з одного боку, це розвиток навичок усного й письмового спілкування англійською мовою (функціонально обмеженого майбутніми професійними потребами); з іншого боку, автори цих матеріалів прагнули дати студентам змогу ознайомитися з деякими актуальними проблемами галузі психології і підвищити свій фаховий рівень.

Відповідно, **завдання** матеріалів Professional English: "Професійно-орієнтоване читання" полягає в тому, щоб сформувати у студентів уміння та навички, необхідні й достатні для обробки англомовної фахової інформації і для професійного усного та письмового спілкування в перебігу міжнародних контактів.

Матеріали модуля "Професійно-орієнтоване читання" складаються з 5 тематичних блоків (Units), зв'язаних між собою змістовими складовими та текстів (Reading)для самостійної роботи студентів.

Кожний із 5 блоків (Units) модуля "Професійно-орієнтоване читання" містить тексти й теми для обговорення та письмових повідомлень (Topics for Composition and Discussion). Текстовий матеріал складається з текстів трьохвидів: текст А – аналітичне читання для аудиторної роботи; В – синтетичне читання для самостійної роботи в аудиторії та його переказ, С –

синтетичне читання для самостійної роботи вдома. Кожний блок являє собою тематичну цілісність і охоплює певне коло споріднених професійних проблем:

Unit 1. Introduction to Psychology.

Unit 2. Educational Psychology.

Unit 3. The Sense Organs.

Unit 4. Memory.

Unit 5. Perception.

Текстовий матеріал підібрано із сучасних електронних англомовних джерел. Автентичність текстів максимально збережена; лише в деяких випадках автори вдавалися до незначних спрощень та адаптації.

Навчальний матеріал подано відповідно до дидактичних принципів "від простого до складного" та повторюваності лексичних елементів, термінології і граматичних явищ.

Unit 1

INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY

Quiz

What is psychology?

How is it connected to biology?

What's the origin of the word?

Exercise 1.

Read the text below:

Text A. Psychology

Psycho- is a learned borrowing from Greek meaning breath, soul,

spirit, and mind. In Greek mythology Psyche (soul or butterfly) was the human bride of Eros, the god of love. Before she is allowed to marry Eros she is forced to undergo many difficult ordeals. Apuleius tells the story of Eros and Psyche in his Metamorphoses. Psychology was considered a study of the soul.

Psychology is 1) the science of the mind or of mental states and processes: the science of human nature; 2) the science of human and animal behavior; 3) the sum of the mental states and processes of the person or of a number of persons, especially as determining action (e.g. the psychology of a soldier at the battle). Literally, the word psychology means the science of the mind. Most contemporary psychologists would define psychology as the science of the behavior of organisms. By behavior they mean activities and processes that can be observed objectively — both the isolated reactions of muscles, glands and other parts of the organisms and the organized, goal-directed patterns of reaction that characterize the organism as a whole. Psychologists also interpret behavior to include internal processes — thinking, emotional reactions and the like — which one person cannot observe directly in another but which can be inferred from observation of external behavior.

Behavior is determined by a complex of factors that are partly biological, partly anthropological, partly sociological, and partly psychological. Therefore, psychology is closely connected to both

the biological and the social sciences. Psychologists study basic functions such as learning, memory, language, thinking, emotions, and motives. They investigate development throughout mental and physical health care. They also treat people who are emotionally distressed. So, it is very important for them to know all about social influences on individuals, the role of the brain and the nervous system in such functions as memory, language, sleep, attention, movement, perception, hunger, anger and joy. Although psychology has been concerned primarily with the behavior of human individuals and groups, it has also dealt with the study of animal behavior. Although great care is always necessary in interpreting human behavior in the light of findings from animal experiments, animal psychology has greatly contributed to study of human beings.

Exercise 2.

Answer the following questions

What does behavior mean?

Read the definition of psychology as a science and try to explain it in your own words.

Exercise 3.

Read and retell the text below:

Text B. Physiology

Physiology is the study of the parts and systems of the human body and how they work. You can't learn about the inner world of a person without having an idea about the human physiology.

Physiological psychology is concerned with the way the body functions and the effect of its activity on behavior.

Psychoanalysis is 1) a systematic structure of theories concerning the relations of conscious and unconscious psychological processes; 2) a technical procedure of investigating unconscious mental processes and for treating psychoneuroses.

Four types of temperament.

In medieval physiology, temperament is any of the four conditions of body and mind: the sanguine, phlegmatic, choleric (or bilious), and melancholic, each of them attributed to an excess of one of the four corresponding humors (body liquids). It is one's customary frame of mind or natural disposition, nature that is excitable, moody, capricious, volatile, etc. **Sanguine** (from sangui- — blood), having the warm passionate, cheerful temperament and the healthy, ruddy complexion of one in whom the blood is the predominant humor of the four. The person is usually heavy, cheerful, confident, red-faced, jolly, generous, self-indulgent optimistic and hopeful sort of person.

Melancholy — black bile in medieval physiology considered to be one of the four humors to come from the spleen or kidney, and to cause gloominess, irritability or depression. Melancholy is a gloomy, pessimistic, quiet and brooding person.

Choleric is having choler as the predominant humor, hence of bilious temperament. In medieval times choler (bile) was considered

one of the four humors of the body and the source of anger and irritability. Choleric is a quick-tempered, excitable, aggressive and energetic person, usually thin and wiry.

Phlegmatic — a slow, lethargic, apathetic, hard to rouse to action, sluggish, dull kind of person. Phlegm is a fluid, clammy humor of the body which was believed to cause sluggishness or dullness.

Exercise 4.

Answer the following questions

What is physiology?

How is it connected to psychology?

What is psychoanalysis?

What four types of temperament do you know?

Read the definitions and try to explain in your own words.

Exercise 5.

Read and translate the text below:

Text C. ***What is Gestalt psychology?***

The German word Gestalt means configuration or pattern. Gestalt psychologists argue that an organism will see an object as a whole. This is because the brain imposes patterns on the raw material of perception. The patterns tend to make complete forms, and incomplete forms are completed by the organizing activity of the brain. When problem solving it is argued that individuals receive "insights" into the total situation: the total pattern suddenly becomes obvious. Gestalt school of psychology that interprets phenomena as

organized wholes rather than as aggregates of distinct parts, maintaining that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts. The term Gestalt was coined by the philosopher Christian von Ehrenfels in 1890, to denote experiences that require more than the basic sensory capacities to comprehend. Gestalt psychologists suggest that the events in the brain bear a structural correspondence to psychological events; indeed, it has been shown that steady electric currents in the brain correspond to structured perceptual events. The Gestalt school has made substantial contributions to the study of learning, recall, and the nature of associations, as well as important contributions to personality and social psychology. In therapy, the analyst encourages clients to release their emotions, and to recognize these emotions for what they are.

Intelligence, in psychology, the general mental ability involved in calculating, reasoning, perceiving relationships and analogies, learning quickly, storing and retrieving information, using language fluently, classifying, generalizing, and adjusting to new situations. Alfred Binet, the French psychologist, defined intelligence as the totality of mental processes involved in adapting to the environment. Although there remains a strong tendency to view intelligence as a purely intellectual or cognitive function, considerable evidence suggests that intelligence has many facets.

Experimental psychology describes an approach to psychology that

treats it as one of the natural sciences, and therefore assumes that it is susceptible to the experimental method. Many experimental psychologists have gone further, and have assumed that all methods of investigation other than experimentation are suspect. In particular, experimental psychologists have been inclined to discount the case study and interview methods as they have been used in clinical and developmental psychology. Wilhelm Wundt was one of the first experimental psychologists and is credited with starting the first psychology laboratory. Introspection, a process used by Wundt in his laboratory, is a way of examining one's own conscious experience through self-observation of one's thoughts, feelings and sensations. Structuralism, the name of Wundt's approach to experimental psychology is a system of thought that tried to analyze sensations and subjective experience into its basic building blocks.

Functionalism, another psychological system of thought, focuses on how mental activity enables people to function and survive. William James and other supporters of the functionalist movement were opposed to structuralism because they left consciousness could not be broken down into components as if it were a physical structure. A key area of debate in psychology has been the extent to which our capacities are learnt versus the extent to which they are innate (this issue is closely related to the more general nature-nurture debate in biology). Behaviorism is a system of thought which holds that only

strictly observable phenomena are worthy of psychological study. John B. Watson is considered to be the “father” of behaviorism. The behaviorism of B. F. Skinner viewed behavior as being learnt through a process of conditioning — the association of stimuli with responses. The influence of behaviorism took a blow with the work of the psycho-linguist Noam Chomsky on language acquisition. Chomsky argued that the stimulus available to an infant was simply not rich enough to allow language-learning through Skinnerian conditioning, and that the human brain must have an innate capacity for, or predisposition towards language learning. This idea that the brain has a specialized Language Acquisition Device in many ways laid the foundation for the field now known as cognitive psychology, which tends to view the mind in terms of more or less specialized functions or processes.

