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Данное учебное пособие предназначено для студентов магистратуры психологических и психолого-педагогических факультетов ВУЗов по курсу «Английский язык для психологов-педагогов», а также для широкого круга лиц, изучающих данную тематику.

Целью данного пособия является формирование у студентов навыков работы с текстами по специальности, а также обучения основам аннотирования и реферирования текстов на английском языке по психолого-педагогической тематике. Систематическая работа с данным пособием поможет студентам в дальнейшей самостоятельной работе с англоязычными психологическими текстами, обеспечит включение в англоязычную профессиональную психологическую среду, а также позволит понять специфичность, цели и задачи педагогического концепта.

Предлагаемое пособие состоит из четырех разделов (sections). Каждый раздел состоит из глав (chapters), которые в свою очередь, разделены на уроки (units). Все составляющие направлены на развитие грамматико-лексических знаний, навыков коммуникативного чтения, сопровождаемые послетекстовыми тестами и вопросами, и умений разбора практических ситуаций и кейсов.

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Введение

Данное учебное пособие предназначено для студентов магистратуры психологических и психолого- педагогических факультетов ВУЗов по курсу «Английский язык для психологов- педагогов», а также для широкого круга лиц, изучающих данную тематику.

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Структура учебного пособия представлена следующим образом:

1. Повторение грамматических основ английского языка. В данном разделе рассмотрены базовые аспекты грамматики английского языка, включающий семь уроков. В конце раздела представлена небольшая контрольная работа, которая позволит оценить знания обучающихся, чтобы в дальнейшем более эффективно проводить занятия.

2. Изучение теоретико-методологических аспектов психологии. Данный раздел содержит четыре главы, которые посвящены разбору психологии как будущей профессиональной сферы, изучена история психологии, основные ее направления, концепции, идеи, особое внимание уделено истории развития психологии в России. Также отдельно разобраны темы психологии личности и социальной психологии.

3. Обоснование педагогических процессов в изучении и обучении психологии. В данном разделе рассмотрены основы педагогики как вида деятельности, показаны особенности и методология преподавания непосредственно психологии. Также в данном разделе приведен алгоритм и пример реализации эмпирического исследования знаний и умений педагогов и студентов в психолого- педагогической области с целью развития навыков обсуждения на английском языке.

4. Решение кейсов и практических заданий для студентов. В данном разделе приведены различные практические игры, которые могут быть включены в образовательный процесс. Также предложено несколько кейсов и практических задач, которые должны быть решены студентами посредством дискуссии, применения знаний на практике и пр.

Учебное пособие также включает в себя глоссарий с определением различных тематических терминов, структурированный список литературы по теоретическому базису, а также приложения.

Автор надеется, что данное пособие будет эффективным и надежным помощником в развитии языковой компетенции обучающихся и в систематизации основных психологопедагогических теорий и концепций в исторической перспективе на основе аутентического материала.
CHAPTER 1. GRAMMAR REVISION

Unit 1. Definite and Indefinite articles

A - AN:

«A» and »an» are **indefinite articles** used to refer to a singular countable noun. An **indefinite article** means that we do not know which one, or it is not important to know it.

*Which one to use: «a» or «an»?* The rule states that «a» should be used before words that begin with consonants (b, c, d etc.), while «an» should be used before words that begin with vowels (a, e, i, etc.). **It should be noted, however, that the usage is determined by the pronunciation** and not by the spelling, and this includes abbreviations and acronyms. To simplify, one uses «a» before a word that begins with a consonant **SOUND**, and «an» before a word that begins with a vowel **SOUND**.

«A» is used before:

- a consonant (b, c, d, f, g, etc.): a car/a hotel/a game
- a vowel that is pronounced like «yu»: a European/a university
- the vowel 'o' when it has a «w» sound: a one-way street

«An» is used before:

- a vowel (a, e, i, o, u, etc.): an animal/an elevator/an only child
- an unaspirated 'h': an hour/an honest man
- an abbreviation starting with a vowel sound: an MBA ('em' sound)

THE:

«The» is a **definite article** used to talk about something specific.
- The town where Julie lives is very big.
- What book is Julie reading? She's reading the book Tom gave her.

«The» is also used to refer to:
- Rivers, seas, oceans: the Mississippi river, the Mediterranean sea, the Atlantic ocean
- Nationalities: the British, the Americans, the Japanese, the Chinese, etc.

NO ARTICLE:

No article is used in **generalizations**:
- I like music
- I watch television but I listen to the radio and I go to the cinema.
- I don't play tennis but I play the piano, the guitar, etc.

No article is used for **place names** (towns, countries, mountains):
- London, Spain, Mount Everest

Except if plural:
- The Greek islands, The United States, The Alps, The Himalayas ...
ADJECTIVES & PREPOSITIONS

Some adjectives go with certain prepositions. There is no real pattern – you need to learn them as you meet them. Here are some examples but remember that there are many other adjective + preposition combinations that are not covered here.

With «at»: I’m quite good at English but I’m bad at maths and I’m terrible at physics.

With «for»: Jogging is good for your health but smoking is bad for you.

The town is famous for its cheese. As well as «good for», «bad for» and «famous for» we also say «qualified for» «ready for», «responsible for», «suitable for» and several others.

With «of»:
- I’m perfectly capable of doing it myself, thank you.
- I’m very fond of this old sweatshirt.

As well as «capable of» and «fond of» we also say «aware of», «full of», «tired of» and several others.

With «with»
- We’re very pleased with your progress.
- You’re not still angry with me are you?

As well as «pleased with» and «angry with» we also say «bored with», «delighted with», «satisfied with» and several others.

With «to»
- She’s the one who’s married to a doctor, isn’t she?
- You’ll be responsible to the head of the Finance department.

Notice that you can be responsible for something but responsible to someone. Other common adjective + preposition combinations include «interested in» and «keen on». It’s a good idea to make a note of new combinations in your vocabulary notebook as you meet them. Remember too that a preposition is followed by a noun or a gerund («ing» form).

-ED AND –ING ADJECTIVES

Adjectives that end «-ed» (e.g. «bored», «interested») and adjectives that end «-ing» (e.g. «boring», «interesting») are often confused.

Adjectives that end «-ED» describe emotions – they tell us how people feel about something.
- I was very bored in the math’s lesson. I almost fell asleep.
- He was surprised to see Helen. She’d told him she was going to Australia.
- Feeling tired and depressed, he went to bed.

Adjectives that end «-ING» describe the thing that causes the emotion – a boring lesson makes you feel bored.
Have you seen that film? It’s absolutely terrifying.

I could listen to him for hours. He’s one of the most interesting people I’ve ever met.

I can’t eat this! It’s disgusting! What is it?

Remember that people can be **boring** but only if they make other people feel **bored**.

- He talks about the weather for hours. He’s so boring.
- NOT I was very boring at the party so I went home.

Here are some more adjectives that can have both an «-ED» and an «-ING» form: amused, amusing, annoyed, annoying, confused, confusing, disappointed, disappointing, excited, exciting, exhausted, exhausting, frightened, frightening, satisfied, satisfying, shocked, shocking.

**GRADABLE / NON-GRADABLE ADJECTIVES**

**GRADABLE** adjectives are adjectives like «cold» «hot» and «frightened». You can be very cold or a bit cold. Gradable adjectives show that something can have different degrees.

**NON-GRADABLE** adjectives are adjectives like «married» or «wooden». You can’t be very married or a bit married. Non-gradable adjectives do not have different degrees.

Adjectives like «terrifying», «freezing» «amazing» are also non-gradable adjectives. They already contain the idea of «very» in their definitions – «freezing» means «very cold» etc.

**Using adverbs of degree.** When we use adverbs of degree to modify adjectives we usually have to use different adverbs for gradable and non-gradable adjectives.

- NOT I’m completely hot.
- NOT It was very fantastic!

**With gradable adjectives:**

- It’s a bit cold in here. Shall I turn the fire on?
- He’s very interested in history. Why don’t you buy him a history book?
- This exercise is really difficult. I don’t know any of the answers.
- I’m extremely tired. I’m going to bed.

The adverbs a **bit, very, really, extremely** and **quite** can all be used with gradable adjectives.

**With non-gradable adjectives:**

- It’s absolutely freezing in here. Shall I turn the fire on?
- He’s completely fascinated by history. Why don’t you buy him a history book?
- This exercise is absolutely impossible.
- That film is really terrifying. Don’t go and see it on your own.

The adverbs **absolutely** and **completely** can be used with non-gradable adjectives. Notice that **really** can be used with both gradable AND non-gradable adjectives.

**COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE ADJECTIVES**

**COMPARATIVE adjectives** are used to compare two things or people to each other.

- A bus is **bigger** than a car.
- Bill is **older** than Harry.

**SUPERLATIVE adjectives** are used to compare one member of a group to the whole group.

- The Nile is **the longest** river in the world.
In our class, Maria is the oldest and Charlie is the youngest.

Formation of comparative and superlative forms of adjectives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One syllable</td>
<td>long</td>
<td>longer than</td>
<td>the longest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Add: -er / -est to the adjective.</td>
<td>nice</td>
<td>nicer than</td>
<td>the nicest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hot</td>
<td>hotter than</td>
<td>the hottest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two or more syllables</td>
<td>interesting</td>
<td>More interesting than</td>
<td>the most interesting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Add: more-less or most-least before the adjective.</td>
<td>practical</td>
<td>less practical than</td>
<td>the least interesting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two syllables ending in -y</td>
<td>funny</td>
<td>funnier than</td>
<td>the funniest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The 'y' becomes «i» before -er/-est</td>
<td>easy</td>
<td>easier than</td>
<td>the easiest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>happy</td>
<td>happier than</td>
<td>the happiest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irregular Adjectives</td>
<td>good</td>
<td>better than</td>
<td>the best</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bad</td>
<td>worse than</td>
<td>the worst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>much/many</td>
<td>more than</td>
<td>the most</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>little</td>
<td>less than</td>
<td>the least</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>far</td>
<td>farther/further than</td>
<td>the farthest/furthest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please note:
1) Some two-syllable adjectives have two possible forms of comparison, for example:
- commoner/more common
- likelier/more likely
- politer/more polite
- simpler/more simple
- stupider/more stupid
- subtler/more subtle
2) Adjectives ending with a vowel and a consonant double the consonant, for example: big-bigger-biggest
except when the consonant is »w» or »y»: new-newer-newest

Unit 3. Adverbs

FORMATION AND POSITION OF ADVERBS

Adverbs are used to say »how«, »how often«, »where« or »in what manner« we do something.
- She danced very gracefully.
- They were all chatting happily when we arrived.
- He drove carefully along the icy road.
- The technician explained the problem very clearly.
- Tom often travels by train.
- The children are playing outside.
- Jane really likes that band.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Formation of adverbs</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Adverb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Most adverbs are formed by adding -ly to the adjective:</td>
<td>slow</td>
<td>slowly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>careful</td>
<td>carefully</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For adjectives ending in -y, -e, -ic, the adverbs are formed as follows:</td>
<td>happy</td>
<td>happily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>humble</td>
<td>humbly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>historic</td>
<td>historically</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Some exceptions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>good</th>
<th>well</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hard</td>
<td>hard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fast</td>
<td>fast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>early</td>
<td>early</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>late</td>
<td>late</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>daily</td>
<td>daily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>straight</td>
<td>straight</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N.B. Although they end in -ly, the following words are adjectives, NOT adverbs: friendly, lively, lonely, lovely, silly and ugly. For example: a friendly person, a silly remark, an ugly duckling, and so on...

**POSITION OF ADVERBS**

Different types of adverbs go in different positions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>manner</td>
<td>These adverbs usually go after the verb. They go after the object. If the object is long, the adverb can go before the verb.</td>
<td>He spoke <strong>clearly</strong>. He read the instructions <strong>carefully</strong>. He read <strong>carefully</strong> the instructions. He moved the newspaper and picked up the book.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>frequency</td>
<td>They go after the verb «be». They go before all other verbs. Between two verbs if there are two. After the first verb if there are more than two. Before two verbs if the second verb is an infinitive. Frequency phrases (e.g. once a week) go at the beginning or at the end of a sentence.</td>
<td>Tom is <strong>often</strong> late. Eva sometimes takes the bus. You can <strong>always</strong> change it later. I would <strong>never</strong> have found the way. We <strong>generally</strong> try to eat healthy food. <strong>Every so often</strong> Anna goes to the library. She plays tennis <strong>once a week</strong>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>place</td>
<td>Here, there, inside, etc. usually go at the end of a sentence.</td>
<td>Come and sit here. They are waiting inside.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>degree</td>
<td>Really, quite, etc. usually go before the verb. If there are two verbs, they go between. A lot, very much, etc. go at the end.</td>
<td>I <strong>really</strong> love that dress. I would <strong>just</strong> like a glass of water. He watches television <strong>a lot</strong>.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**ADVERBS OF FREQUENCY**

**Frequency Adverbs.** Adverbs such as always, already, ever, never, often, rarely, seldom, sometimes, still, usually, generally, regularly, are placed as follows in sentences:

- **after** the verb **BE**:
  - Charlie **is** always late.
  - English grammar **is** sometimes difficult.
  - Children **are** usually noisy.
- **before** other verbs:
  - Tom sometimes **takes** the bus.
  - Sophie usually **has** lunch with her colleagues.
  - Young people today often **spend** a lot of time on the phone.
- **between** two verbs or **after the first verb** if there are more than two:
Julie has never travelled on the Eurostar.
You can always change your password later.
I would never have thought that.

Except if, the second verb is an infinitive:
Charlie often needs to ask for directions.
Alex rarely chooses to travel by train.
We generally try to eat healthy food.

Frequency Phrases

Frequency phrases such as 'every day', 'once in a while', etc. go at the beginning or at the end of sentences.

- I wash my hair every day.
- Once a month I go to the hairdresser's to have it cut.
- Once in a while I am tempted to change the colour.

Unit 4. Linking words and phrases

Linking words and phrases in English (also called 'connective' or 'transition' words) are used to combine two clauses or sentences presenting contrast, comparison, condition, supposition, purpose, etc. They enable us to establish clear connections between ideas.

Most linking words can either connect clauses within a sentence, or start a sentence to form a link with the previous statement.

Note: A clause is a group of words that includes a subject and a verb. The following sentence contains two clauses: »She lives in Mexico because she likes the climate«.

Below you will find some examples of linking words and how to use them. This is not a comprehensive list. You may want to add your own linking words and phrases.

Examples of linking words within one sentence:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Linking Words</th>
<th>Example of use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>As long as provided (that) providing</td>
<td>You can take my car as long as/provided (that)/providing you don't damage it. (I will lend you my car on condition that you don't damage it.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Although/even though</td>
<td>Although/even though he is rich, he lives in a small house. (In spite of the fact that he is rich, he lives in a small house.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Even if</td>
<td>He is poor and has no house, but even if he had money, he wouldn't buy a house. (Supposing he had the money, he still wouldn't buy a house.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In case</td>
<td>Take an umbrella in case it rains. (It might rain, so it's a good idea to take an umbrella.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In spite of / despite</td>
<td>In spite of/despite the rain, she walked to the station. In spite of/despite being blind, he walked to the station. (without being affected by the rain or by being blind.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>So that</td>
<td>She arrived early so that she could help her colleagues. (She arrived early for the purpose of helping her colleagues.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whatever</td>
<td>You can count on me whatever you decide to do. (No matter what your decision is, you can count on me.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whereas</td>
<td>Tom is rich, whereas Jack is poor. (Tom is rich; in contrast Jack is poor.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Whenever I will lend you my car **whenever** you need it.
(No matter when you need my car, I will lend it to you.)

Wherever My thoughts will be with you **wherever** you go.
(No matter where you go, my thoughts will be with you.)

**Note:** If linking words start a sentence, they are followed by a comma. When they are used to connect two clauses, a semi-colon is used at the end of the first clause, and a comma is often used after the linking word(s).

**Examples of linking words that connect two separate sentences or two clauses:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Linking Words</th>
<th>Example of use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>As a result</td>
<td>Prices were reduced by 20%. <strong>As a result,</strong> sales increased.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consequently</td>
<td>The company is expanding. <strong>Consequently,</strong> there are jobs on offer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Therefore</td>
<td>A hurricane has been announced. <strong>Therefore,</strong> air traffic will be disrupted.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Besides</td>
<td>The trip is too expensive. <strong>Besides,</strong> I don't really like hot weather.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Furthermore</td>
<td>Computers are cheaper nowadays; <strong>furthermore,</strong> they are lighter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In addition</td>
<td>You haven't paid the rent yet. <strong>In addition,</strong> you owe me money.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moreover</td>
<td>The report is badly presented. <strong>Moreover,</strong> it contains inaccuracies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For instance</td>
<td>There are several problems to consider; <strong>for instance,</strong> there is a lack of public transport.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For example</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conversely</td>
<td>Northern European countries had a great summer. <strong>On the contrary,</strong> southern Europe had poor weather.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On the contrary</td>
<td>Laptops are convenient; <strong>on the other hand,</strong> they can be expensive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On the other hand</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>However</td>
<td>The hotel was open. <strong>However,</strong> nobody came to the reception desk.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nevertheless</td>
<td>He had severe injuries; <strong>nevertheless,</strong> he completely recovered.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the same way</td>
<td>Alex enjoys telling jokes; <strong>in the same way,</strong> his son adores funny stories.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likewise</td>
<td>Teenagers should be more respectful; <strong>by the same token,</strong> parents should be more understanding.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Similarly</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By the same token</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To summarise/sum up</td>
<td>I've covered the main events of the year. <strong>To sum up/briefly,</strong> our team is now one of the best in the world.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Briefly</td>
<td><strong>To conclude,</strong> I want to wish you all a very happy holiday season.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To conclude</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In conclusion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Unit 5. Nouns**

**COLLECTIVE NOUNS**

Collective nouns are names for a group of individuals or a number of animals, places, things, objects, concepts or ideas, for example: a **herd** of elephants, a **range** of mountains, a **gang** of thieves, a **pack** of cards, a **board** of directors.

**Examples of collective nouns:** army, audience, band, board, cabinet, class, committee, crew, crowd, family, flock, gang, group, herd, hive, jury, majority, minority, public, society, staff, team.

These nouns take a **singular verb** when we think of the group as an entity:

- The audience **was** enthusiastic.
- Our team **is** definitely the best.
- The jury **is** deliberating.
We can use a **plural verb** if we think of them as members of a group acting individually:

- The crew **are** all **wearing** their new uniform.
- After the match the team all **shower and change**.

**COMPOUND NOUNS**

Compound nouns (or compound words) result from the merging of two words. These are very common in English and new combinations are invented almost every day.

Compound nouns normally consist of two or three parts, for example washing machine. The second part (machine) identifies the object or person. The first part (washing) tells us what sort of object or person it is, or what its purpose is.

The parts that compose a compound noun can be, for example:

- two nouns (notebook, toothbrush, motorcycle)
- an adjective and a noun (greenhouse, blackboard, software, redhead)
- an adjective and a verb (dry-cleaning, public speaking)
- a noun and a verb (rainfall, sunshine, haircut)
- a verb and an adverb (drawback, takeover)
- an adverb and a verb (outbreak, overthrow, input)
- the gerund form of a verb (-ing) with a noun (washing machine, swimming pool)

Compound nouns are either written as:

- separate words (ex: orange juice, real estate, post office, car park),
- words linked by a hyphen (mother-in-law, washing-up, check-in)
- or one word (notebook, classroom, football, bedroom, toothpaste).

It should be noted that compound nouns often have a meaning that is different from the two separate words.

For example:

- a greenhouse (compound noun) is a place where we grow plants.
- a green house (adjective and noun) is simply a house painted green.

**COUNTABLE NOUNS**

Countable nouns are individual objects, people, places and things that can be counted. For example, books, houses, Americans, cats, dogs, cars, etc.

A countable noun can be **singular** (a book) or **plural** (two books). The singular form of a verb is used with a singular countable noun: the apple **is** red. The plural form of a verb is used with a plural countable noun: the apples **are** red.

**UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS**

Uncountable or mass nouns are substances, concepts, information, materials, etc. which are not individual objects and cannot be counted. They have no plural form.

Some examples:

- Liquids and gases: milk, cream, water, coffee, smoke, air, oxygen
- Solid and granular substances: bread, cheese, meat, rice, sugar, salt, sand
Materials; wood, plastic, glass, paper

Concepts/abstract ideas: hope, peace, beauty, entertainment, freedom

Feelings and qualities: joy, anger, efficiency, honesty, pride, happiness

Activities: homework, sleep, surveillance, work

Uncountable or mass nouns are:
- used with no indefinite article (a/an): Drink water if you are thirsty. (not: a water)
- take a singular verb.: Water is safe to drink in this area.

To talk about a certain quantity, we use some/ a piece of/ a drop of/ a glass of/ a slice of, etc.
- some milk / a drop of milk
- a piece of cheese/cake/pizza
- a slice of bread
- a glass of water
- a piece of advice/information/news/luggage
- a news item

Common uncountable nouns: advice, accommodation, baggage, bread, cheese, equipment, furniture, happiness, information, knowledge, literature, luggage, money, music, news, pasta, progress, research, sadness, travel, water, work. Examples of use:
- Water is a necessity.
- Could I have a slice of bread please?
- Have some cream with your strawberries.
- That's an interesting piece of information.
- Here is the latest news.

PLURAL NOUNS WITH NO SINGULAR FORM

Some plural nouns have no singular form. Examples are: earnings, (reading) glasses, trousers, shorts, scissors, binoculars. These nouns take a plural verb:
- The company's earnings are increasing every year.
- These scissors are rusty.

To refer to one item of clothing, tools or instruments, which consist of two parts, a pair of, is used:
- A pair of trousers
- A pair of scissors.

Some nouns appear to be plural in form but take a singular verb. For example: news, gymnastics, athletics, economics, physics, politics:
- Athletics is a competitive sport.
- The news is not very good I'm afraid.
- They say politics is a complicated business.
- Gymnastics is fun to watch.
- Linguistics is the study of language.
- Physics is a difficult subject for many students.

PLURAL NOUNS. RULES FOR THE PLURAL FORM OF NOUNS.

Plural nouns are words used to refer to more than one person, place, animal, thing or idea. The plural form of nouns in English is formed as follows:

1. General Rule: Add «s»
Examples: cats, bags, books, tables, houses, dogs.

2. Nouns ending in S, CH, SH, X or Z: Add «es»
Examples: bus-buses, lunch-lunches, switch-switches, watch-watches, brush-brushes, box-boxes, waltz-waltzes.

There is one exception to this rule: If the noun ending in «-ch» is pronounced with a «k»' sound, add «s» to form the plural. Examples: stomach-stomachs, monarch-monarchs.

3. Nouns ending in F or FE: Add «ves»
Examples: half-halfves, shelf-shelves, eaf-leaves, thief-thieves, wolf-wolves, life-lives, knife-knives, wife-wives.
Some exceptions: belief-beliefs, chef-chefs, proof-proofs, roof-roofs....

4. Nouns ending in O: Add «es» or «s»
Examples ending in «es»: potato-potatoes, tomato-tomatoes, hero-heroes, echo-echoes, veto-vetoes, mosquito-mosquitoes.
Examples ending in «s»: radio-radios, stereo-stereos, video-videos, piano-pianos, photo-photos, soprano-sopranos.

5. Nouns ending in «Y».
Consonant before «y». Remove «y», add «ies».
Examples: cherry-cherries, city-cities, country-countries, family-families, lady-ladies, party-parties.

Vowel before «y» - add «s».
Examples: day-days, holiday-holidays, toy-toys, key-keys, donkey-donkeys, turkey-turkeys, valley-valleys.


7. Compound nouns (nouns containing two or more words). Compound nouns are usually made plural by adding «s» to the first noun.

8. Nouns with no change in the plural. Examples: deer, fish, sheep, salmon, trout, aircraft, hov-ercraft, spacecraft, headquarters, series, species, means, offspring ...

PLURAL NOUNS WITH NO SINGULAR FORM

Some plural nouns have no singular form. Examples: belongings, binoculars, clothes, earnings, goods, premises, sunglasses, trousers, shorts, scissors, stairs, surroundings...

These nouns take a plural verb:
- My clothes are wet.
- The company's earnings are increasing every year.
- Wow! Your sunglasses are very fashionable!
- These scissors are rusty.

To refer to one item of clothing, tools or instruments, which consist of two parts, a pair of, is used:
- A pair of trousers
- A pair of scissors.

Some nouns appear to be plural in form but take a singular verb. For example: news, gymnastics, athletics, economics, physics, politics.
- Athletics is a competitive sport.
The news is not very good I'm afraid.

They say politics is a complicated business.

Gymnastics is fun to watch.

Linguistics is the study of language.

Physics is a difficult subject for many students.

Unit 6. Possessives. Pronouns

POSSESSIVES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular Nouns:</strong> (even if the meaning is plural or if there are several words.)</td>
<td>Add 's after the possessor.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Tom's car</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The cat's tail.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The children's toys</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The Queen of England's jewels</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plural Nouns</strong></td>
<td>Add 's after the plural 's'.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- My parents' car.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The students' rooms.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- My grandparents' house</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Names/nouns ending in 's'</strong></td>
<td>Add 's after the last 's'.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Denis's wife</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Gladys's job</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The boss's office.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Double Possessive</strong></td>
<td>Add 's after the possessor's name, or use a possessive pronoun.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- A friend of my father's (one of his friends, not the only one.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- A friend of mine/his/hers/ours/yours/their.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- A friend of Julie's</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Shops and people's homes</strong></td>
<td>Often take the possessive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- At the hairdresser's</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- At the dentist's</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- At the Brown's</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N.B. The apostrophe followed by s ('s) (example: Tom's), to denote possession, is used for living things.

- living things (humans and animals): John's car, the cat's milk, the dog's tail (not the car's door)
- groups and institutions: The government's proposal, the company's policy.
- BUT: the door of the car, the leg of the table, the roof of the house.

RATHER - RATHER THAN - WOULD RATHER

It is often difficult for learners of English to know when to use 'rather', 'rather than' or 'would rather'. The explanation below should help clarify things.

«RATHER» is an adverb of degree like «fairly», «quite», etc. that can be used with nouns, adverbs, adjectives and superlatives.

- That’s rather a nuisance!
- He cooks rather well.
- She’s got a rather nice voice.
- That’s rather more than I expected to pay.

OR RATHER. When we want to correct what we have just said, or make it more precise, we often use the expression «or rather».
- His son is a doctor, or rather, a surgeon.
- To talk about preferences there are two structures: 'rather than' and 'would rather'.

RATHER THAN:
- It would be better to go in September rather than in August.
- I prefer to leave now rather than wait for all the speeches.
- He decided to write rather than telephone.

WOULD RATHER. The expression «would rather» is followed by the bare infinitive e.g. the infinitive without «to».
- Would you rather live here or go back to London? I’d rather live here. (= I would prefer to live here.)
- I don’t want to go to the swimming pool. I’d rather go to the beach. (= I would prefer to go to the beach.)
To say that one person would prefer another to do something, «would rather» is generally followed by a past tense.
- Don’t come on Monday. I’d rather you came on Tuesday.
To express regret about something that has already happened, «would rather» is followed by the past perfect.
- I’d rather you hadn’t done that = I wish you hadn’t done that.

-ING forms/ When the main clause has a verb in the –ing form, «rather than» can be followed by «–ing».
- I prefer getting up early rather than rushing at the last minute.

Be careful to note the following:
I’d rather + bare infinitive usually means ’I’d prefer’, as in the following example:
- I’d rather have a cup of tea. = I’d prefer to have a cup of tea/I’d prefer a cup of tea.
BUT, with certain verbs - like/enjoy/appreciate - the meaning changes:
- I’d rather like a beer = I’d quite like a beer /I would enjoy a beer.

SOME - ANY - A LITTLE - A FEW - MUCH - MANY

Some, any, a little, a few are used to express quantity, to say or ask if you have a quantity of something or not.
- Some is used in affirmative sentences, and also when asking for or offering something.
- Any is used in negative and interrogative sentences.
- A few is used with countable nouns: a few apples.
- A little is used with uncountable nouns: a little cheese.

Here are some examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affirmative</th>
<th>Negative</th>
<th>Interrogative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There are some apples in the bowl.</td>
<td>There aren't any apples.</td>
<td>Are there any apples?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(We don't know how many, but the bowl is not empty.)</td>
<td>(The bowl is empty.)</td>
<td>(We want to know if the bowl contains apples.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are a few apples, not many, a small number.</td>
<td>There aren't many apples.</td>
<td>Are there many apples?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is a little cheese.</td>
<td>There isn't much cheese.</td>
<td>Is there much cheese?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N.B.: Asking and offering: Can I have / would you like some coffee?
SO - NEITHER

«SO» is used to show agreement with affirmative statements by, or concerning, another person.

SO + Auxiliary + Subject (pronoun): So do I
Remember: the Auxiliary in the response must agree with the verb tense in the original statement.

Here are some examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Speaker A</th>
<th>Speaker B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Charlie likes chocolate</td>
<td>So do I. (= I like chocolate too.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emma lives in London.</td>
<td>So does Amanda. (= Amanda lives in London too.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alex can swim.</td>
<td>So can Jenny. (= Jenny can swim too.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pedro is good at sports.</td>
<td>So is Rafael. (= Rafael is good at sports too.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our teachers are very strict.</td>
<td>So are ours. (= Our teachers are very strict too.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enzo would love to work in Paris.</td>
<td>So would I. (= I would love to work in Paris too.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alex will be angry.</td>
<td>So will I. (= I will be angry too.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

«NEITHER» is used to show agreement with negative statements. «NEITHER» can be replaced by NOR with no change in meaning.

Neither + Auxiliary + Subject (pronoun): Neither do I (Nor do I)

Remember: the Auxiliary in the response must agree with the verb tense in the original statement.

Here are some examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Speaker A</th>
<th>Speaker B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sam doesn't want to go out.</td>
<td>Neither do I. (= I don't want to go out either.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wendy can't cook.</td>
<td>Neither can I. (= I can't cook either.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jason doesn't have a ticket.</td>
<td>Neither does Tom. (= Tom doesn't have a ticket either.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can't speak Chinese.</td>
<td>Neither can Sue. (= Sue can't speak Chinese either.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peter hasn't finished yet.</td>
<td>Neither has Tom. (= Tom hasn't finished either.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meg couldn't come today.</td>
<td>Neither could Sue. (= Sue couldn't come today either.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dad won't pay attention.</td>
<td>Neither will Mum. (= Mum won't pay attention either.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

THERE - THEIR - THEY'RE

Learners of English often confuse »there», »their» and »they're». These words have the same sound but not the same meaning. The explanation and examples below show the differences between them.

«THERE» is the opposite of »here». It means in that place, not here.
- Where is my pen? It's there on the table.
- I'm taking the train to London. I'll call you when I get there.
- You can park there beside my car.

There is, there are, are used to indicate that something exists.
- There is a cat in the garden.
- There are many cars on the road.
«THEIR» is a possessive adjective just like 'my' 'your' 'his/her/its' 'our'. It is used before a noun and means that something belongs to 'them'.
- **Their** car is red. My car is blue.
- They invited all **their** friends to **their** wedding.
- My parents are very pleased with **their** new house.

«THEY'RE» is a contraction of **they are**. 'They' is the subject of a sentence with the verb 'to be'. **They're** beautiful = They are beautiful.
- Where are the children? **They're** at school.
- The children are attentive. **They're** listening to the teacher.
- People are voting today. **They're** electing a new president.

**THEY.** Using the non-gender pronoun «THEY» when referring to a person in the singular

In English, when the gender is known, we use the pronouns »**he**« or »**him**« to refer to a man and »**she**« or »**her**« to refer to a woman.
- «If Mr. Brown calls while I’m out, tell **him** to call back later».
- «If the lady calls while I’m out, tell **her** to call back later».

When the gender of the person is not known or not relevant, and because English has no specific non-gender pronoun to refer to a person in the singular, the pronoun »**he**« or »**him**« was, traditionally, used as a generic pronoun.
- «If anyone calls while I’m out, tell **him** to call back later».

Nowadays, because »**he**« and »**him**« are no longer accepted as a generic pronouns to refer to a person of either sex, it has become conventional to use »**they**« or »**them**«. For the same reason the gender-free pronoun »**their**« is used to replace his/her.
- «Someone said that **they** saw a man running away with the suitcase».
- «If anyone calls while I’m out, tell **them** to call back later».
- «The person who called didn't leave **their** name».
- «Any parent would be worried about **their** child given the circumstances».

Those who are unhappy with this could avoid the problem by rewording their text. For example:
- Can you tell someone’s character from what **they** wear?
- → What can you tell about people from what **they** wear/from **their** clothes?

Another possibility would be to use »**he or she**, »**him or her**, »**his or her**« or »**himself or herself**«, but this can become awkward with repeated usage. For example:
- If a patient has a problem, **he or she** should speak to **his or her** doctor.