Humanistic psychology emerged in the 1950s in reaction to both behaviorism and psychoanalysis. It stresses a phenomenological view of human experience and seeks to understand human beings and their behavior by conducting qualitative research. Among sciences humanistic psychology focuses on basic and applied science. Humanistic psychology is concerned with the subjective experience of human beings and views using quantitative methods in the study of the human mind and behavior as misguided and instead stresses qualitative research. It emerged in the 1950s in reaction to

both behaviorism and psychoanalysis. It stresses a phenomenological view of human experience and seeks to understand human beings, rather than conventional statistical one. There is a branch of psychology which uses methods to investigate the subjective experience of human beings; clinical psychology.

Clinical psychology is concerned with helping people who have mental disorders. It is the practice of outpatient mental health treatment. Examples of clinical psychology include psychotherapy, art therapy, and cognitive therapy.

Prior to the 20th century, there was little, if any, help available for sufferers of mental health problems. In the early 20th century, Sigmund Freud developed a mental health treatment known as psychoanalysis. In order to practice psychoanalysis, a great deal of training was required of the practitioner. Consequently, the cost of psychoanalysis was also high.

Unlike clinical psychology, counseling psychology is generally a joint-venture of both psychology departments and departments of education. Counseling psychologists focus primarily on helping people overcome or better manage pathologies as well as transcend perceived limitations.

Developmental psychology is the study of human growth and changes in behavior from conception to death. Jean Piaget was one of the most famous and influential researchers in developmental

psychology. The nature-nurture issue deals with whether human growth results from interaction with others and with the physical world (nurture) or if the key to development is heredity (nature). Jean Piaget, as well as most developmental psychologists today, believed that changes in behavior result from a combination of nurture and nature. **Psychometric psychology** is the psychological specialty involved with developing, administering, and analyzing tests. James McKeen Cattell, an assistant to Wundt, was the first psychologist to suggest the term "mental test." He began using tests to assess how humans used mental ability to solve problems and survive.

Psychiatry is the medical field specializing in mental health issues, thereby overlapping with clinical psychology. Clinical and counseling psychologists often work in co-operation with psychiatrists, social workers, psychiatric nurses and "lay" counselors. Psychiatrists are often involved in providing psychopharmacological care including antidepressant, anti-anxiety, antipsychotic and mood-stabilizing medication. Services aimed at mental or behavioral problems are also often provided by traditional healers and religious counselors. **Applied psychology** is a more general term, referring to solving problems and answering questions that could help solve problems faced by people and society. For example, researching how animals won't eat novel foods after getting ill, even if the food didn't cause the illness, has helped explain why cancer patients have

difficulty eating after chemotherapy. To deal with the problems in psychology you first have to know a certain professional vocabulary that would help you in reading comprehension and expressions of your thoughts. The main purpose of this book is to help you in this mission

Psychology today. Human consciousness is in a place of self-awareness and creating balance as it moves out of the dark ages back to higher frequency of light and thought. To understand how the psyche works, one must understand its nature based on duality, as it seeks to create balance in a world of challenges. We live in a time of recognition that we have issues that we are trying to heal and overcome which has held us back. We combine physical and metaphysical healing to create a union of body, mind and soul. As a bi-polar experiment in time and emotions, the souls have met challenges at every turn, presently facing their issues and seeking help from professionals, books, healers, other.

Exercise 6.

Answer the following questions

What is Gestalt psychology?

***What is* Psychometric psychology?**

What is Applied psychology?

Exercise 7.

Topics for composition and discussion.

Psychology is the science of the mind or of mental states and processes: the science of human nature.

Modern Psychology.

Unit 2

EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Quiz

Do you know what psychology is concerned with?

Exercise 1.

Read the text below:

Text A. The Field of Educational Psychology

At birth the child brings his biological inheritance with him into this world. Characteristics of his biological heredity are not sufficient in themselves to enable him to live harmoniously in a social culture such as ours. An important task of the school is to assist the learner in meeting or discovering his cultural heritage. It is through the guidance of children in growth and development that they acquire skills, information, understanding, concepts, and attitudes concerning their social heritage. However, much of the acquisition of the social heritage is informal in nature. Furthermore, much of the child's education takes place outside the supervision and direction of the schools.

Although the school is only one of a number of forces which affect the child's educational development, it has always been

concerned with the teaching of certain aspects of the social heritage to growing boys and girls. Throughout the history of education, scholars have set forth challenging theories and viewpoints on the problems of growth and learning. The beginnings of educational psychology are to be found within these.

Psychology, conceived of as the science of behavior, is concerned with the study of man wherever he may be found. It is no longer confined to the laboratory. As an applied science it deals with human behavior in industrial situations, in business situations, in social situations, in educational situations, and in whatever other situations such behavior is involved. Educational psychology may be regarded as psychology applied to human behavior in educational situations.

Exercise 2.

Answer the following questions

How do you characterize education psychology?

What is the school task in school children's upbringing?

Exercise 3.

Read and retell the text below:

Text B. The Individual

How much does the hereditary process influence the individual development?

The individual concerned with the guidance and direction of children should have a clear understanding of the nature of their

growth and development. The parent who recognizes that growth follows an orderly process will not attempt to drive the child in his motor, mental, and emotional development. The teacher who recognizes that individual differences exist in the rate of growth among children will not expect all children to produce a similar quality of work in their school assignments.

The newborn infant is a product of two family lines. His development begins with the fertilization of the egg cell. From the moment of conception, the new life is influenced by various environmental stimuli. These stimuli help to mold the potentialities for growth and development which he inherits from his parents. Thus the infant at birth is patterned by hereditary and environmental influences. The interdependence of these influences may be noted in all aspects of the child's development. For example, the development of oral speech must await the maturation of certain physiological structures involved in the production of differentiated sounds.

The hereditary process. Man is composed of two types of cells***:*** somatic *and* germ. Somatic cells are the body cells not direct involved in reproduction. During the period of growth they divide to produce body growth and to repair cells. The germ cells are specifically concerned with reproduction. They exist from the earlier firtile stage, but do not assume their special characteristics until after the period of puberty, when reproduction becomes possible. The

union of the germ cells of the male and female under favorable circumstances produces the fertilized egg, which is the actual beginning of a new life. The male germ cells are referred to as spermatozoa, while the female germ cells are known as ova. The ovum, usually referred to as the egg cell, differs from the sperm in size and shape.

Within a species, all cells, except those involved in reproduction, possess the same complement of chromosomes. In the fertilized egg cell the chromosomes appear in pairs, there being 24 from each parent, making a total of 48. These chromosomes contain a very large number of smaller units, the genes. These genes carry the inheritance of unitary traits, such as the color of the hair. Like the chromosomes, the genes are in pairs, that is, there is one gene for hair color in one chromosome, and there is another gene for hair color in the homologous chromosome. These genes interact in a number of complex ways. The manner in which they produce the traits of the individual are known as the *laws of heredity.*

The role of selection. The gene combination present in the newly formed embryo consists of two corresponding sets of genes from each parent. This combination produces both similarities and diversities. These similarities may be observed among newborn infants in all areas of the world. However, except for identical twins, there are always differences discernible. These differences appear in

their physical appearance, potentialities for development, and dynamic characteristics.

The infant emerges as a physical and dynamic being. From the beginning of its existence the complex organism is a product of two sets of genes. The role of selection is such that a close system of inbreeding will ultimately separate a mixed stock into a genetically pure line.

Environment has sometimes been regarded as a passive place in which an individual's behavior occurs. Such a viewpoint regards the environment as a setting for behavior, rather than as an active stimulating agent. From an educational standpoint, environment may best be thought of as consisting of a myriad of specific stimuli that stimulate the individual to action. Some of these are visible while others, such as the feelings, aspirations, thoughts, and attitudes of others are in the main invisible.

Various attempts have been made to identify the influences of heredity and environment as unique forces. When heredity and environment are studied in relation to the organism, it will be observed that they operate together rather than as separate forces in producing changes in behavior and physical characteristics of the individual.

Interaction of heredity and environment. The most widely recognized principle involving the operation of heredity and

environment upon the development of the individual is that of the interaction between the two. The tendency of early students of child development to classify all behavior as exclusively hereditary or environmental met with many difficulties. It thus became apparent to many students concerned with these problems that the two were closely related and that most behavior could not be classified exclusively into either of these two categories.

Exercise 4.
Answer the following questions

How much does the hereditary process influence the individual development?

How do hereditary and environment interact?

Exercise 5.
Read and translate the text below:

Text C. Principles of Growth

As the child emerges from one developmental period to another certain changes may be observed. Studies show that these changes tend to follow certain fairly well-defined principles. These are here referred to as principles of growth. The most obvious change that takes place in children is their growth in size, although growth is not confined to size. It includes changes in complexity, proportion, and qualitative characteristics as well as size. Furthermore, the term *growth* is not confined to physical changes in structure or form, but applies also to the behavior and achievement of children. We speak

of growth in language skills, motor growth, social growth, emotional growth, and other aspects of growth.

The terms *growth* and *development* have at times been used interchangeably. That there is no clear-cut distinction may be observed from the many different ways in which development is used. The term *development* has been used with reference to changes in complexity and design or pattern, while *growth* has been regarded as change in size. More recently, development has taken on an enlarged meaning and is thought of in terms of total development. In this case development is closely related to maturation or maturity. This may be observed in such words as child development, adolescent development, and human development. This is the general distinction made between the two terms, when such distinctions are made, in this text.

Development proceeds from general to specific. The early motor responses of the child are mass movements. When the baby reaches for an object he reaches with his whole body. He is able to use the large muscles before he can use the smaller muscles. This may be observed in the kicking of the baby before he can co-ordinate the leg muscles well enough to creep or crawl. The baby recognizes the mother as a large moving object before he is able to discern the characteristics of the parts of the mother. Growth then proceeds from general to the specific, from mass behavior to specific or

differentiated movements, and from general forms of behavior to diffuse forms of behavior.

Growth is a continuous process. The various stages of life are often divided into different periods, largely for convenience in studying the different stages of development. This, however, has led many people to look upon growth as periodic in nature. There is good evidence from longitudinal studies of individual children that there is an *orderly sequence* for the emergence of different forms of behavior. This should not lead one to conclude that the child's development is inadaptable to certain modifications, although a sound educational program will be cognizant of these behavior patterns which emerge at different stages in the child's development. The scheduled behavior at different age levels shows a gradual and continuous growth in the complexity of behavior performed.

What occurs at one stage of growth carries over and influences the subsequent growth stages. This process takes place at a slow regular pace, rather than by leaps and bounds. It can be stated as a fundamental growth principle that each stage in the development of the individual is an outgrowth of an earlier stage, not a mere addition to it.

Deviations in growth may be observed in mental, emotional, and social traits as well as in physical traits. Two children with the same reading ability at the age of seven may reveal significant

differences in subsequent years.

The growth rate of each individual is affected by many forces both within and without the body. This has at times been listed as a fundamental growth principle. The prediction of growth is made very difficult by this fact.

It is important for the teacher and others concerned with the education of children to understand individual differences in rate of growth. Parents, likewise, should realize that such differences are normal and that a deviation of one child from another should not be a source of disturbance. The timing of the growth spurt which takes place around the beginning of adolescence will vary considerably from individual to individual of the same sex. The failure on the part of teachers and parents to recognize these differences in the rate and timing of certain growth features is often a source of misinterpretation and faulty guidance.

***The child develops as a unified whole*.** Although we speak and write of physical growth, motor growth, mental growth, emotional growth, and other aspects of growth, we should realize at all times that it is the *total child* who is growing. The interrelation of growth has received considerable attention in recent years as a result of the great amount of research that has been conducted on problems of child growth and the development of the organismic concept of studying children. The organismic viewpoint emphasizes the

harmony and the interrelation of the growth of the component parts of the individual. Thus, the organism is conceived of as a closely knit community with the individual growing and functioning in a unitary manner rather than in a nonrelated manner.

The growth of the child as a unified whole may be very well illustrated by his growth in the ability to creep, crawl, and walk. This growth, in the case of the average child, will be accompanied by changes in interests, attention, mental outlook, and social behavior. Furthermore, it can be shown that changes in interests and social behavior are closely related to growth in language and motor co-ordination. This interrelation is so close that when one is lacking or delayed the other will be affected. The individual passes gradually from one stage to another in his learning and maturation, preserving a patterned integration throughout life. In other words, growth and development are patterns rather than isolated aspects affected by addition of minute increments to separate parts. Learning and development do not take place in a piecemeal fashion in which unrelated items appear at different periods and at some later date become fashioned into a unified pattern. The entire child is involved in learning to read and skate. The child's emotional nature, social self, and physical self are involved, along with the intellectual self, in the acquisition of reading and language skills.

Behavior patterns change with maturity. Children display

many forms of behavior at different levels of maturity that will be modified or abandoned as they grow older. If adults, concerned with the guidance of growing boys and girls, were better informed about the changes that occur and were patient enough to study these more or less sequential growth patterns, the problem of being a parent or teacher would be simpler and more pleasant. The child would grow and develop toward maturity with less difficulty and confusion. This principle of development includes the concept that behavior activities that appear at one stage or level of maturity are modified or abandoned at a later stage in favor of activities more useful and harmonious with the child's total development.

Exercise 6.

Answer the following questions

What are the aspects of individual's growth?

***Why do behavior patterns change with* maturity?**

Exercise 7.

Topics for composition and discussion.

Growth is a continuous process.

Individual growth. What does it mean?

UNIT 3

THE SENSE ORGANS

Quiz

What sense organs do you know?

What causes sound?

Could you name the main parts of the eye?

Exercise 1.

Read the text below:

Text A. The sense of hearing

A bell rings, a baby cries, and a dog barks. Every day we hear thousands of sounds. Our world is full of sound. What causes sound? How do our ears let us hear sounds? Sound is caused by vibrations, the quick back-and-forth movements of an object. The vibrations move through air, water, the ground, or some other substance. The vibrations move in waves. They are called sound waves. In order to understand how people hear sound waves, you must understand how the ear works. There are three important parts of the ear: the ear canal, the eardrum, and the small bones. Each part is important for hearing. Sound waves enter the ear through the ear canal and hit the eardrum. The eardrum is a thin skin that is stretched tightly across the inside of the ear. It is like the material that is stretched across the top of a drum. The eardrum begins to vibrate, or move back and forth quickly. This vibration causes three very small bones in the ear to vibrate. These little bones are called the hammer, anvil, and stirrup. They get their names because they look like these objects.

How we can hear. These vibrations of the eardrum cause more vibrations in a liquid that fills the deepest part of the ear. The moving

liquid presses on the hearing nerves. These nerves pass the sound message on to the brain. When the message reaches the brain, the person can hear the sounds. It is important for humans to be able to hear sound. Sounds can warn of danger and emergencies. If you see a person cross the street into the path of an oncoming car, you would call to the person to watch out. The driver of the oncoming car would honk the horn to warn the person. Fire alarms warn people of fire. Sirens on ambulances and police cars tell you to move to the side. Some people cannot hear. They are deaf and cannot be warned of danger in the same way. In this Reading you learned about the sense of hearing, about the ear and how humans hear. Next you will learn about two more senses. These are the senses of taste and smell.

Assistive technologies for deaf and hard of hearing people.

Many different assistive technologies, such as hearing aids, are available to people who are hearing impaired. People with cochlear implants, hearing aids, or neither of these two devices also use additional communication devices to reduce the interference of background sounds. Three types of wireless exist along with hard-wired devices. A wireless device used by people who use their residual hearing has two main components. One component sends the sound out to the listener, but is not directly connected to the listener with the hearing loss. The second component of the wireless system, the receiver, detects the sound and sends the sound to the ear

of the person with the hearing loss. Hearing dogs, a category of assistance dogs, are trained to help those with hearing impairments. The advent of the Internet's World Wide Web and closed captioning has given the hearing impaired unprecedented access to information. Electronic mail and online chat have reduced the need for deaf and hard of hearing people to use a third-party Telecommunications Service in order to communicate with the hearing people.

Exercise 2.

Answer the following questions

What do these words (anvil, brain, deaf, ear canal, eardrum, hammer, sound, waves, stirrup, vibrate, vibration) mean?.

Exercise 3.

Read and retell the text below:

Text B. The senses of smell and taste

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

You taste bitter things at the back of your tongue, sour and salty

things on the sides, and sweet things on the tip. The tongue is only one part of the sense of tasting. The other sense organ you use to taste is your nose. The nose is also the sense organ you use to smell. The smell of food plays a big part in how food tastes. If food smells good, it usually tastes good! Sometimes when you have a cold and your nose is stopped up, you cannot smell anything. When this happens, nothing you eat will taste very good either. Everything that has a smell gives off a small amount of gas. This gas is called an odor.

When you breathe in, the odor enters your nose. Some things have a weak odor. When things have a weak odor, you have to sniff to bring the odor into your nose. There are special nerves in the nose that send the “smell message” to the brain. The picture below shows how the sense of smell works. Odor enters through the nose and passes to the nerves. The nerves send a “smell message” to the brain. Is it important to be able to smell things? Your sense of smell protects you from danger. You smell smoke when there is a fire. Food begins to smell bad when it is no longer good to eat. Animals such as skunks spray a liquid that has a bad odor to protect them from danger. In this reading you learned about the senses of taste and smell and their two sense organs, the tongue and the nose. You also learned why these two senses are important.