The use of a plural pronoun to refer back to a singular subject is not something new. In fact it dates back to the 16th century and is now widely accepted both in spoken and written English. Here is an example of 19th century use:
- «It’s enough to drive anyone out of **their** senses».
- «Shaw, Plays Pleasant and Unpleasant (1898)».

However, it should be noted that some traditional grammarians still consider this usage to be unacceptable in formal writing. So when writing in a very formal context it might be advisable to reword the text in order to avoid this, but in any other register it is perfectly acceptable.

**THIS - THAT - THESE - THOSE**
«This», «that», «these» and »those» are demonstrative adjectives.
«This» is used to refer to a single person, thing or place that is close to the speaker. «That» is used when the person, thing or place is more distant.

- This computer is easy to use.
- That coat on the chair is mine.
- This person is my colleague.
- That man over there is my boss.
- This picture is clearer than that one.
- This is my seat and that one is yours.

«These» is the plural form of this. «Those» is the plural form of that.

- These letters are urgent. Please post them immediately.
- Those men in the street are policemen.
- I like these shoes. They're very comfortable.
- Those shoes on the shelf are very expensive.
- I like these shoes better than those shoes.
- These books are more interesting than those (books).

In formal contexts we can use that and those for 'one(s)'.

- The most surprising announcement was that made by the Prime Minister. (That means the announcement, the one made by the Prime Minister)
- A shuttle service is available for our guests.
- Those interested should enquire at the reception desk. (Those means the guests, the ones interested.)

**WHATEVER - WHenever - WhEREVER - WHICHEVer - WHOEVER**

Whatever, whenever, wherever, whichever, whoever. If we add -ever to »wh»-words like what, which, when, where and who, we change their meaning to: «it doesn»t matter», or «no matter» what, which, when, where and who.

Whatever, whenever, wherever, whichever, whoever are used as follows:

**Whatever** = anything or everything; regardless of what, no matter what:

- Whatever you do, don't forget your grandmother's birthday.
- Take whatever you want from the fridge if you're hungry.
- Put that thing away whatever it is!
- She won't listen to you whatever you say.

**Whenever** = every time; at any time; regardless of when, not matter when:

- You can borrow my dictionary whenever you like.
- Whenever we plan a picnic it rains!
- He interrupts me whenever I start to speak.
- Whenever I open this cupboard something falls out!

**Wherever** = everywhere; regardless of where, no matter where:

- Wherever you go you'll always find someone who speaks English.
- She'll be happy wherever she decides to live.
- We'll go on holiday wherever you want to go - you choose!
- My grandfather accompanies my grandmother wherever she goes.
Whichever = the person or thing which; regardless of which, no matter which:
- Wear whichever shoes are the most comfortable.
- Take whichever one you want.
- Choose whichever earrings you like - it's your birthday!
- Take any book you like - whichever one interests you.

Whoever = the person who; regardless of who, no matter who:
- Whoever comes with you is welcome.
- Whoever opened the gate didn't close it.
- I don't want to talk to you, - whoever you are!
- I'm so annoyed with whoever borrowed the dictionary and didn't put it back!

WHETHER – IF

«Whether» and «if» are used as follows:
- To express alternatives: I don't know whether/if I'll go to the party on Saturday (or not).
- To report a question:
  - Are you going to the party?
  - She asked me whether/if I was going to the party (or not).
- Only whether can be used in the following cases:
  - When followed by an infinitive:
    - I don't know whether to go to the party or not.
  - After prepositions:
    - It depends on whether I get home early or not.
    - When whether begins a clause which is the subject of a sentence.
    - Whether I go to the party or to the cinema makes no difference to me.
- When followed directly by «or not»: I'll be happy whether or not I go to the party.

WHO – WHOM

There is often confusion about the use of »who» and »whom». Who and whom are pronouns. Who is a subject pronoun, in the same way as «he/she/they». Whom is an object pronoun, in the same way as «him/her/them».

In the sentence «John loves Julie»:
- John is the subject of the verb «love»
- Julie is the object of John's affection.

Simple rule: If you can substitute «he/they», use «who». If you can substitute «him/them», use »whom».

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tom</td>
<td>loves</td>
<td>Julie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who</td>
<td>loves</td>
<td>Julie?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom</td>
<td>loves</td>
<td>whom?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Subject. Who. We use «who» when it is the subject of a verb, that is, when it refers to the person who takes an action.
- Julie played tennis. Julie is the subject of the verb «to play».
- To find out the name of the player, we ask a question using «who». Who played tennis? Julie played tennis.
Who can also be used as the subject of a non-identifying clause? There's Mr. Jones who bought the house next door.

Object. Whom. We can use «whom» as the object of a verb, but it is very formal and not often used in spoken English.

- **Formal English**: Whom did you see?
- **Everyday English**: Who did you see?
  - In formal English, whom is used directly after a preposition:
    - With whom did you play?
  - Whom is always used when it is preceded by quantifiers such as all of, both of, few of, many of, several of, etc. For example: He addressed the spectators, most of whom remained seated.

WHO - WHOSE - WHOM - THAT - WHICH - WHERE

Relative pronouns and relative adverbs introduce relative clauses. «Who» - «whose» - «whom» - «that» and «which» - are relative pronouns. «Where» is a relative adverb.

There is often confusion about the use of who, whose, whom, that, which or where. We use **who** when referring to people or when we want to know the person. The person **who** answered the phone was very helpful.

- Who ate all the chocolates?

We use **which** to refer to a thing or an idea, and to ask about choices.

- My car, **which** is 20 years old, isn't worth much.
- Which size would you like, small, medium or large?

We use **that** for both a person and a thing/idea.

- I want to speak to the person **that** I saw yesterday.
- This is the style **that** I want to use.

**Whose** refers to ownership.

- Whose dictionary is this?
- There's the girl **whose** car was stolen.

**Whom.** When **who** is the object of a verb, **whom**, with a preposition, can be used instead, but it is formal and rather old-fashioned. In modern speech, we use **who**, or we leave out the pronoun.

- You are referring to a person **who** no longer works here.
- The person to **whom** you are referring no longer works here.
- The person (**who** you are referring to) no longer works here.

**Whom** is always used when it is preceded by quantifiers such as all of, both of, few of, many of, several of, etc. For example:

- He addressed the spectators, most of **whom** remained seated.

**Where** (relative adverb) refers to places and locations.

- Where is the station please?
- That's **where** I spent my childhood.

Examples of use:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I know a woman. She speaks 6 languages.</th>
<th>I know a woman who speaks 6 languages.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I know a woman. Her husband speaks 6 languages.</td>
<td>I know a woman whose husband speaks 6 languages.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I spoke to a person yesterday.</td>
<td>The person to whom I spoke yesterday. (formal) The person (who / that) I spoke to yesterday. (informal)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I live in a house. It is 200 years old.  
That's the hotel. We stayed there last year.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I live in a house which / that is 200 years old.</th>
<th>I live in a house which / that is 200 years old.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>That's the hotel where we stayed last year.</td>
<td>That's the hotel that we stayed in last year.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**When can we leave out relative pronouns (who, whom, which, that)?** In conversational English relative pronouns can be omitted when they are the object of a relative clause. In a formal context it is usually wiser to leave the relative pronoun.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tom</td>
<td>drives</td>
<td>a red truck</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

→ The person who drives a red truck is called Tom.
In this sentence 'who' refers to the subject so it cannot be omitted.

→ The truck (that) Tom drives is red.
In this sentence 'that' refers to the object (the truck) so it can be omitted.

**Compare:**
- The woman **who** wanted to see me is a doctor. («Woman» is the subject of the sentence)
- The woman **that** I wanted to see is a doctor. (Here «woman' is the object, «I» is the subject.)

**RELATIVE PRONOUNS AND RELATIVE CLAUSES**

A relative **pronoun** is used to introduce a relative **clause**. A relative clause is a description for a noun. The description comes after the noun to identify it or give more information. A defining relative clause identifies a noun. It provides information necessary for identification. These clauses are also called identifying relative clauses or restrictive relative clauses. Defining relative clauses are not put in commas.

→ The woman who is speaking is a friend of mine. The clause «who is speaking» clarifies which woman you are referring to.

A non-defining relative clause adds information which is not essential for identification purposes. These clauses are also called non-identifying relative clauses or non-restrictive relative clauses. Non-defining relative clauses are put in commas.

→ Ms. Smith, who is a friend of mine, is speaking about sustainable resources. The clause «who is a friend of mine» adds non-essential information.

**N.B.** 'That' cannot replace 'who' to introduce a non-defining relative clause. You cannot say: Ms. Smith, **that** is a friend of mine, is speaking about sustainable resources.

**WISH - IF**

**WISH:**
To express a regret about the present, we use wish + the past simple:
- I don't play the piano. I **wish I played** the piano.
- Pedro doesn't speak English. Pedro **wishes he spoke** English.
- Hugo doesn't have a car. He **wishes he had** a car.

When «wish» if followed by the verb «to be», «were» is used instead of «was»:
- I don't have a lot of money. I **wish I were** (not was) rich.
- I'm not very tall. I **wish I were** taller.
- I'm not very strong. I **wish I were** stronger.
To express **a regret about the past**, we use **wish + the past perfect**:

- Julie lost her umbrella yesterday. Julie *wishes* she *hadn't lost* her umbrella.
- Alex didn't revise his grammar. Alex *wishes* he *had revised* his grammar.
- The hotel was full. Tom *wished* he *had booked* a room.

To express **a desire to change something**, we use **wish + would**:

- The children are making a lot of noise. I *wish* they *would stop* making noise.
- The weather is awful. I *wish* the weather *would improve*.
- The cinema is old-fashioned. I *wish* the owners *would renovate* it.

**Note**: «I wish» can be replaced with »if only« which carries more emphasis. «If only you had told me in time!» = «I wish you had told me in time».

**IF**:  
After *if*, we often use *were* instead of *was*, especially in a formal style where it is considered more correct.

- If I *were* rich, I would travel all over the world.
- If he *were* a better manager, the company would be more successful.

We use the structure »if I were you « + *would* to give advice

- If I *were you*, I would take English lessons.

### Unit 7. Verb tenses

**PRESENT SIMPLE TENSE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affirmative</th>
<th>Negative</th>
<th>Interrogative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Long Form</strong></td>
<td><strong>Contracted Form</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I play</td>
<td>I do not play</td>
<td>I don't play</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You play</td>
<td>You do not play</td>
<td>You don't play</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He/she/it plays</td>
<td>He/she/it does not play</td>
<td>He/she/it doesn't play</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>They play</td>
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<td>They don't play</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The present simple tense is used:

- To talk about **regular activities**:
  - John plays tennis once a week.
  - We start work at 9 a.m. every morning.
  - Tom has lunch every day with his colleagues.
  - Mary goes to visit her parents on Sundays.
  - Alex takes the bus every day.
- To talk about **tastes**:
  - Peter likes Chinese food.
  - Julie doesn't like classical music.
  - Many people dislike snakes and spiders!
  - Most children love chocolate.
  - Eva hates most sports but she enjoys swimming.
- To talk about **facts**:
  - The sun rises in the east.
  - In Europe, the weather is cold in winter.
  - Authors write books and articles.
- Horses and cows can sleep while standing up.
- Students go to school or attend college.

- To give **instructions** or **directions**:
  - You walk up the hill then you turn left at the church.
  - First you pour the mixture into a dish then top with grated cheese.

- To talk about **fixed arrangements**:
  - The concert starts at 9 pm.
  - Our flight leaves at 11h40 tomorrow.

### PRESENT CONTINUOUS TENSE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affirmative</th>
<th>Negative</th>
<th>Interrogative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Long Form</strong></td>
<td><strong>Contracted Form</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am playing</td>
<td>I am not playing</td>
<td>I'm not playing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You are playing</td>
<td>You are not playing</td>
<td>You're not playing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He/she/it is playing</td>
<td>He/she/it is not playing</td>
<td>He/she/it's not playing</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>They are playing</td>
<td>They are not playing</td>
<td>They're not playing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The present continuous tense is used:

- To talk about **continuous** activities:
  - At the time of speaking: **I am reading this page now.**
  - Around now, in a more general sense: **I am learning English this year.**
- To talk about **planned future activities** or **intentions**:
  - **Tom and Mary are coming to dinner tomorrow. They called to confirm.**
  - **I am spending my holidays in Australia. I have already booked my flight.**

### PRESENT PERFECT TENSE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Perfect Simple</th>
<th>Present Perfect Continuous</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Affirmative</strong></td>
<td><strong>Affirmative</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Long Form</strong></td>
<td><strong>Negative</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have done</td>
<td>I have not done</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You have done</td>
<td>You have not been doing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He/she/it has done</td>
<td>He/she/it has not been doing</td>
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<tr>
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<td>We have not been doing</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>They have done</td>
<td>They have not been doing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Contracted Form</strong></td>
<td><strong>Interrogative</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have not done</td>
<td>I haven't done</td>
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<td>They haven't been doing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interrogative</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have I done?</td>
<td>Have you been doing?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Has he/she/it done?</td>
<td>Have we been doing?</td>
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<td>Have you been doing?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have they done?</td>
<td>Have they been doing?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The **present perfect** is used to refer to actions which take place in an **unfinished time period up to the time of speaking.**
The present perfect continuous tense is used to refer to an action which started in the past and continues today. It emphasizes the uninterrupted progress of an action.

- I have been learning English since September. (I started in September and I continue to take lessons today.)

The present perfect simple is used to refer to the finished part of a continuous action. It emphasizes the completion of an action and its results. So far in my English course:

- I have learnt new vocabulary.
- I have revised some grammar rules. (My English course is not finished, but I have finished some of the lessons.)

Example:

- Today is your English Revision day. It is now 2 p.m.
- At 9 o’clock this morning you started your revision work. At 2 pm the day is not finished, so you can say: «I have been revising my English since 9 o’clock this morning». (You are still revising your English, so the continuous form is used.)

However, you have completed part of the revision work, so you can say, for example: «So far today I have revised tenses and irregular verbs».

N.B.: If you refer to a specific time earlier in the day, you must use the Past Simple: «This morning I revised tenses and irregular verbs». or, «I met Charlie for lunch at 12.30»

The following should be noted:

1) Some verbs can be used in both forms with no change in meaning. With some verbs such as live and work, the present perfect simple OR continuous can generally be used with no difference in meaning.

- I’ve lived/I’ve worked here for 10 years.
- I’ve been living/I’ve been working here for 10 years.

However, only the present perfect simple is used with ‘always’.

- I’ve always lived here NOT I’ve always been living here.

2) Stative Verbs. Stative verbs have no continuous form. Stative verbs are verbs that denote possession, mental states or emotions, for example: own, belong, know, believe, like, wish ... We can say: «I’ve known Bob for 20 years» NOT «I have been knowing Bob for 20 years».

**PAST SIMPLE TENSE**

The past simple tense of regular verbs is formed by adding «-ed» to the infinitive (for example: - infinitive: to play, Past Simple: I played). The auxiliary did is used to form the negative and interrogative forms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affirmative</th>
<th>Negative</th>
<th>Interrogative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I played</td>
<td>I did not play</td>
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<td>They didn’t play</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The past simple tense is used to talk about finished actions in a finished period of time, for example:

- **Yesterday evening** I played tennis with a friend.
- **Last year** I started taking tennis lessons.
When I was at school I hated history.

Five minutes ago I finished the report for my boss.

Last week I attended a meeting in Tokyo.

### PAST CONTINUOUS TENSE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Affirmative</th>
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</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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</tbody>
</table>

The past continuous tense is used:
- To talk about a **continuous action** which was in progress at a specific time in the past:
  - Yesterday evening, at 9 o'clock I was watching television.
  - What was I doing at 11 o'clock this morning? I was gardening.
  - At lunch-time the sun was shining.
- It is also used in sentences with **when** or **while**, to refer to an action which was taking place when a shorter, brief event occurred:
  - Yesterday, while I was watching television, the phone rang.
  - When my husband arrived home yesterday, I was cooking dinner.
  - I was listening to music when the doorbell rang.
  - While she was walking down the street, she witnessed an accident.

**Reminder: use of the past simple**
The past simple tense is used to talk about **finished actions** in a **finished period of time**, for example:
- **Yesterday evening** I played tennis with a friend.
- **In August last year** I visited New York.

### PAST PERFECT TENSE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Affirmative</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Long Form</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>I had been doing</td>
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<td>We had not been doing</td>
<td>We hadn't been doing</td>
<td>Had we been doing?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
You had been doing | You had not been doing | You hadn't been doing | Had you been doing?
They had been doing | They had not been doing | They hadn't been doing | Had they been doing?

The past perfect simple is used to refer to finished actions or completed events which took place before a specific time in the past.
- Yesterday, between 4pm and 6pm, Paul played a game of tennis with Tom.
- His mother arrived at 6 pm. The game was over.
- When his mother arrived, Paul had finished the game.
- When Tom got to the station the train had already left.
- The boy was cold because he had forgotten his jacket.
- Laura had visited Tokyo several times before she went to work there.

The past perfect continuous is used to refer to a past continuous action, an action that was in progress up to a particular time in the past.
- Before his mother arrived, Paul had been playing tennis with Tom.
- I had been searching for a long time before I found the book under the sofa.
- Eva was tired at lunch-time because she had been cleaning the house all morning.
- Bill had been working in the company for 6 months before he met the boss.

**FUTURE TENSE (WILL)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Future Simple</th>
<th>Future Continuous</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Affirmative</strong></td>
<td><strong>Affirmative</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long Form</td>
<td>Long Form</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will go</td>
<td>I will be going</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You will go</td>
<td>You will be going</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>You will go</td>
<td>You will be going</td>
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<tr>
<td>They will go</td>
<td>They will be going</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Negative</strong></td>
<td><strong>Negative</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will not go</td>
<td>I won't be going</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>You won't go</td>
<td>You won't be going</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They won't go</td>
<td>They won't be going</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interrogative</strong></td>
<td><strong>Interrogative</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will I go?</td>
<td>Will I be going?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will you go?</td>
<td>Will you be going?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will he/she/it go?</td>
<td>Will he/she/it be going?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will we go?</td>
<td>Will we be going?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will you go?</td>
<td>Will you be going?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will they go?</td>
<td>Will they be going?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The future simple is used:
- for predictions: what you think will happen or what is certain to happen.
  - You are going on a long flight. You can say: «I will be tired after my long journey».
  - You have found a new job. You can say: «I'll be nervous the first day!»
- for spontaneous decisions or offers (a decision made at the time of speaking).
  - While you're having dinner with your family the phone rings: You can say: «I'll answer it!»
  - You want to help someone who has a lot to carry. You can say: «I'll carry one of your bags for you».

The future continuous is used to refer to a continuous action at a future time.
– You are going on a long flight. You can say: «In two hours' time I will be having lunch on the plane».
– «I will be flying over London».
– «I will be watching a film».

**BE GOING TO**

The structure **be going to** is mainly used to talk about plans and intentions, or to make predictions based on present evidence. It is most commonly used in conversational English. In very informal spoken English, **going to** is sometimes shortened to «**gonna**».

**STRUCTURE:** The present continuous tense of the verb **to go** + the **full infinitive**.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>be</th>
<th>going</th>
<th>full infinitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>am</td>
<td>going</td>
<td>to paint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>are</td>
<td>going</td>
<td>to love</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jack</td>
<td>is</td>
<td>going</td>
<td>to buy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It</td>
<td>is</td>
<td>going</td>
<td>to rain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>are</td>
<td>going</td>
<td>to visit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>are</td>
<td>going</td>
<td>to accept</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PLANS and INTENTIONS:**

**Be going to** is used to talk about plans and intentions, usually when the decision has already been made.

– Emma is going to share an apartment with Melanie.
– Pedro is going to revise his English all evening.

**PREDICTIONS:**

We use **be going to** when we can see that something is likely to happen.

– Look at those clouds. It's going to rain!
– The ladder is shaking. That man is going to fall!

**GONNA:**

Although it is grammatically incorrect, **going to** is sometimes shortened to **gonna**, in very informal conversations, especially when we speak quickly. Gonna is also used in song lyrics. Gonna is more often found in American English, but it is never written that way (except in song lyrics).

– I'm gonna surprise you all one day! = I'm going to surprise you all one day.

**ENGLISH MODAL VERBS**

Modal verbs are a type of auxiliary verb which express the mood of another verb. They are used to express ideas such as: **possibility, prediction, speculation, deduction and necessity**.

Modal verbs have the following characteristics:

– They do not have participle or infinitive forms
– They do not take the ending -(e)s in the third-person singular.
– They do not have a past form: He can/he caned. She must/she musted.
– The negative is formed by the addition of not/«n»t: He cannot/ He can’t. NOT He don’t can.
Questions are formed by inversion with the subject: Can you? NOT Do you can?

PASSIVE FORM OF VERBS

The passive form (voice) of verbs is made with the appropriate tense of BE + the past participle: For example: English is spoken here.

Only verbs which take an object (transitive verbs) can be put into the passive. For example: Tom catches the ball. / The ball was caught by Tom.

Verbs that have no object (intransitive verbs) such as: come, go, happen, live, sleep, etc. cannot be put into the passive.

Please note that the Present Perfect Continuous, the Past Perfect Continuous and the Future Continuous are not usually used in the passive form.

- We use the active form of a verb to say what a subject does:
  - The chef cooks food every day.
- We use the passive form to say what happens to the subject:
  - Food is cooked every day.
- The subject of a passive verb corresponds to the object of an active verb:
  - Food is cooked every day. (Passive).
  - The chef cooks food every day. (Active)
- We sometimes used get to form the passive:
- Be careful with that sharp knife. Someone might get hurt!
- The cat got run over by a car.

- We use the passive form of a verb: 1) when the person who performs the action (agent) is unknown; 2) when it is not important who does the action, or 3) when we are more interested in the action that the agent (instructions, reports, etc.)

- The letter was delivered at 9 a.m. The identity of the person who delivered the letter is unknown or unimportant.
- If we want to say who delivered the letter, we use «by»: The letter was delivered by the postman.

- The tax reforms were announced today, or The tax reforms were announced by the Prime Minister.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Tense</th>
<th>Active</th>
<th>Passive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Infinitive</strong></td>
<td>To cook</td>
<td>To be cooked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present Simple</strong></td>
<td>I cook food in the kitchen.</td>
<td>Food is cooked in the kitchen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present Continuous</strong></td>
<td>I am cooking food in the kitchen.</td>
<td>Food is being cooked in the kitchen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present Perfect Simple</strong></td>
<td>I have cooked food in the kitchen.</td>
<td>Food has been cooked in the kitchen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Past Simple</strong></td>
<td>I cooked food in the kitchen.</td>
<td>Food was cooked in the kitchen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Past Perfect</strong></td>
<td>I had cooked food in the kitchen.</td>
<td>Food had been cooked in the kitchen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Future</strong></td>
<td>I will cook food in the kitchen.</td>
<td>Food will be cooked in the kitchen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Future Perfect</strong></td>
<td>I will have cooked food in the kitchen.</td>
<td>Food will have been cooked in the kitchen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Conditional I</strong></td>
<td>I would cook food in the kitchen.</td>
<td>Food would be cooked in the kitchen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Conditional II</strong></td>
<td>I would have cooked food in the kitchen.</td>
<td>Food would have been cooked in the kitchen.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1. Complete the text. Use the correct form of the verbs in brackets.

My family and I are always busy on Saturdays. In the morning, my sister Olivia and I (1) **play** (play) basketball and then she (2) ____________ (go) rollerblading with Dad. I (3) ____________ (not like) rollerblading, so I usually (4) ____________ (help) Mum with the shopping. In the afternoon, Dad and I (5) ____________ (make) model planes and then in the evening we all (6) ____________ (watch) a film together. Saturday is my favorite day.

2. Write sentences (☑ or ☒) or questions (?).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scott / go to school / on Saturday mornings</th>
<th>☒ Scott doesn’t go to school on Saturday mornings.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>your friend / sing / in a band</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>my sister / watch / TV every evening</td>
<td>☑</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>when / they / make jewellery</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we / draw cartoons / in our school books</td>
<td>☒</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you / listen to the radio / in bed</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Order the words to make sentences.

| reads in Jenny always bed                  | Jenny always reads in bed                        |
| in We radio usually the to the listen car |                                                  |
| school sometimes for Joshua late is       |                                                  |
| tired always Friday on Mum evenings is    |                                                  |
| sister phone her often My takes with photos|                                                  |
| Lizards green usually are brown or        |                                                  |

4. Write true sentences. Use adverbs of frequency.

| I / dream about flying                     | I sometimes dream about flying.                 |
| My best friend / remembers my birthday     |                                                  |
| I / have eggs for breakfast                |                                                  |
| Our English teacher / gives us homework    |                                                  |
| I / make jewellery                         |                                                  |
| My family and I / eat dinner together in the evening |                                    |

5. Write sentences in the present continuous tense. Use contractions.

| She _______ (dance) in the bathroom        | She’s dancing (dance) in the bathroom          |
| He _______ (draw) cartoons in the living room |                                                  |
| They _______ (sleep) in the bedroom        |                                                  |
6. Choose the correct words.

- Jamie isn’t / aren’t watching the match.
- Is / Are they making pizza for everyone?
- We isn’t / aren’t sleeping, we are relaxing.
- What / When are you doing now?
- I’m help / helping mum with the housework.
- Is / Are she rollerblading in the park?

7. Write questions and answers. Use the present continuous tense.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chris / make a cake (No)</td>
<td>Is Chris making a cake? No, he isn’t.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paul and Simon / talk about computer games again (Yes)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fiona / wear a blue jacket today (Yes)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Granny and Granddad / listen to the radio at the moment (No)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you / draw me now (No)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you / watch a film at the moment (Yes)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8. Match the sentences.

| Jenna is sick... | He’s rollerblading in the park at the moment. |
| My phone isn’t working... | We play tennis or football every day |
| I don’t like fish... | She isn’t going to school today |
| David isn’t here now... | I don’t eat sushi |
| We like exercising... | You are talking and I can’t hear the film |
| Please be quiet! | I’m using my friend’s phone |

9. Complete the text message. Use the correct form of the verbs in brackets. Use contractions.

Hi Maggie. How are you? What (1) **are you doing** (do) now? It’s really boring here at the moment. Dad (2) ________ (wash) the car and Mum isn’t here. She always (3) ____________ (go) to the gym on Saturday mornings. My brother (4) _____________ (sleep). He never (5) ____________ (get up) early at the weekends. I’m bored so I (6) _______________ (write) this message to you. Please reply!

10. Correct the mistakes. Use contractions.

- Granddad is listening to the radio every morning. **listens**
– I’m not liking cucumbers, bananas or lettuce. _______________
– Is you having fun now? _________________
– She walks the dog at the moment. _________________
– He aren’t sing in a band. _________________
– What are you do now? _________________

11. Put the words in the right circle.
Jewellery, website, housework, homework, island, meat, magazine, vegetable, musicbook, food, cartoon

12. Tick the correct sentences.
– Would you like a strawberry? ☐
– Polish foods is my favourite. ☐
– Wow! Your mum is wearing beautiful jewelleries! ☐
– I always play music in the evening. ☐
– The teacher usually gives us a homework. ☐
– This is my new English book. ☐

13. Complete the sentences with is, are, isn’t or aren’t.
– There are some strawberries in the fruit bowl.
– There _____________ any rice in the cupboard.
– There _____________ a biscuit on the plate.
– There _____________ any magazines on the table.
– There _____________ some books in the bookcase.
– There _____________ any music in the restaurant.

14. Complete with some or any.
Jack: Hello, Jack speaking. Dad: Jack? It’s Dad. I’m in the supermarket. Please look in the fridge and tell me are there (1) any eggs?
Jack: Yes, there are (2) _________ eggs, but there aren’t (3) _________ sausages. Dad: OK. Is there (4) _________ milk?
Jack: Yes, there’s (5) _________ milk, but there isn’t (6) _________ orange juice. Dad: OK. Thanks Jack. See you soon.

15. Write questions and match them with the answers.
16. Write true sentences.
In my school bag I’ve got some (1) **chewing gum**, but I haven’t got any (2) ____________. In my bedroom, there are some (3) ____________, but there aren’t any (4) ____________ . In my kitchen there is some (5) ____________, but there isn’t any (6) __________________.

17. Complete with is, are, isn’t or aren’t.
– There **aren’t** many animals in the pet shop.
– How much money _________ there in the bank?
– There ____________ much food in the fridge.
– How many people _____________ there in your family?
– There ________________ many girls in our class.
– How much pasta _____________ there in the cupboard?

18. Complete the sentences. Use much or many.
– How much water is there in a can of cola?
– How __________ milk is there in a milkshake?
– How __________ oranges are there in a glass of orange juice?
– How __________ pens are there in your classroom?
– How __________ cheese is there on a pizza?
– How __________ potatoes are there in a bag of crisps?

19. Rewrite the sentences. Use a lot of.
– Does he eat fruit? **Does he eat a lot of fruit?**
– She doesn’t drink milk. ______________________________________
– They watch films. _____________________________________________
– Do you send text messages? _________________________________
– We don’t save money. ________________________________
– I have MP3s. ____________________________________________

20. Order the words to make sentences. Then match them with the questions in Exercise 8.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>pizza</th>
<th>much</th>
<th>a</th>
<th>There</th>
<th>isn’t</th>
<th>cheese</th>
<th>There isn’t much cheese on a pizza.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>in a</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>lot</td>
<td>milk</td>
<td>milkshake</td>
<td>There’s of</td>
<td>There isn’t much cheese on a pizza.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There of oranges</td>
<td>orange juice</td>
<td>in a glass</td>
<td>many</td>
<td>aren’t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cola</td>
<td>There’s</td>
<td>lot</td>
<td>water</td>
<td>of a</td>
<td>in</td>
<td>can</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>our</td>
<td>pens</td>
<td>are</td>
<td>There</td>
<td>of</td>
<td>lot</td>
<td>classroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>potatoes</td>
<td>crisps</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>bag</td>
<td>of</td>
<td>aren’t</td>
<td>There</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

21. Choose the correct words.
My Granny was / were born in 1951, in Warsaw.
Yesterday, I wasn’t / weren’t well. Today, I’m feeling better.
There was / were a scary horror film on TV last night.
Molly and Claire wasn’t / weren’t at school last week.
It was / were very cold in my city last winter.
There wasn’t / weren’t any children at the party.

22. Write questions. Use was or were.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>you / at home / yesterday morning</th>
<th>Were you at home yesterday morning?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>it / sunny in Krakow last week</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>your friends / at Keira’s party last Saturday</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we / in town / three hours ago</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cristiano Ronaldo / born in Portugal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>your mum / at the football match last Saturday</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

23. Write answers to the questions in Exercise 2.

☑ Yes, I was.
☒ ____________________________
☑ ____________________________
☒ ____________________________
☑ ____________________________
☒ ____________________________

24. Complete the sentences with the past simple form of the verbs in brackets.

Last Saturday, my family and I went to Sopot. We (1) **travelled** (travel) by train and it was a long journey – the train (2) ________ (stop) at a lot of stations on the way. The weather wasn’t sunny, but it (3) ________ (not rain). We (4) ________ (walk) on the beach and (5) ________ (look) at the boats. In the afternoon we (6) ________ (visit) Malbork castle. It was a good day out.

25. Complete the table with past simple irregular forms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>go</th>
<th>take</th>
<th>drink</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hear</td>
<td>eat</td>
<td>study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>find</td>
<td>have</td>
<td>sleep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
26. Make the sentences negative.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original Statement</th>
<th>Negative Statement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I heard a scary noise last night</td>
<td>I didn’t hear a scary noise last night.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He drank orange juice for breakfast</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They were at the swimming pool</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We took a picnic basket to the park</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mum ate lunch at Granny’s house</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I found my keys under the sofa</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

27. Look at the pictures and write questions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject/Time</th>
<th>Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Granny/last night</td>
<td>Did Granny read a book last night?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>your brother/yesterday</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they/yesterday evening</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you/last night</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dad/yesterday</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alexander/yesterday evening</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

28. Write answers to the questions in Exercise 7.

- ☑ Yes, she did
- ☒ __________________________________________________________________________
- ☑ __________________________________________________________________________
- ☒ __________________________________________________________________________
- ☑ __________________________________________________________________________
- ☒ __________________________________________________________________________

29. Look at the answers and complete the dialogue. Use words in the box.

Dad: (1) **Who** did you meet in town, Jane?
Jane: My friend Anna.
Dad: (2) ____________ did you meet her?
Jane: I met her at two o’clock.
Dad: (3) ____________ did you meet her?
Jane: At the shopping centre, Dad.
Dad: (4) ____________ did you get there?
Jane: By bus.

30. Correct the mistakes.

- There *weren’t* any ghosts in the forest.
- We *studied* French yesterday. ____________.
- I didn’t *wait* for a long time. ____________.
- Did you *find* your keys? ____________.
- Did you enjoy your holiday? Yes, I enjoyed. ____________.
- When did you do yesterday? We stayed at home and played board games. ____________
31. Complete the table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>new</td>
<td>1) newer</td>
<td>the newest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>small</td>
<td>smaller</td>
<td>2) __________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cold</td>
<td>3) __________</td>
<td>the coldest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wet</td>
<td>4) __________</td>
<td>the wettest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clean</td>
<td>cleaner</td>
<td>5) __________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cheap</td>
<td>cheaper</td>
<td>6) __________</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

32. Choose the correct answers.

– I think Shakira is d_ than Beyonce.
  a. pretty
  b. prettier
  c. prettiest
  d. prettier

– London is ___ than Warsaw.
  a. biggest
  b. bigger
  c. bigger
  d. big

– Julia is ______ girl in our class.
  a. old
  b. he older
  c. older
  d. the oldest

– My brother is _____ person I know.
  a. the noisy
  b. noisy
  c. noiser
  d. the noisiest

– Ben’s joke was ______ than mine.
  a. Funnier
  b. funnier
  c. Funny
  d. the funniest

– Alice thinks Sydney is ______ city in the world.
  a. nicer
  b. nice
  c. nicest
  d. the nicest

33. Choose the correct words.

– There are lots of nice parks in our city, but this one is better / the best.
– The city swimming pool is bad / worse than the swimming pool at the new sports centre.
– Walking to school in summer is better / the best than going by bus.
– The Railway Museum in our city is really good / better.
– The worse / worst thing about our city is the traffic.
– This restaurant is really bad / worse. The food is horrible and the waiter is rude.
34. Make sentences. Use the opposites of the words in brackets.
- Big Mike’s Burgers is (the oldest) **the newest** burger restaurant in town.
- Jonah’s room is (dirtier) ____________ than Scott’s.
- This café is (more expensive) ____________ than the café on our street.
- We live in (the driest) ____________ part of the country.
- My ice cream is (bigger) ____________ than yours.
- Today is (the hottest) ____________ day of the year.

35. Complete the adverts with the superlative form of the words in brackets.
- Mrs Pott’s Pies – the (1) **most delicious** pies in the universe! (delicious)
- Viv’s Café – the (2) ________________ food in town. (healthy)
- Visit the City Art Gallery – see the (3) ________________ paintings of our city. (beautiful)
- Adventure Fun Park – the (4) ________________ rollercoaster in the country! (exciting)
- The (5) ________________ TOYS FROM THE PAST ONLY AT THE CHILDREN’S MUSEUM! (interesting)
- Come and see the ghost at Browntown Castle - the (6) ________________ ghost in England! (scary)

36. Write comparative sentences. Use the information in Exercise 6 to help you.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mrs Pott’s Pies / delicious / Mr Pitt’s Pies</th>
<th>Mrs Pott’s Pies are more delicious than Mr Pitt’s Pies.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The food at Viv’s Café / healthy / the food at Big Mike’s Burgers</td>
<td>The food at Viv’s Café is healthier than the food at Big Mike’s Burgers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The paintings at City Art Gallery / beautiful / the paintings at Greg’s Gallery</td>
<td>The paintings at City Art Gallery are more beautiful than the paintings at Greg’s Gallery.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adventure Fun Park / exciting / Funtowers Fun Park</td>
<td>Adventure Fun Park is more exciting than Funtowers Fun Park.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The toys at the Children’s Museum / interesting / the toys at school</td>
<td>The toys at the Children’s Museum are more interesting than the toys at school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The ghost at Browntown Castle / scary / the dragon at Wawel Castle</td>
<td>The ghost at Browntown Castle is more scary than the dragon at Wawel Castle.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

37. Complete the sentences. Use too or enough.
- The weather yesterday was **too** hot. I stayed at home.
- The helicopter ride is ____________ expensive. I don’t have £50.
- The town square isn’t big ____________ for 1000 people.
- The rollercoaster ride was ____________ short. Can we do it again?
- Urgh! This water isn’t clean ____________ for swimming.
- The boat was ____________ fast. I was really scared.

38. Write sentences with similar meanings. Use too or enough.
- Shelly’s shoes are too small. They **aren’t big enough.**
- Steve’s stir-fry isn’t cold enough. It **aren’t cold enough.**
- Colin’s computer games are too boring. They **aren’t interesting enough.**
- Tony’s tie isn’t long enough. It **aren’t long enough.**
– Mike’s bikes are too dangerous. They
– That black hat isn’t cheap enough. It

39. Correct the mistakes.
– My best friend Daniel is the nicer person I know. nicest
– Nick has biggest feet than me. ____________.
– I think snowboarding is the more exciting sport. ____________.
– Hot salami pizza is the better. ____________.
– The tea too is hot. I can’t drink it. ____________.
– The library is not enough quiet. ____________.

40. Put the words in order to make questions.

| high the are How Tatra mountains | How high are the Tatra mountains? |
|________________________________|----------------------------------|
| the world’s tallest person tall How was |                                   |
| Warsaw far it How from is to Wroclaw |                                  |
| deep How an is Olympic-size swimming pool |                              |
| How is wide a piece of A4 paper |                                    |
| long is How a marathon |                                     |

41. Write answers to the questions in Exercise 1.
– 2655 m ____________.
– 2.72 m ____________.
– 376km ____________.
– Usually 3m ____________.
– 21cm ____________.
– 42.195km ____________.

42. Tick five more sentences about the future.
– They’re going to meet their friends this evening. ☐
– Katie doesn’t play the drums. ☐
– We’re going to do our homework later. ☐
– Helen’s not going to go to school tomorrow. ☐
– I do a lot of sport. ☐
– My sister wasn’t at home this weekend. ☐
– I’m not going to take my computer on holiday. ☐
– Mum and Dad are going to visit Granny next weekend. ☐
– The children are watching a DVD at the moment. ☐
– The weather is going to get better next week. ☐

43. Complete the dialogue with the words in the box.

Mum: Are you ready for summer camp, Sarah?
Sarah: I don’t really know, Mum.
Mum: Well, are you going to (1) ____________ your swimming costume?
Sarah: Yes, I am. And, (2) ____________ going to take my beach towel.
Mum: Good idea. (3) ____________ you going to take your sunglasses?
Sarah: No, I’m not. They are broken. Dad sat on them.
Mum: Oh no! (4) ____________ he going to buy you a new pair?
Sarah: I don’t know. Are we (5) ____________ to go shopping this afternoon?
Mum: Yes, we (6) ____________. We’ll get you some new sunglasses, OK?
Sarah: Great! Thanks Mum.

44. Look at Mr Rich’s plan. Complete the questions with When, Where, Who or What.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Friday 21st August</th>
<th>Saturday 22nd August</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Go on holiday!</td>
<td>Meet Beyonce @ 18:00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fly to New York.</td>
<td>Have dinner then go to a party.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stay at the Hotel Ritz.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **When** is he going to go on holiday?
- **_______** is he going to fly?
- **_______** is he going to stay?
- **_______** is he going to meet on Saturday?
- **_______** are they going to meet?
- **_______** are they going to do?

45. Use the information in the table above to write answers to the questions in Exercise 7. Use contractions.

- He’s going to go on holiday on Friday 21st August.
- ____________________________
- ____________________________
- ____________________________
- ____________________________
- ____________________________

46. Write positive sentences ☑️, negative sentences ☐, or questions (?). Use contractions.

| Holly / run / to the shop to buy some milk | ☑️ Holly’s going to run to the shop to buy some milk |
| Luke / do / his homework tonight | ☐ |
| Nicole / learn / a new language | ? |
| Daisy and Alex / meet / at the sports centre | ☑️ |
| My brother and I / cook / spaghetti again | ☐ |
| James and Mary / walk / up the volcano | ? |

47. Complete the interview with do, don’t or have.

Interview with a home help robot…
Interviewer: Hello. You are a home-help robot, is that correct? Robot: 101011%0000$##1111@000!!
Interviewer: I see. Which chores do you (1) have to do? Robot: I have to (2) ___________ all the chores in the house. Interviewer: All of them? (3) __________ you have to work in the garden too? Robot: Yes, I (4) ________________.
Interviewer: Wow! You must be very busy. Do you have time to sleep? Robot: Sleep? Er…I am a robot. I don’t (5) __________ to sleep. Interviewer: Really? That’s great - you (6) ________________ have to make your bed!

48. Answer the questions. Use Yes, I do or No, I don’t.
- Do you have to make your own breakfast? Yes, I do.
- Do you have to do the dishes? ____________
- Do you have to clean the car? ____________
- Do you have to pay the bills? ____________
- Do you have to go to work? ____________
- Do you have to go to school? ____________

49. Complete the questions.
- How long do we have to wait? We have to wait half an hour.
- Where _________________ go? She has to go to school.
- What _________________ buy? They have to buy a cake for Penny’s birthday.
- When _________________ go to bed? I have to go to bed at 9:00.
- How far _________________ walk? She has to walk 3km every morning.
- Why _________________ save money? You have to save money to buy a new bike.

50. Write sentences. Use will ☑ or won’t ☒. Remember to start with a capital letter.
In the year 2100...

| cars / fly | ☑ | cars will fly |
| children / go to school | ☒ |
| aliens / live on Earth | ☒ |
| robots / do the housework | ☑ |
| we / use paper | ☒ |
| people / go on holiday to the moon | ☑ |

51. Put the words in order to make questions in Emma’s message.

Dear Space Tours, Next week, my family and I will travel to the Moon Hotel. We have six important questions:

| spacesuits / need / we / will | Will we need spacesuits? |
| wear / will / we / helmets / have to |
| at the hotel / there / Earth food / will / be |
| I / the Earth / see / will / from my room |
| cold / it / will / be / on the moon |

Please write back and answer our questions. Emma
52. Look at the answers and write questions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I’ll go to Sydney, Australia</td>
<td>Where will you go?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’ll go with my Mum and Dad</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We’ll meet Uncle Tony</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We’ll stay at Uncle Tony’s house</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We’ll go to the beach and learn to surf</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We’ll stay for 3 weeks</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

53. Complete the sentences with possessives.

| This is my mouse | It’s mine |
| This is our octopus. | It’s |
| This is your yoghurt | It’s |
| This is their smoothie | It’s |
| This is her hotel | It’s |
| This is his helicopter | It’s |

54. Complete the sentences with has, have, hasn’t or haven’t.

- ☒ Dad hasn’t cleaned his shoes.
- ☑ Mum _______ watched the news.
- ☑ Hannah and Bradley _______ washed their clothes.
- ☒ Tim and Sasha _______ exercised.
- ☑ Viv and I _______ climbed a volcano.
- ☒ Luke _______ phoned his Mum.

55. Complete the table with the past participles.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>hear</th>
<th>have</th>
<th>see</th>
<th>know</th>
<th>give</th>
<th>drink</th>
<th>do</th>
<th>eat</th>
<th>sleep</th>
<th>get</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

56. Complete the dialogue. Use the past participles of the words in brackets.

Max: Is everything ready for Mia’s birthday party, Amy?
Amy: I think so. Mum’s (1) **made** (make) a cake and I’ve (2) _________ (tidy) the house.
Max: Good. I’ve (3) _________ (cook) some party food.
Amy: Great. We’ve (4) _________ (write) her birthday card too. What about a birthday present?
Max: Oh no! I forgot. I haven’t (5) _________ (buy) a present for Mia!
Amy: Don’t worry Max. Dad and I have (6) (be) to the music shop. We’ve got a guitar for her. Max: Cool! What a great present.

57. Look at the table and write sentences. Use the present perfect. Use contractions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>go to a pop festival</th>
<th>win a competition</th>
<th>meet a famous person</th>
<th>have a singing lesson</th>
<th>write a song</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lewis</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☒</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cloe and Claire</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☑</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Lewis has been to a pop festival.
- Chloe and Claire won a competition.
- Lewis met a famous person.
- Chloe and Claire had a singing lesson.
- Lewis wrote a song.
- Chloe and Claire have met a famous person.

58. Put the words in order to make questions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I told about</th>
<th>Have my</th>
<th>ever</th>
<th>you hobby</th>
<th>Have I ever told you about my hobby?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>been she</td>
<td>on</td>
<td>television</td>
<td>Has ever</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they lessons</td>
<td>ever had</td>
<td>Have piano</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have before</td>
<td>ever met</td>
<td>we</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>your Granddad</td>
<td>ever rollerblading</td>
<td>been Has</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you favorite star</td>
<td>dreamed</td>
<td>Have about ever</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>your</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

59. Choose the correct word.

- Fatima has never saw / seen snow.
- My Granny has never heard / hear of Justin Timberlake.
- We have never have / had a pet.
- John has never given / gave Phil a birthday present.
- Our cat has never drank / drunk lemonade.
- I have never do / done my homework on Monday morning.

60. Complete the table with the words and phrases in the box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ever ago</th>
<th>yesterday</th>
<th>never</th>
<th>times (e.g. 16:00, lunchtime, midnight)</th>
<th>last(week)</th>
<th>dates (e.g. 5th July, 2012)</th>
<th>before</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Use with present perfect</td>
<td>Ever</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Use with past simple</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

61. Complete the text. Use the past simple or the present perfect.

Colin loves going to concerts. He (1) started (start) 3 years ago. He’s seen lots of different bands and singers. Last year he (2) (go) to a heavy metal concert with his dad. He’s also (3) (be) to a jazz concert before. Yesterday he and his mum (4) (buy) tickets
for a Latin concert. He’s never (6) ____________ (see) a folk concert. The last one (6) ____________ (be) in June but he was busy.

62. Complete the table with the time expressions from the box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>July</th>
<th>last weekend</th>
<th>Thursday</th>
<th>a week</th>
<th>last month</th>
<th>yesterday</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a month</td>
<td>ten minutes</td>
<td>two years</td>
<td>five o’clock</td>
<td>a long time</td>
<td>nine years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

for | since

63. Complete the text. Use the present perfect forms of the verbs in brackets.

Today I (1) **have heard** (hear) some bad news! I (2) ________________ (meet) my old friend from school - Sophie. Do you remember her? No? Come on! We (3) ________________ (be) friends for six years. Yes, the girl with very long blonde hair. Sophie (4) ________________ (see) a terrible car accident in front of our supermarket. Now there is a police car, an ambulance and even two fire engines! You don’t believe me? I’m sure the accident (5) ________________ (happen)! We are good friends and she (6) ________________ (give) me her word that it’s true!

64. Write negative sentences. Use for or since.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>live here / a long time I</th>
<th>haven’t lived here for a long time.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>give him any presents / last year They</td>
<td>They haven’t given him any presents since last year.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>watch any films / a week She</td>
<td>She hasn’t watched any films since a week.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>meet my friends / two months I</td>
<td>I haven’t met my friends since two months.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write a test / Monday They</td>
<td>They haven’t written a test since Monday.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>see a coastguard / yesterday We</td>
<td>We haven’t seen a coastguard since yesterday.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

65. Write questions and short answers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>he / write to you</th>
<th>✓</th>
<th>Has he written to you?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, he has.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you / play the guitar</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they / see a hurricane</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>she / be in an accident</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you / hear the news</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he / find his glasses</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

66. Answer the questions about you.
How long have you been a student? haven’t lived here for a long time.
How long have you lived in your house? 
How long have you had your schoolbag? 
How long have you had your mobile? 
How long have you studied English? 
How long have you lived in your town? 

67. Complete the sentences with the verbs from the box.

try read help see be drink

– It’s a great film. You must see it.
– You must ________ careful. It’s dangerous.
– The puppy is so small. You must ________ it.
– It’s very hot. You must ________ water.
– It’s so funny. You must ________ it.
– The cake is delicious. You must ________ it.

68. Complete the table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>no-one</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>anything</td>
<td>no-one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>somewhere</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

69. Complete the text with expressions from the box.
somewhere mustn’t nothing anything must anywhere

– There isn’t ________ on the radio.
– Look! A boy and a girl in the sea! We _________________ rescue them!
– I have seen _________________ interesting in the shop.
– It isn’t safe here. We must go _________________
– These flowers are dangerous. You _________________ touch them.
– We mustn’t go _________________. You must stay here.

70. Match the problems (on the left) and the advice (on the right).

– My phone battery is empty. You shouldn’t drink coffee in the evening.
– I’ve got a toothache. You should check your school bag in the morning.
– I can’t sleep. You should go to the dentist.
– I was mean to my friend. You should say sorry.
– I’m really full. I feel sick. You should charge it.

71. Complete the sentences. Use should or shouldn’t.

– You ________ be nice to other people.
– You ________ be unkind to animals.
– You __________ listen when people talk.
– You __________ brush your teeth at least twice a day.
– You __________ eat too many sweets.
– You __________ argue with your parents.

72. Write answers to the questions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Should he call you?</th>
<th>Yes, he should.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Should we wait for them?</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should I sit here?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should she do that?</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should they tell the teacher?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should it make that noise?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

73. Put the words in order to make questions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What should I do?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What should I do?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should go she where</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should we meet what we should</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should how wait long should we</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should much I pay should how</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should he who for ask help</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

74. Tick five more sentences about the future.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>They aren’t going to the cinema this evening.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Megan is reading a good book at the moment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We’re meeting friends later.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hannah isn’t coming to dance class tonight.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’m talking to Dad now.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My brother’s watching a film upstairs at the moment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isobel’s cooking dinner this evening.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Granny and Granddad are visiting us next weekend.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ken’s doing his homework now.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We aren’t going to school next week.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

75. Make sentences. Put the frequency adverbs in the correct place.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>He often goes swimming</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Oftentimes he goes swimming</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes they watch TV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usually she reads books on the bus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never he takes photos in the park</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Always she is tired after school</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

76. Make sentences. Use the correct forms of the verbs in brackets.

– Be quiet! Dad is sleeping (sleep).
– I __________ (write) a message to my friend from Spain.
– You look tired. (you / feel) __________ fine?
Mum, come and see! Meg and I ________________ (make) jewellery!
Why are they so noisy? (they / watch) _______ TV?
Wow! You ________________ (draw) a beautiful picture!

77. Complete the text. Use the correct forms of the verbs in brackets.
I like my friends but sometimes they are horrible to me. Yesterday there (1) **was** (be) an English lesson at 2 p.m. It (2) __________ (be) in room 22 on the first floor. All the other lessons (3) __________ (be) in room 11 on the ground floor where we normally leave our things. When I came back to room 11, my trainers (4) __________ (not / be) there. Where (5) __________ (they / be)? Outside! Good friends? Not really … It was a rainy day so it (6) __________ (not / be) a funny joke.

78. Make questions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>He was at home yesterday. Where</th>
<th>was he yesterday?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>They went to the theatre. Where</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I ate five apples yesterday. How many.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They played football at 5 p.m. What time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They saw their favorite actors. Who</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The tickets were 30 pounds. How much</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

79. Complete the text. Use the correct forms of the verbs in brackets.
You know what I (1) **`am going to do** (do) on my holiday? I (2) ________________ (learn) a new language - Russian. My friend Jenny thinks that it (3) ________________ (not / be) interesting and that writing (4) ________________ (be) very difficult but she isn’t right. I (5) ________________ (start) on 2nd July and really can’t wait. I want to to speak Russian quite soon because in September my parents (6) ________________ and me (go) to Moscow for a month. It will be fun!

80. Write the correct forms of the adjectives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>adjective</th>
<th>comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bad</td>
<td>___________</td>
<td>___________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>big</td>
<td>___________</td>
<td>___________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dirty</td>
<td>___________</td>
<td>___________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>expensive</td>
<td>___________</td>
<td>___________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good</td>
<td>___________</td>
<td>___________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>famous</td>
<td>___________</td>
<td>___________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>noisy</td>
<td>___________</td>
<td>___________</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

81. Complete the table with the right preposition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>bad</th>
<th>excited</th>
<th>good</th>
<th>happy</th>
<th>sad</th>
<th>scared</th>
<th>tired</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>at</td>
<td>about</td>
<td>of</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

82. Complete the sentences with a, an, some, any.

- Are there **any** bananas?
There is ____________ rice.
This is ____________ very sweet apple.
There is ____________ meat and cheese.
There aren’t ____________ eggs.
Is there ____________ onion?

83. Complete the sentences with the correct forms of the present perfect as in the example.
- You should do the dishes after school but you haven’t done the dishes for two days.
- He should make his bed every day but he ________________________________ his bed today.
- They must clean their teeth in the morning but they ________________________________ their teeth today.
- I should visit my grandma once a month but I ________________________________ her this month.
- We must tidy our rooms in the morning but we ________________________________ our rooms since Monday.
- She should cook healthy food but she ________________________________ anything healthy this week.

84. Complete the sentences with for or since.
- I’ve been friends with Mark for ten years.
- He’s worked as a coastguard ____________ last summer.
- They’ve lived in the USA ____________ August.
- She’s had her dog ____________ years.
- We’ve studied English ____________ three months.
- I’ve had skiing lessons ____________ yesterday.

85. Answer the questions about you. Write short answers.
- Have you ever been to Spain?
- Have you ever found any money in the street?
- Have you ever played golf?
- Have you ever eaten a banana soup?
- Have you ever left your mobile on the bus?
- Have you ever won a medal?
CHAPTER 2. MY FUTURE PROFESSION. THE CONCEPT OF PSYCHOLOGY

Often, students take their first psychology course because they are interested in helping others and want to learn more about themselves and why they act the way they do. Sometimes, students take a psychology course because it either satisfies a general education requirement or is required for a program of study such as nursing or pre-med. Many of these students develop such an interest in the area that they go on to declare psychology as their major. As a result, psychology is one of the most popular majors. A number of well-known individuals were psychology majors. Just a few famous names on this list are Facebook’s creator Mark Zuckerberg, television personality and political satirist Jon Stewart, actress Natalie Portman, and filmmaker Wes Craven. About 6% of all bachelor degrees granted in the United States are in the discipline of psychology.

An education in psychology is valuable for a number of reasons. Psychology students hone critical thinking skills and are trained in the use of the scientific method. Critical thinking is the active application of a set of skills to information for the understanding and evaluation of that information. The evaluation of information—assessing its reliability and usefulness—is an important skill in a world full of competing “facts”, many of which are designed to be misleading. For example, critical thinking involves maintaining an attitude of skepticism, recognizing internal biases, making use of logical thinking, asking appropriate questions, and making observations. Psychology students also can develop better communication skills during the course of their undergraduate coursework. Together, these factors increase students’ scientific literacy and prepare students to critically evaluate the various sources of information they encounter.

In addition to these broad-based skills, psychology students come to understand the complex factors that shape one’s behavior. They appreciate the interaction of our biology, our environment, and our experiences in determining who we are and how we will behave. They learn about basic principles that guide how we think and behave, and they come to recognize the tremendous diversity that exists across individuals and across cultural boundaries.

Unit 1. My future profession

В данном разделе рассмотрены особенности профессии психолога, специфика выбора сферы деятельности, а также ключевые аспекты работы психолога.

While most psychology jobs require that students complete at least a bachelor’s degree, an associate degree will allow individuals to dip their toes into the field to decide if it’s a good fit for their abilities and goals. Associate degrees are designed to give students the basic knowledge in psychology needed to continue their education, and are often used to fulfill core educational requirements before completing a bachelor’s degree. At the baccalaureate level, a psychology degree can lead to some entry-level positions—such as a psychiatric technician or rehabilitation specialist—and can provide the educational basis for advanced graduate work necessary to enter clinical practice.

Students who complete graduate-level psychology degrees have far more job opportunities. A master’s degree may lead to jobs as research and clinical assistants, while a doctorate is necessary for anyone who wants to work with patients in a clinical setting or move into a research or academic
position. Many degree programs allow students to focus on a specialty area, including child development, abnormal psychology, counseling, social psychology, and cognition.

**What Psychologists Do?** Psychologists are charged with examining human behavior to determine its underlying causes, and with using such information to help patients work through their problems. It’s often a delicate balancing act, one that requires psychologists to perform a myriad of tasks that complement each other. The following list outlines some duties that clinical psychologists perform:

- Conduct psychological assessments of patients in order to diagnose clinical conditions
- Conduct clinical interviews with patients in order to learn their history
- Create treatment plans for patients, monitor their progress and success, and adjust treatment as needed
- Create behavior modification programs for patients
- Teach patients coping strategies to help them overcome problems
- Develop psychology education programs
- Conduct psychological research and reporting on findings
- Prepare technical reports and presentations
- Ensure that patient records are accurate and complete
- Keep abreast of current knowledge and trends by participating in continuing education courses and reading industry journals.

**Career Paths in Psychology and Related Disciplines.** Given that psychology touches every facet of life, psychologists can channel their individual interests into any number of career paths. Following are three of the primary fields in the psychology profession, along with some of the specific jobs available in each area.

1. Clinical and counseling psychologists. Clinical and counseling psychologists work with patients who have mental, behavioral and emotional problems. The focus is on the assessment, diagnosis, treatment, and prevention of mental health problems; psychologists in this field generally work in private practice or hospitals.

2. Child psychologists. The mental and psychological development of children and adolescents, and its influence on emotional or developmental problems, is the focus of child psychologists, who may specialize in a specific age group, such as infants, toddlers, or teenagers. Child psychologists can earn a certification from the American Board of Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology (ABCCAP).

3. Geropsychologists. Working with older clients, geropsychologists determine if patients are competent to make their own legal and medical decisions; diagnose mental disorders common to this population, such as dementia; and help seniors cope with the deaths of partners and friends. To meet the demands of an aging U.S. population, the National Institute on Aging predicts the need for some 5,000 geropsychologists by 2020.

4. Clinical forensic psychologists. Clinical forensic psychologists use their psychological expertise in the legal arena. Their duties may include testifying in court; interviewing people who are charged with crimes to determine if they have a mental illness; and screening law enforcement applicants. Forensic psychology is among the fastest-growing subfields in psychology, with professionals earning a median annual salary of about $61,000.

**Behavioral psychologists.** Behavioral psychologists practice from the assumption that human behavior is learned—and can be modified—through environmental influences. Professionals in this subsection of the field work with patients to understand and change negative behaviors, such as addiction.

5. Behavioral health counselors. Behavioral health counselors treat patients with problems such as anxiety, stress, low self-esteem, and depression. The U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) predicts a 31% growth rate through 2022 for substance abuse and behavioral disorder counselors, much higher than for other psychology subfields.
6. Marriage and family therapists. These psychologists treat individuals, couples and families who are working through relationship problems, by addressing both individual issues and the relationship as a whole. The 2014 median salary for marriage and family therapists was just more than $48,000, according to BLS.

7. Industrial-organizational psychologists. Industrial-organizational psychologists apply their expertise to issues in the workplace, typically helping companies create policies, screen job candidates, or address problems in the workplace. They may also work as corporate trainers. Most of these psychologists work in management, scientific, and technical consulting services, or in government settings.

Academic/Research psychologists. Academic and research psychologist help to expand the knowledge base of the field by using the scientific method to address specific psychological topics, a process that entails creating a testable hypothesis, collecting data, and analyzing and reporting findings. In addition, these kinds of psychologists work as teachers, generally at the college level.

8. Psychology professors. Psychology professors help train the next generation of professionals by creating and shaping course curricula, as well as by teaching and advising students directly. They may also be involved in research projects. Psychology teachers at the postsecondary level earn a median salary of $68,690 annually, according to BLS.

9. Research psychologists. These psychologists conduct studies on a wide range of psychological topics. Their duties may include conducting interviews, creating questionnaires, and presenting papers at professional conferences. Government bodies such as the CIA, the Census Bureau, and branches of the military often employ research psychologists.

10. Lab managers. Lab managers oversee operations in a laboratory as research is being conducted. This job entails tracking the equipment in a lab, training assistants, and ensuring that the workplace is safe. Lab managers are generally required to earn a bachelor’s degree to obtain employment.

Working in Psychology: Skills & Attributes. Dealing effectively with people can be a challenge under the best of circumstances, and psychologists are rarely working in ideal conditions. They need to develop a host of professional and personal skills—and know when to use them. Some of the most important skills psychologists should be adept at include:

- Observation. In order to understand what patients are really feeling and thinking, psychologists must be able to pay attention to their words and closely watch their nonverbal communication, especially during the assessment and diagnosis stages.
- Adhering to ethical standards. Psychologists are trusted with people’s most intimate secrets, so it’s important that they behave ethically and with discretion. They have to work to protect their patients from harm and provide treatment that is in their best interest.
- Persuasion. Psychologists are often charged with convincing patients that they need to change unhealthy thought and behavior patterns, but not everyone responds to the same logic or emotional reasons. Psychologists must know how to best approach and get through to their patients.
- Research. Psychologists need to understand how research is conducted and presented, even if they do not conduct experiments themselves. They need to keep abreast of the latest scientific discoveries and their significance in order to incorporate findings into their patient practice.
- Patience. Working with patients who are struggling can be frustrating, so psychologists must exhibit patience to allow the people they work with to process information and change their behaviors at their own pace.

Unit 2. Careers in Psychology

В данном разделе рассмотрен более подробно аспект карьеры в области психологии. Особое внимание уделено профессиональной иерархии.
Psychologists can work in many different places doing many different things. In general, anyone wishing to continue a career in psychology at a 4-year institution of higher education will have to earn a doctoral degree in psychology for some specialties and at least a master’s degree for others. In most areas of psychology, this means earning a PhD in a relevant area of psychology. Literally, PhD refers to a doctor of philosophy degree, but here, philosophy does not refer to the field of philosophy per se. Rather, philosophy in this context refers to many different disciplinary perspectives that would be housed in a traditional college of liberal arts and sciences.

The requirements to earn a PhD vary from country to country and even from school to school, but usually, individuals earning this degree must complete a dissertation. A dissertation is essentially a long research paper or bundled published articles describing research that was conducted as a part of the candidate’s doctoral training. In the United States, a dissertation generally has to be defended before a committee of expert reviewers before the degree is conferred.

Once someone earns her PhD, she may seek a faculty appointment at a college or university. Being on the faculty of a college or university often involves dividing time between teaching, research, and service to the institution and profession. The amount of time spent on each of these primary responsibilities varies dramatically from school to school, and it is not uncommon for faculty to move from place to place in search of the best personal fit among various academic environments.

Thus, depending on the training received, an individual could be anything from a biological psychologist to a clinical psychologist in an academic setting.

Often times, schools offer more courses in psychology than their full-time faculty can teach. In these cases, it is not uncommon to bring in an adjunct faculty member or instructor. Adjunct faculty members and instructors usually have an advanced degree in psychology, but they often have primary careers outside of academia and serve in this role as a secondary job. Alternatively, they may not hold the doctoral degree required by most 4-year institutions and use these opportunities to gain experience in teaching. Furthermore, many 2-year colleges and schools need faculty to teach their courses in psychology. In general, many of the people who pursue careers at these institutions have master’s degrees in psychology, although some PhDs make careers at these institutions as well.

Some people earning PhDs may enjoy research in an academic setting. However, they may not be interested in teaching. These individuals might take on faculty positions that are exclusively devoted to conducting research. This type of position would be more likely option at large, research-focused universities.

In some areas in psychology, it is common for individuals who have recently earned their PhD to seek out positions in postdoctoral training programs, that are available before going on to serve as faculty. In most cases, young scientists will complete one or two postdoctoral programs before applying for a full-time faculty position. Postdoctoral training programs allow young scientists to further develop their research programs and broaden their research skills under the supervision of other professionals in the field.

Individuals who wish to become practicing clinical psychologists have another option for earning a doctoral degree, which is known as a PsyD. A PsyD is a doctor of psychology degree that is increasingly popular among individuals interested in pursuing careers in clinical psychology. PsyD programs generally place less emphasis on research-oriented skills and focus more on application of psychological principles in the clinical context.
Regardless of whether earning a PhD or PsyD, in most states, an individual wishing to practice as a licensed clinical or counseling psychologist may complete postdoctoral work under the supervision of a licensed psychologist. Within the last few years, however, several states have begun to remove this requirement, which would allow someone to get an earlier start in his career. After an individual has met the state requirements, his credentials are evaluated to determine whether he can sit for the licensure exam. Only individuals that pass this exam can call themselves licensed clinical or counseling psychologists. Licensed clinical or counseling psychologists can then work in a number of settings, ranging from private clinical practice to hospital settings. It should be noted that clinical psychologists and psychiatrists do different things and receive different types of education. While both can conduct therapy and counseling, clinical psychologists have a PhD or a PsyD, whereas psychiatrists have a doctor of medicine degree (MD). As such, licensed clinical psychologists can administer and interpret psychological tests, while psychiatrists can prescribe medications.

Individuals earning a PhD can work in a variety of settings, depending on their areas of specialization. For example, someone trained as a biopsychologist might work in a pharmaceutical company to help test the efficacy of a new drug. Someone with a clinical background might become a forensic psychologist and work within the legal system to make recommendations during criminal trials and parole hearings, or serve as an expert in a court case.