How do smell and taste work? Smell and taste belong to our

chemical sensing system, or chemo sensation. The complicated processes of smelling and tasting begin when molecules released by the substances around us stimulate special nerve cells in the nose, mouth or throat. These cells transmit messages to the brain, where specific smells or tastes are identified. Olfactory (smell nerve) cells are stimulated by the odours around us — the fragrance from a rose, the smell of bread baking. These nerve cells are found in a tiny patch of tissue high up in the nose, and they connect directly to the brain. Taste cells react to food or drink mixed with saliva and are clustered in the taste buds of the mouth and throat. Many of the small bumps that can be seen on the tongue contain taste buds. These surface cells send taste information to nearby nerve fibers, which send messages to the brain. Taste and smell cells are the only cells in the nervous system that are replaced when they become old or damaged. Scientists are examining this phenomenon while studying ways to replace other damaged nerve cells. A third chemosensory mechanism, called the common chemical sense, contributes to our senses of smell and taste. In this system, thousands of free nerve endings — especially on the moist surfaces of the eyes, nose, mouth and throat — identify sensations like the sting of ammonia, the coolness of menthol and the “heat” of chili peppers

Exercise 4.

Answer the following questions

What sense organs do people use for taste and smell?

What do these words (bitter, nose, odor, salty, sense, sniff, organs, sour, sweet, taste, buds, tongue, papillae, olfactory, swallow, fragrance) mean?

Can you use them in the sentences of your own.

Exercise 5.

Read and translate the text below:

Text C. The sense of sight

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

The eye is made up of different parts: the iris, pupil, eyelid, and retina. The iris is a muscle. It is the part of the eye that lets in the right amount of light. The big, colored circle in the centre of the eye is the iris. Pigment gives the iris its color. The color of the iris is different in different people.

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

The eyelid is another important part of the eye. It has two important functions. The eyelid controls the amount of light enters the eye.

When you want to keep out light, you can lower you eyelid. Also, raising and lowering the eyelids helps keep the eyes moist.

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

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

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

Exercise 6.

Answer the following questions

Why are human eyes better than a camera?

What is the function of the iris?

When does the pupil change size?

Name two important functions of the eyelid.

On which part of the eye does a picture form?

How does the brain help you to see?

Exercise 7.

Topics for composition and discussion.

Why are human eyes better than a camera?

Our world is full of sound. What causes sound?

Unit 4.

MEMORY

Quiz

What is Memory?

Have you ever wondered how you manage to remember information for a test?

Exercise 1.

Read the text below:

Text A. Memory

The ability to create new memories, store them for periods of time and recall them when they are needed allows us to learn and interact with the world around us. The study of human memory has been a subject of science and philosophy for thousands of years and has

become one of the major topics of interest within cognitive psychology. But what exactly is memory? How are memories formed?

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

In order to form new memories, information must be changed into a usable form, which occurs through the process known as encoding. Once information has been successfully encoded, it must be stored in memory for later use. Much of this stored memory lies outside of our awareness most of the time, except when we actually need to use it. The retrieval process allows us to bring stored memories into conscious awareness.

The Stage Model of Memory

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

Sensory memory is the earliest stage of memory. During this stage, sensory information from the environment is stored for a very brief period of time, generally for no longer than a half-second for visual information and 3 or 4 seconds for auditory information. We attend

to only certain aspects of this sensory memory, allowing some of this information to pass into the next stage – short-term memory.

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

Long-term memory refers to the continuing storage of information. In Freudian psychology, long-term memory would be call the preconscious and unconscious. This information is largely outside of our awareness, but can be called into working memory to be used when needed. Some of this information is fairly easy to recall, while other memories are much more difficult to access.

The Organization of Memory

The ability to access and retrieve information from long-term memory allows us to actually use these memories to make decisions, interact with others and solve problems. But how is information organized in memory? The specific way information is organized in

long-term memory is not well understood, but researchers do know that these memories are arranged in groups.

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

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

Exercise 2.

Answer the following question

What do these words (sensory memory, short-term memory, long-term memory) mean?

Exercise 3.

Read and retell the text below:

Text B. Explanations for Forgetting. Reasons Why We Forget.

What are some of the major reasons why we forget information?

One of today's best known memory researchers, Elizabeth Loftus, has identified four major reasons why people forget: retrieval failure, interference, failure to store and motivated forgetting.

Retrieval Failure

Have you ever felt like a piece of information has just vanished from memory? Or maybe you know that it's there, you just can't seem to find it. The inability to retrieve a memory is one of the most common causes of forgetting.

So why are we often unable to retrieve information from memory? One possible explanation of retrieval failure is known as decay theory. According to this theory, a memory trace is created every time. Decay theory suggests that over time, these memory traces begin to fade and disappear. If information is not retrieved and rehearsed, it will eventually be lost.

One problem with this theory, however, is that research has demonstrated that even memories which have not been rehearsed or remembered are remarkably stable in long-term memory.

Interference

Another theory known as interference theory suggests that some memories compete and interfere with other memories. When information is very similar to other information that was previously stored in memory, interference is more likely to occur.

There are two basic types of interference:

Proactive interference is when an old memory makes it more difficult or impossible to remember a new memory.

Retroactive interference occurs when new information interferes with your ability to remember previously learned information.

Failure to Store

Sometimes, losing information has less to do with forgetting and more to do with the fact that it never made it into long-term memory in the first place. Encoding failures sometimes prevent information from entering long-term memory.

In one well-known experiment, researchers asked participants to identify the correct U.S. penny out of a group of incorrect pennies (Nickerson & Adams). Try doing this experiment yourself by attempting to draw a penny from memory, and then compare your results to an actual penny.

How well did you do? Chances are that you were able to remember the shape and color, but you probably forgot other minor details. The reason for this is that only details necessary for distinguishing pennies from other coins were encoded into your long-term memory.

Motivated Forgetting

Sometimes, we may actively work to forget memories, especially those of traumatic or disturbing events or experiences. The two basic

forms of motivated forgetting are: suppression, a conscious form of forgetting, and repression, an unconscious form of forgetting.

However, the concept of repressed memories is not universally accepted by all psychologists. One of the problems with repressed memories is that it is difficult, if not impossible, to scientifically study whether or not a memory has been repressed. Also note that mental activities such as rehearsal and remembering are important ways of strengthening a memory, and memories of painful or traumatic life events are far less likely to be remembered, discussed or rehearsed.

Exercise 4.
Answer the following question

What are some of the major reasons why we forget information?

Exercise 5.
Read and translate the text below:

Text C. Top 10 Memory Improvement Tips

Before you study for your next exam, you might want to use a few strategies to boost your memory of important information. There are a number of tried and tested techniques for improving memory. These strategies have been established within cognitive psychology literature and offer a number of great ways to improve memory, enhance recall and increase retention of information.

1. Focus your attention on the materials you are studying.

Attention is one of the major components of memory. In order for information to move from short-term memory into long-term memory, you need to actively attend to this information. Try to study in a place free of distractions such as television, music and other diversions.

2. Avoid cramming by establishing regular study sessions.

According to Bjork (2001), studying materials over a number of session's gives you the time you need to adequately process the information. Research has shown that students who study regularly remember the material far better than those who did all of their studying in one marathon session.

3. Structure and organize the information you are studying.

Researchers have found that information is organized in memory in related clusters. You can take advantage of this by structuring and organizing the materials you are studying. Try grouping similar concepts and terms together, or make an outline of your notes and textbook readings to help group related concepts.

4. Utilize mnemonic devices to remember information.

Mnemonic devices are a technique often used by students to aid in recall. A mnemonic is simply a way to remember information. For example, you might associate a term you need to remember with a common item that you are very familiar with. The best mnemonics are those that utilize positive imagery, humor or novelty. You might

come up with a rhyme, song or joke to help remember a specific segment of information.

5. Elaborate and rehearse the information you are studying.

In order to recall information, you need to encode what you are studying into long-term memory. One of the most effective encoding techniques is known as elaborative rehearsal. An example of this technique would be to read the definition of a key term, study the definition of that term and then read a more detailed description of what that term means. After repeating this process a few times, your recall of the information will be far better.

6. Relate new information to things you already know.

When you are studying unfamiliar material, take the time to think about how this information relates to things that you already know. By establishing relationships between new ideas and previously existing memories, you can dramatically increase the likelihood of recalling the recently learned information.

7. Visualize concepts to improve memory and recall.

Many people benefit greatly from visualizing the information they study. Pay attention to the photographs, charts and other graphics in your textbooks. If you do not have visual cues to help, try creating your own. Draw charts or figures in the margins of your notes or use highlighters or pens in different colors to group related ideas in your written study materials.

8. Teach new concepts to another person.

Research suggests that reading materials out loud significantly improves memory of the material. Educators and psychologists have also discovered that having students actually teach new concepts to others enhances understanding and recall. You can use this approach in your own studies by teaching new concepts and information to a friend or study partner.