While earning a doctoral degree in psychology is a lengthy process, usually taking between 5–6 years of graduate study, there are a number of careers that can be attained with a master’s degree in psychology. People who wish to provide psychotherapy can become licensed to serve as various types of professional counselors. Relevant master’s degrees are also sufficient for individuals seeking careers as school psychologists, in some capacities related to sport psychology, or as consultants in various industrial settings. Undergraduate coursework in psychology may be applicable to other careers such as psychiatric social work or psychiatric nursing, where assessments and therapy may be a part of the job.

An undergraduate education in psychology is associated with a knowledge base and skill set that many employers find quite attractive. It should come as no surprise, then, that individuals earning bachelor’s degrees in psychology find themselves in a number of different careers. Examples of a few such careers can involve serving as case managers, working in sales, working in human resource departments, and teaching in high schools. The rapidly growing realm of healthcare professions is another field in which an education in psychology is helpful and sometimes required. For example, the Medical College Admission Test (MCAT) exam that people must take to be admitted to medical school now includes a section on the psychological foundations of behavior.

Unit 3. What is psychology? The difference between a psychologist and a psychiatrist

В данном разделе рассмотрена сущность психологии, формирование знаний о данной науке в древности. Показана разница и общие моменты в работе психолога и психиатра.

In Greek mythology, Psyche was a mortal woman whose beauty was so great that it rivaled that of the goddess Aphrodite. Aphrodite became so jealous of Psyche that she sent her son, Eros, to make Psyche fall in love with the ugliest man in the world. However, Eros accidentally pricked himself with the tip of his arrow and fell madly in love with Psyche himself. He took Psyche to his palace and showered her with gifts, yet she could never see his face. While visiting Psyche, her sisters roused suspicion in Psyche about her mysterious lover, and eventually, Psyche betrayed Eros’ wishes to remain unseen to her. Because of this betrayal, Eros abandoned Psyche. When Psyche appealed to Aphrodite to reunite her with Eros, Aphrodite gave her a series of impossible tasks to complete. Psyche managed to complete all of these trials; ultimately, her perseverance paid off as she was reunited with Eros and was ultimately transformed into a goddess herself.
Psyche comes to represent the human soul’s triumph over the misfortunes of life in the pursuit of true happiness; in fact, the Greek word psyche means soul, and it is often represented as a butterfly. The word psychology was coined at a time when the concepts of soul and mind were not as clearly distinguished. The root ology denotes scientific study of, and psychology refers to the scientific study of the mind. Since science studies only observable phenomena and the mind is not directly observable, we expand this definition to the scientific study of mind and behavior.

The scientific study of any aspect of the world uses the scientific method to acquire knowledge. To apply the scientific method, a researcher with a question about how or why something happens will propose a tentative explanation, called a hypothesis, to explain the phenomenon. A hypothesis is not just any explanation; it should fit into the context of a scientific theory. A scientific theory is a broad explanation or group of explanations for some aspect of the natural world that is consistently supported by evidence over time. A theory is the best understanding that we have of that part of the natural world. Armed with the hypothesis, the researcher then makes observations or, better still, carries out an experiment to test the validity of the hypothesis. That test and its results are then published so that others can check the results or build on them. It is necessary that any explanation in science be testable, which means that the phenomenon must be perceivable and measurable. For example, that a bird sings because it is happy is not a testable hypothesis, since we have no way to measure the happiness of a bird. We must ask a different question, perhaps about the brain state of the bird, since this can be measured. In general, science deals only with matter and energy, that is, those things that can be measured, and it cannot arrive at knowledge about values and morality. This is one reason why our scientific understanding of the mind is so limited, since thoughts, at least as we experience them, are neither matter nor energy. The scientific method is also a form of empiricism. An empirical method for acquiring knowledge is one based on observation, including experimentation, rather than a method based only on forms of logical argument or previous authorities.

It was not until the late 1800s that psychology became accepted as its own academic discipline. Before this time, the workings of the mind were considered under the auspices of philosophy. Given that any behavior is, at its roots, biological, some areas of psychology take on aspects of a natural science like biology. No biological organism exists in isolation, and our behavior is influenced by our interactions with others.

Therefore, psychology is also a social science.

It is important to note that, the terms «psychologist« and «psychiatrist» are often used interchangeably to describe anyone who provides therapy services, but the two professions and the services provided by each profession differ in terms of content and scope. Psychiatrists are medical doctors and are able to prescribe medications, which they do in conjunction with providing psychotherapy, though medical and pharmacological interventions are often their focus. Psychologists hold doctorate degrees but are not physicians, and they cannot prescribe in most states. Rather, they solely provide psychotherapy, which may involve cognitive and behavioral interventions.

1. Education, Training, and Credentials. While psychologists and psychiatrists both conduct psychotherapy and research, there are significant differences between the two professions in terms of education, training, and approaches to patient treatment.

2. Educational Requirements for Psychologists. Psychologists receive graduate training in psychology and pursue either a PhD or PsyD in clinical or counseling psychology.

Doctorate programs typically take five to seven years to complete and most states require an additional one or two-year long internship in order to gain licensure. Other states require another year or two of supervised practice before granting full licensure.

During their education, those pursuing either a PhD or PsyD doctoral degree take courses in personality development, psychological research methods, treatment approaches, psychological theories, cognitive therapies, and behavioral therapies among other topics. They also complete a one- or two year-long internship, followed by a period of supervised practice.

An individual, who has completed the above education, training, and state licensure requirements, can only use the title of «psychologist». Informal titles such as «counselor» or «therapist» are
often used as well, but other mental health care professionals such as licensed social workers can also claim these titles.

The PhD degree option tends to be more research-oriented. Those who earn a PhD in clinical or counseling psychology receive extensive training in research methods and complete a dissertation. The PsyD degree option, on the other hand, tends to be more practice-oriented. Students who pursue this degree option spend more time learning about and practicing clinical approaches and treatment methods.

Like psychiatrists, psychologists utilize the DSM (or Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders) to diagnose people who are experiencing symptoms of psychological illness. They often use psychological tests such as personality tests, clinical interviews, behavioral assessments, and IQ tests in order to get a better idea of how a client is functioning.

3. Educational Requirements for Psychiatrists. Psychiatrists are physicians that have specific training in the assessment, diagnosis, treatment, and prevention of mental illnesses.

In order to become a psychiatrist, students first earn an undergraduate degree before they attend medical school and receive an M.D.

After finishing their medical training, they also complete an additional four years of residency training in mental health. This residency often involves working in the psychiatric unit of a hospital. They also work with a wide variety of patients ranging from children to adults who may have behavioral problems, emotional difficulties, or some sort of psychiatric disorder.

During this medical residency, those specializing in psychiatry receive training and practice in how to diagnose and treat different psychiatric conditions such as PTSD, ADHD, schizophrenia, and bipolar disorder.

Psychiatrists receive training in different psychotherapy treatment modalities including cognitive-behavioral therapy, a popular treatment approach that has been shown to have a high level of effectiveness in the treatment of a wide variety of psychiatric conditions including anxiety disorders, somatoform disorders, stress, and anger issues. Some research suggests that combining CBT and medications may be more effective in the treatment of some conditions.

Some also receive additional training in a specific area of interest such as geriatric psychiatry, child and adolescent psychiatry, addictions, and other areas. Some may then choose to specialize further by completing a fellowship in an area such as neuropsychiatry, addictions, geriatrics, adolescent psychiatry, or psychopharmacology.

4. The Ability to Prescribe Medication. A second important distinction between the two careers is that psychiatrists can prescribe medications, while, in most states, psychologists cannot. However, there has been a recent push to grant prescribing powers to psychologists.

For those interested in a career in psychology as a prescriber, it is important to know that certain federal employees and uniformed commissioned officers that are licensed in one state as a medical psychologist may prescribe any other state to which they are assigned by the federal government.

5. How They Treat Patients. While the two professions are distinct, psychologists and psychiatrists both play important roles in mental health treatment. The two professions are often portrayed, as being pitted against each other, but the reality is that they often work in collaboration with one another to provide the best possible treatment for patients.

Psychologists and psychiatrists often work in collaboration and contribute to an individual’s unique treatment plan. In many cases, people with work with a psychologist in order to receive regular psychotherapy treatments and then see a psychiatrist on weekly or monthly basis in order to assess medication needs.

For example, patients may begin by seeing their primary care physician about the psychological symptoms that they are experiencing. Their doctor may then refer them to a psychologist for further evaluation. That psychologist may observe, assess, and diagnose the patient before referring them to a psychiatrist who can prescribe and monitor medications. The psychologist and psychiatrist may work together, with the psychologist offering behavioral interventions and the psychiatrist providing medication, in order to best address the symptoms.
The type of approach needed often depends on the severity of the patient's symptoms and the needs and wishes of the patient. Some research has suggested that patients either tend to prefer psychotherapy alone or a combination of psychotherapy with medication. In such cases, patients may prefer to work with a psychologist if they wish to focus on psychotherapy or with a team that includes a psychologist and psychiatrist if they want to combine behavioral and pharmacological interventions. Some studies have found that combining treatment approaches may also be more cost-effective for patients.

6. **Job Outlook and Pay.** According to the Occupational Outlook Handbook published by the U.S. Bureau of Labor and Statistics, the job outlook for psychologists and psychiatrists is expected to grow at a similar rate. They predict the demand for psychiatrists to rise at a rate of 15% between the years 2014 and 2024, amounting to an increase in around 4,200 jobs. The demand for psychologists is expected to grow at a somewhat larger rate of 19% between the years 2014 and 2024, amounting to an increase of about 32,500 more jobs. The Bureau of Labor Statistics reports that the median salary for psychologists as of May 2016 was $75,230 per year. The median annual salary for psychiatrists in May 2016 was considerably higher at $245,673.

7. **For Those Interested in Becoming a Psychologist or Psychiatrist.** If you are considering a career as a therapist, you will need to determine which career path is best for you. Are you interested in conducting psychotherapy, administering psychological tests, and conducting research? If so, a career as a psychologist may be the best choice for you.

On the other hand, if you have an interest in medicine and want to be able to prescribe medications to your patients, a career in psychiatry might be your ideal choice.

If you do not want to invest five to eight years in graduate training, consider pursuing a career as a licensed social worker or counselor. These professionals are also qualified to provide mental health services depending upon training and experience. Both social work and counseling typically require two or three years of graduate study.

Psychiatric nursing is another great career option for students interested in medicine. Advanced Psychiatric Nurses hold a master's degree or higher in psychiatric-mental health nursing and are able to assess patients, diagnose disorders, provide psychotherapy, and prescribe medications.

8. **What It is Like to Be a Psychologist or a Psychiatrist.** Work/life balance and work settings are other factors that students should consider when choosing between a career as a psychiatrist or psychologist. Both medical school and graduate school are rigorous and require a significant investment of time, resources, and energy.

A medical residency can be grueling, and students should feel comfortable working in medical settings if they opt to enter the field of psychiatry.

After graduating, psychiatrists who choose to work in hospital settings may be required to work long hours or be on-call. Psychiatrists may work in hospitals, but they may also opt to work in community mental health centers, academic settings, or private practice. Those who choose to work in private practice may find that they have more control over their schedule and hours.

Psychologists also face similar demands. Some psychologists may also choose to work in hospital settings, while others can be found in mental health clinics, government agencies, academic settings, and private practice. Professionals in this field may find that they need to work evening and weekend hours in order to accommodate clients who work during normal business hours. Like psychiatrists, psychologists working in the mental health field may also need to be on call at times or be able to respond to emergencies.

9. **A Word From «Verywell»**. Psychologists and psychiatrists represent distinctive professional designations, but both play a critical role in the field of mental health. Key differences between psychologists and psychiatrists come down to educational background and prescribing powers, but both share the important goal of helping patients feel better.

There are many important differences between psychologists and psychiatrists and mental health consumers should be aware of the distinctions between the two professions. Despite these differences, both psychologists and psychiatrists are equipped to provide mental health services to people suffering from minor to mental illness that is more serious.
Unit 1. History of Psychology

Psychology is a relatively young science with its experimental roots in the 19th century, compared, for example, to human physiology, which dates much earlier. As mentioned, anyone interested in exploring issues related to the mind generally did so in a philosophical context prior to the 19th century. Two men, working in the 19th century, are generally credited as being the founders of psychology as a science and academic discipline that was distinct from philosophy. Their names were Wilhelm Wundt and William James. This unit will provide an overview of the shifts in paradigms that have influenced psychology from Wundt and James through today.

WUNDT AND STRUCTURALISM

Wilhelm Wundt (1832–1920) was a German scientist who was the first person to be referred to as a psychologist. His famous book entitled Principles of Physiological Psychology was published in 1873. Wundt viewed psychology as a scientific study of conscious experience, and he believed that the goal of psychology was to identify components of consciousness and how those components combined to result in our conscious experience. Wundt used introspection (he called it «internal perception»), a process by which someone examines their own conscious experience as objectively as possible, making the human mind like any other aspect of nature that a scientist observed. Wundt’s version of introspection used only very specific experimental conditions in which an external stimulus was designed to produce a scientifically observable (repeatable) experience of
the mind. The first stringent requirement was the use of «trained» or practiced observers, who could immediately observe and report a reaction. The second requirement was the use of repeatable stimuli that always produced the same experience in the subject and allowed the subject to expect and thus be fully attentive to the inner reaction. These experimental requirements were put in place to eliminate «interpretation» in the reporting of internal experiences and to counter the argument that there is no way to know that an individual is observing their mind or consciousness accurately, since it cannot be seen by any other person. This attempt to understand the structure or characteristics of the mind was known as structuralism. Wundt established his psychology laboratory at the University at Leipzig in 1879. In this laboratory, Wundt and his students conducted experiments on, for example, reaction times. A subject, sometimes in a room isolated from the scientist, would receive a stimulus such as a light, image, or sound. The subject’s reaction to the stimulus would be to push a button, and an apparatus would record the time to reaction. Wundt could measure reaction time to one-thousandth of a second. However, despite his efforts to train individuals in the process of introspection, this process remained highly subjective, and there was very little agreement between individuals. As a result, structuralism fell out of favor with the passing of Wundt’s student, Edward Titchener, in 1927.

JAMES AND FUNCTIONALISM

William James (1842–1910) was the first American psychologist who espoused a different perspective on how psychology should operate. James was introduced to Darwin’s theory of evolution by natural selection and accepted it as an explanation of an organism’s characteristics. Key to that theory is the idea that natural selection leads to organisms that are adapted to their environment, including their behavior. Adaptation means that a trait of an organism has a function for the survival and reproduction of the individual, because it has been naturally selected. As James saw it, psychology’s purpose was to study the function of behavior in the world, and as such, his perspective was known as functionalism. Functionalism focused on how mental activities helped an organism fit into its environment. Functionalism has a second, more subtle meaning in that functionalists were more interested in the operation of the whole mind rather than of its individual parts, which were the focus of structuralism. Like Wundt, James believed that introspection could serve as one means by which someone might study mental activities, but James also relied on more objective measures, including the use of various recording devices, and examinations of concrete products of mental activities and of anatomy and physiology.

FREUD AND PSYCHOANALYTIC THEORY

Perhaps one of the most influential and well-known figures in psychology’s history was Sigmund Freud. Freud (1856–1939) was an Austrian neurologist who was fascinated by patients suffering from «hysteria» and neurosis. Hysteria was an ancient diagnosis for disorders, primarily of women with a wide variety of symptoms, including physical symptoms and emotional disturbances, none of which had an apparent physical cause. Freud theorized that many of his patients’ problems arose from the unconscious mind. In Freud’s view, the unconscious mind was a repository of feelings and urges of which we have no awareness. Gaining access to the unconscious, then, was crucial to the successful resolution of the patient’s problems. According to Freud, the unconscious mind could be accessed through dream analysis, by examinations of the first words that came to people’s minds, and through seemingly innocent slips of the tongue. Psychoanalytic theory focuses on the role of a person’s unconscious, as well as early childhood experiences, and this particular perspective dominated clinical psychology for several decades.

Freud’s ideas were influential, and you will learn more about them when you study lifespan development, personality, and therapy. For instance, many therapists believe strongly in the unconscious and the impact of early childhood experiences on the rest of a person’s life. The method of psychoanalysis, which involves the patient talking about their experiences and selves, while not
invented by Freud, was certainly popularized by him and is still used today. Many of Freud’s other ideas, however, are controversial. Drew Westen (1998) argues that many of the criticisms of Freud’s ideas are misplaced, in that they attack his older ideas without taking into account later writings. Westen also argues that critics fail to consider the success of the broad ideas that Freud introduced or developed, such as the importance of childhood experiences in adult motivations, the role of unconscious versus conscious motivations in driving our behavior, the fact that motivations can cause conflicts that affect behavior, the effects of mental representations of ourselves and others in guiding our interactions, and the development of personality over time. Westen identifies subsequent research support for all of these ideas.

More modern iterations of Freud’s clinical approach have been empirically demonstrated to be effective. Some current practices in psychotherapy involve examining unconscious aspects of the self and relationships, often through the relationship between the therapist and the client. Freud’s historical significance and contributions to clinical practice merit his inclusion in a discussion of the historical movements within psychology.

WERTHEIMER, KOFFKA, KÖHLER, AND GESTALT PSYCHOLOGY

Max Wertheimer (1880–1943), Kurt Koffka (1886–1941), and Wolfgang Köhler (1887–1967) were three German psychologists who immigrated to the United States in the early 20th century to escape Nazi Germany. These men are credited with introducing psychologists in the United States to various Gestalt principles. The word Gestalt roughly translates to «whole» a major emphasis of Gestalt psychology deals with the fact that although a sensory experience can be broken down into individual parts, how those parts relate to each other as a whole is often what the individual responds to in perception. For example, a song may be made up of individual notes played by different instruments, but the real nature of the song is perceived in the combinations of these notes as they form the melody, rhythm, and harmony. In many ways, this particular perspective would have directly contradicted Wundt’s ideas of structuralism).

Unfortunately, in moving to the United States, these men were forced to abandon much of their work and were unable to continue to conduct research on a large scale. These factors along with the rise of behaviorism (described next) in the United States prevented principles of Gestalt psychology from being as influential in the United States as they had been in their native Germany. Despite these issues, several Gestalt principles are still very influential today. Considering the human individual as a whole rather than as a sum of individually measured parts became an important foundation in humanistic theory late in the century. The ideas of Gestalt have continued to influence research on sensation and perception.

Structuralism, Freud, and the Gestalt psychologists were all concerned in one way or another with describing and understanding inner experience. However, other researchers had concerns that inner experience could be a legitimate subject of scientific inquiry and chose instead to exclusively study behavior, the objectively observable outcome of mental processes.

PAVLOV, WATSON, SKINNER, AND BEHAVIORISM

Early work in the field of behavior was conducted by the Russian physiologist Ivan Pavlov (1849–1936). Pavlov studied a form of learning behavior called a conditioned reflex, in which an animal or human produced a reflex (unconscious) response to a stimulus and, over time, was conditioned to produce the response to a different stimulus that the experimenter associated with the original stimulus. The reflex Pavlov worked with was salivation in response to the presence of food. The salivation reflex could be elicited using a second stimulus, such as a specific sound, that was presented in association with the initial food stimulus several times. Once the response to the second stimulus was «learned», the food stimulus could be omitted. Pavlov’s «classical conditioning» is only one form of learning behavior studied by behaviorists.
John B. Watson (1878–1958) was an influential American psychologist whose most famous work occurred during the early 20th century at Johns Hopkins University. While Wundt and James were concerned with understanding conscious experience, Watson thought that the study of consciousness was flawed. Because he believed that objective analysis of the mind was impossible, Watson preferred to focus directly on observable behavior and try to bring that behavior under control. Watson was a major proponent of shifting the focus of psychology from the mind to behavior, and this approach of observing and controlling behavior came to be known as behaviorism. A major object of study by behaviorists was learned behavior and its interaction with inborn qualities of the organism. Behaviorism commonly used animals in experiments under the assumption that what was learned using animal models could, to some degree, be applied to human behavior. Indeed, Tolman (1938) stated, «I believe that everything important in psychology (except … such matters as involve society and words) can be investigated in essence through the continued experimental and theoretical analysis of the determiners of rat behavior at a choice-point in a maze».

Behaviorism dominated experimental psychology for several decades, and its influence can still be felt today. Behaviorism is largely responsible for establishing psychology as a scientific discipline through its objective methods and especially experimentation. In addition, it is used in behavioral and cognitive-behavioral therapy. Behavior modification is commonly used in classroom settings. Behaviorism has also led to research on environmental influences on human behavior.

B. F. Skinner (1904–1990) was an American psychologist. Like Watson, Skinner was a behaviorist, and he concentrated on how behavior was affected by its consequences. Therefore, Skinner spoke of reinforcement and punishment as major factors in driving behavior. As a part of his research, Skinner developed a chamber that allowed the careful study of the principles of modifying behavior through reinforcement and punishment. This device, known as an operant conditioning chamber (or more familiarly, a Skinner box), has remained a crucial resource for researchers studying behavior.

The Skinner box is a chamber that isolates the subject from the external environment and has a behavior indicator such as a lever or a button. When the animal pushes the button or lever, the box is able to deliver a positive reinforcement of the behavior (such as food) or a punishment (such as a noise) or a token conditioner (such as a light) that is correlated with either the positive reinforcement or punishment.

Skinner’s focus on positive and negative reinforcement of learned behaviors had a lasting influence in psychology that has waned somewhat since the growth of research in cognitive psychology. Despite this, conditioned learning is still used in human behavioral modification. Skinner’s two widely read and controversial popular science books about the value of operant conditioning for creating happier lives remain as thought-provoking arguments for his approach.

**MASLOW, ROGERS, AND HUMANISM**

During the early 20th century, American psychology was dominated by behaviorism and psychoanalysis. However, some psychologists were uncomfortable with what they viewed as limited perspectives being so influential to the field. They objected to the pessimism and determinism (all actions driven by the unconscious) of Freud. They also disliked the reductionism, or simplifying nature, of behaviorism. Behaviorism is also deterministic at its core, because it sees human behavior as entirely determined by a combination of genetics and environment. Some psychologists began to form their own ideas that emphasized personal control, intentionality, and a true predisposition for «good» as important for our self-concept and our behavior. Thus, humanism emerged. Humanism is a perspective within psychology that emphasizes the potential for good that is innate to all humans. Two of the most well-known proponents of humanistic psychology are Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers.

Abraham Maslow (1908–1970) was an American psychologist who is best known for proposing a hierarchy of human needs in motivating behavior (Figure).
Maslow asserted that so long as basic needs necessary for survival were met (e.g., food, water, shelter), higher-level needs (e.g., social needs) would begin to motivate behavior. According to Maslow, the highest-level needs relate to self-actualization, a process by which we achieve our full potential. Obviously, the focus on the positive aspects of human nature that are characteristic of the humanistic perspective is evident. Humanistic psychologists rejected, on principle, the research approach based on reductionist experimentation in the tradition of the physical and biological sciences, because it missed the «whole» human being. Beginning with Maslow and Rogers, there was an insistence on a humanistic research program. This program has been largely qualitative (not measurement-based), but there exist a number of quantitative research strains within humanistic psychology, including research on happiness, self-concept, meditation, and the outcomes of humanistic psychotherapy.

Carl Rogers (1902–1987) was also an American psychologist who, like Maslow, emphasized the potential for good that exists within all people. Rogers used a therapeutic technique known as client-centered therapy in helping his clients deal with problematic issues that resulted in their seeking psychotherapy. Unlike a psychoanalytic approach in which the therapist plays an important role in interpreting what conscious behavior reveals about the unconscious mind, client-centered therapy involves the patient taking a lead role in the therapy session. Rogers believed that a therapist needed to display three features to maximize the effectiveness of this particular approach: unconditional positive regard, genuineness, and empathy. Unconditional positive regard refers to the fact that the therapist accepts their client for who they are, no matter what he or she might say. Provided these factors, Rogers believed that people were more than capable of dealing with and working through their own issues.

Humanism has been influential to psychology as a whole. Both Maslow and Rogers are well-known names among students of psychology, and their ideas have influenced many scholars. Furthermore, Rogers’ client-centered approach to therapy is still commonly used in psychotherapeutic settings today.

Behaviorism’s emphasis on objectivity and focus on external behavior had pulled psychologists’ attention away from the mind for a prolonged period. The early work of the humanistic psychologists redirected attention to the individual human as a whole, and as a conscious and self-aware being. By the 1950s, new disciplinary perspectives in linguistics, neuroscience, and computer science were emerging, and these areas revived interest in the mind as a focus of scientific inquiry. This particular perspective has come to be known as the cognitive revolution. By 1967, Ulric Neisser
published the first textbook entitled Cognitive Psychology, which served as a core text in cognitive psychology courses around the country.

Although no one person is entirely responsible for starting the cognitive revolution, Noam Chomsky was very influential in the early days of this movement. Chomsky (1928), an American linguist, was dissatisfied with the influence that behaviorism had had on psychology. He believed that psychology’s focus on behavior was short-sighted and that the field had to re-incorporate mental functioning into its purview if it were to offer any meaningful contributions to understanding behavior.

European psychology had never really been as influenced by behaviorism as had American psychology; and thus, the cognitive revolution helped reestablish lines of communication between European psychologists and their American counterparts. Furthermore, psychologists began to cooperate with scientists in other fields, like anthropology, linguistics, computer science, and neuroscience, among others. This interdisciplinary approach often was referred to as the cognitive sciences, and the influence and prominence of this particular perspective resonates in modern-day psychology.

FEMINIST PSYCHOLOGY

The science of psychology has had an impact on human wellbeing, both positive and negative. The dominant influence of Western, white, and male academics in the early history of psychology meant that psychology developed with the biases inherent in those individuals, which often had negative consequences for members of society that were not white or male. Women, members of ethnic minorities in both the United States and other countries, and individuals with sexual orientations other than heterosexual had difficulties entering the field of psychology and therefore influencing its development. They also suffered from the attitudes of white, male psychologists, who were not immune to the nonscientific attitudes prevalent in the society in which they developed and worked. Until the 1960s, the science of psychology was largely a «womanless» psychology, meaning that few women were able to practice psychology, so they had little influence on what was studied. In addition, the experimental subjects of psychology were mostly men, which resulted from underlying assumptions that gender had no influence on psychology and that women were not of sufficient interest to study.

An article by Naomi Weisstein, first published in 1968, stimulated a feminist revolution in psychology by presenting a critique of psychology as a science. She also specifically criticized male psychologists for constructing the psychology of women entirely out of their own cultural biases and without careful experimental tests to verify any of their characterizations of women. Weisstein used, as examples, statements by prominent psychologists in the 1960s, such as this quote by Bruno Bettelheim: «...we must start with the realization that, as much as women want to be good scientists or engineers, they want first and foremost to be womanly companions of men and to be mothers». Weisstein’s critique formed the foundation for the subsequent development of a feminist psychology that attempted to be free of the influence of male cultural biases on our knowledge of the psychology of women and, indeed, of both genders.

Crawford and Marecek identify several feminist approaches to psychology that can be described as feminist psychology. These include re-evaluating and discovering the contributions of women to the history of psychology, studying psychological gender differences, and questioning the male bias present across the practice of the scientific approach to knowledge.

MULTICULTURAL PSYCHOLOGY

Culture has important impacts on individuals and social psychology, yet the effects of culture on psychology are under-studied. There is a risk that psychological theories and data derived from white, American settings could be assumed to apply to individuals and social groups from other cultures and this is unlikely to be true). One weakness in the field of cross-cultural psychology is
that in looking for differences in psychological attributes across cultures, there remains a need to go beyond simple descriptive statistics. In this sense, it has remained a descriptive science, rather than one seeking to determine cause and effect. For example, a study of characteristics of individuals seeking treatment for a binge eating disorder in Hispanic American, African American, and Caucasian American individuals found significant differences between groups. The study concluded that results from studying any one of the groups could not be extended to the other groups, and yet potential causes of the differences were not measured.

This history of multicultural psychology in the United States is a long one. The role of African American psychologists in researching the cultural differences between African American individual and social psychology is but one example. In 1920, Cecil Sumner was the first African American to receive a PhD in psychology in the United States. Sumner established a psychology degree program at Howard University, leading to the education of a new generation of African American psychologists. Much of the work of early African American psychologists (and a general focus of much work in first half of the 20th century in psychology in the United States) was dedicated to testing and intelligence testing in particular. That emphasis has continued, particularly because of the importance of testing in determining opportunities for children, but other areas of exploration in African-American psychology research include learning style, sense of community and belonging, and spiritualism.

The American Psychological Association has several ethnically based organizations for professional psychologists that facilitate interactions among members. Since psychologists belonging to specific ethnic groups or cultures have the most interest in studying the psychology of their communities, these organizations provide an opportunity for the growth of research on the impact of culture on individual and social psychology.

Unit 2. Contemporary Psychology

В данном разделе описаны ключевые положения современной психологии.

Contemporary psychology is a diverse field that is influenced by all of the historical perspectives described in the preceding unit. Reflective of the discipline’s diversity is the diversity seen within the American Psychological Association (APA). The APA is a professional organization representing psychologists in the United States. The APA is the largest organization of psychologists in the world, and its mission is to advance and disseminate psychological knowledge for the betterment of people. There are 56 divisions within the APA, representing a wide variety of specialties that range from Societies for the Psychology of Religion and Spirituality to Exercise and Sport Psychology to Behavioral Neuroscience and Comparative Psychology. Reflecting the diversity of the field of psychology itself, members, affiliate members, and associate members span the spectrum from students to doctoral-level psychologists, and come from a variety of places including educational settings, criminal justice, hospitals, the armed forces, and industry. The Association for Psychological Science (APS) was founded in 1988 and seeks to advance the scientific orientation of psychology. Its founding resulted from disagreements between members of the scientific and clinical branches of psychology within the APA. The APS publishes five research journals and engages in education and advocacy with funding agencies.

A significant proportion of its members are international, although the majority is located in the United States. Other organizations provide networking and collaboration opportunities for professionals of several ethnic or racial groups working in psychology, such as the National Latina/o Psychological Association (NLPA), the Asian American Psychological Association (AAPA), the Association of Black Psychologists (ABPs), and the Society of Indian Psychologists (SIP). Most of these groups are also dedicated to studying psychological and social issues within their specific communities.
This unit will provide an overview of the major subdivisions within psychology today. This is not meant to be an exhaustive listing, but it will provide insight into the major areas of research and practice of modern-day psychologists.

**BIOPSYCHOLOGY AND EVOLUTIONARY PSYCHOLOGY**

As the name suggests, biopsychology explores how our biology influences our behavior. While biological psychology is a broad field, many biological psychologists want to understand how the structure and function of the nervous system is related to behavior. As such, they often combine the research strategies of both psychologists and physiologists to accomplish this goal.

The research interests of biological psychologists span a number of domains, including but not limited to, sensory and motor systems, sleep, drug use and abuse, digestive behavior, reproductive behavior, neurodevelopment, plasticity of the nervous system, and biological correlates of psychological disorders. Given the broad areas of interest falling under the purview of biological psychology, it will probably come as no surprise that individuals from all sorts of backgrounds are involved in this research, including biologists, medical professionals, physiologists, and chemists. This interdisciplinary approach is often referred to as neuroscience, of which biological psychology is a component.

While biopsychology typically focuses on the immediate causes of behavior based in the physiology of a human or other animal, evolutionary psychology seeks to study the ultimate biological causes of behavior. To the extent that a behavior is impacted by genetics, a behavior, like any anatomical characteristic of a human or animal, will demonstrate adaption to its surroundings. These surroundings include the physical environment and, since interactions between organisms can be important to survival and reproduction, the social environment. The study of behavior in the context of evolution has its origins with Charles Darwin, the co-discoverer of the theory of evolution by natural selection. Darwin was well aware that behaviors should be adaptive and wrote books titled, *The Descent of Man* (1871) and *The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals* (1872), to explore this field.

Evolutionary psychology, and specifically, the evolutionary psychology of humans, has enjoyed a resurgence in recent decades. To be subject to evolution by natural selection, a behavior must have a significant genetic cause. In general, we expect all human cultures to express a behavior if it is caused genetically, since the genetic differences among human groups are small. The approach taken by most evolutionary psychologists is to predict the outcome of a behavior in a particular situation based on evolutionary theory and then to make observations, or conduct experiments, to determine whether the results match the theory. It is important to recognize that these types of studies are not strong evidence that a behavior is adaptive, since they lack information that the behavior is in some part genetic and not entirely cultural. Demonstrating that a trait, especially in humans, is naturally selected is extraordinarily difficult; perhaps for this reason, some evolutionary psychologists are content to assume the behaviors they study have genetic determinants.

One other drawback of evolutionary psychology is that the traits that we possess now evolved under environmental and social conditions far back in human history, and we have a poor understanding of what these conditions were. This makes predictions about what is adaptive for a behavior difficult. Behavioral traits need not be adaptive under current conditions, only under the conditions of the past when they evolved, about which we can only hypothesize.

There are many areas of human behavior for which evolution can make predictions. Examples include memory, mate choice, relationships between kin, friendship and cooperation, parenting, social organization, and status.

Evolutionary psychologists have had success in finding experimental correspondence between observations and expectations. In one example, in a study of mate preference differences between men and women that spanned 37 cultures, Buss found that women valued earning potential factors greater than men, and men valued potential reproductive factors (youth and attractiveness) greater
than women in their prospective mates. In general, the predictions were in line with the predictions of evolution, although there were deviations in some cultures.

**SENSATION AND PERCEPTION**

Scientists interested in both physiological aspects of sensory systems as well as in the psychological experience of sensory information work within the area of sensation and perception. As such, sensation and perception research is also quite interdisciplinary. Imagine walking between buildings as you move from one class to another. You are inundated with sights, sounds, touch sensations, and smells. You also experience the temperature of the air around you and maintain your balance as you make your way. These are all factors of interest to someone working in the domain of sensation and perception.

As described in a later chapter that focuses on the results of studies in sensation and perception, our experience of our world is not as simple as the sum total of all of the sensory information (or sensations) together. Rather, our experience (or perception) is complex and is influenced by where we focus our attention, our previous experiences, and even our cultural backgrounds.

**COGNITIVE PSYCHOLOGY**

The cognitive revolution created an impetus for psychologists to focus their attention on better understanding the mind and mental processes that underlie behavior. Thus, **cognitive psychology** is the area of psychology that focuses on studying cognitions, or thoughts, and their relationship to our experiences and our actions. Like biological psychology, cognitive psychology is broad in its scope and often involves collaborations among people from a diverse range of disciplinary backgrounds. This has led some to coin the term cognitive science to describe the interdisciplinary nature of this area of research.

Cognitive psychologists have research interests that span a spectrum of topics, ranging from attention to problem solving to language to memory. The approaches used in studying these topics are equally diverse. Given such diversity, cognitive psychology is not captured in one chapter of this text per se; rather, various concepts related to cognitive psychology will be covered in relevant portions of the chapters in this text on sensation and perception, thinking and intelligence, memory, lifespan development, social psychology, and therapy.

**Unit 3. Psychology in Russia**

В данном разделе рассмотрена эволюция российской психологической мысли в разрезе XX века. Обозначена роль и место советской психологии в становлении новейшей отечественной науки, а также критика первой.

Russian psychology in 20 century emerged and developed in a time of radical social transformation connected with the October Revolution. The new forms of social practice required new theoretical approaches from the social sciences and radically different forms of their organization. Luria argued that the atmosphere immediately following the revolution stimulated incredible levels of activity to systematic, highly organized scientific inquiry.

Prerevolutionary Russian psychology developed in the context of strong social and ideological contradictions that found their expression in the tension between objectivist and subjectivist psychology. Ivan Mikhailovich Sechenov (1829-1905), the author of the book Reflexes on the Brain (1863) is the founder of objective physiological psychology in Russia. Sechenov suggested that psychic activity could be analyzed by objective methods. He considered physiological and psychical reactions as reflex actions. Sechenov’s reflex theory influenced the formation of I. Pavlov’s (1849–1936) and V. Bekhterev’s (1857–1927) research programs. In contrast to objectivist trends in Russian
psychology, many Russian philosophers and psychologists as N. Grot (1852–1899), A.I. Vvedensky (1856–1925), L. Lopatin (1855–1920), and G. Chelpanov (1862–1936) believed that the method of introspection is the primary and necessary means for studying psychic and inner experience.

Russian psychology is formed mainly but not only under the influence of objective psychology. V. Bekhterev attempted to construct a reflexology, a complex science focused on the objective study of man from the biosocial viewpoint. Bekhterev’s view of «nervous energy» as a unifying concept of all biological phenomena was presented as a theoretical foundation for an interdisciplinary study of human beings. I. Pavlov founded another strong scientific school in Soviet psychology. Although Pavlov did not accept Marxist or communistic ideas and frequently criticized the new regime, the Soviet government supported him in continuing his scientific investigation. Pavlov elaborated his doctrine of higher nervous activity. Higher nervous activity is the activity of the higher centers of the central nervous system of organisms allowing complex relations between the organism and the external environment.

P. Blonsky (1884–1941) carried out the first serious attempt at reconstruction of psychology. Blonsky in his works The Reform of Science (1920) and An Outline of Scientific Psychology (1921) suggested a reorientation psychology, which would become a science of studying behavior. In contrast to American behaviorism, he proposed that behavior can be understood only as a history of behavior.

K. Kornilov (1879–1957) suggested another way to create a new psychology based on Marxism. Kornilov rejected not only idealistic psychology but also reflexology, promoting a «dialectical synthesis» of subjective psychology and objective psychology in the framework of his «reactology». In fact, the concept of reaction was an eclectic, mechanistic combination both of mental and physical components.

In the 1920s many attempts to introduce and apply diverse approaches and trends in the field of psychology (introspective psychology, psychoanalysis, reflexology, reactology, the doctrine of higher nervous activity, etc.) were made in the light of social challenges of that era. New applied disciplines developed, for example, pedology (the complex science of childhood and child development), psychotechnics (engineering psychology), mental hygiene (the science of enhancing mental health, prevention, and control of neuropsychiatric diseases), psychotherapy, and defectology (a branch focusing on the study of anomalous development and correctional education).

In 1929, over 600 books within the subject area of psychology were published in the USSR. Russian psychological literature ranked third in the world after psychological literature in English and German. Many significant works in psychology were translated into Russian. There was a very lively scientific discourse and dozens of scientific journals were published (Psychology, Pedology, Journal for the Study of Early Childhood, Journal of psychology, neurology and psychiatry, Psychiatry, Neurology and Experimental psychology, Issues of defectology, Psychological Review, etc.).

Radical transformations in the social structure, such an industrialization and collectivization, which occurred in the Soviet Union changed the psychological agenda and influenced the production of psychological knowledge. L. Vygotsky analyzed the crisis in psychology not only as a result of fundamental philosophical tensions in the domain of psychology but also as a product of the tension between existing psychological theories and rapidly growing practice. Vygotsky (1896–1934) introduced his cultural-historical psychology as a means of overcoming the crisis in psychology. Vygotsky and Luria (1902–1977) were interested in what happens with psychological functions, when a transformation from traditional to modern society occurs. In the early 1930s, Luria (1976) investigated the cognitive development of different groups of people living in the hamlets and nomad camps of central Asia.

During the period 1930–1950, new theories and scientific schools in the field of psychology appeared and developed (Vygotsky’s cultural-historical psychology, Leontiev’s (1903–1979) activity psychology, Rubinstein’s (1889–1960) activity psychology, Uznadze’s (1886–1950) theory of set). At that same time, S. Rubinstein formulated the basic theoretical and methodological principles of Soviet psychology in his monumental work Fundamentals of General Psychology (1940): 1) the principle of psychopsychical unity, 2) the principle of development, 3) the principle of historicity, and
4) the principle of the unity of theory and practice. Rubinstein regarded these principles as an expression of the basic principle of the unity of consciousness and activity.

During the same period (1930–1950), many directions in the field of psychology were suppressed (pedology, psychoanalysis, psychotechnics, cultural-historical psychology, etc.); the publication of many scientific journals was stopped (Psychology, Pedology, Soviet Psychotechnics, etc.) and caused great damage especially in applied psychology. After a decree of VKP (b) Central Committee «On Pedological Perversions in the Narkompos System» (July 4, 1936) «...great numbers of psychologists were forced to leave the applied branches of psychology».

In the context of the «second wave» of persecution, which occurred in the later end of the 1940s, completely scientific disciplines were declared as «pseudosciences» and persecuted. Between June 28–July 4, 1950, a scientific session on the Physiological Teachings of Academician Ivan P. Pavlov was organized by the Academy of Sciences and Academy of Medical Sciences of the USSR. The main task of this session was the further development of Pavlov’s teaching in the understanding of behavior and in the foundation of medical sciences. At this session, L. Orbeli (1882–1958), P. Anokhin (1898–1974), and other scientists faced a devastating criticism of deformation of the fundamental principles of Pavlovian reflex theory. One of the errors of the «Pavlovian session» was the reduction of psychology to physiology of the nervous system and neglect of the active character of reflection by Man. Scientific meetings and conferences which were held in the coming years (1952, 1962, etc.) focused on the boundaries of psychology as a subject matter and that underscored how it was not possible to reduce it to physiology. It is worth noting that the limitation of the Pavlovian theory of reflexes was largely recognized by physiologists, who had developed new approaches: the theory of functional systems of P. Anokhin (1898–1974) and N. Bernstein’s (1896–1966) theory of movement behavior.

In mid-1950 the ideological control over science weakened. In 1955 the journal The Issues Relevant to Psychology (Voprosy Psikhologii) began circulating. In 1956 one volume on Vygotisky’s works was published. In 1966 the psychological faculty at Moscow University was founded. In the same year the XVIIIth International Congress of Psychology was held in Moscow. After two decades of isolation, Soviet psychologists started reconnecting with their colleagues of other countries. A «cultural shock» was experienced by the first Western psychologists connecting with Soviet psychology. «Coming upon Soviet psychology and psychological physiology for the first time is a little like Darwin first visiting the Galapagos. Different forms of species have evolved, as a result of isolation and interbreeding».

In the mid-1950s the basic theoretical and methodological principles of Soviet psychology had been formulated and the application of those principles to specific areas came into the foreground. During the next decades an extensive development of Soviet psychology was carried out: the separation and the development of new branches of psychology (developmental psychology, pedagogical psychology, social psychology, psychophysiology, psychology of work and engineering psychology, psychology of creativity, psychology of sport, etc.), and a quantitative accumulation of a wide range of experimental data took place. The use of psychological knowledge to solve practical problems and applied psychological research was reinforced. Significant new ideas, approaches, and applications in the field of psychology appeared. Examples are:

- A.N. Leontiev’s theory of the development of psyche;
- the psychophysiology of individual differences of B. Teplov (1896–1965) and V. Nebylitsyn (1930–1972);
- the neuropsychological theory of A. Luria (1902–1977) and his students; Elkonin’s theory of child development;
- theory of developmental learning activity of V. Davidov (1930–1998);
- Galperin’s (1902–1988) theory of systematic formation of mental actions;
- A.A. Leontiev’s (1936–2004) theory of psycholinguistics;
Meshcheryakov’s (1923–1974) «experiment» of education of blind and deaf children, which was based on cultural-historical psychology and activity theory, provoked intense discussions involving psychologists and philosophers (E. Ilyenkov (1924–1979), F. Mickailov (1930–2006), D. Dubrovsky (1929–), etc.).

One of the most important characteristics of Soviet psychology was the close connection of practical and applied psychological questions with the consideration of fundamental theoretical and philosophical issues. In the late 1950s, in the Soviet Union the opportunity to deal independently with issues of history and methodology of science appeared. Of great interest are the discussions that developed during the 1960s and 1970s on the methodology of Marx’s Capital (M. Rozental (1906–1975), E. Ilyenkov (1924–1979), V. Vazioulin (1932–2012). Many Soviet psychologists and philosophers concerned themselves with the application of Marx’s methodology in the field of psychology. However, the attempts of Soviet psychologists (A.N. Leontiev, S. Rubinstein, B. Lomov (1927–1989) to solve the problem of systematization of psychological concepts did not lead to a truly satisfactory solution.

The death of the founders of the classical trends of Soviet psychology (A. Luria, A.N. Leontiev, A. Zaparozets, D. Elkonin and P. Galperin) created an irreplaceable vacuum. In the period between 1970 and the early 1980s, the tendency to limit research in theoretical and methodological issues dominated the field of psychology and a shift to applied psychology was reinforced. The collapse of the Soviet Union directly influenced the development of modern psychology.

TRADITIONAL DEBATES

Attempts have been made to study of the psychology of the 20th century from different perspectives (Payne, 1966; McLeish, 1975; Kozulin, 1984; Budilova, 1972; Valsiner, 1988; Bratus, 2000), yet Western psychologists have confronted serious difficulties in broaching the subject matter. This is due to the different historical, sociocultural, and divergent philosophical underpinnings of Soviet psychology as compared with other Western psychologies. Moreover, Western scholars often have limited knowledge of Russian terminology.

Traditionally, Western scientists considered the focus of scientific activity of Soviet psychologists their research on the «higher nervous activity». Even today, some handbooks of the history of psychology refer only to Pavlov and V. M. Bekhterev as prominent Russian psychologists and physiologists.

In the past decades, Vygotsky became the Soviet psychologist who attracted the attention of many psychologists and educators in the English-speaking context. Jerome Bruner, one of protagonists of the cognitive turn, incorporated some discrete concepts of Vygotsky’s theory in his learning theory. With the publication of the eclectic compilation of different works by Vygotsky entitled Mind in Society (1978), the «Vygotsky Boom» started in the North America. Vygotsky’s concept of the zone of proximal development (ZPD) became one of the most popular concepts in contemporary pedagogical literature. However, the concept of zone of proximal development in isolation from other concepts of cultural-historical psychology could easily be misunderstood. The contemporary reception of Vygotsky is «highly selective, distorted and perhaps over-simplified in its apparent coherence».

In recent years, many Western scholars and practitioners engaged in various versions of cultural-historical activity theory (CHAT) as a theoretical framework, which unified three «generations»: Vygotsky’s theory of cultural mediation, Leontiev’s activity theory, and some contemporary approaches such as Engestrom’s analysis of activity systems. The concept dubbed activity has transcended the boundaries of psychology and has been relegated to an interdisciplinary concept. The confluence of diverse disciplines on activity theory has created many questions regarding a cohesive and comprehensive theoretical framework to be used in research. For instance, Engestrom’s version of CHAT has been criticized for neglecting essential aspects of dialectics, which connected, with the understanding of contradictions.
Many researchers are concerned with the challenge of reevaluating and rewriting the history of Soviet psychology. Kozulin (1984), in his book Psychology in Utopia, argues that Soviet psychology is characterized by an attempt to create a society based on a utopian conception. Valsiner (1996) also argues that social utopias affect both the direction and contents of knowledge construction in Russian (Soviet) psychology.

In modern historiography, Soviet psychology is treated as a «repressed» and «ideologized science». Bogdanchikov (2008) in his analysis of the tendencies of post-Soviet Russian historiography in the study of Soviet psychology highlights that post-Soviet monographs and textbooks are dominated by a rejection of the term «Soviet psychology» and a preference for the ideologically neutral expressions, such as «Russian psychology in the Soviet period», «psychology in Russia in the 1920s–1930s», and «national psychology in the 1920s–1950s». Bogdanchikov (2008) suggests considering Soviet psychology as a general psychological concept that evolved under the influence of Marxist ideology, included a scientific component, and served as a starting point and the methodological basis for all theoretical constructs in psychological science during the Soviet period.

Although utopian components could be found in Soviet psychology, if we focus exclusively on these components, it would be extremely difficult to adequately explain the knowledge produced and the constructions such creative theories as cultural-historical psychology and different versions of activity theory brought about.

CRITICAL DEBATES

Many concepts and ideas of the psychology of the 20th century have been further developed within the context of German critical psychology. Klaus Holzkamp was inspired by Leontiev’s activity theory and attempted to reconstruct psychology. He reconceptualized the basic categories of psychology by modifying activity theory. Holzkamp accepted Leontiev’s approach to the development of human psyche and suggested the consideration of psychological concepts in the context of natural history, prehistory, and history of humanity. Holzkamp criticized conceptual foundations of traditional psychology and proposed the foundation of psychology from the perspective of the subject. Critical psychologists in Germany discussed the advantages and limitations of Leontiev’s and Rubinstein’s versions of activity theory.

The «Archival Revolution» in Vygotskian studies which started in 1990 contributed to the reconsideration not only Vygotsky’s legacy but also the history of Soviet psychology. The canonical approach of the «school of Vygotsky-Leontiev-Luria» has been criticized and has highlighted the differences between Vygotsky’s research program and that of Kharkov’s school (Leontiev, Luria, Galperin, etc.). New critical reconstructions of the history of Soviet psychology focused not on «Great Mans» as it did the traditional historiography but in personal networks, group dynamics, schools, etc.

Psychology of the 20th century was not a uniform, homogeneous theoretical corpus, but a field of coexistence of different theoretical approaches, perspectives, and scientific schools. It is interesting to mention that the establishment and development of Soviet psychology was carried out by scientific schools. These were research and learning communities of psychologists who worked on the basis of specific research programs (Vygotsky’s school, Leontiev’s school, Rubinstein’s school, Uznatze’s school, Teprov’s school, etc.). In the context of Soviet psychology, a great diversity of views, approaches, and scientific schools emerged simultaneously with strong, unifying characteristics and common orientations.

Critical discussions on interpretation and application of Soviet psychology’s ideas and concepts take place in different parts of the world. The reception of implementation of Soviet psychology in different regions and countries takes place through the lenses of each region’s social and cultural agenda.

Psychology of the 20th century was introduced in Latin American countries through three main avenues: through Marxist circles, through a group of Cuban psychologists who did their studies in the Soviet Union, and through North American Psychology (CHAT). Cultural-historical psychology
is presented by critical psychologists and critical educators as an alternative to traditional psychology. Critical psychologists criticize the reduction of cultural-historical theory to a neutral position centered on psychological instruments and individual actions with objects. Critical psychologists suggest the reintroduction of the topic of subjectivity which was ignored by both Soviet and Western psychologies.

INTERNATIONAL RELEVANCE

Many fundamental issues of psychology as a science have been raised and examined in the scientific discussions that were carried out at the different stages of development of Soviet psychology: the problem of the nature of psyche and its relation to the world, the issue of social and cultural mediation of psychological processes, the connection between reflection of the world and man’s activity, the problem of discovering the moving forces and the historical development of the psyche («psychika»), etc.

Psychologists of the 20th century had to deal with the challenge of the radical social transformations taking place during and after the October 1917 Revolution. Moreover, Soviet psychologists attempted to overcome the crisis of traditional psychology by creating original theories (cultural-historical psychology, Leontiev’s activity theory, Rubinstein’s activity theory, Uznadze’s psychology of set, etc.).

Many concepts and ideas of Soviet psychology have been incorporated and transformed in world psychology. Scholars and practitioners from different parts of the globe are involved in discussions on cultural-historical psychology and activity theory. Indicatively, it is possible to mention the Journal of Russian & East European Psychology, which publishes, and comments on the works of Leontiev, Luria, Uznadze, Vygotsky, Zaporozhets, and other prominent Soviet and Russian psychologists. The International Society for Cultural and Activity Research (ISCAR) supports scientific communication regarding different aspects of sociocultural, cultural-historical, and activity theory.

PRACTICE RELEVANCE AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Many Russian psychologists have given great importance to the establishment of close relationships between theory and practice. Vygotsky discussed the perspective of the foundation of the philosophy of practice as means to overcome the crisis in psychology and the reconstruction of its theoretical and methodological foundations. For Vygotsky, practice serves both as the deepest foundation for the development of psychological knowledge and «the supreme judge of theory». However, from the 1930s to 1950s, many applied branches as pedology and psychotechnics were exterminated.

During the 1960s, rehabilitation of applied and practical psychology started. Many Soviet psychologists were engaged in various kinds of practical interventions in different settings. Luria developed methods of neuropsychological assessment and rehabilitation of patients with brain damage. Meshcheryakov was involved with the education of children with multisensory impairment. Davydov organized interventions of developmental teaching and learning in schools.

Cultural-historical psychology and activity theory have also inspired many Western scholars to develop theories with multiple practical applications: Bruner’s concept of scaffolding, Engestrom’s theory of expansive learning, etc. Multiple practical applications of the concept zone of proximal development by many Western scholars and educators could be found.

In the context of German critical psychology, conferences and discussions took place on practice research from a critical psychological perspective in which Leontiev’s and Ilyenkov’s ideas had been used. One of the main questions from a critical standpoint is how cultural-historical psychology and activity theory could promote (and/or could be used as tools for) social transformation and personal growth. The paradox is that despite «Vygotsky’s boom», Vygotsky and other prominent Soviet psychologists remain undiscovered. Rethinking Soviet psychology’s legacy and elaborating a theoretical and methodological strategy for its contextualized and historical study from a critical standpoint
remains an open question. Moreover, cultural-historical psychology and activity theory and other
trends of Soviet psychology face new challenges connected with «travelling» and being transformed
and applied in so many parts of the globe. Their reflection and further development should take
into account both the context of their formation in the Soviet Union during the twentieth century
and the multiple contexts of their reception and application in different parts of the globe. The future
of cultural-historical psychology and activity theory depends on scholars’ and practitioners’ ability
to grasp adequately the ongoing societal and cultural transformations at the national, international,
and local level and redevelop these theories. So, many concepts and ideas of Soviet psychology
crossed the boundaries of psychology as a discipline and started developing at an interdisciplinary
level.

**Unit 4. Developmental psychology**

Developmental psychology is the scientific study of development across a lifespan. Develop-
mental psychologists are interested in processes related to physical maturation. However, their fo-
cus is not limited to the physical changes associated with aging, as they also focus on changes in
cognitive skills, moral reasoning, social behavior, and other psychological attributes.

Early developmental psychologists focused primarily on changes that occurred through reach-
ing adulthood, providing enormous insight into the differences in physical, cognitive, and social
capacities that exist between very young children and adults. For instance, research by Jean Piaget
demonstrated that very young children do not demonstrate object permanence. Object permanence
refers to the understanding that physical things continue to exist, even if they are hidden from us.
If you were to show an adult a toy, and then hide it behind a curtain, the adult knows that the toy
still exists. However, very young infants act as if a hidden object no longer exists. The age at which
object permanence is achieved is somewhat controversial.

While Piaget was focused on cognitive changes during infancy and childhood as we move to
adulthood, there is an increasing interest in extending research into the changes that occur much
later in life. This may be reflective of changing population demographics of developed nations as a
whole. As more and more people live longer lives, the number of people of advanced age will con-
tinue to increase. Indeed, it is estimated that there were just over 40 million people aged 65 or older
living in the United States in 2010. However, by 2020, this number is expected to increase to about
55 million. By the year 2050, it is estimated that nearly 90 million people in this country will be 65
or older.

**PERSONALITY PSYCHOLOGY**

Personality psychology focuses on patterns of thoughts and behaviors that make each individ-
ual unique. Several individuals (e.g., Freud and Maslow) that we have already discussed in our
historical overview of psychology, and the American psychologist Gordon Allport, contributed to
early theories of personality. These early theorists attempted to explain how an individual’s per-
sonality develops from his or her given perspective. For example, Freud proposed that personality
arose as conflicts between the conscious and unconscious parts of the mind were carried out over
the lifespan. Specifically, Freud theorized that an individual went through various psychosexual
stages of development. According to Freud, adult personality would result from the resolution of
various conflicts that centered on the migration of erogenous (or sexual pleasure-producing) zones
from the oral (mouth) to the anus to the phallus to the genitals. Like many of Freud’s theories, this
particular idea was controversial and did not lend itself to experimental tests.
More recently, the study of personality has taken on a more quantitative approach. Rather than explaining how personality arises, research is focused on identifying personality traits, measuring these traits, and determining how these traits interact in a particular context to determine how a person will behave in any given situation. Personality traits are relatively consistent patterns of thought and behavior, and many have proposed that five trait dimensions are sufficient to capture the variations in personality seen across individuals. These five dimensions are known as the «Big Five» or the Five Factor model, and include dimensions of conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism, openness, and extraversion. Each of these traits has been demonstrated to be relatively stable over the lifespan (e.g., Rantanen, Metsäpelto, Feldt, Pulkinnen, and Kokko, 2007; Soldz & Vaillant, 1999; McCrae and Costa, 2008) and is influenced by genetics (e.g., Jang, Livesly, and Vernon, 1996).

SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Social psychology focuses on how we interact with and relate to others. Social psychologists conduct research on a wide variety of topics that include differences in how we explain our own behavior versus how we explain the behaviors of others, prejudice, and attraction, and how we resolve interpersonal conflicts. Social psychologists have also sought to determine how being among other people changes our own behavior and patterns of thinking.

There are many interesting examples of social psychological research, and you will read about many of these in a later chapter of this textbook. Until then, you will be introduced to one of the most controversial psychological studies ever conducted. Stanley Milgram was an American social psychologist who is most famous for research that he conducted on obedience. After the holocaust, in 1961, a Nazi war criminal, Adolf Eichmann, who was accused of committing mass atrocities, was put on trial. Many people wondered how German soldiers were capable of torturing prisoners in concentration camps, and they were unsatisfied with the excuses given by soldiers that they were simply following orders. At the time, most psychologists agreed that few people would be willing to inflict such extraordinary pain and suffering, simply because they were obeying orders. Milgram decided to conduct research to determine whether or not this was true. Milgram found that nearly two-thirds of his participants were willing to deliver what they believed to be lethal shocks to another person, simply because they were instructed to do so by an authority figure (in this case, a man dressed in a lab coat). This was in spite of the fact that participants received payment for simply showing up for the research study and could have chosen not to inflict pain or more serious consequences on another person by withdrawing from the study. No one was actually hurt or harmed in any way, Milgram’s experiment was a clever ruse that took advantage of research confederates, those who pretend to be participants in a research study who are actually working for the researcher and have clear, specific directions on how to behave during the research study. Milgram’s and others’ studies that involved deception and potential emotional harm to study participants catalyzed the development of ethical guidelines for conducting psychological research that discourage the use of deception of research subjects, unless it can be argued not to cause harm and, in general, requiring informed consent of participants.

INDUSTRIAL-ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Industrial-Organizational psychology (I-O psychology) is a subfield of psychology that applies psychological theories, principles, and research findings in industrial and organizational settings. I-O psychologists are often involved in issues related to personnel management, organizational structure, and workplace environment. Businesses often seek the aid of I-O psychologists to make the best hiring decisions as well as to create an environment that results in high levels of employee productivity and efficiency. In addition to its applied nature, I-O psychology also involves conducting scientific research on behavior within I-O settings.
HEALTH PSYCHOLOGY

Health psychology focuses on how health is affected by the interaction of biological, psychological, and sociocultural factors. This particular approach is known as the **biopsychosocial model**. Health psychologists are interested in helping individuals achieve better health through public policy, education, intervention, and research. Health psychologists might conduct research that explores the relationship between one’s genetic makeup, patterns of behavior, relationships, psychological stress, and health. They may research effective ways to motivate people to address patterns of behavior that contribute to poorer health.

SPORT AND EXERCISE PSYCHOLOGY

Researchers in **sport and exercise psychology** study the psychological aspects of sport performance, including motivation and performance anxiety, and the effects of sport on mental and emotional wellbeing. Research is also conducted on similar topics as they relate to physical exercise in general. The discipline also includes topics that are broader than sport and exercise but that are related to interactions between mental and physical performance under demanding conditions, such as fire fighting, military operations, artistic performance, and surgery.

CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGY

Clinical psychology is the area of psychology that focuses on the diagnosis and treatment of psychological disorders and other problematic patterns of behavior. As such, it is generally considered to be a more applied area within psychology; however, some clinicians are also actively engaged in scientific research. Counseling psychology is a similar discipline that focuses on emotional, social, vocational, and health-related outcomes in individuals who are considered psychologically healthy.

As mentioned earlier, both Freud and Rogers provided perspectives that have been influential in shaping how clinicians interact with people seeking psychotherapy. While aspects of the psychoanalytic theory are still found among some of today’s therapists who are trained from a psychodynamic perspective, Roger’s ideas about client-centered therapy have been especially influential in shaping how many clinicians operate. Furthermore, both behaviorism and the cognitive revolution have shaped clinical practice in the forms of behavioral therapy, cognitive therapy, and cognitive-behavioral therapy. By far, this is the area of psychology that receives the most attention in popular media, and many people mistakenly assume that all psychology is clinical psychology.

FORENSIC PSYCHOLOGY

Forensic psychology is a branch of psychology that deals questions of psychology as they arise in the context of the justice system. For example, forensic psychologists (and forensic psychiatrists) will assess a person’s competency to stand trial, assess the state of mind of a defendant, act as consultants on child custody cases, consult on sentencing and treatment recommendations, and advise on issues such as eyewitness testimony and children’s testimony. In these capacities, they will typically act as expert witnesses, called by either side in a court case to provide their research- or experience-based opinions. As expert witnesses, forensic psychologists must have a good understanding of the law and provide information in the context of the legal system rather than just within the realm of psychology. Forensic psychologists are also used in the jury selection process and witness preparation. They may also be involved in providing psychological treatment within the criminal justice system. Criminal profilers are a relatively small proportion of psychologists that act as consultants to law enforcement.
Review Questions

1. Which of the following was mentioned as a skill to which psychology students would be exposed?
   a. critical thinking
   b. use of the scientific method
   c. critical evaluation of sources of information
   d. all of the above

2. Psyche is a Greek word meaning ________.
   a. essence
   b. soul
   c. behavior
   d. love

3. Before psychology became a recognized academic discipline, matters of the mind were undertaken by those in ________.
   a. biology
   b. chemistry
   c. philosophy
   d. physics

4. In the scientific method, a hypothesis is a(n) ________.
   a. observation
   b. measurement
   c. test
   d. proposed explanation

5. Based on your reading, which theorist would have been most likely to agree with this statement: Perceptual phenomena are best understood as a combination of their components.
   a. William James
   b. Max Wertheimer
   c. Carl Rogers
   d. Noam Chomsky

6. ________ is most well-known for proposing his hierarchy of needs.
   a. Noam Chomsky
   b. Carl Rogers
   c. Abraham Maslow
   d. Sigmund Freud

7. Rogers believed that providing genuineness, empathy, and ________ in the therapeutic environment for his clients was critical to their being able to deal with their problems.
   a. structuralism
   b. functionalism
   c. Gestalt
   d. unconditional positive regard

8. The operant conditioning chamber (aka ________ box) is a device used to study the principles of operant conditioning.
   a. Skinner
   b. Watson
   c. James
   d. Koffka
9. A researcher interested in how changes in the cells of the hippocampus (a structure in the brain related to learning and memory) are related to memory formation would be most likely to identify as a(n) ________ psychologist.
   a. biological
   b. health
   c. clinical
   d. social

10. An individual’s consistent pattern of thought and behavior is known as a(n) ________.
    a. psychosexual stage
    b. object permanence
    c. personality
    d. perception

11. In Milgram’s controversial study on obedience, nearly ________ of the participants were willing to administer what appeared to be lethal electrical shocks to another person because they were told to do so by an authority figure.
    a. 1/3
    b. 2/3
    c. 3/4
    d. 4/5

12. A researcher interested in what factors make an employee best suited for a given job would most likely identify as a(n) ________ psychologist.
    a. personality
    b. clinical
    c. social
    d. I-O

13. If someone wanted to become a psychology professor at a 4-year college, then s/he would probably need a ________ degree in psychology.
    a. bachelor of science
    b. bachelor of art
    c. master’s
    d. PhD

14. The ________ places less emphasis on research and more emphasis on application of therapeutic skills.
    a. PhD
    b. PsyD
    c. postdoctoral training program
    d. dissertation

15. Which of the following degrees would be the minimum required to teach psychology courses in high school?
    a. PhD
    b. PsyD
    c. master’s degree
    d. bachelor’s degree

16. One would need at least a(n) ________ degree to serve as a school psychologist.
    a. associate’s
    b. bachelor’s
    c. master’s
    d. doctoral

Critical Thinking Questions
17. Why do you think psychology courses like this one are often requirements of so many different programs of study?
18. Why do you think many people might be skeptical about psychology being a science?
19. How did the object of study in psychology change over the history of the field since the 19th century?
20. In part, what aspect of psychology was the behaviorist approach to psychology a reaction to?
21. Given the incredible diversity among the various areas of psychology that were described in this chapter, how do they all fit together?
22. What are the potential ethical concerns associated with Milgram’s research on obedience?
23. Why is an undergraduate education in psychology so helpful in a number of different lines of work?
24. Other than a potentially greater salary, what would be the reasons an individual would continue on to get a graduate degree in psychology?

Personal Application Questions

25. Why are you taking this course? What do you hope to learn about during this course?
26. Freud is probably one of the most well-known historical figures in psychology. Where have you encountered references to Freud or his ideas about the role that the unconscious mind plays in determining conscious behavior?
27. Now that you’ve been briefly introduced to some of the major areas within psychology, which are you most interested in learning more about? Why?
28. Which of the career options described in this chapter is most appealing to you?
CHAPTER 4. PERSONALITY PSYCHOLOGY

Personality refers to the long-standing traits and patterns that propel individuals to consistently think, feel, and behave in specific ways. Our personality is what makes us unique individuals. Each person has an idiosyncratic pattern of enduring, long-term characteristics and a manner in which he or she interacts with other individuals and the world around them. Our personalities are thought to be long term, stable, and not easily changed. The word personality comes from the Latin word persona. In the ancient world, a persona was a mask worn by an actor. While we tend to think of a mask as being worn to conceal one’s identity, the theatrical mask was originally used to either represent or project a specific personality trait of a character.