9. Pay extra attention to difficult information.

Have you ever noticed how it's sometimes easier to remember information at the beginning or end of a chapter? Researchers have found that the order of information can play a role in recall, which is known as the serial position effect. While recalling middle information can be difficult, you can overcome this problem by spending extra time rehearsing this information. Another strategy is to try restructuring the information so it will be easier to remember. When you come across an especially difficult concept, devote some extra time to memorizing the information.

10. Vary your study routine.

Another great way to increase your recall is to occasionally change your study routine. If you are accustomed to studying in one specific location, try moving to a different spot during your next study session. If you study in the evening, try spending a few minutes each morning reviewing the information you studied the previous night.

By adding an element of novelty to your study sessions, you can increase the effectiveness of your efforts and significantly improve your long-term recall.

Facts About Memory

While it may seem like studying and rehearsing information is the best way to ensure that you will remember it, researchers have found that being tested on information is actually one of the best ways to improve recall.

One experiment found that students who studied and were then tested had better long-term recall of the materials, even on information that was not covered by the tests. Students who had extra time to study but were not tested had significantly lower recall of the materials.

Depictions of Amnesia in Movies Are Usually Inaccurate.

Amnesia is a common plot device in the movies, but these depictions are often inaccurate. For example, how often have you seen a fictional character lose their memory due to a bump on the head only to have their memories magically restored after suffering a second knock to the skull?

There are two different types of amnesia.

Anterograde amnesia: Involves the loss of the ability to form new memories.

Retrograde amnesia: Involves losing the ability to recollect past memories, although the ability to create new memories may remain intact.

While most movie depictions of amnesia involve retrograde amnesia, anterograde amnesia is actually far more common. The most famous case of anterograde amnesia was a patient known in the literature as H.M. In 1953, he had brain surgery to help stop the seizures caused by his severe epilepsy. The surgery involved the removal of both hippocampi, the regions of the brain strongly associated with memory. As a result, H.M. was no longer able to form any new long-term memories.

Popular movies and television programs tend to depict such memory loss as fairly common, but true cases of complete amnesia about one's past and identity are actually quite rare.

Some of the most common causes of amnesia include:

Trauma: A physical trauma, such as a car accident, can cause the victim to lose specific memories of the event itself. Emotional trauma, such as being a victim of childhood sexual abuse, can cause the individual to lose memories of specific situations.

Drugs: Certain medications can be used to cause temporary amnesia, particularly during medical procedures. Once the drugs wear off, the individual's memory returns to normal functioning.

A Good Night's Sleep May Improve Your Memory.

You have probably heard about many of the reasons to get a good night's sleep. Since the 1960s, researchers have noted the important connection between sleep and memory. In one classic experiment conducted in 1994, researchers found that depriving participants of sleep impaired their ability to improve performance on a line identification task.

In addition to aiding in memory, sleep also plays and essential role in learning new information. In one study, researchers found that depriving students of sleep after learning a new skill significantly decreased memory of that skill up to three days later.

Researchers have found, however, that sleep's influence on procedural memory is much stronger than it is for declarative memory. Procedural memories are those that involve motor and perceptual skills, while declarative memories are those that involve the memorization of facts.

"If you're going to be tested on 72 irregular French verbs tomorrow, you might as well stay up late and cram", explained Robert Stickgold, a psychiatry professor at Harvard Medical School, in an article published in the APA's Monitor on Psychology. "But if they're going to throw a curveball at you and ask you to explain the differences between the French Revolution and the Industrial Revolution, you're better off having gotten some sleep".

Exercise 6.

Answer the following questions

What does amnesia mean?

What *techniques do you use to improve your memory?*

Exercise 7.

Topics for composition and discussion.

Models of memory. What are they.

Memory Improvement Tips.

Unit 5

PERCEPTION

Quiz

What is Perception?

How do Colors Impact Moods, Feelings, and Behaviors?

Exercise 1.

Read the text below:

Text A. Color Psychology

Do you feel anxious in a yellow room? Does the color blue make you feel calm and relaxed? Artists and interior designers have long understood how color can dramatically affect moods, feelings and emotions. It is a powerful communication tool and can be used to signal action, influence mood and cause physiological reactions. Certain colors can raise blood pressure, increase metabolism or cause eyestrain.

Of course, your feelings about color can also be deeply personal and are often rooted in your own experience or culture. For example, while the color white is used in many Western countries to represent purity and innocence, it is seen as a symbol of mourning in many Eastern countries.

Explore the history of color including how it's used, the effects it may have and some of the most recent research on color psychology.

What Is Color?

In 1666, English scientist Sir Isaac Newton discovered that when pure white light passes through a prism, it separates into all of the visible colors. Newton also found that each color is made up of a single wavelength and cannot be separated any further into other colors.

Further experiments demonstrated that light could be combined to form other colors. For example, red light mixed with yellow light creates an orange color. Some colors, such as yellow and purple, cancel each other out when mixed and result in a white light.

If you have ever painted, you have probably noticed how certain colors can be mixed to create other colors.

Color Psychology – The Psychological Effects of Color.

While perceptions of color are somewhat subjective, there are some color effects that have universal meaning. Colors in the red area of the color spectrum are known as warm colors and include red, orange

and yellow. These warm colors evoke emotions ranging from feelings of warmth and comfort to feelings of anger and hostility.

Colors on the blue side of the spectrum are known as cool colors and include blue, purple and green. These colors are often described as calm, but can also call to mind feelings of sadness or indifference.

Color Psychology as Therapy.

Several ancient cultures, including the Egyptians and Chinese, practiced chromotherapy, or using colors to heal. Chromotherapy is sometimes referred to as light therapy or colourology and is still used today as a holistic or alternative treatment.

In this treatment:

Red was used to stimulate the body and mind and to increase circulation.

Yellow was thought to stimulate the nerves and purify the body.

Orange was used to heal the lungs and to increase energy levels.

Blue was believed to soothe illnesses and treat pain.

Indigo shades were thought to alleviate skin problems.

Most psychologists view color therapy with skepticism and point out that the supposed effects of color have been exaggerated. Colors also have different meanings in different cultures. Research has demonstrated in many cases that the mood-altering effects of color may only be temporary. A blue room may initially cause feelings of calm, but the effect dissipates after a short period of time.

Studies have also shown that certain colors can have an impact on performance. Exposing students to the color red prior to an exam has been shown to have a negative impact on test performance. More recently, researchers discovered that the color red causes people to react with greater speed and force, something that might prove useful during athletic activities.

Exercise 2.

Answer the following question

How do Colors Impact Moods, Feelings, and Behaviors?

Exercise 3.

Read and retell the text below:

Text B. The Color Psychology of Black.

Black absorbs all light in the color spectrum.

Black is often used as a symbol of menace or evil, but it is also popular as an indicator of power. It is used to represent treacherous characters such as Dracula and is often associated with witchcraft.

Black is associated with death and mourning in many cultures. It is also associated with unhappiness, sexuality, formality, and sophistication.

In ancient Egypt, black represented life and rebirth.

Black is often used in fashion because of its slimming quality.

Consider how black is used in language: Black Death, blackout, black cat, black list, black market, black tie, black belt.

The Color Psychology of White.

White represents purity or innocence.

White is bright and can create a sense of space or add highlights.

White is also described as cold, bland, and sterile. Rooms painted completely white can seem spacious, but empty and unfriendly. Hospitals and hospital workers use white to create a sense of sterility.

Red

Red is a bright, warm color that evokes strong emotions.

Red is associated with love, warmth, and comfort.

Red is also considered an intense, or even angry, color that creates feelings of excitement or intensity.

Consider how red is used in language: redneck, red-hot, red-handed, paint the town red, seeing red

The Color Psychology of Blue

Blue is described as a favorite color by many people and is the color most preferred by men.

Blue calls to mind feelings of calmness or serenity. It is often described as peaceful, tranquil, secure, and orderly.

Blue can also create feelings of sadness or aloofness.

Blue is often used to decorate offices because research has shown that people are more productive in blue rooms.

Blue is one of the most popular colors, but it is one of the least appetizing. Some weight loss plans even recommend eating your

food off of a blue plate. Blue rarely occurs naturally in food aside from blueberries and some plums. Also, humans are geared to avoid foods that are poisonous and blue coloring in food is often a sign of spoilage or poison.

Blue can also lower the pulse rate and body temperature.

Consider how blue is used in language: blue moon, blue Monday, blue blood, the blues, and blue ribbon.

The Color Psychology of Green

Green is a cool color that symbolizes nature and the natural world.

Green also represents tranquility, good luck, health, and jealousy.

Researchers have also found that green can improve reading ability. Some students may find that laying a transparent sheet of green paper over reading material increases reading speed and comprehension.

Green has long been a symbol of fertility and was once the preferred color choice for wedding gowns in the 15th-century. Even today, green M & M's (an American chocolate candy) are said to send a sexual message.

Green is often used in decorating for its calming effect. For example, guests waiting to appear on television programs often wait in a "green room" to relax.