Unit 1. Historical perspectives

The concept of personality has been studied for at least 2,000 years, beginning with Hippocrates in 370 BCE. Hippocrates theorized that personality traits and human behaviors are based on four separate temperaments associated with four fluids («humors») of the body: choleric temperament (yellow bile from the liver), melancholic temperament (black bile from the kidneys), sanguine temperament (red blood from the heart), and phlegmatic temperament (white phlegm from the lungs). Centuries later, the influential Greek physician and philosopher Galen built on Hippocrates’s theory, suggesting that both diseases and personality differences could be explained by imbalances in the humors and that each person exhibits one of the four temperaments. For example, the choleric person is passionate, ambitious, and bold; the melancholic person is reserved, anxious, and unhappy; the sanguine person is joyful, eager, and optimistic; and the phlegmatic person is calm, reliable, and thoughtful. Galen’s theory was prevalent for over 1,000 years and continued to be popular through the Middle Ages.

In 1780, Franz Gall, a German physician, proposed that the distances between bumps on the skull reveal a person’s personality traits, character, and mental abilities. According to Gall, measuring these distances revealed the sizes of the brain areas underneath, providing information that could be used to determine whether a person was friendly, proudful, murderous, kind, good with languages, and so on. Initially, phrenology was very popular; however, it was soon discredited for lack of empirical support and has long been relegated to the status of pseudoscience.

In the centuries after Galen, other researchers contributed to the development of his four primary temperament types (sanguine, choleric, phlegmatic and melancholic), most prominently Immanuel Kant (in the 18th century) and psychologist Wilhelm Wundt (in the 19th century). Kant agreed with Galen that everyone could be sorted into one of the four temperaments and that there was no overlap between the four categories. He developed a list of traits that could be used to describe the personality of a person from each of the four temperaments. However, Wundt suggested that a better description of personality could be achieved using two major axes: emotional / non-emotional and changeable/unchangeable. The first axis separated strong from weak emotions (the
melancholic and choleric temperaments from the phlegmatic and sanguine). The second axis divided the changeable temperaments (choleric and sanguine) from the unchangeable ones (melancholic and phlegmatic).

Sigmund Freud’s psychodynamic perspective of personality was the first comprehensive theory of personality, explaining a wide variety of both normal and abnormal behaviors. According to Freud, unconscious drives influenced by sex and aggression, along with childhood sexuality, are the forces that influence our personality. Freud attracted many followers who modified his ideas to create new theories about personality. These theorists, referred to as neo-Freudians, generally agreed with Freud that childhood experiences matter, but they reduced the emphasis on sex and focused more on the social environment and effects of culture on personality. The perspective of personality proposed by Freud and his followers was the dominant theory of personality for the first half of the 20th century.

Other major theories then emerged, including the learning, humanistic, biological, and evolutionary, trait, and cultural perspectives. Below, we will explore these various perspectives on personality in depth.

**Unit 2. Freud and the Psychodynamic Perspective**

Sigmund Freud (1856–1939) is probably the most controversial and misunderstood psychological theorist. When reading Freud’s theories, it is important to remember that he was a medical doctor, not a psychologist. There was no such thing as a degree in psychology at the time that he received his education, which can help us understand some of the controversy over his theories today. However, Freud was the first to systematically study and theorize the workings of the unconscious mind in the manner that we associate with modern psychology.

In the early years of his career, Freud worked with Josef Breuer, a Viennese physician. During this time, Freud became intrigued by the story of one of Breuer’s patients, Bertha Pappenheim, who was referred to by the pseudonym Anna O. Anna O. had been caring for her dying father when she began to experience symptoms such as partial paralysis, headaches, blurred vision, amnesia, and hallucinations. In Freud’s day, these symptoms were commonly referred to as hysteria. Anna O. turned to Breuer for help. He spent 2 years (1880–1882) treating Anna O. and discovered that allowing her to talk about her experiences seemed to bring some relief of her symptoms. Anna O. called his treatment the «talking cure». Despite the fact the Freud never met Anna O., her story served as the basis for the 1895 book, Studies on Hysteria, which he co-authored with Breuer. Based on Breuer’s description of Anna O.’s treatment, Freud concluded that hysteria was the result of sexual abuse in childhood and that these traumatic experiences had been hidden from consciousness. Breuer disagreed with Freud, which soon ended their work together. However, Freud continued to work to refine talk therapy and build his theory on personality.

**LEVELS OF CONSCIOUSNESS**

To explain the concept of conscious versus unconscious experience, Freud compared the mind to an iceberg. He said that only about one-tenth of our mind is conscious, and the rest of our mind is unconscious. Our unconscious refers to that mental activity of which we are unaware and are unable to access. According to Freud, unacceptable urges and desires are kept in our unconscious through a process called repression. For example, we sometimes say things that we don’t intend to say by unintentionally substituting another word for the one we meant. You’ve probably heard of a Freudian slip, the term used to describe this. Freud suggested that slips of the tongue are actually
sexual or aggressive urges, accidentally slipping out of our unconscious. Speech errors such as this are quite common. Seeing them as a reflection of unconscious desires, linguists today have found that slips of the tongue tend to occur when we are tired, nervous, or not at our optimal level of cognitive functioning.

According to Freud, our personality develops from a conflict between two forces: our biological aggressive and pleasure-seeking drives versus our internal (socialized) control over these drives. Our personality is the result of our efforts to balance these two competing forces. Freud suggested that we could understand this by imagining three interacting systems within our minds. He called them the id, ego, and superego.

The unconscious **id** contains our most primitive drives or urges, and is present from birth. It directs impulses for hunger, thirst, and sex. Freud believed that the id operates on what he called the «pleasure principle », in which the id seeks immediate gratification. Through social interactions with parents and others in a child’s environment, the ego and superego develop to help control the id. The **superego** develops as a child interacts with others, learning the social rules for right and wrong. The superego acts as our conscience; it is our moral compass that tells us how we should behave. It strives for perfection and judges our behavior, leading to feelings of pride or—when we fall short of the ideal—feelings of guilt. In contrast to the instinctual id and the rule-based superego, the **ego** is the rational part of our personality. It’s what Freud considered to be the self, and it is the part of our personality that is seen by others. Its job is to balance the demands of the id and superego in the context of reality; thus, it operates on what Freud called the «reality principle». The ego helps the id satisfy its desires in a realistic way.

The id and superego are in constant conflict, because the id wants instant gratification regardless of the consequences, but the superego tells us that we must behave in socially acceptable ways. Thus, the ego’s job is to find the middle ground. It helps satisfy the id’s desires in a rational way that will not lead us to feelings of guilt. According to Freud, a person who has a strong ego, which can balance the demands of the id and the superego, has a healthy personality. Freud maintained that imbalances in the system could lead to neurosis (a tendency to experience negative emotions), anxiety disorders, or unhealthy behaviors. For example, a person who is dominated by their id might be narcissistic and impulsive. A person with a dominant superego might be controlled by feelings of guilt and deny themselves even socially acceptable pleasures; conversely, if the superego is weak or absent, a person might become a psychopath. An overly dominant superego might be seen in an over-controlled individual whose rational grasp on reality is so strong that they are unaware of their emotional needs, or, in a neurotic who is overly defensive (overusing ego defense mechanisms).

**DEFENSE MECHANISMS**

Freud believed that feelings of anxiety result from the ego’s inability to mediate the conflict between the id and superego. When this happens, Freud believed that the ego seeks to restore balance through various protective measures known as defense mechanisms. When certain events, feelings, or yearnings cause an individual anxiety, the individual wishes to reduce that anxiety. To do that, the individual’s unconscious mind uses ego **defense mechanisms**, unconscious protective behaviors that aim to reduce anxiety. The ego, usually conscious, resorts to unconscious strivings to protect the ego from being overwhelmed by anxiety. When we use defense mechanisms, we are unaware that we are using them. Further, they operate in various ways that distort reality. According to Freud, we all use ego defense mechanisms.

While everyone uses defense mechanisms, Freud believed that overuse of them may be problematic. For example, let’s say Joe Smith is a high school football player. Deep down, Joe feels sexually attracted to males. His conscious belief is that being gay is immoral and that if he were gay, his family would disown him and he would be ostracized by his peers. Therefore, there is a conflict between his conscious beliefs (being gay is wrong and will result in being ostracized) and his unconscious urges (attraction to males). The idea that he might be gay causes Joe to have feelings of
anxiety. How can he decrease his anxiety? Joe may find himself acting very «macho», making gay jokes, and picking on a school peer who is gay. This way, Joe’s unconscious impulses are further submerged.

There are several different types of defense mechanisms. For instance, in repression, anxiety-causing memories from consciousness are blocked. As an analogy, let’s say your car is making a strange noise, but because you do not have the money to get it fixed, you just turn up the radio so that you no longer hear the strange noise. Eventually you forget about it. Similarly, in the human psyche, if a memory is too overwhelming to deal with, it might be repressed and thus removed from conscious awareness. This repressed memory might cause symptoms in other areas.

Another defense mechanism is reaction formation, in which someone expresses feelings, thoughts, and behaviors opposite to their inclinations. In the above example, Joe made fun of a homosexual peer while himself being attracted to males. In regression, an individual acts much younger than their age. For example, a four-year-old child who resents the arrival of a newborn sibling may act like a baby and revert to drinking out of a bottle. In projection, a person refuses to acknowledge her own unconscious feelings and instead sees those feelings in someone else. Other defense mechanisms include rationalization, displacement, and sublimation.

STAGES OF PSYCHOSEXUAL DEVELOPMENT

Freud believed that personality develops during early childhood: Childhood experiences shape our personalities as well as our behavior as adults. He asserted that we develop via a series of stages during childhood. Each of us must pass through these childhood stages, and if we do not have the proper nurturing and parenting during a stage, we will be stuck, or fixated, in that stage, even as adults.

In each psychosexual stage of development, the child’s pleasure-seeking urges, coming from the id, are focused on a different area of the body, called an erogenous zone. The stages are oral, anal, phallic, latency and genital (Table).

Freud’s psychosexual development theory is quite controversial. To understand the origins of the theory, it is helpful to be familiar with the political, social, and cultural influences of Freud’s day in Vienna at the turn of the 20th century. During this era, a climate of sexual repression, combined with limited understanding and education surrounding human sexuality, heavily influenced Freud’s perspective. Given that sex was a taboo topic, Freud assumed that negative emotional states (neuroses) stemmed from suppression of unconscious sexual and aggressive urges. For Freud, his own recollections and interpretations of patients’ experiences and dreams were sufficient proof that psychosexual stages were universal events in early childhood.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Age (years)</th>
<th>Erogenous Zone</th>
<th>Major Conflict</th>
<th>Adult Fixation Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Oral</td>
<td>0–1</td>
<td>Mouth</td>
<td>Weaning off breast or bottle</td>
<td>Smoking, over-eating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anal</td>
<td>1–3</td>
<td>Anus</td>
<td>Toilet training</td>
<td>Neatness, messiness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phallic</td>
<td>3–6</td>
<td>Genitals</td>
<td>Oedipus/Electra complex</td>
<td>Vanity, over ambition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latency</td>
<td>6–12</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genital</td>
<td>12+</td>
<td>Genitals</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the oral stage (birth to 1 year), pleasure is focused on the mouth. Eating and the pleasure derived from sucking (nipples, pacifiers, and thumbs) play a large part in a baby’s first year of life. At around 1 year of age, babies are weaned from the bottle or breast, and this process can create
conflict if not handled properly by caregivers. According to Freud, an adult who smokes, drinks, overeats, or bites her nails is fixated in the oral stage of her psychosexual development; she may have been weaned too early or too late, resulting in these fixation tendencies, all of which seek to ease anxiety.

After passing through the oral stage, children enter what Freud termed the anal stage (1–3 years). In this stage, children experience pleasure in their bowel and bladder movements, so it makes sense that the conflict in this stage is over toilet training. Freud suggested that success at the anal stage depended on how parents handled toilet training. Parents who offer praise and rewards encourage positive results and can help children feel competent. Parents who are harsh in toilet training can cause a child to become fixated at the anal stage, leading to the development of an anal-retentive personality. The anal-retentive personality is stingy and stubborn, has a compulsive need for order and neatness, and might be considered a perfectionist. If parents are too lenient in toilet training, the child might also become fixated and display an anal-expulsive personality. The anal-expulsive personality is messy, careless, disorganized, and prone to emotional outbursts.

Freud’s third stage of psychosexual development is the phallic stage (3–6 years), corresponding to the age when children become aware of their bodies and recognize the differences between boys and girls. The erogenous zone in this stage is the genitals. Conflict arises when the child feels a desire for the opposite’s parent, and jealousy and hatred toward the same-sex parent. For boys, this is called the Oedipus complex, involving a boy’s desire for his mother and his urge to replace his father who is seen as a rival for the mother’s attention. At the same time, the boy is afraid his father will punish him for his feelings, so he experiences castration anxiety. The Oedipus complex is successfully resolved when the boy begins to identify with his father as an indirect way to have the mother. Failure to resolve the Oedipus complex may result in fixation and development of a personality that might be described as vain and overly ambitious.

Girls experience a comparable conflict in the phallic stage—the Electra complex. The Electra complex, while often attributed to Freud, was actually proposed by Freud’s protégé, Carl Jung. A girl desires the attention of her father and wishes to take her mother’s place. Jung also said that girls are angry with the mother for not providing them with a penis—hence the term penis envy. While Freud initially embraced the Electra complex as a parallel to the Oedipus complex, he later rejected it, yet it remains as a cornerstone of Freudian theory, thanks in part to academics in the field.

Following the phallic stage of psychosexual development is a period known as the latency period (6 years to puberty). This period is not considered a stage, because sexual feelings are dormant as children focus on other pursuits, such as school, friendships, hobbies, and sports. Children generally engage in activities with peers of the same sex, which serves to consolidate a child’s gender-role identity.

The final stage is the genital stage (from puberty on). In this stage, there is a sexual reawakening as the incestuous urges resurface. The young person redirects these urges to other, more socially acceptable partners (who often resemble the other-sex parent). People in this stage have mature sexual interests, which for Freud meant a strong desire for the opposite sex. Individuals, who successfully completed the previous stages, reaching the genital stage with no fixations, are said to be well-balanced, healthy adults.

While most of Freud’s ideas have not found support in modern research, we cannot discount the contributions that Freud has made to the field of psychology. It was Freud who pointed out that a large part of our mental life is influenced by the experiences of early childhood and takes place outside of our conscious awareness; his theories paved the way for others.

Unit 3. Neo-Freudians: Adler, Erikson, Jung, and Horney

В данном разделе рассмотрены концепции неофрейдистов: А. Адлера, Э. Эриксона, К. Юнга и К. Хорни.
Freud attracted many followers who modified his ideas to create new theories about personality. These theorists, referred to as neo-Freudians, generally agreed with Freud that childhood experiences matter, but deemphasized sex, focusing more on the social environment and effects of culture on personality. Four notable neo-Freudians include Alfred Adler, Erik Erikson, Carl Jung (pronounced «Yoong»), and Karen Horney (pronounced «HORN-eye»).

ALFRED ADLER

Alfred Adler, a colleague of Freud’s and the first president of the Vienna Psychoanalytical Society (Freud’s inner circle of colleagues), was the first major theorist to break away from Freud. He subsequently founded a school of psychology called individual psychology, which focuses on our drive to compensate for feelings of inferiority. Adler proposed the concept of the inferiority complex. An inferiority complex refers to a person’s feelings that they lack worth and don’t measure up to the standards of others or of society. Adler’s ideas about inferiority represent a major difference between his thinking and Freud’s. Freud believed that we are motivated by sexual and aggressive urges, but Adler believed that feelings of inferiority in childhood are what drive people to attempt to gain superiority and that this striving is the force behind all of our thoughts, emotions, and behaviors.

Adler also believed in the importance of social connections, seeing childhood development emerging through social development rather than the sexual stages Freud outlined. Adler noted the inter-relatedness of humanity and the need to work together for the betterment of all. He said, «The happiness of mankind lies in working together, in living as if each individual had set himself the task of contributing to the common welfare» with the main goal of psychology being «to recognize the equal rights and equality of others».

With these ideas, Adler identified three fundamental social tasks that all of us must experience: occupational tasks (careers), societal tasks (friendship), and love tasks (finding an intimate partner for a long-term relationship). Rather than focus on sexual or aggressive motives for behavior as Freud did, Adler focused on social motives. He also emphasized conscious rather than unconscious motivation, since he believed that the three fundamental social tasks are explicitly known and pursued. That is not to say that Adler did not also believe in unconscious processes—he did—but he felt that conscious processes were more important.

One of Adler’s major contributions to personality psychology was the idea that our birth order shapes our personality. He proposed that older siblings, who start out as the focus of their parents’ attention but must share that attention once a new child joins the family, compensate by becoming overachievers. The youngest children, according to Adler, may be spoiled, leaving the middle child with the opportunity to minimize the negative dynamics of the youngest and oldest children. Despite popular attention, research has not conclusively confirmed Adler’s hypotheses about birth order.

As an art school dropout with an uncertain future, young Erik Erikson met Freud’s daughter, Anna Freud, while he was tutoring the children of an American couple undergoing psychoanalysis in Vienna. It was Anna Freud who encouraged Erikson to study psychoanalysis. Erikson received his diploma from the Vienna Psychoanalytic Institute in 1933, and as Nazism spread across Europe, he fled the country and immigrated to the United States that same year. As you learned when you studied lifespan development, Erikson later proposed a psychosocial theory of development, suggesting that an individual’s personality develops throughout the lifespan—a departure from Freud’s view that personality is fixed in early life. In his theory, Erikson emphasized the social relationships that are important at each stage of personality development, in contrast to Freud’s emphasis on sex. Erikson identified eight stages, each of which represents a conflict or developmental task (Table). The development of a healthy personality and a sense of competence depend on the successful completion of each task.

Erikson’s Psychosocial Stages of Development
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Age (years)</th>
<th>Developmental Task</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>0–1</td>
<td>Trust vs. mistrust</td>
<td>Trust (or mistrust) that basic needs, such as nourishment and affection, will be met</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>1–3</td>
<td>Autonomy vs. shame/doubt</td>
<td>Sense of independence in many tasks develops</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>3–6</td>
<td>Initiative vs. guilt</td>
<td>Take initiative on some activities, may develop guilt when success not met or boundaries overstepped</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>7–11</td>
<td>Industry vs. inferiority</td>
<td>Develop self-confidence in abilities when competent or sense of inferiority when not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>12–18</td>
<td>Identity vs. confusion</td>
<td>Experiment with and develop identity and roles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>19–29</td>
<td>Intimacy vs. isolation</td>
<td>Establish intimacy and relationships with others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>30–64</td>
<td>Generativity vs. stagnation</td>
<td>Contribute to society and be part of a family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>65–</td>
<td>Integrity vs. despair</td>
<td>Assess and make sense of life and meaning of contributions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**CARL JUNG**

Carl Jung was a Swiss psychiatrist and protégé of Freud, who later split off from Freud and developed his own theory, which he called analytical psychology. The focus of analytical psychology is on working to balance opposing forces of conscious and unconscious thought, and experience within one’s personality. According to Jung, this work is a continuous learning process—mainly occurring in the second half of life—of becoming aware of unconscious elements and integrating them into consciousness.

Jung’s split from Freud was based on two major disagreements. First, Jung, like Adler and Erikson, did not accept that sexual drive was the primary motivator in a person’s mental life. Second, although Jung agreed with Freud’s concept of a personal unconscious, he thought it to be incomplete. In addition to the personal unconscious, Jung focused on the collective unconscious.

The collective unconscious is a universal version of the personal unconscious, holding mental patterns, or memory traces, which are common to all of us. These ancestral memories, which Jung called archetypes, are represented by universal themes in various cultures, as expressed through literature, art, and dreams (Jung). Jung said that these themes reflect common experiences of people the world over, such as facing death, becoming independent, and striving for mastery. Jung (1964) believed that through biology, each person is handed down the same themes and that the same types of symbols—such as the hero, the maiden, the sage, and the trickster—are present in the folklore and fairy tales of every culture. In Jung’s view, the task of integrating these unconscious archetypal aspects of the self is part of the self-realization process in the second half of life. With this orientation toward self-realization, Jung parted ways with Freud’s belief that personality is determined solely by past events and anticipated the humanistic movement with its emphasis on self-actualization and orientation toward the future.

Jung also proposed two attitudes or approaches toward life: extroversion and introversion (Table). These ideas are considered Jung’s most important contributions to the field of personality psychology, as almost all models of personality now include these concepts. If you are an extrovert, then you are a person who is energized by being outgoing and socially oriented: You derive your energy from being around others. If you are an introvert, then you are a person who may be quiet and reserved, or you may be social, but your energy is derived from your inner psychic activity.
Jung believed a balance between extroversion and introversion best served the goal of self-realization.

### Introverts and Extroverts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Introvert</th>
<th>Extrovert</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Energized by being alone</td>
<td>Energized by being with others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoids attention</td>
<td>Seeks attention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaks slowly and softly</td>
<td>Speaks quickly and loudly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thinks before speaking</td>
<td>Thinks out loud</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stays on one topic</td>
<td>Jumps from topic to topic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefers written communication</td>
<td>Prefers verbal communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pays attention easily</td>
<td>Distractible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cautious</td>
<td>Acts first, thinks later</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another concept proposed by Jung was the persona, which he referred to as a mask that we adopt. According to Jung, we consciously create this persona; however, it is derived from both our conscious experiences and our collective unconscious. What is the purpose of the persona? Jung believed that it is a compromise between who we really are (our true self) and what society expects us to be. We hide those parts of ourselves that are not aligned with society’s expectations.

### KAREN HORNEY

Karen Horney was one of the first women trained as a Freudian psychoanalyst. During the Great Depression, Horney moved from Germany to the United States, and subsequently moved away from Freud’s teachings. Like Jung, Horney believed that each individual has the potential for self-realization and that the goal of psychoanalysis should be moving toward a healthy self rather than exploring early childhood patterns of dysfunction. Horney also disagreed with the Freudian idea that girls have penis envy and are jealous of male biological features. According to Horney, any jealousy is most likely culturally based, due to the greater privileges that males often have, meaning that the differences between men’s and women’s personalities are culturally based, not biologically based. She further suggested that men have womb envy, because they cannot give birth.

Horney’s theories focused on the role of unconscious anxiety. She suggested that normal growth can be blocked by basic anxiety stemming from needs not being met, such as childhood experiences of loneliness and/or isolation. How do children learn to handle this anxiety? Horney suggested three styles of coping. The first coping style, moving toward people, relies on affiliation and dependence. These children become dependent on their parents and other caregivers in an effort to receive attention and affection, which provides relief from anxiety. When these children grow up, they tend to use this same coping strategy to deal with relationships, expressing an intense need for love and acceptance. The second coping style, moving against people, relies on aggression and assertiveness. Children with this coping style find that fighting is the best way to deal with an unhappy home situation, and they deal with their feelings of insecurity by bullying other children. As adults, people with this coping style tend to lash out with hurtful comments and exploit others. The third coping style, moving away from people, centers on detachment and isolation. These children handle their anxiety by withdrawing from the world. They need privacy and tend to be self-sufficient. When these children are adults, they continue to avoid such things as love and friendship, and they also tend to gravitate toward careers that require little interaction with others.

Horney believed these three styles are ways in which people typically cope with day-to-day problems; however, the three coping styles can become neurotic strategies if they are used rigidly and compulsively, leading a person to become alienated from others.
Unit 4. Learning Approaches

In contrast to the psychodynamic approaches of Freud and the neo-Freudians, which relate personality to inner (and hidden) processes, the learning approaches focus only on observable behavior. This illustrates one significant advantage of the learning approaches over psychodynamics: Because learning approaches involve observable, measurable phenomena, they can be scientifically tested.

THE BEHAVIORAL PERSPECTIVE

Behaviorists do not believe in biological determinism: They do not see personality traits as inborn. Instead, they view personality as significantly shaped by the reinforcements and consequences outside of the organism. In other words, people behave in a consistent manner based on prior learning. B. F. Skinner, a strict behaviorist, believed that environment was solely responsible for all behavior, including the enduring, consistent behavior patterns studied by personality theorists.

As you may recall from your study on the psychology of learning, Skinner proposed that we demonstrate consistent behavior patterns because we have developed certain response tendencies. In other words, we learn to behave in particular ways. We increase the behaviors that lead to positive consequences, and we decrease the behaviors that lead to negative consequences. Skinner disagreed with Freud's idea that personality is fixed in childhood. He argued that personality develops over our entire life, not only in the first few years. Our responses can change as we come across new situations; therefore, we can expect more variability over time in personality than Freud would anticipate. For example, consider a young woman, Greta, a risk taker. She drives fast and participates in dangerous sports such as hang gliding and kiteboarding. But after she gets married and has children, the system of reinforcements and punishments in her environment changes. Speeding and extreme sports are no longer reinforced, so she no longer engages in those behaviors. In fact, Greta now describes herself as a cautious person.

THE SOCIAL-COGNITIVE PERSPECTIVE

Albert Bandura agreed with Skinner that personality develops through learning. He disagreed, however, with Skinner’s strict behaviorist approach to personality development, because he felt that thinking and reasoning are important components of learning. He presented a social-cognitive theory of personality that emphasizes both learning and cognition as sources of individual differences in personality. In social-cognitive theory, the concepts of reciprocal determinism, observational learning, and self-efficacy all play a part in personality development.

1. Reciprocal Determinism. In contrast to Skinner’s idea that the environment alone determines behavior, Bandura proposed the concept of reciprocal determinism, in which cognitive processes, behavior, and context all interact, each factor influencing and being influenced by the others simultaneously. Cognitive processes refer to all characteristics previously learned, including beliefs, expectations, and personality characteristics. Behavior refers to anything that we do that may be rewarded or punished. Finally, the context in which the behavior occurs refers to the environment or situation, which includes rewarding/punishing stimuli.

Consider, for example, that you’re at a festival and one of the attractions is bungee jumping from a bridge. Do you do it? In this example, the behavior is bungee jumping. Cognitive factors that
might influence this behavior include your beliefs and values, and your past experiences with similar behaviors. Finally, context refers to the reward structure for the behavior. According to reciprocal determinism, all of these factors are in play.

2. Observational Learning. Bandura’s key contribution to learning theory was the idea that much learning is vicarious. We learn by observing someone else’s behavior and its consequences, which Bandura called observational learning. He felt that this type of learning also plays a part in the development of our personality. Just as we learn individual behaviors, we learn new behavior patterns when we see them performed by other people or models. Drawing on the behaviorists’ ideas about reinforcement, Bandura suggested that whether we choose to imitate a model’s behavior depends on whether we see the model reinforced or punished. Through observational learning, we come to learn what behaviors are acceptable and rewarded in our culture, and we also learn to inhibit deviant or socially unacceptable behaviors by seeing what behaviors are punished.

We can see the principles of reciprocal determinism at work in observational learning. For example, personal factors determine which behaviors in the environment a person chooses to imitate, and those environmental events in turn are processed cognitively according to other personal factors.

3. Self-Efficacy. Bandura has studied a number of cognitive and personal factors that affect learning and personality development, and most recently has focused on the concept of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is our level of confidence in our own abilities, developed through our social experiences. Self-efficacy affects how we approach challenges and reach goals. In observational learning, self-efficacy is a cognitive factor that affects which behaviors we choose to imitate as well as our success in performing those behaviors.

People who have high self-efficacy believe that their goals are within reach, have a positive view of challenges seeing them as tasks to be mastered, develop a deep interest in and strong commitment to the activities in which they are involved, and quickly recover from setbacks. Conversely, people with low self-efficacy avoid challenging tasks because they doubt their ability to be successful, tend to focus on failure and negative outcomes, and lose confidence in their abilities if they experience setbacks. Feelings of self-efficacy can be specific to certain situations. For instance, a student might feel confident in her ability in English class but much less so in math class.

JULIAN ROTTER AND LOCUS OF CONTROL

Julian Rotter (1966) proposed the concept of locus of control, another cognitive factor that affects learning and personality development. Distinct from self-efficacy, which involves our belief in our own abilities, locus of control refers to our beliefs about the power we have over our lives. In Rotter’s view, people possess either an internal or an external locus of control. Those of us with an internal locus of control («internals») tend to believe that most of our outcomes are the direct result of our efforts. Those of us with an external locus of control («externals») tend to believe that our outcomes are outside of our control. Externals see their lives as being controlled by other people, luck, or chance. For example, say you didn’t spend much time studying for your psychology test and went out to dinner with friends instead. When you receive your test score, you see that you earned a D. If you possess an internal locus of control, you would most likely admit that you failed because you didn’t spend enough time studying and decide to study more for the next test. On the other hand, if you possess an external locus of control, you might conclude that the test was too hard and not bother studying for the next test, because you figure you will fail it anyway. Researchers have found that people with an internal locus of control perform better academically, achieve more in their careers, are more independent, are healthier, are better able to cope, and are less depressed than people who have an external locus of control.

WALTER MISCHEL AND THE PERSON-SITUATION DEBATE

Walter Mischel was a student of Julian Rotter and taught for years at Stanford, where he was a colleague of Albert Bandura. Mischel surveyed several decades of empirical psychological literature
regarding trait prediction of behavior, and his conclusion shook the foundations of personality psychology. Mischel found that the data did not support the central principle of the field—that a person's personality traits are consistent across situations. His report triggered a decades-long period of self-examination, known as the person-situation debate, among personality psychologists.

Mischel suggested that perhaps we were looking for consistency in the wrong places. He found that although behavior was inconsistent across different situations, it was much more consistent within situations—so that a person's behavior in one situation would likely be repeated in a similar one. In addition, as you will see next regarding his famous «marshmallow test», Mischel also found that behavior is consistent in equivalent situations across time.

One of Mischel's most notable contributions to personality psychology was his ideas on self-regulation. According to Lecci and Magnavita, «Self-regulation is the process of identifying a goal or set of goals and, in pursuing these goals, using both internal (e.g., thoughts and affect) and external (e.g., responses of anything or anyone in the environment) feedback to maximize goal attainment». Self-regulation is also known as will power. When we talk about will power, we tend to think of it as the ability to delay gratification. For example, Bettina's teenage daughter made strawberry cupcakes, and they looked delicious. However, Bettina forfeited the pleasure of eating one, because she is training for a 5K race and wants to be fit and do well in the race. Would you be able to resist getting a small reward now in order to get a larger reward later? Mischel investigated this question in his now-classic marshmallow test.

Mischel designed a study to assess self-regulation in young children. In the marshmallow study, Mischel and his colleagues placed a preschool child in a room with one marshmallow on the table. The child was told that he could either eat the marshmallow now, or wait until the researcher returned to the room and then he could have two marshmallows. This was repeated with hundreds of preschoolers. What Mischel and his team found was that young children differ in their degree of self-control. Mischel and his colleagues continued to follow this group of preschoolers through high school, and what do you think they discovered? The children who had more self-control in preschool (the ones who waited for the bigger reward) were more successful in high school. They had higher SAT scores, had positive peer relationships, and were less likely to have substance abuse issues; as adults, they also had more stable marriages. On the other hand, those children who had poor self-control in preschool (the ones who grabbed the one marshmallow) were not as successful in high school, and they were found to have academic and behavioral problems.

Today, the debate is mostly resolved, and most psychologists consider both the situation and personal factors in understanding behavior. For Mischel, people are situation processors. The children in the marshmallow test each processed, or interpreted, the rewards structure of that situation in their own way. Mischel’s approach to personality stresses the importance of both the situation and the way the person perceives the situation. Instead of behavior being determined by the situation, people use cognitive processes to interpret the situation and then behave in accordance with that interpretation.

**Unit 5. Humanistic and Biological Approaches**

В данном разделе показаны гуманистический и биологический подходы к сущности и структуре механизма человеческого поведения

**HUMANISTIC APPROACHES**

As the «third force» in psychology, humanism is touted as a reaction both to the pessimistic determinism of psychoanalysis, with its emphasis on psychological disturbance, and to the behaviorists' view of humans passively reacting to the environment, which has been criticized as making people out to be personalityless robots. It does not suggest that psychoanalytic, behaviorist, and other points of view are incorrect but argues that these perspectives do not recognize the depth and
meaning of human experience, and fail to recognize the innate capacity for self-directed change and transforming personal experiences. This perspective focuses on how healthy people develop. One pioneering humanist, Abraham Maslow, studied people who he considered to be healthy, creative, and productive, including Albert Einstein, Eleanor Roosevelt, Thomas Jefferson, Abraham Lincoln, and others. Maslow (1950, 1970) found that such people share similar characteristics, such as being open, creative, loving, spontaneous, compassionate, concerned for others, and accepting of themselves. When you studied motivation, you learned about one of the bestknown humanistic theories, Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory, in which Maslow proposes that human beings have certain needs in common and that these needs must be met in a certain order. The highest need is the need for self-actualization, which is the achievement of our fullest potential.

Another humanistic theorist was Carl Rogers. One of Rogers’s main ideas about personality regards selfconcept, our thoughts and feelings about ourselves. How would you respond to the question, «Who am I?». Your answer can show how you see yourself. If your response is primarily positive, then you tend to feel good about who you are, and you see the world as a safe and positive place. If your response is mainly negative, then you may feel unhappy with who you are. Rogers further divided the self into two categories: the ideal self and the real self. The ideal self is the person that you would like to be; the real self is the person you actually are. Rogers focused on the idea that we need to achieve consistency between these two selves. We experience congruence when our thoughts about our real self and ideal self are very similar—in other words, when our self-concept is accurate. High congruence leads to a greater sense of self-worth and a healthy, productive life. Parents can help their children achieve this by giving them unconditional positive regard, or unconditional love. According to Rogers (1980), «As persons are accepted and prized, they tend to develop a more caring attitude towards themselves». Conversely, when there is a great discrepancy between our ideal and actual selves, we experience a state Rogers called incongruence, which can lead to maladjustment. Both Rogers’s and Maslow’s theories focus on individual choices and do not believe that biology is deterministic.

**BIOLOGICAL APPROACHES**

How much of our personality is in-born and biological, and how much is influenced by the environment and culture we are raised in? Psychologists who favor the biological approach believe that inherited predispositions as well as physiological processes can be used to explain differences in our personalities.

In the field of behavioral genetics, the Minnesota Study of Twins Reared apart—a well-known study of the genetic basis for personality—conducted research with twins from 1979 to 1999. In studying 350 pairs of twins, including pairs of identical and fraternal twins reared together and apart, researchers found that identical twins, whether raised together or apart, have very similar personalities. These findings suggest the heritability of some personality traits. Heritability refers to the proportion of difference among people that is attributed to genetics. Some of the traits that the study reported as having more than a 0.50 heritability ratio include leadership, obedience to authority, a sense of well-being, alienation, resistance to stress, and fearfulness. The implication is that some aspects of our personalities are largely controlled by genetics; however, it’s important to point out that traits are not determined by a single gene, but by a combination of many genes, as well as by epigenetic factors that control whether the genes are expressed.

**TEMPERAMENT**

Most contemporary psychologists believe temperament has a biological basis due to its appearance very early in our lives. As you learned when you studied lifespan development, Thomas and Chess found that babies could be categorized into one of three temperaments: easy, difficult, or slow to warm up. However, environmental factors (family interactions, for example) and maturation can affect the ways in which children’s personalities are expressed.
Research suggests that there are two dimensions of our temperament that are important parts of our adult personality—reactivity and self-regulation. Reactivity refers to how we respond to new or challenging environmental stimuli; self-regulation refers to our ability to control that response. For example, one person may immediately respond to new stimuli with a high level of anxiety, while another barely notices it.

Unit 6. Trait Theorists

Trait theorists believe personality can be understood via the approach that all people have certain traits, or characteristic ways of behaving. Do you tend to be sociable or shy? Passive or aggressive? Optimistic or pessimistic? Moody or even-tempered? Early trait theorists tried to describe all human personality traits. For example, one trait theorist, Gordon Allport, found 4,500 words in the English language that could describe people. He organized these personality traits into three categories: cardinal traits, central traits, and secondary traits. A cardinal trait is one that dominates your entire personality, and hence your life—such as Ebenezer Scrooge’s greed and Mother Theresa’s altruism. Cardinal traits are not very common: Few people have personalities dominated by a single trait. Instead, our personalities typically are composed of multiple traits. Central traits are those that make up our personalities (such as loyal, kind, agreeable, friendly, sneaky, wild, and grouchy). Secondary traits are those that are not quite as obvious or as consistent as central traits. They are present under specific circumstances and include preferences and attitudes. For example, one person gets angry when people try to tickle him; another can only sleep on the left side of the bed; and yet another always orders her salad dressing on the side. And you—although not normally an anxious person—feel nervous before making a speech in front of your class.

In an effort to make the list of traits more manageable, Raymond Cattell narrowed down the list to about 171 traits. However, saying that a trait is either present or absent does not accurately reflect a person’s uniqueness, because all of our personalities are actually made up of the same traits; we differ only in the degree to which each trait is expressed. Cattell identified 16 factors or dimensions of personality: warmth, reasoning, emotional stability, dominance, liveliness, rule-consciousness, social boldness, sensitivity, vigilance, abstractedness, privateness, apprehension, openness to change, selfreliance, perfectionism, and tension (Table). He developed a personality assessment based on these 16 factors, called the 16PF. Instead of a trait being present or absent, each dimension is scored over a continuum, from high to low. For example, your level of warmth describes how warm, caring, and nice to others you are. If you score low on this index, you tend to be more distant and cold. A high score on this index signifies you are supportive and comforting.

Personality Factors Measured by the 16PF Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Low Score</th>
<th>High Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Warmth</td>
<td>Reserved, detached</td>
<td>Outgoing, supportive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intellect</td>
<td>Concrete thinker</td>
<td>Analytical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional stability</td>
<td>Moody, irritable</td>
<td>Stable, calm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aggressiveness</td>
<td>Docile, submissive</td>
<td>Controlling, dominant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liveliness</td>
<td>Somber, prudent</td>
<td>Adventurous, spontaneous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dutifulness</td>
<td>Unreliable</td>
<td>Conscientious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social assertiveness</td>
<td>Shy, restrained</td>
<td>Uninhibited, bold</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensitivity</td>
<td>Tough-minded</td>
<td>Sensitive, caring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paranoia</td>
<td>Trusting</td>
<td>Suspicious</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

В данном разделе рассмотрена сущность и ключевые аспекты теории личностных черт
Psychologists Hans and Sybil Eysenck were personality theorists who focused on temperament, the inborn, genetically based personality differences that you studied earlier in the chapter. They believed personality is largely governed by biology. The Eysenck’s viewed people as having two specific personality dimensions: extroversion/introversion and neuroticism/stability. According to their theory, people high on the trait of extroversion are sociable and outgoing, and readily connect with others, whereas people high on the trait of introversion have a higher need to be alone, engage in solitary behaviors, and limit their interactions with others. In the neuroticism/stability dimension, people high on neuroticism tend to be anxious; they tend to have an overactive sympathetic nervous system and, even with low stress, their bodies and emotional state tend to go into a flight-or-fight reaction. In contrast, people high on stability tend to need more stimulation to activate their flight-or-fight reaction and are considered more emotionally stable. Based on these two dimensions, the Eysenck’s’ theory divides people into four quadrants. These quadrants are sometimes compared with the four temperaments described by the Greeks: melancholic, choleric, phlegmatic, and sanguine.

Later, the Eysenck’s added a third dimension: psychoticism versus superego control. In this dimension, people who are high on psychoticism tend to be independent thinkers, cold, nonconformists, impulsive, antisocial, and hostile, whereas people who are high on superego control tend to have high impulse control—they are more altruistic, empathetic, cooperative, and conventional.

While Cattell’s 16 factors may be too broad, the Eysenck’s two-factor system has been criticized for being too narrow. Another personality theory, called the Five Factor Model, effectively hits a middle ground, with its five factors referred to as the Big Five personality traits. It is the most popular theory in personality psychology today and the most accurate approximation of the basic trait dimensions. The five traits are openness to experience, conscientiousness, extroversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism. A helpful way to remember the traits is by using the mnemonic OCEAN.

In the Five Factor Model, each person has each trait, but they occur along a spectrum. Openness to experience is characterized by imagination, feelings, actions, and ideas. People who score high on this trait tend to be curious and have a wide range of interests. Conscientiousness is characterized by competence, self-discipline, thoughtfulness, and achievement-striving (goal-directed behavior). People who score high on this trait are hardworking and dependable. Numerous studies have found a positive correlation between conscientiousness and academic success. Extroversion is characterized by sociability, assertiveness, excitement-seeking, and emotional expression. People who score high on this trait are usually described as outgoing and warm. Not surprisingly, people who score high on both extroversion and openness are more likely to participate in adventure and risky sports due to their curious and excitement-seeking nature. The fourth trait is agreeableness, which is the tendency to be pleasant, cooperative, trustworthy, and good-natured. People who score low on agreeableness tend to be described as rude and uncooperative, yet one recent study reported that men who scored low on this trait actually earned more money than men who were considered more agreeable. The last of the Big Five traits is neuroticism, which is the tendency to experience negative emotions. People high on neuroticism tend to experience emotional instability and are characterized as angry, impulsive, and hostile. Watson and Clark (1984) found that people reporting high levels of neuroticism also tend to report feeling anxious and unhappy. In contrast, people who score low in neuroticism tend to be calm and even-tempered.

The Big Five personality factors each represent a range between two extremes. In reality, most of us tend to lie somewhere midway along the continuum of each factor, rather than at polar ends.
It's important to note that the Big Five traits are relatively stable over our lifespan, with some tendency for the traits to increase or decrease slightly. Researchers have found that conscientiousness increases through young adulthood into middle age, as we become better able to manage our personal relationships and careers. Agreeableness also increases with age, peaking between 50 to 70 years. Neuroticism and extroversion tend to decline slightly with age. Additionally, The Big Five traits have been shown to exist across ethnicities, cultures, and ages, and may have substantial biological and genetic components.

**Unit 7. Cultural Understandings of Personality**

В данном разделе рассмотрены национальные и индивидуальные культурные особенности всего населения

As you have learned in this chapter, personality is shaped by both genetic and environmental factors. The culture in which you live is one of the most important environmental factors that shapes your personality. The term culture refers to all of the beliefs, customs, art, and traditions of a particular society. Culture is transmitted to people through language as well as through the modeling of culturally acceptable and nonacceptable behaviors that are either rewarded or punished. With these ideas in mind, personality psychologists have become interested in the role of culture in understanding personality. They ask whether personality traits are the same across cultures or if there are variations. It appears that there are both universal and culture-specific aspects that account for variation in people’s personalities.

Why might it be important to consider cultural influences on personality? Western ideas about personality may not be applicable to other cultures. In fact, there is evidence that the strength of personality traits varies across cultures. Let’s take a look at some of the Big Five factors (conscientiousness, neuroticism, openness, and extroversion) across cultures. As you will learn when you study social psychology, Asian cultures are more collectivist, and people in these cultures tend to be less extroverted. People in Central and South American cultures tend to score higher on openness to experience, whereas Europeans score higher on neuroticism.

According to this study, there also seem to be regional personality differences within the United States (Figure). Researchers analyzed responses from over 1.5 million individuals in the United States and found that there are three distinct regional personality clusters: Cluster 1, which is in the Upper Midwest and Deep South, is dominated by people who fall into the «friendly and conventional» personality; Cluster 2, which includes the West, is dominated by people who are more relaxed, emotionally stable, calm, and creative; and Cluster 3, which includes the Northeast, has more people who are stressed, irritable, and depressed. People who live in Clusters 2 and 3 are also generally more open.
One explanation for the regional differences is **selective migration**. Selective migration is the concept that people choose to move to places that are compatible with their personalities and needs. For example, a person high on the agreeable scale would likely want to live near family and friends, and would choose to settle or remain in such an area. In contrast, someone high on openness would prefer to settle in a place that is recognized as diverse and innovative (such as California).

### PERSONALITY IN INDIVIDUALIST AND COLLECTIVIST CULTURES

Individualist cultures and collectivist cultures place emphasis on different basic values. People who live in individualist cultures tend to believe that independence, competition, and personal achievement are important. Individuals in Western nations such as the United States, England, and Australia score high on individualism. People who live in collectivist cultures value social harmony, respectfulness, and group needs over individual needs. Individuals who live in countries in Asia, Africa, and South America score high on collectivism. These values influence personality. For example, Yang found that people in individualist cultures displayed more personally oriented personality traits, whereas people in collectivist cultures displayed more socially oriented personality traits.

### APPROACHES TO STUDYING PERSONALITY IN A CULTURAL CONTEXT

There are three approaches that can be used to study personality in a cultural context, the cultural comparative approach; the indigenous approach; and the combined approach, which incorporates elements of both views. Since ideas about personality have a Western basis, the cultural-comparative approach seeks to test Western ideas about personality in other cultures to determine whether they can be generalized and if they have cultural validity. For example, researchers used the cultural-comparative approach to test the universality of McCrae and Costa’s Five Factor Model. They found applicability in numerous cultures around the world, with the Big Five traits being stable in many cultures. The indigenous approach came about in reaction to the dominance of Western approaches to the study of personality in non-Western settings. Because Western-based personality assessments cannot fully capture the personality constructs of other cultures, the indigenous model has led to the development of personality assessment instruments that are based on constructs relevant to the culture being studied. The third approach to cross-cultural studies of personality is the combined approach, which serves as a bridge between Western and indigenous psychology as a way of understanding both universal and cultural variations in personality.
Unit 8. Personality Assessment

В данном разделе рассмотрены особенности методов личностной оценки человека

Roberto, Mikhail, and Nat are college friends and all want to be police officers. Roberto is quiet and shy, lacks self-confidence, and usually follows others. He is a kind person, but lacks motivation. Mikhail is loud and boisterous, a leader. He works hard, but is impulsive and drinks too much on the weekends. Nat is thoughtful and well liked. He is trustworthy, but sometimes he has difficulty making quick decisions. Of these three men, who would make the best police officer? What qualities and personality factors make someone a good police officer? What makes someone a bad or dangerous police officer?

A police officer’s job is very high in stress, and law enforcement agencies want to make sure they hire the right people. Personality testing is often used for this purpose—to screen applicants for employment and job training. Personality tests are also used in criminal cases and custody battles, and to assess psychological disorders. This unit explores the best known among the many different types of personality tests.

**SELF-REPORT INVENTORIES**

Self-report inventories are a kind of objective test used to assess personality. They typically use multiplechoice items or numbered scales, which represent a range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). They often are called Likert scales after their developer, Rensis Likert.

One of the most widely used personality inventories is the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI), first published in 1943, with 504 true/false questions, and updated to the MMPI-2 in 1989, with 567 questions. The original MMPI was based on a small, limited sample, composed mostly of Minnesota farmers and psychiatric patients; the revised inventory was based on a more representative, national sample to allow for better standardization. The MMPI-2 takes 1–2 hours to complete. Responses are scored to produce a clinical profile composed of 10 scales: hypochondriasis, depression, hysteria, psychopathic deviance (social deviance), masculinity versus femininity, paranoia, psychasthenia (obsessive/compulsive qualities), schizophrenia, hypomania, and social introversion. There is also a scale to ascertain risk factors for alcohol abuse. In 2008, the test was again revised, using more advanced methods, to the MMPI-2-RF. This version takes about one-half the time to complete and has only 338 questions. Despite the new test’s advantages, the MMPI-2 is more established and is still more widely used. Typically, the tests are administered by computer.

Although the MMPI was originally developed to assist in the clinical diagnosis of psychological disorders, it is now also used for occupational screening, such as in law enforcement, and in college, career, and marital counseling.

In addition to clinical scales, the tests also have validity and reliability scales. (Recall the concepts of reliability and validity from your study of psychological research.) One of the validity scales, the Lie Scale (or «L» Scale), consists of 15 items and is used to ascertain whether the respondent is «faking good» (underreporting psychological problems to appear healthier). For example, if someone responds «yes» to a number of unrealistically positive items such as «I have never told a lie», they may be trying to «fake good» or appear better than they actually are.

Reliability scales test an instrument’s consistency over time, assuring that if you take the MMPI-2-RF today and then again 5 years later, your two scores will be similar. Beutler, Nussbaum, and Meredith gave the MMPI to newly recruited police officers and then to the same police officers 2 years later. After 2 years on the job, police officers’ responses indicated an increased vulnerability to alcoholism, somatic symptoms (vague, unexplained physical complaints), and anxiety. When the test was given an additional 2 years later (4 years after starting on the job), the results suggested high risk for alcohol-related difficulties.
Another method for assessment of personality is **projective testing**. This kind of test relies on one of the defense mechanisms proposed by Freud—projection—as a way to assess unconscious processes. During this type of testing, a series of ambiguous cards is shown to the person being tested, who then is encouraged to project his feelings, impulses, and desires onto the cards—by telling a story, interpreting an image, or completing a sentence. Many projective tests have undergone standardization procedures and can be used to access whether someone has unusual thoughts or a high level of anxiety, or is likely to become volatile. Some examples of projective tests are the Rorschach Inkblot Test, the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT), the Contemporized-Themes Concerning Blacks test, the TEMAS (Tell-Me-A-Story), and the Rotter Incomplete Sentence Blank (RISB).

The Rorschach Inkblot Test was developed in 1921 by a Swiss psychologist named Hermann Rorschach (pronounced «ROAR-shock»). It is a series of symmetrical inkblot cards that are presented to a client by a psychologist. Upon presentation of each card, the psychologist asks the client, «What might this be?» What the test-taker sees reveals unconscious feelings and struggles. The Rorschach has been standardized using the Exner system and is effective in measuring depression, psychosis, and anxiety.

A second projective test is the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT), created in the 1930s by Henry Murray, an American psychologist, and a psychoanalyst named Christiana Morgan. A person taking the TAT is shown 8–12 ambiguous pictures and is asked to tell a story about each picture. The stories give insight into their social world, revealing hopes, fears, interests, and goals. The storytelling format helps to lower a person’s resistance divulging unconscious personal details. The TAT has been used in clinical settings to evaluate psychological disorders; more recently, it has been used in counseling settings to help clients gain a better understanding of themselves and achieve personal growth. Standardization of test administration is virtually nonexistent among clinicians, and the test tends to be modest to low on validity and reliability. Despite these shortcomings, the TAT has been one of the most widely used projective tests.

A third projective test is the Rotter Incomplete Sentence Blank (RISB) developed by Julian Rotter in 1950 (recall his theory of locus of control, covered earlier in this chapter). There are three forms of this test for use with different age groups: the school form, the college form, and the adult form. The tests include 40 incomplete sentences that people are asked to complete as quickly as possible. The average time for completing the test is approximately 20 minutes, as responses are only 1–2 words in length. This test is similar to a word association test, and like other types of projective tests, it is presumed that responses will reveal desires, fears, and struggles. The RISB is used in screening college students for adjustment problems and in career counseling.

For many decades, these traditional projective tests have been used in cross-cultural personality assessments. However, it was found that test bias limited their usefulness (Hoy-Watkins & Jenkins-Moore, 2008). It is difficult to assess the personalities and lifestyles of members of widely divergent ethnic/cultural groups using personality instruments based on data from a single culture or race. For example, when the TAT was used with African-American test takers, the result was often shorter story length and low levels of cultural identification. Therefore, it was vital to develop other personality assessments that explored factors such as race, language, and level of acculturation. To address this need, Robert Williams developed the first culturally specific projective test designed to reflect the everyday life experiences of African Americans. The updated version of the instrument is the Contemporized-Themes Concerning Blacks Test (C-TCB). The C-TCB contains 20 color images that show scenes of African-American lifestyles. When the C-TCB was compared with the TAT for African Americans, it was found that use of the C-TCB led to increased story length, higher degrees of positive feelings, and stronger identification with the C-TCB.

The TEMAS Multicultural Thematic Apperception Test is another tool designed to be culturally relevant to minority groups, especially Hispanic youths. TEMAS—standing for «Tell Me a Story»
but also a play on the Spanish word temas (themes)—uses images and storytelling cues that relate to minority culture.
Review Questions

1. Personality is thought to be _______.
   a. short term and easily changed
   b. a pattern of short-term characteristics
   c. unstable and short term
   d. long term, stable and not easily changed

2. The long-standing traits and patterns that propel individuals to consistently think, feel, and behave in specific ways are known as _______.
   a. psychodynamic
   b. temperament
   c. humors
   d. personality

3. _______ is credited with the first comprehensive theory of personality.
   a. Hippocrates
   b. Gall
   c. Wundt
   d. Freud

4. An early science that tried to correlate personality with measurements of parts of a person’s skull is known as _______.
   a. phrenology
   b. psychology
   c. physiology
   d. personality psychology

5. The id operates on the _______ principle.
   a. reality
   b. pleasure
   c. instant gratification
   d. guilt

6. The ego defense mechanism in which a person who is confronted with anxiety returns to a more immature behavioral stage is called _______.
   a. repression
   b. regression
   c. reaction formation
   d. rationalization

7. The Oedipus complex occurs in the _______ stage of psychosexual development.
   a. oral
   b. anal
   c. phallic
   d. latency

8. The universal bank of ideas, images, and concepts that have been passed down through the generations from our ancestors refers to _______.
   a. archetypes
   b. intuition
   c. collective unconscious
   d. personality types

9. Self-regulation is also known as _______.
   a. self-efficacy
   b. will power
   c. internal locus of control
10. Your level of confidence in your own abilities is known as ________.
   a. self-efficacy
   b. self-concept
   c. self-control
   d. self-esteem

11. Jane believes that she got a bad grade on her psychology paper because her professor doesn’t like her. Jane most likely has an ________ locus of control.
   a. internal
   b. external
   c. intrinsic
   d. extrinsic

12. Self-concept refers to ________.
   a. our level of confidence in our own abilities
   b. all of our thoughts and feelings about ourselves
   c. the belief that we control our own outcomes
   d. the belief that our outcomes are outside of our control

13. The idea that people’s ideas about themselves should match their actions is called ________.
   a. confluence
   b. conscious
   c. conscientiousness
   d. congruence

14. The way a person reacts to the world, starting when they are very young, including the person’s activity level is known as ________.
   a. traits
   b. temperament
   c. heritability
   d. personality

15. Brianna is 18 months old. She cries frequently, is hard to soothe, and wakes frequently during the night. According to Thomas and Chess, she would be considered ________.
   a. an easy baby
   b. a difficult baby
   c. a slow to warm up baby
   d. a colicky baby

16. According to the findings of the Minnesota Study of Twins Reared Apart, identical twins, whether raised together or apart have ________ personalities.
   a. slightly different
   b. very different
   c. slightly similar
   d. very similar

17. Temperament refers to ________.
   a. inborn, genetically based personality differences
   b. characteristic ways of behaving
   c. conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism, openness, and extroversion
   d. degree of introversion-extroversion

18. According to the Eysencks’ theory, people who score high on neuroticism tend to be ________.
   a. calm
   b. stable
   c. outgoing
d. anxious

19. The United States is considered a ________ culture.
   a. collectivistic
   b. individualist
   c. traditional
   d. nontraditional

20. The concept that people choose to move to places that are compatible with their personalities and needs is known as ________.
   a. selective migration
   b. personal oriented personality
   c. socially oriented personality
   d. individualism

21. Which of the following is NOT a projective test?
   a. Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI)
   b. Rorschach Inkblot Test
   c. Thematic Apperception Test (TAT)
   d. Rotter Incomplete Sentence Blank (RISB)

22. A personality assessment in which a person responds to ambiguous stimuli, revealing unconscious feelings, impulses, and desires ________.
   a. self-report inventory
   b. projective test
   c. Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI)
   d. Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)

23. Which personality assessment employs a series of true/false questions?
   a. Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI)
   b. Thematic Apperception Test (TAT)
   c. Rotter Incomplete Sentence Blank (RISB)
   d. Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)

Critical Thinking Questions

24. What makes a personal quality part of someone’s personality?
25. How might the common expression «daddy’s girl» be rooted in the idea of the Electra complex?
26. Describe the personality of someone who is fixated at the anal stage.
27. Describe the difference between extroverts and introverts in terms of what is energizing to each.
28. Discuss Horney’s perspective on Freud’s concept of penis envy.
29. Compare the personalities of someone who has high self-efficacy to someone who has low self-efficacy.
30. Compare and contrast Skinner’s perspective on personality development to Freud’s.
31. How might a temperament mix between parent and child affect family life?
32. How stable are the Big Five traits over one’s lifespan?
33. Compare the personality of someone who scores high on agreeableness to someone who scores low on agreeableness.
34. Why might it be important to consider cultural influences on personality?
35. Why might a prospective employer screen applicants using personality assessments?
36. Why would a clinician give someone a projective test?

Personal Application Questions
37. How would you describe your own personality? Do you think that friends and family would describe you in much the same way? Why or why not?
38. How would you describe your personality in an online dating profile?
39. What are some of your positive and negative personality qualities? How do you think these qualities will affect your choice of career?
40. What are some examples of defense mechanisms that you have used yourself or have witnessed others using?
41. What is your birth order? Do you agree or disagree with Adler’s description of your personality based on his birth order theory, as described in the Link to Learning? Provide examples for support.
42. Would you describe yourself as an extrovert or an introvert? Does this vary based on the situation? Provide examples to support your points.
43. Select an epic story that is popular in contemporary society (such as Harry Potter or Star Wars) and explain it terms of Jung’s concept of archetypes.
44. Do you have an internal or an external locus of control? Provide examples to support your answer.
45. Respond to the question, «Who am I?». Based on your response, do you have a negative or a positive self-concept? What are some experiences that led you to develop this particular self-concept?
46. Research suggests that many of our personality characteristics have a genetic component. What traits do you think you inherited from your parents? Provide examples. How might modeling (environment) influenced your characteristics as well?
47. According to the work of Rentfrow and colleagues, personalities are not randomly distributed. Instead, they fit into distinct geographic clusters. Based on where you live, do you agree or disagree with the traits associated with yourself and the residents of your area of the country? Why or why not?
48. How objective do you think you can be about yourself in answering questions on self-report personality assessment measures? What implications might this have for the validity of the personality test?
CHAPTER 5. SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Unit 1. What Is Social Psychology?

Social psychology examines how people affect one another, and it looks at the power of the situation. Social psychologists assert that an individual’s thoughts, feelings, and behaviors are very much influenced by social situations. Essentially, people will change their behavior to align with the social situation at hand. If we are in a new situation or are unsure how to behave, we will take our cues from other individuals.

The field of social psychology studies topics at both the intra- and interpersonal levels. Intrapersonal topics (those that pertain to the individual) include emotions and attitudes, the self, and social cognition (the ways in which we think about ourselves and others). Interpersonal topics (those that pertain to dyads and groups) include helping behavior, aggression, prejudice and discrimination, attraction and close relationships, and group processes and intergroup relationships.

Social psychologists focus on how people construe or interpret situations and how these interpretations influence their thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. Thus, social psychology studies individuals in a social context and how situational variables interact to influence behavior. In this chapter, we discuss the intrapersonal processes of self-presentation, cognitive dissonance and attitude change, and the interpersonal processes of conformity and obedience, aggression and altruism, and, finally, love and attraction.

SITUATIONAL AND DISPOSITIONAL INFLUENCES ON BEHAVIOR

Behavior is a product of both the situation (e.g., cultural influences, social roles, and the presence of bystanders) and of the person (e.g., personality characteristics). Subfields of psychology tend to focus on one influence or behavior over others. Situationism is the view that our behavior and actions are determined by our immediate environment and surroundings. In contrast, dispositionism holds that our behavior is determined by internal factors. An internal factor is an attribute of a person and includes personality traits and temperament. Social psychologists have tended to take the situationist perspective, whereas personality psychologists have promoted the dispositionist perspective. Modern approaches to social psychology, however, take both the situation and the individual into account when studying human behavior. In fact, the field of social-personality psychology has emerged to study the complex interaction of internal and situational factors that affect human behavior.
FUNDAMENTAL ATTRIBUTION ERROR

In the United States, the predominant culture tends to favor a dispositional approach in explaining human behavior. Why do you think this is? We tend to think that people are in control of their own behaviors, and, therefore, any behavior change must be due to something internal, such as their personality, habits, or temperament. According to some social psychologists, people tend to overemphasize internal factors as explanations—or attributions—for the behavior of other people. They tend to assume that the behavior of another person is a trait of that person, and to underestimate the power of the situation on the behavior of others. They tend to fail to recognize when the behavior of another is due to situational variables, and thus to the person’s state. This erroneous assumption is called the fundamental attribution error. To better understand, imagine this scenario: Greg returns home from work, and upon opening the front door his wife happily greets him and inquires about his day. Instead of greeting his wife, Greg yells at her, «Leave me alone!» Why did Greg yell at his wife? How would someone committing the fundamental attribution error explain Greg’s behavior? The most common response is that Greg is a mean, angry, or unfriendly person (his traits). This is an internal or dispositional explanation. However, imagine that Greg was just laid off from his job due to company downsizing. Would your explanation for Greg’s behavior change? Your revised explanation might be that Greg was frustrated and disappointed for losing his job; therefore, he was in a bad mood (his state). This is now an external or situational explanation for Greg’s behavior.

The fundamental attribution error is so powerful that people often overlook obvious situational influences on behavior. A classic example was demonstrated in a series of experiments known as the quizmaster study. Student participants were randomly assigned to play the role of a questioner (the quizmaster) or a contestant in a quiz game. Questioners developed difficult questions to which they knew the answers, and they presented these questions to the contestants. The contestants answered the questions correctly only 4 out of 10 times. After the task, the questioners and contestants were asked to rate their own general knowledge compared to the average student. Questioners did not rate their general knowledge higher than the contestants, but the contestants rated the questioners’ intelligence higher than their own. In a second study, observers of the interaction also rated the questioner as having more general knowledge than the contestant. The obvious influence on performance is the situation. The questioners wrote the questions, so of course they had an advantage. Both the contestants and observers made an internal attribution for the performance. They concluded that the questioners must be more intelligent than the contestants.

As demonstrated in the example above, the fundamental attribution error is considered a powerful influence in how we explain the behaviors of others. However, it should be noted that some researchers have suggested that the fundamental attribution error may not be as powerful as it is often portrayed. In fact, a recent review of more than 173 published studies suggests that several factors (e.g., high levels of idiosyncrasy of the character and how well hypothetical events are explained) play a role in determining just how influential the fundamental attribution error is.

IS THE FUNDAMENTAL ATTRIBUTION ERROR A UNIVERSAL PHENOMENON?

You may be able to think of examples of the fundamental attribution error in your life. Do people in all cultures commit the fundamental attribution error? Research suggests that they do not. People from an individualistic culture, that is, a culture that focuses on individual achievement and autonomy, have the greatest tendency to commit the fundamental attribution error. Individualistic cultures, which tend to be found in western countries such as the United States, Canada, and the United Kingdom, promote a focus on the individual. Therefore, a person’s disposition is thought to be the primary explanation for her behavior. In contrast, people from a collectivistic culture, that is, a culture that focuses on communal relationships with others, such as family, friends, and community, are less likely to commit the fundamental attribution error.
Why do you think this is the case? Collectivistic cultures, which tend to be found in east Asian countries and in Latin American and African countries, focus on the group more than on the individual. This focus on others provides a broader perspective that takes into account both situational and cultural influences on behavior; thus, a more nuanced explanation of the causes of others’ behavior becomes more likely.

**ACTOR-OBSERVER BIAS**

Returning to our earlier example, Greg knew that he lost his job, but an observer would not know. So a naïve observer would tend to attribute Greg’s hostile behavior to Greg’s disposition rather than to the true, situational cause. Why do you think we underestimate the influence of the situation on the behaviors of others? One reason is that we often don’t have all the information we need to make a situational explanation for another person’s behavior. The only information we might have is what is observable. Due to this lack of information we have a tendency to assume the behavior is due to a dispositional, or internal, factor. When it comes to explaining our own behaviors, however, we have much more information available to us. If you came home from school or work angry and yelled at your dog or a loved one, what would your explanation be? You might say you were very tired or feeling unwell and needed quiet time—a situational explanation. The **actor-observer bias** is the phenomenon of attributing other people’s behavior to internal factors (fundamental attribution error) while attributing our own behavior to situational forces. As actors of behavior, we have more information available to explain our own behavior. However as observers, we have less information available; therefore, we tend to default to a dispositionist perspective.

One study on the actor-observer bias investigated reasons male participants gave for why they liked their girlfriend. When asked why participants liked their own girlfriend, participants focused on internal, dispositional qualities of their girlfriends (for example, her pleasant personality). The participants’ explanations rarely included causes internal to themselves, such as dispositional traits (for example, «I need companionship»). In contrast, when speculating why a male friend likes his girlfriend, participants were equally likely to give dispositional and external explanations. This supports the idea that actors tend to provide few internal explanations but many situational explanations for their own behavior. In contrast, observers tend to provide more dispositional explanations for a friend’s behavior.

**SELF-SERVING BIAS**

Following an outcome, self-serving bias are those attributions that enable us to see ourselves in favorable light (for example, making internal attributions for success and external attributions for failures). When you do well at a task, for example acing an exam, it is in your best interest to make a dispositional attribution for your behavior («I’m smart») instead of a situational one («The exam was easy»). The tendency of an individual to take credit by making dispositional or internal attributions for positive outcomes but situational or external attributions for negative outcomes is known as the self-serving bias. This bias serves to protect self-esteem. You can imagine that if people always made situational attributions for their behavior, they would never be able to take credit and feel good about their accomplishments.