Green is thought to relieve stress and help heal. Those who have a green work environment experience fewer stomachaches.

Consider how green is used in language: green thumb, green with envy, greenhorn.

The Color Psychology of Yellow

Yellow is a bright that is often described as cheery and warm.

Yellow is also the most fatiguing to the eye due to the high amount of light that is reflected. Using yellow as a background on paper or computer monitors can lead to eyestrain or vision loss in extreme cases.

Yellow can also create feelings of frustration and anger. While it is considered a cheerful color, people are more likely to lose their tempers in yellow rooms and babies tend to cry more in yellow rooms.

Yellow can also increase the metabolism.

Since yellow is the most visible color, it is also the most attention-getting color. Yellow can be used in small amount to draw notice, such as on traffic sign or advertisements.

The Color Psychology of Purple

Purple is the symbol of royalty and wealth.

Purple also represents wisdom and spirituality.

Purple does not often occur in nature, it can sometimes appear exotic or artificial.

Color Psychology – Reactions to Brown

Brown is a natural color that evokes a sense of strength and reliability.

Brown can also create feelings of sadness and isolation.

Brown brings to mind feeling of warmth, comfort, and security. It is often described as natural, down-to-earth, and conventional, but brown can also be sophisticated.

The Color Psychology of Orange

Orange is a combination of yellow and red and is considered an energetic color.

Orange calls to mind feelings of excitement, enthusiasm, and warmth.

Orange is often used to draw attention, such as in traffic signs and advertising.

The Color Psychology of Pink

Pink is essentially a light red and is usually associated with love and romance.

Pink is thought to have a calming effect. One shade known as "drunk-tank pink" is sometimes used in prisons to calm inmates. Sports teams sometimes paint the opposing teams' locker room pink to keep the players passive and less energetic.

While pink's calming effect has been demonstrated, researchers of color psychology have found that this effect only occurs during the initial exposure to the color. When used in prisons, inmates often

become even more agitated once they become accustomed to the color.

Exercise 4.
Answer the following question

Why is color such a powerful force in our lives?

What effects can it have on our bodies and minds?

Exercise 5.
Read and translate the text below:

Text C. Perception

The perceptual process allows us to experience the world around us. Take a moment to think of all the things you perceive on a daily basis. At any given moment, you might see familiar objects in your environment, feel the touch of objects and people against your skin, smell the aroma of a home-cooked meal and hear the sound of music playing in your next door. neighbor's apartment. All of these things help make up our conscious experience and allow us to interact with the people and objects around us.

Perception is our sensory experience of the world around us and involves both the recognition of environmental stimuli and actions in response to these stimuli. Through the perceptual process, we gain information about properties and elements of the environment that are critical to our survival. Perception not only creates our experience of the world around us; it allows us to act within our environment.

Perception includes the five senses; touch, sight, hearing, smell and taste. It also includes what is known as proprioception, a set of senses involving the ability to detect changes in body positions and movements. It also involves the cognitive processes required to process information, such as recognizing the face of a friend or detecting a familiar scent.

The Perceptual Process

The perceptual process is a sequence of steps that begins with the environment and leads to our perception of a stimulus and an action in response to the stimulus. This process is continual, but you do not spend a great deal of time thinking about the actual process that occurs when you perceive the many stimuli that surround you at any given moment.

The process of transforming the light that falls on your retinas into an actual visual image happens unconsciously and automatically. The subtle changes in pressure against your skin that allow you to feel object occur without a single thought.

In order to fully understand how the perception process works, we'll start by breaking down each step.

The Steps in the Perceptual Process

1. The Environmental Stimulus
2. The Attended Stimulus
3. The Image on the Retina

4. Transduction
5. Neural Processing
6. Perception
7. Recognition
8. Action

The Environmental Stimulus

The world is full of stimuli that can attract our attention through various senses. The environmental stimulus is everything in our environment that has the potential to be perceived. This might include anything that can be seen, touched, tasted, smelled or heard. It might also involve the sense of proprioception, such as the movements of the arms and legs or the change in position of the body in relation to objects in the environment.

The Attended Stimulus

The attended stimulus is the specific object in the environment on which our attention is focused. In many cases, we might focus on stimuli that are familiar to us, such as the face of a friend in a crowd of strangers at the local coffee shop. In other instances, we are likely to attend to stimuli that have some degree of novelty.

The Image on the Retina

Next, the attended stimulus is formed as an image on the retina. The first part of this process involves the light actually passing through the cornea and pupil and onto the lens of the eye. The cornea helps

focus the light as it enters the eye, and the iris of the eye controls the size of the pupils in order to determine how much light to let in. The cornea and lens act together to project an inverted image on the retina.

Transduction

The image on the retina is then transformed into electrical signals in a process known as transduction. This allows the visual messages to be transmitted to the brain to be interpreted.

Neural Processing

The electrical signals then undergo neural processing. The path followed by a particular signal depends on what type of signal it is (i.e. an auditory signal or a visual signal). Through the series of interconnect neurons located throughout the body, electrical signals are propagated from the receptors cells to the brain. In the next step of the perceptual process, you will actually perceive the stimuli and become aware of its presence in the environment.

Perception

In the next step of the perception process, we actually perceive the stimulus object in the environment. It is at this point that we become consciously aware of the stimulus.

Recognition

Perception doesn't just involve becoming consciously aware of the stimuli. It is also necessary for our brain to categorize and interpret

what it is we are sensing. Our ability to interpret and give meaning to the object is the next step, known as recognition.

Action

The final step of the perceptual process involves some sort of action in response to the environmental stimulus. This could involve a variety of actions, such as turning your head for a closer look or turning away to look at something else.

The action phase of perceptual development involves some type of motor action that occurs in response to the perceived and recognized stimulus. This might involve a major action, like running toward a person in distress, or something as subtle as blinking your eyes in response to a puff of dust blowing through the air.

Exercise 6.

Answer the following questions

How many steps are there in the perceptual process?

What are the main steps in the perceptual process?

What senses are included in perception?

Does perception involve cognitive processes?

What is transduction?

What are the main functions of perception?

Exercise 7.

Topics for composition and discussion.

Color Psychology as Therapy.

Perception involve cognitive processes, doesn't it.

READING

Text 1

Talking with the hands

American Sign Language (ASL), the manual-visual language used by deaf people in the United States, is a full-fledged linguistic system in which the hands and arms communicate by means of location of hands, hand shape, movement and the orientation of the palm. There are about twenty-five locations, forty five ways of shaping the hand, ten distinct movements and ten ways of orienting the palm. The signs of ASL may or may not have an exact English equivalent, but anything said in one language can be translated into the other. Speakers of ASL sometimes supplement their "speech" by finger spelling words, but finger spelling is used primarily for proper names, for borrowed words from English, or to "talk" with someone who is not fluent in ASL.

Signers can refer to other times and other places, and they can combine individual signs into an unlimited number of statements. At one time, linguists assumed that ASL was an incomplete language that lacked function words, but as more linguists fluent in the language, it became clear that function words and syntax are present, although not based on any English equivalent. One example is raised

eyebrows to indicate a subordinate clause. Another example is the location of the hand in relation to the face to indicate gender: the sign for “girl” is produced with the hand touching the cheek; the similar sign for “boy” is produced at the forehead. Other markers can change a sign from a verb to a noun, note whether an action is a single or a habitual occurrence, indicate plural, signify past or future, make clear that the sign is being used in a metaphorical sense, or indicate that the signer is coining a new term.

Text 2

Language and non-humans

At the university of Hawaii, several female bottle nosed dolphins have shown that they “understand” a variety of sentences conveyed through one of two languages. One is a visual language consisting of hand and arm signals, and the other is an acoustic language consisting of whistle like sounds. The dolphins first learned a small set of signals for simple actions, which the trainers taught them using shaping techniques with reinforcements of fish and the trainer’s approval. As they learned the set of actions, the dolphins also learned signs for categories of objects, such as balls, hoops, pipes and baskets. The objects in each category varied from day to day in color, size and exact shape, so the dolphins were learning to recognize a variety of instances for each concept. The dolphins also learned

modifiers as well as to reply “yes” or “no” by pressing the appropriate pane.

All commands were constructed from a simple phrase-structure grammar, which could be used to generate sentences up to five “words” long. These five-word sentences made possible a very large number of combinations of signs, so the researchers were able to train the dolphins on a subset of sentences and to test the dolphins’ understanding of sentences to which they had never been exposed. The dolphins showed evidence of an ability to respond correctly to novel sentences. For example, after a dolphin learned “Hoop fetch surfboard” (which told the dolphin to swim to the hoop and take it to the surfboard), it was able to understand “Hoop on surfboard” (which told it to get the hoop and put it on the surfboard). They usually carried out such actions quickly and without error, despite the presence of distraction objects and other dolphins moving about in the tank. Such findings demonstrate a grasp of syntax.

Clearly, attempts to teach language to non-humans, have produced some impressive results, revealing glimmers of the central characteristics of human language: expressiveness, productivity and displacement.

Text 3

Helping the deaf hear

Efforts to bring sound into the silent world of the deaf once focused on amplifying the intensity of sounds. It was hoped that causing an increase in the vibrations of hear cells would translate into increased stimulation of the auditory nerve. But some researchers have tackled the problem of deafness by bypassing the damaged or destroyed hear cells and transmitting electrical impulses directly to the nerve fibers. The result has been the cochlear implant, in which an array of electrodes is threaded into the cochlea and connected to a small receiver-stimulator implanted behind the ear. Sounds picked up by the receiver are processed by a pocket-sized computer, which, relying on the frequency theory of pitch, separates sound information into its components and applies them directly to specific points on the basilar membrane. The implant delivers information about tone, tempo, and intensity.

Profoundly deaf adults whose auditory systems still function beyond the cochlea seem most likely to benefit from these devices. After lengthy training, patients with implants find that they can detect most environmental sounds, such as a knock on the door, footsteps, running water, barking dogs, ringing telephones, whistling tea kettles, and crumpling paper. They can also hear environmental sounds that warn them of danger, such as a car horn or a shout. A

substantial minority regain enough hearing to use the telephone, although the majority still can not decipher the sounds of human speech without reading lips. But even for these patients, lip-reading ability improves.

People who have been deaf from birth cannot use cochlear implants successfully, possibly because the structures in temporal cortex that usually process speech have been coopted for other functions in the congenitally deaf. Their best hope seems to be some kind of device based on the sense of touch. One such device is the “tickle belt”, developed by psychologists C. Sherman and B. Franklin. Small rectangular transducers that respond to various sound frequencies are mounted on a belt worn next to the skin. The transducers change sounds into brief busts of electricity, which the wearer senses as vibrations. High frequencies are felt at one end of the belt and low frequencies at the other; a work is felt as a pattern of stimulation moving across the belt. Of course, this sort of device requires the wearer to associate speech sounds with tactile sensations, which entails a great deal of training.

Text 4

What is emotion?

It is difficult to define an emotion, in part because our emotional experience is so varied and complex. There are hundreds of emotion

words in the English language, from “abashed” to “xenophobia”. Do all these terms mean that there are actually hundreds of emotions?

Psychologists have tried to sort out this profusion of emotion terms by identifying a few underlying dimensions of emotional experience. Virtually all accounts of emotion agree that emotions can be classified along two broad dimensions – degree of pleasantness and degree of physical excitement. Some emotions such as fear – are clearly negative or unpleasant, and others – such as joy – are just as clearly positive or pleasant. Some emotions – such as anger and joy – involve high levels of activity, excitement or physiological arousal, whereas others – such as sadness – involve decreased energy and low levels of arousal.

Although researchers agree that pleasantness and arousal are two important dimensions of the emotional experience, they have not agreed about other dimensions. Yet it is clear that emotions are more complex than a two – dimensional model suggests. Consider, for example, anger and fear. Both of these emotions are negative and both are high arousal, yet they are quite distinct emotional experiences.

Another way to make sense of the variety of emotion terms is to identify which emotions are basic, in the sense that they share some kind of underlying biological foundation or are universal, and which are subordinate, or variations on the basic emotions. The majority of

emotion researchers agree that the list of basic emotions is limited to five or six: the positive emotions of love, joy and possibly, surprise; and the negative emotions of anger, fear and sadness. These emotions appear in most scientific theories of emotions, and they also seem to organize the way all people talk and think about emotions. Yet even here, there is some disagreement. Some researchers consider disgust a basic negative emotion; some think surprise is a reflex rather than an emotion; and others strike love from the list.

Given this lack of agreement and the complexity of the issue, how are we to define emotion? We can say that an emotion is a pattern of responses to an event that is relevant to the goals and needs of the organism. The responses include physiological arousal, impulses to action, thoughts and expression of all these. According to this definition, individuals who do not have needs, goals, or concerns cannot experience emotions. The needs or goals may be as fundamental as food, shelter and survival, or they may be as complex as the yearning for love, an ambition to win a Nobel prize, or a will to build self-respect.

Each component of an emotion plays an important role in our subjective experience of it.

Text 5

The evolutionary theory of emotional expression

Charles Darwin asserted that many human patterns of emotional expression have a genetic basis, handed down through generations because they had survival value. Since there are not fossils of behavior, such conjectures obviously cannot be proved, but the possible evolutionary significance of some expressions is easy to see. Raising the eyebrows in surprise or fear increases our visual acuity; raising the upper lip in rage bares teeth and readies us to bite. Other animals also bare their teeth as a threat or when preparing to fight, giving their enemies a warning that may in itself prevent a violent and damaging encounter. Darwin believed that baring the teeth served a similar function among our ancestors; the expression communicated a threat. A threat warns enemies of the impulse to act – in this case, to fight. What could be the purpose of visible fear? Researchers believe that a threatened animal's companions, preparing them as well as the threatened individual to flee if necessary.

If the expression of emotion has an evolutionary, genetic basis, then it should be similar across a variety of cultures. Consistent with Darwin's view, people from widely diverse cultures use highly similar postures, gestures and facial expressions to convey comparable emotional states. When people in different societies were

asked to identify the emotions expressed in a series of photographs, they recognized anger, fear, disgust, surprise and happiness, regardless of the culture in which they lived.

Further evidence for a biological, hereditary basis of emotional expression comes from studies of infants, which show that the capacity for emotional expression develops very early – or is present at birth. In one study, infants as young as two months were observed during inoculations against childhood diseases. The infants all showed distinctive facial patterns that could be readily recognized as responses to pain. Some researchers believe that all the basic emotions may be present in the newborn, but they appear only in response to biological needs like food and protection.

Although the first truly social smile appears at about two months, some researchers have found that infants as young as forty-two minutes will imitate emotional expressions quite accurately, sticking out their tongues or opening their mouths in response to an adults actions. Whether these responses are true imitations has been much debated. Nevertheless, that basic emotional expressions have been observed repeatedly on the faces of infant certainly suggests that emotional expression is not the result of learning.

Text 6

How our emotions can make

People lie for any number of reasons – to avoid getting into trouble for their actions, to avoid hurting another person's feelings, to ingratiate themselves with someone the want to impress. Who can lie successfully – and when?

Apparently, most people can lie successfully when they don't care whether or not their lie is successful. But when the substance of the lie concerns their feelings, their true emotions often leak through and betray the falsehood. We express our emotions through several channels; verbal, visual and vocal. It is relatively easy to control the verbal aspects of our emotional expression, but the nonverbal aspects are likely to trip us up.

The more motivated we are to lie successfully, the less successful we may be, because clues to our deception in the nonverbal channels become more obvious. The more we care about lying successfully, the more emotion we experience – usually some form of fear. We may fear that our lie will be detected, we may be liked and accepted; we may worry about hurting the other person unnecessarily. The more we care the harder we try to control our channels of expression. The visual and vocal channels are especially difficult to control, however, so the heightened motivation allows more clues to leak through these nonverbal channels.

This seemed to describe the difficulty college students had when trying to lie for an experiment conducted by social psychologist Bella de Paulo. With the goal of making a favorable impression, the students expressed opinions on controversial issues to another student. Motivation made all the difference. When the students' motivation to lie successfully was low (when the other person was the same gender or was unattractive, or when the disagreement was faked), they generally came across as sincere. But when students were highly motivated to lie successfully (when the other person was of the other gender or was highly attractive, or when the disagreement was real), their lies became relatively easy to detect. It was not their words that gave them away. When the other student had only a typed transcript of their remarks he or she was unable to detect the falsehood. But when nonverbal channels were available the students were generally perceived as insincere.

A gender difference appeared unexpectedly among the findings: women were generally less successful liars than men. In fact, the men seemed nearly as sincere when lying as they did when telling the truth. Women's lies were easier to catch, especially when the lie was shown on a soundless videotape – which presented only nonverbal, visual information.

It's not clear why women should find it so difficult to lie successfully, but there are two possible explanations. First, women

are generally better than men at expressing emotions with their tone of voice, their facial expressions and their body language. They may spontaneously express what they feel more plainly than men do and as a result may be at a loss when trying to disguise their emotions. Second, women may have a stronger motive to gain the approval of others. Our emotions are elicited by our appraisals of events in relation to our motives and values, or underlying concerns, so these concerns direct our emotional experiences to some degree. Accordingly, if women's underlying concerns are primarily interpersonal, their desire for approval increases their motivation to lie, and to lie successfully – which highlightens their emotion to the point where it can no longer be disguised.

Text 7

A triangular theory of love

According to psychologist Robert Sternberg, love varies from one relationship to another because its mix of components differ. Sternberg suggests that love has three possible components: intimacy, passion and commitment. In his theory, intimacy is the emotional component of love. It refers to feeling close and bound together by mutual affection. Passion is love's motivational component. It is the drive that leads to romance, physical attraction, and sexual consummation. Finally, there is commitment, the cognitive component of love. It refers to the decision to label a

certain relationship “love” and to seek to maintain that relationship over time.

Different types of love, Sternberg claims, have different amounts of these three components. Liking consists of intimacy without passion or commitment. Infatuation, or love at first sight, is passion alone, in the absence of commitment or intimacy. When a person is committed to a relationship that lacks both intimacy and passion, the result is empty love. Romantic love is intimacy and passion combined, without much commitment (though commitment may come later). When passion is absent but intimacy and commitment are present, we have what is called companionate love, the kind of love that sometimes occurs after many years of marriage. Passion and commitment without intimacy produced fatuous love, the type that is found in a marriage that follows a whirlwind courtship. The parents have a strong sexual attraction and have decided to share their lives, but they have not yet developed much knowledge of each other or deep feelings of emotional closeness. What Sternberg refers to as consummate love is the richest of all; it consists of all three components – intimacy, passion and commitment.

One strength of Sternberg’s theory is that, in identifying love’s structure (its components), it can account for love’s many variations. Another strength is that the theory can deal with love as a process, as something that changes over time. It allows us to describe change in

terms of shifts in the mix of love's three components. In a marriage, for instance, the passion component may fade over the years, while intimacy and commitment remain strong. Fatuous love, characterized by passion and commitment, may gradually acquire intimacy and become consummate love.

Sternberg's theory also has some limitations, the most basic of which is the fact that it is primarily descriptive. While it defines different types of love in terms of three components, it gives us no framework for understanding why these different types occur and who is most likely to experience each one.

Text 8

Learning

For most of us topic of learning brings to mind a classroom, whether elementary, high school, or college; lectures, biology labs; practice in long division or library research on the forest people of Africa. But learning encompasses far more than formal education. Indeed, it permeates every aspect of life, and not just human life at that. To a greater or lesser degree, all animals learn. Simple invertebrates live largely by genetically programmed reflexes, which prepare them to behave in given ways. But the more complex an organism, the less it depends on innate responses and the more it must rely on learning in order to adapt rapidly and appropriately to changing conditions. This means that the more capable of learning an organism is, the more

adaptable it is and the more environments it can inhabit – as with humans, who populate the globe.

No matter what area of psychology we consider, learning plays a central role. Learning even seems to have a physiological effect: for example, animals raised in enriched environments – which promote exploration – tent to have more synaptic connections in their brains and are prepared to learn more readily than others.

Outside the schoolroom or the lecture hall, we can find innumerable instances of learning going on. If you get a stomach ache after eating oysters for the first time, you probably will not particularly want to go near them again: you have "learned" by simple association that, oysters are linked with stomach ache.

An abused child learns that withdrawal or abuse of others is an acceptable way, or perhaps the only way, to deal with fear, anger, or frustration. All through life we observe other people at school, in offices, at parties, at theatres, or in street fights and take in how the society around us expects us to behave in those situations.

Psychology's exploration of learning in both animals and humans has among other things, given us insights into daily life; has enhanced formal education in a number of ways, from computer-assisted learning to reward systems that motivate children to set goals in writing term papers; and has formed the basis of therapies that help to free people with phobias and their terrors.

Learning comes about through experience. Historically behaviorists and cognitive psychologists have answered this question differently. Behaviorists have thought of learning as changes in observable behavior caused by environmental events. This goes along with behaviorism's central tenet: learning is to be characterized only in terms of the organism's history of external events and responses to those events; in this view, future behavior, can be brought about by controlling the environmental events that produce the learning of that kind of behavior.

Cognitive psychologists are more likely to describe learning in terms of changes in internal mental processes and knowledge. In this view, overt behavior is the result of processes that include perceiving stimuli, retrieving appropriate knowledge, anticipating events, and behaving accordingly.

How can the learning be defined so that the different approaches can be accommodated, at least to some degree? It is said that learning refers to a long-lasting change in an organism's disposition to behave in certain ways as a result of experience. This definition excludes any changes caused by maturation or by temporary states like fatigue or illness.

In order to encompass the broad range of learning, psychologists have divided it into several types. There is habituation, a simple type of learning; associative learning, which includes the two kinds of

conditioning, classical and instrumental, and covers such diverse topics as punishment and skill learning; spatial learning, focusing on our understanding of the location of objects in space and our own orientation in the physical environment; and observational learning, an area that illustrates the coming together of the behavioral and cognitive points of view.

Text 9

Punishment: use with care

Punishment, as we have seen, involves any unpleasant event (such as shock or denial of privileges) that follows a response and weakens it. If a rat receives a painful electric shock each time it presses a lever, it will soon stop pressing the lever. Life is full of aversive or painful consequences that serve as punishments: parents spank children, students get failing grades, lawbreakers are fined or jailed. Thus, both as individuals and as a society, we regard punishment as a useful means of controlling behavior. Our environment provides many "natural" punishments that effectively suppress specific behavior. A child has to touch a hot stove only once. After slipping and falling on an icy sidewalk, anyone walks more carefully.

Sometimes punishment involves denying or removing some pleasant or desired object or event. A small girl who misbehaves is not allowed to watch her favorite television program. Teachers often use "time out" – placing an unruly child in temporary isolation to control

disruptive behavior. Misbehaving teenagers are “grounded” by their parents. Hockey players are sent to the penalty box for fighting.

Punishment can produce unwanted consequences. The association between punishment and a particular act can generalize, so that when the undesirable behavior disappears, desirable behavior also vanishes. For example, a child who is regularly and severely punished for aggression may stop fighting but may also become passive, giving up assertiveness along with aggression.

When punishment takes the form of harsh criticism, it can have very negative emotional consequences, lowering self-esteem and eroding any sense of competence. In addition, punishment may lead, by association, to intense dislike and to the avoidance of whoever administrated the punishment as well as avoidance of the situation in which it occurred.

Although punishment clearly tells people what not to do, it gives no hint as to what they should do. It suppresses inappropriate behavior without establishing an appropriate response in its place. For this reason punishment is probably most effective when used in conjunction with positive reinforcement for a specific alternative behavior. Such a combination effectively ended a retarded boy’s painful attacks on other children in an institution. Each time Ricky bit another child, the staff made him wear a catcher’s mask for 10 minutes. The mask made it impossible for him to bite. Because Ricky

disliked the face mask, he soon stopped his attacks. The staff also began rewarding Ricky with attention and approval whenever he played constructively with others for a certain length of time without biting.

Text 10

Types of Social Workers

Child, family, and school social workers provide social services and assistance to improve the social and psychological functioning of children and their families and to maximize the well-being of families and the academic functioning of children. They may assist single parents, arrange adoptions, or help find foster homes for neglected, abandoned, or abused children. Some specialize in services for senior citizens. These social workers may run support groups for the children of aging parents; advise elderly people or family members about housing, transportation, long-term care, and other services; and coordinate and monitor these services. Through employee assistance programs, social workers may help people cope with job-related pressures or with personal problems that affect the quality of their work.

In schools, social workers often serve as the link between students' families and the school, working with parents, guardians, teachers, and other school officials to ensure students reach their academic and

personal potential. In addition, they address problems such as misbehavior, truancy, and teenage pregnancy and advise teachers on how to cope with difficult students. Increasingly, school social workers teach workshops to entire classes.

Child, family, and school social workers may also be known as child welfare social workers, family services social workers, child protective services social workers, occupational social workers, or gerontology social workers. They often work for individual and family services agencies, schools, or state or local governments.

Medical and public health social workers provide psychosocial support to people, families, or vulnerable populations so they can cope with chronic or terminal illnesses, such as Alzheimer's disease, cancer, or AIDS. They also advise family caregivers, counsel patients, and help plan for patients' needs after discharge from hospitals. They may arrange for at-home services, such as meals-on-wheels or home care. Some work on interdisciplinary teams that evaluate certain kinds of patients—geriatric or organ transplant patients, for example. Medical and public health social workers may work for hospitals, nursing and personal care facilities, individual and family services agencies, or local governments.

Mental health and substance abuse social workers assess and treat individuals with mental illness or substance abuse problems, including abuse of alcohol, tobacco, or other drugs. Such services

include individual and group therapy, outreach, crisis intervention, social rehabilitation, and teaching skills needed for everyday living. They also may help plan for supportive services to ease clients' return to the community. Mental health and substance abuse social workers are likely to work in hospitals, substance abuse treatment centers, individual and family services agencies, or local governments. These social workers may be known as clinical social workers. Other types of social workers include social work administrators, planners and policymakers, who develop and implement programs to address issues such as child abuse, homelessness, substance abuse, poverty, and violence. These workers research and analyze policies, programs, and regulations. They identify social problems and suggest legislative and other solutions. They may help raise funds or write grants to support these programs.

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