We can understand self-serving bias by digging more deeply into attribution, a belief about the cause of a result. One model of attribution proposes three main dimensions: locus of control (internal versus external), stability (stable versus unstable), and controllability (controllable versus uncontrollable). In this context, stability refers the extent to which the circumstances that result in a given outcome are changeable. The circumstances are considered stable if they are unlikely to change. Controllability refers to the extent to which the circumstances that are associated with a given outcome can be controlled. Obviously, those things that we have the power to control would be labeled controllable.
Consider the example of how we explain our favorite sports team’s wins. Research shows that we make internal, stable, and controllable attributions for our team’s victory. For example, we might tell ourselves that our team is talented (internal), consistently works hard (stable), and uses effective strategies (controllable). In contrast, we are more likely to make external, unstable, and uncontrollable attributions when our favorite team loses. For example, we might tell ourselves that the other team has more experienced players or that the referees were unfair (external), the other team played at home (unstable), and the cold weather affected our team’s performance (uncontrollable).

JUST-WORLD HYPOTHESIS

One consequence of westerners’ tendency to provide dispositional explanations for behavior is victim blame. When people experience bad fortune, others tend to assume that they somehow are responsible for their own fate. A common ideology, or worldview, in the United States is the just-world hypothesis. The just-world hypothesis is the belief that people get the outcomes they deserve. In order to maintain the belief that the world is a fair place, people tend to think that good people experience positive outcomes, and bad people experience negative outcomes. The ability to think of the world as a fair place, where people get what they deserve, allows us to feel that the world is predictable and that we have some control over our life outcomes. For example, if you want to experience positive outcomes, you just need to work hard to get ahead in life.

Can you think of a negative consequence of the just-world hypothesis? One negative consequence is people’s tendency to blame poor individuals for their plight. What common explanations are given for why people live in poverty? Have you heard statements such as, «The poor are lazy and just don’t want to work» or «Poor people just want to live off the government»? What types of explanations are these, dispositional or situational? These dispositional explanations are clear examples of the fundamental attribution error. Blaming poor people for their poverty ignores situational factors that impact them, such as high unemployment rates, recession, poor educational opportunities, and the familial cycle of poverty. Other research shows that people who hold just-world beliefs have negative attitudes toward people who are unemployed and people living with AIDS. In the United States and other countries, victims of sexual assault may find themselves blamed for their abuse. Victim advocacy groups, such as Domestic Violence Ended (DOVE), attend court in support of victims to ensure that blame is directed at the perpetrators of sexual violence, not the victims.

Unit 2. Self-presentation

В данном разделе показан концепт самопрезентации в разрезе общества: социальные роли, социальные нормы и пр.

As you’ve learned, social psychology is the study of how people affect one another’s thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. We have discussed situational perspectives and social psychology’s emphasis on the ways in which a person’s environment, including culture and other social influences, affect behavior. In this unit, we examine situational forces that have a strong influence on human behavior including social roles, social norms, and scripts. We discuss how humans use the social environment as a source of information, or cues, on how to behave. Situational influences on our behavior have important consequences, such as whether we will help a stranger in an emergency or how we would behave in an unfamiliar environment.

SOCIAL ROLES

One major social determinant of human behavior is our social roles. A social role is a pattern of behavior that is expected of a person in a given setting or group. Each one of us has several social roles.
You may be, at the same time, a student, a parent, an aspiring teacher, a son or daughter, a spouse, and a lifeguard. How do these social roles influence your behavior? Social roles are defined by culturally shared knowledge. That is, nearly everyone in a given culture knows what behavior is expected of a person in a given role. For example, what is the social role for a student? If you look around a college classroom, you will likely see students engaging in studious behavior, taking notes, listening to the professor, reading the textbook, and sitting quietly at their desks. Of course you may see students deviating from the expected studious behavior such as texting on their phones or using Facebook on their laptops, but in all cases, the students that you observe are attending class—a part of the social role of students.

Social roles, and our related behavior, can vary across different settings. How do you behave when you are engaging in the role of son or daughter and attending a family function? Now imagine how you behave when you are engaged in the role of employee at your workplace. It is very likely that your behavior will be different. Perhaps you are more relaxed and outgoing with your family, making jokes and doing silly things. But at your workplace you might speak more professionally, and although you may be friendly, you are also serious and focused on getting the work completed. These are examples of how our social roles influence and often dictate our behavior to the extent that identity and personality can vary with context (that is, in different social groups).

SOCIAL NORMS

As discussed previously, social roles are defined by a culture’s shared knowledge of what is expected behavior of an individual in a specific role. This shared knowledge comes from social norms. A social norm is a group’s expectation of what is appropriate and acceptable behavior for its members—how they are supposed to behave and think. How are we expected to act? What are we expected to talk about? What are we expected to wear? In our discussion of social roles we noted that colleges have social norms for students’ behavior in the role of student and workplaces have social norms for employees’ behaviors in the role of employee. Social norms are everywhere including in families, gangs, and on social media outlets. What are some social norms on Facebook?

SCRIPTS

Because of social roles, people tend to know what behavior is expected of them in specific, familiar settings. A script is a person’s knowledge about the sequence of events expected in a specific setting. How do you act on the first day of school, when you walk into an elevator, or are at a restaurant? For example, at a restaurant in the United States, if we want the server’s attention, we try to make eye contact. In Brazil, you would make the sound “psst” to get the server’s attention. You can see the cultural differences in scripts. To an American, saying “psst” to a server might seem rude, yet to a Brazilian, trying to make eye contact might not seem an effective strategy. Scripts are important sources of information to guide behavior in given situations. Can you imagine being in an unfamiliar situation and not having a script for how to behave? This could be uncomfortable and confusing. How could you find out about social norms in an unfamiliar culture?

ZIMBARDO’S STANFORD PRISON EXPERIMENT

The famous Stanford prison experiment, conducted by social psychologist Philip Zimbardo and his colleagues at Stanford University, demonstrated the power of social roles, social norms, and scripts. In the summer of 1971, an advertisement was placed in a California newspaper asking for male volunteers to participate in a study about the psychological effects of prison life. More than 70 men volunteered, and these volunteers then underwent psychological testing to eliminate candidates who had underlying psychiatric issues, medical issues, or a history of crime or drug abuse. The pool of volunteers was whittled down to 24 healthy male college students. Each student was paid $15 per day and was randomly assigned to play the role of either a prisoner or a guard in the
study. Based on what you have learned about research methods, why is it important that participants were randomly assigned?

A mock prison was constructed in the basement of the psychology building at Stanford. Participants assigned to play the role of prisoners were «arrested» at their homes by Palo Alto police officers, booked at a police station, and subsequently taken to the mock prison. The experiment was scheduled to run for several weeks. To the surprise of the researchers, both the «prisoners» and «guards» assumed their roles with zeal. In fact, on day 2, some of the prisoners revolted, and the guards quelled the rebellion by threatening the prisoners with night sticks. In a relatively short time, the guards came to harass the prisoners in an increasingly sadistic manner, through a complete lack of privacy, lack of basic comforts such as mattresses to sleep on, and through degrading chores and late-night counts.

The prisoners, in turn, began to show signs of severe anxiety and hopelessness—they began tolerating the guards’ abuse. Even the Stanford professor who designed the study and was the head researcher, Philip Zimbardo, found himself acting as if the prison was real and his role, as prison supervisor, was real as well. After only six days, the experiment had to be ended due to the participants’ deteriorating behavior.

Zimbardo explained: At this point it became clear that we had to end the study. We had created an overwhelmingly powerful situation—a situation in which prisoners were withdrawing and behaving in pathological ways, and in which some of the guards were behaving sadistically. Even the «good» guards felt helpless to intervene, and none of the guards quit while the study was in progress. Indeed, it should be noted that no guard ever came late for his shift, called in sick, left early, or demanded extra pay for overtime work.

The Stanford prison experiment demonstrated the power of social roles, norms, and scripts in affecting human behavior. The guards and prisoners enacted their social roles by engaging in behaviors appropriate to the roles: The guards gave orders and the prisoners followed orders. Social norms require guards to be authoritarian and prisoners to be submissive. When prisoners rebelled, they violated these social norms, which led to upheaval. The specific acts engaged by the guards and the prisoners derived from scripts. For example, guards degraded the prisoners by forcing them do push-ups and by removing all privacy. Prisoners rebelled by throwing pillows and trashing their cells. Some prisoners became so immersed in their roles that they exhibited symptoms of mental breakdown; however, according to Zimbardo, none of the participants suffered long term harm.

The Stanford Prison Experiment has some parallels with the abuse of prisoners of war by U.S. Army troops and CIA personnel at the Abu Ghraib prison in 2003 and 2004. Photographs of the abuse, some taken by the abusers themselves, documented the offenses at Abu Ghraib.

Unit 3. Attitudes and Persuasion

В данном разделе изучены особенности социальных отношений и убеждения

Social psychologists have documented how the power of the situation can influence our behaviors. Now we turn to how the power of the situation can influence our attitudes and beliefs. **Attitude** is our evaluation of a person, an idea, or an object. We have attitudes for many things ranging from products that we might pick up in the supermarket to people around the world to political policies. Typically, attitudes are favorable or unfavorable: positive or negative. In addition, they have three components: an affective component (feelings), a behavioral component (the effect of the attitude on behavior), and a cognitive component (belief and knowledge).

For example, you may hold a positive attitude toward recycling. This attitude should result in positive feelings toward recycling (such as «It makes me feel good to recycle» or «I enjoy knowing that I make a small difference in reducing the amount of waste that ends up in landfills»). Certainly, this attitude should be reflected in our behavior: You actually recycle as often as you can. Finally,
this attitude will be reflected in favorable thoughts (for example, «Recycling is good for the environment» or «Recycling is the responsible thing to do»).

Our attitudes and beliefs are not only influenced by external forces, but also by internal influences that we control. Like our behavior, situational pressures do not always change our attitudes and thoughts, but they can be consciously changed by our own free will. In this unit, we discuss the conditions under which we would want to change our own attitudes and beliefs.

WHAT IS COGNITIVE DISSONANCE?

Social psychologists have documented that feeling good about ourselves and maintaining positive self-esteem is a powerful motivator of human behavior. In the United States, members of the predominant culture typically think very highly of themselves and view themselves as good people who are above average on many desirable traits. Often, our behavior, attitudes, and beliefs are affected when we experience a threat to our self-esteem or positive self-image. Psychologist Leon Festinger defined cognitive dissonance as psychological discomfort arising from holding two or more inconsistent attitudes, behaviors, or cognitions (thoughts, beliefs, or opinions). Festinger’s theory of cognitive dissonance states that when we experience a conflict in our behaviors, attitudes, or beliefs that runs counter to our positive self-perceptions, we experience psychological discomfo rt (dissonance). For example, if you believe smoking is bad for your health but you continue to smoke, you experience conflict between your belief and behavior.

Later research documented those only conflicting cognitions that threaten individuals’ positive self-image cause dissonance. Additional research found that dissonance is not only psychologically uncomfortable but also can cause physiological arousal and activate regions of the brain important in emotions and cognitive functioning. When we experience cognitive dissonance, we are motivated to decrease it because it is psychologically, physically, and mentally uncomfortable. We can reduce cognitive dissonance by bringing our cognitions, attitudes, and behaviors in line—that is, making them harmonious. This can be done in different ways, such as:

- changing our discrepant behavior (e.g., stop smoking),
- changing our cognitions through rationalization or denial (e.g., telling ourselves that health risks can be reduced by smoking filtered cigarettes),
- adding a new cognition (e.g., «Smoking suppresses my appetite so I don’t become overweight, which is good for my health»).

A classic example of cognitive dissonance is John, a 20-year-old who enlists in the military. During boot camp he is awakened at 5:00 a.m., is chronically sleep deprived, yelled at, covered in sand flea bites, physically bruised and battered, and mentally exhausted. It gets worse. Recruits that make it to week 11 of boot camp have to do 54 hours of continuous training.

Not surprisingly, John is miserable. No one likes to be miserable. In this type of situation, people can change their beliefs, their attitudes, or their behaviors. The last option, a change of behaviors, is not available to John. He has signed on to the military for four years, and he cannot legally leave. If John keeps thinking about how miserable he is, it is going to be a very long four years. He will be in a constant state of cognitive dissonance. As an alternative to this misery, John can change his beliefs or attitudes. He can tell himself, «I am becoming stronger, healthier, and sharper. I am learning discipline and how to defend my country and myself. What I am doing is really important». If this is his belief, he will realize that he is becoming stronger through his challenges. He then will feel better and not experience cognitive dissonance, which is an uncomfortable state.

The Effect of Initiation. The military example demonstrates the observation that a difficult initiation into a group influences us to like the group more, due to the justification of effort. We do not want to have wasted time and effort to join a group that we eventually leave. A classic experiment by Aronson and Mills (1959) demonstrated this justification of effort effect. College students volunteered to join a campus group that would meet regularly to discuss the psychology of sex. Participants were randomly assigned to one of three conditions: no initiation, an easy initiation, and a difficult initiation into the group. After participating in the first discussion, which was deliberately
made very boring, participants rated how much they liked the group. Participants who underwent a difficult initiation process to join the group rated the group more favorably than did participants with an easy initiation or no initiation.

Similar effects can be seen in a more recent study of how student effort affects course evaluations. Heckert, Latier, Ringwald-Burton, and Drazen surveyed 463 undergraduates enrolled in courses at a Midwestern university about the amount of effort that their courses required of them. In addition, the students were also asked to evaluate various aspects of the course. Given what you’ve just read, it will come as no surprise that those courses that were associated with the highest level of effort were evaluated as being more valuable than those that did not. Furthermore, students indicated that they learned more in courses that required more effort, regardless of the grades that they received in those courses.

Besides the classic military example and group initiation, can you think of other examples of cognitive dissonance? Here is one: Marco and Maria live in Fairfield County, Connecticut, which is one of the wealthiest areas in the United States and has a very high cost of living. Marco telecommutes from home and Maria does not work outside of the home. They rent a very small house for more than $3000 a month. Maria shops at consignment stores for clothes and economizes where she can. They complain that they never have any money and that they cannot buy anything new. When asked why they do not move to a less expensive location, since Marco telecommutes, they respond that Fairfield County is beautiful, they love the beaches, and they feel comfortable there. How does the theory of cognitive dissonance apply to Marco and Maria’s choices?

PERSUASION

Persuasion is the process of changing our attitude toward something based on some kind of communication. Much of the persuasion we experience comes from outside forces. How do people convince others to change their attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors? What communications do you receive that attempt to persuade you to change your attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors? A subfield of social psychology studies persuasion and social influence, providing us with a plethora of information on how humans can be persuaded by others.

Yale Attitude Change Approach. The topic of persuasion has been one of the most extensively researched areas in social psychology. During the Second World War, Carl Hovland extensively researched persuasion for the U.S. Army. After the war, Hovland continued his exploration of persuasion at Yale University. Out of this work came a model called the Yale attitude change approach, which describes the conditions under which people tend to change their attitudes. Hovland demonstrated that certain features of the source of a persuasive message, the content of the message, and the characteristics of the audience would influence the persuasiveness of a message.

Features of the source of the persuasive message include the credibility of the speaker and the physical attractiveness of the speaker. Thus, speakers who are credible, or have expertise on the topic, and who are deemed as trustworthy are more persuasive than less credible speakers. Similarly, speakers that are more attractive are more persuasive than less attractive speakers. The use of famous actors and athletes to advertise products on television and in print relies on this principle. The immediate and long term impact of the persuasion also depends, however, on the credibility of the messenger.

Features of the message itself that affect persuasion include subtlety (the quality of being important, but not obvious); sidedness (that is, having more than one side); timing, and whether both sides are presented. Messages that are more subtle are more persuasive than direct messages. Arguments that occur first, such as in a debate, are more influential if messages are given back-to-back. However, if there is a delay after the first message, and before the audience needs to make a decision, the last message presented will tend to be more persuasive.

Features of the audience that affect persuasion are attention, intelligence, self-esteem, and age. In order to be persuaded, audience members must be paying attention. People with lower intelli-
gence are more easily persuaded than people with higher intelligence; whereas people with moderate self-esteem are more easily persuaded than people with higher or lower self-esteem. Finally, younger adults aged 18–25 are more persuadable than older adults.

**Elaboration Likelihood Model.** An especially popular model that describes the dynamics of persuasion is the elaboration likelihood model of persuasion. The elaboration likelihood model considers the variables of the attitude change approach—that is, features of the source of the persuasive message, contents of the message, and characteristics of the audience are used to determine when attitude change will occur. According to the elaboration likelihood model of persuasion, there are two main routes that play a role in delivering a persuasive message: central and peripheral.

The central route is logic driven and uses data and facts to convince people of an argument’s worthiness. For example, a car company seeking to persuade you to purchase their model will emphasize the car’s safety features and fuel economy. This is a direct route to persuasion that focuses on the quality of the information. In order for the central route of persuasion to be effective in changing attitudes, thoughts, and behaviors, the argument must be strong and, if successful, will result in lasting attitude change.

The central route to persuasion works best when the target of persuasion, or the audience, is analytical and willing to engage in processing of the information. From an advertiser’s perspective, what products would be best sold using the central route to persuasion? What audience would most likely be influenced to buy the product? One example is buying a computer. It is likely, for example, that small business owners might be especially influenced by the focus on the computer’s quality and features such as processing speed and memory capacity.

The peripheral route is an indirect route that uses peripheral cues to associate positivity with the message. Instead of focusing on the facts and a product’s quality, the peripheral route relies on association with positive characteristics such as positive emotions and celebrity endorsement. For example, having a popular athlete advertise athletic shoes is a common method used to encourage young adults to purchase the shoes. This route to attitude change does not require much effort or information processing. This method of persuasion may promote positivity toward the message or product, but it typically results in less permanent attitude or behavior change. The audience does not need to be analytical or motivated to process the message. In fact, a peripheral route to persuasion may not even be noticed by the audience, for example in the strategy of product placement. Product placement refers to putting a product with a clear brand name or brand identity in a TV show or movie to promote the product (Gupta & Lord, 1998). For example, one season of the reality series American Idol prominently showed the panel of judges drinking out of cups that displayed the Coca-Cola logo. What other products would be best sold using the peripheral route to persuasion? Another example is clothing: A retailer may focus on celebrities that are wearing the same style of clothing.

**Foot-in-the-door Technique.** Researchers have tested many persuasion strategies that are effective in selling products and changing people’s attitude, ideas, and behaviors. One effective strategy is the foot-in-the-door technique. Using the foot-in-the-door technique, the persuader gets a person to agree to bestow a small favor or to buy a small item, only to later request a larger favor or purchase of a bigger item. The foot-in-the-door technique was demonstrated in a study by Freedman and Fraser in which participants who agreed to post small sign in their yard or sign a petition were more likely to agree to put a large sign in their yard than people who declined the first request. Research on this technique also illustrates the principle of consistency: Our past behavior often directs our future behavior, and we have a desire to maintain consistency once we have a committed to a behavior.

A common application of foot-in-the-door is when teens ask their parents for a small permission (for example, extending curfew by a half-hour) and then asking them for something larger. Having granted the smaller request increases the likelihood that parents will acquiesce with the later, larger request.

How would a storeowner use the foot-in-the-door technique to sell you an expensive product? For example, say that you are buying the latest model smartphone, and the salesperson suggests
you purchase the best data plan. You agree to this. The salesperson then suggests a bigger pur-
chase—the three-year extended warranty. After agreeing to the smaller request, you are more likely
to also agree to the larger request. You may have encountered this if you have bought a car. When
salespeople realize that a buyer intends to purchase a certain model, they might try to get the cus-
tomer to pay for many or most available options on the car.

Unit 4. Conformity, Compliance, and Obedience

В данном разделе рассмотрены такие социальные процессы, как социальное влияние, идентичность, повинове-
ние.

In this unit, we discuss additional ways in which people influence others. The topics of con-
formity, social influence, obedience, and group processes demonstrate the power of the social situ-
ation to change our thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. We begin this section with a discussion of a
famous social psychology experiment that demonstrated how susceptible humans are to outside
social pressures.

CONFORMITY

Solomon Asch conducted several experiments in the 1950s to determine how people are affected
by the thoughts and behaviors of other people. In one study, a group of participants was shown a
series of printed line segments of different lengths: a, b, and c (Figure). Participants were then
shown a fourth line segment: x. They were asked to identify which line segment from the first group
(a, b, or c) most closely resembled the fourth line segment in length.

![Figure](image)

Figure. These line segments illustrate the judgment task in Asch’s conformity study. Which line on
the right—a, b, or c—is the same length as line x on the left?

Each group of participants had only one true, naïve subject. The remaining members of the
group were confederates of the researcher. A confederate is a person who is aware of the experiment
and works for the researcher. Confederates are used to manipulate social situations as part of the
research design, and the true, naïve participants believe that confederates are, like them, unin-
formed participants in the experiment. In Asch’s study, the confederates identified a line segment
that was obviously shorter than the target line—a wrong answer. The naïve participant then had to
identify aloud the line segment that best matched the target line segment.

How often do you think the true participant aligned with the confederates’ response? That is,
how often do you think the group influenced the participant, and the participant gave the wrong
answer? Asch (1955) found that 76% of participants conformed to group pressure at least once by
indicating the incorrect line. Conformity is the change in a person’s behavior to go along with the
group, even if he does not agree with the group. Why would people give the wrong answer? What
factors would increase or decrease someone giving in or conforming to group pressure?

The Asch effect is the influence of the group majority on an individual’s judgment.
What factors make a person more likely to yield to group pressure? Research shows that the size of the majority, the presence of another dissenter, and the public or relatively private nature of responses are key influences on conformity.

- The size of the majority: The greater the number of people in the majority, the more likely an individual will conform. There is, however, an upper limit: a point where adding more members does not increase conformity. In Asch’s study, conformity increased with the number of people in the majority—up to seven individuals. At numbers beyond seven, conformity leveled off and decreased slightly.

- The presence of another dissenter: If there is at least one dissenter, conformity rates drop to near zero.

- The public or private nature of the responses: When responses are made publicly (in front of others), conformity is more likely; however, when responses are made privately (e.g., writing down the response), conformity is less likely.

The finding that conformity is more likely to occur when responses are public than when they are private is the reason government elections require voting in secret, so we are not coerced by others. The Asch effect can be easily seen in children when they have to publicly vote for something. For example, if the teacher asks whether the children would rather have extra recess, no homework, or candy, once a few children vote, the rest will comply and go with the majority. In a different classroom, the majority might vote differently, and most of the children would comply with that majority. When someone’s vote changes if it is made in public versus private, this is known as compliance. Compliance can be a form of conformity. Compliance is going along with a request or demand, even if you do not agree with the request. In Asch’s studies, the participants complied by giving the wrong answers, but privately did not accept that the obvious wrong answers were correct.

Now that you have learned about the Asch line experiments, why do you think the participants conformed? The correct answer to the line segment question was obvious, and it was an easy task. Researchers have categorized the motivation to conform into two types: normative social influence and informational social influence.

In normative social influence, people conform to the group norm to fit in, to feel good, and to be accepted by the group. However, with informational social influence, people conform because they believe the group is competent and has the correct information, particularly when the task or situation is ambiguous. What type of social influence was operating in the Asch conformity studies? Since the line judgment task was unambiguous, participants did not need to rely on the group for information. Instead, participants complied to fit in and avoid ridicule, an instance of normative social influence.

An example of informational social influence may be what to do in an emergency situation. Imagine that you are in a movie theater watching a film and what seems to be smoke comes in the theater from under the emergency exit door. You are not certain that it is smoke—it might be a special effect for the movie, such as a fog machine. When you are uncertain, you will tend to look at the behavior of others in the theater. If other people show concern and get up to leave, you are likely to do the same. However, if others seem unconcerned, you are likely to stay put and continue watching the movie.

How would you have behaved if you were a participant in Asch’s study? Many students say they would not conform, that the study is outdated, and that people nowadays are more independent. To some extent, this may be true. Research suggests that overall rates of conformity may have reduced since the time of Asch’s research. Furthermore, efforts to replicate Asch’s study have made it clear that many factors determine how likely it is that someone will demonstrate conformity to the group. These factors include the participant’s age, gender, and socio-cultural background.

Conformity is one effect of the influence of others on our thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. Another form of social influence is obedience to authority. Obedience is the change of an individ-
ual’s behavior to comply with a demand by an authority figure. People often comply with the request because they are concerned about a consequence if they do not comply. To demonstrate this phenomenon, we review another classic social psychology experiment.

Stanley Milgram was a social psychology professor at Yale who was influenced by the trial of Adolf Eichmann, a Nazi war criminal. Eichmann’s defense for the atrocities he committed was that he was «just following orders». Milgram wanted to test the validity of this defense, so he designed an experiment and initially recruited 40 men for his experiment. The volunteer participants were led to believe that they were participating in a study to improve learning and memory. The participants were told that they were to teach other students (learners) correct answers to a series of test items. The participants were shown how to use a device that they were told delivered electric shocks of different intensities to the learners. The participants were told to shock the learners if they gave a wrong answer to a test item—that the shock would help them to learn. The participants gave (or believed they gave) the learners shocks, which increased in 15-volt increments, all the way up to 450 volts. The participants did not know that the learners were confederates and that the confederates did not actually receive shocks.

In response to a string of incorrect answers from the learners, the participants obediently and repeatedly shocked them. The confederate learners cried out for help, begged the participant teachers to stop, and even complained of heart trouble. Yet, when the researcher told the participant-teachers to continue the shock, 65% of the participants continued the shock to the maximum voltage and to the point that the learner became unresponsive. What makes someone obey authority to the point of potentially causing serious harm to another person?

Several variations of the original Milgram experiment were conducted to test the boundaries of obedience. When certain features of the situation were changed, participants were less likely to continue to deliver shocks (Milgram, 1965). For example, when the setting of the experiment was moved to an office building, the percentage of participants who delivered the highest shock dropped to 48%. When the learner was in the same room as the teacher, the highest shock rate dropped to 40%. When the teachers’ and learners’ hands were touching, the highest shock rate dropped to 30%. When the researcher gave the orders by phone, the rate dropped to 23%. These variations show that when the humanity of the person being shocked was increased, obedience decreased. Similarly, when the authority of the experimenter decreased, so did obedience.

This case is still very applicable today. What does a person do if an authority figure orders something done? What if the person believes it is incorrect, or worse, unethical? In a study by Martin and Bull, midwives privately filled out a questionnaire regarding best practices and expectations in delivering a baby. Then, a more senior midwife and supervisor asked the junior midwives to do something they had previously stated they were opposed to. Most of the junior midwives were obedient to authority, going against their own beliefs.

GROUPTHINK

When in group settings, we are often influenced by the thoughts, feelings, and behaviors around us. Whether it is due to normative or informational social influence, groups have power to influence individuals. Another phenomenon of group conformity is groupthink. Groupthink is the modification of the opinions of members of a group to align with what they believe is the group consensus. In group situations, the group often takes action that individuals would not perform outside the group setting because groups make more extreme decisions than individuals do. Moreover, groupthink can hinder opposing trains of thought. This elimination of diverse opinions contributes to faulty decision by the group.

Why does groupthink occur? There are several causes of groupthink, which makes it preventable. When the group is highly cohesive, or has a strong sense of connection, maintaining group harmony may become more important to the group than making sound decisions. If the group
leader is directive and makes his opinions known, this may discourage group members from disagreeing with the leader. If the group is isolated from hearing alternative or new viewpoints, group-think may be more likely. How do you know when groupthink is occurring?

There are several symptoms of groupthink including the following:
- perceiving the group as invulnerable or invincible—believing it can do no wrong
- believing the group is morally correct
- self-censorship by group members, such as withholding information to avoid disrupting the group consensus
- the quashing of dissenting group members’ opinions
- the shielding of the group leader from dissenting views
- perceiving an illusion of unanimity among group members
- holding stereotypes or negative attitudes toward the out-group or others’ with differing viewpoints.

Given the causes and symptoms of groupthink, how can it be avoided? There are several strategies that can improve group decision making including seeking outside opinions, voting in private, having the leader withhold position statements until all group members have voiced their views, conducting research on all viewpoints, weighing the costs and benefits of all options, and developing a contingency plan.

GROUP POLARIZATION

Another phenomenon that occurs within group settings is group polarization. Group polarization is the strengthening of an original group attitude after the discussion of views within a group. That is, if a group initially favors a viewpoint, after discussion the group consensus is likely a stronger endorsement of the viewpoint. Conversely, if the group was initially opposed to a viewpoint, group discussion would likely lead to stronger opposition. Group polarization explains many actions taken by groups that would not be undertaken by individuals. Group polarization can be observed at political conventions, when platforms of the party are supported by individuals who, when not in a group, would decline to support them. A more everyday example is a group’s discussion of how attractive someone is. Does your opinion change if you find someone attractive, but your friends do not agree? If your friends vociferously agree, might you then find this person even more attractive?

1. Social Facilitation. Not all intergroup interactions lead to the negative outcomes we have described. Sometimes being in a group situation can improve performance. Social facilitation occurs when an individual performs better when an audience is watching than when the individual performs the behavior alone. This typically occurs when people are performing a task for which they are skilled. Can you think of an example in which having an audience could improve performance? One common example is sports. Skilled basketball players will be more likely to make a free throw basket when surrounded by a cheering audience than when playing alone in the gym. However, there are instances when even skilled athletes can have difficulty under pressure. For example, if an athlete is less skilled or nervous about making a free throw, having an audience may actually hinder rather than help. In sum, social facilitation is likely to occur for easy tasks, or tasks at which we are skilled, but worse performance may occur when performing in front of others, depending on the task.

Types of Social Influence
2. **Social Loafing.** Another way in which a group presence can affect our performance is social loafing. Social loafing is the exertion of less effort by a person working together with a group. Social loafing occurs when our individual performance cannot be evaluated separately from the group. Thus, group performance declines on easy tasks. Essentially individual group members loaf and let other group members pick up the slack. Because each individual’s efforts cannot be evaluated, individuals become less motivated to perform well. For example, consider a group of people cooperating to clean litter from the roadside. Some people will exert a great amount of effort, while others will exert little effort. Yet the entire job is done, and it may not be obvious who worked hard and who didn’t.

As a student, you may have experienced social loafing while working on a group project. Have you ever had to contribute more than your fair share because your fellow group members weren’t putting in the work? This may happen when a professor assigns a group grade instead of individual grades. If the professor doesn’t know how much effort each student contributed to a project, some students may be inclined to let more conscientious students do more of the work. The chance of social loafing in student work groups increases as the size of the group increases.

Interestingly, the opposite of social loafing occurs when the task is complex and difficult. Remember the previous discussion of choking under pressure? This happens when you perform a difficult task and your individual performance can be evaluated. In a group setting, such as the student work group, if your individual performance cannot be evaluated, there is less pressure for you to do well, and thus less anxiety or physiological arousal. This puts you in a relaxed state in which you can perform your best, if you choose. If the task is a difficult one, many people feel motivated and believe that their group needs their input to do well on a challenging project. Given what you learned about social loafing, what advice would you give a new professor about how to design group projects? If you suggested that individuals’ efforts should not be evaluated, to prevent
the anxiety of choking under pressure, but that the task must be challenging, you have a good understanding of the concepts discussed in this section. Alternatively, you can suggest that individuals’ efforts should be evaluated, but the task should be easy so as to facilitate performance. Good luck trying to convince your professor to only assign easy projects.

The Figure summarizes the types of social influence you have learned about in this unit.

Unit 5. Prejudice and Discrimination

В данном разделе рассмотрены определения предрассудков и дискриминации, примеры этих понятий и причины этих предубеждений.

Human conflict can result in crime, war, and mass murder, such as genocide. Prejudice and discrimination often are root causes of human conflict, which explains how strangers come to hate one another to the extreme of causing others harm. Prejudice and discrimination affect everyone. In this unit, we will examine the definitions of prejudice and discrimination, examples of these concepts, and causes of these biases.

UNDERSTANDING PREJUDICE AND DISCRIMINATION

Humans are very diverse and although we share many similarities, we also have many differences. The social groups we belong to help form our identities. These differences may be difficult for some people to reconcile, which may lead to prejudice toward people who are different. Prejudice is a negative attitude and feeling toward an individual based solely on one’s membership in a particular social group. Prejudice is common against people who are members of an unfamiliar cultural group. Thus, certain types of education, contact, interactions, and building relationships with members of different cultural groups can reduce the tendency toward prejudice. In fact, simply imagining interacting with members of different cultural groups might affect prejudice. Indeed, when experimental participants were asked to imagine themselves positively interacting with someone from a different group, this led to an increased positive attitude toward the other group and an increase in positive traits associated with the other group. Furthermore, imagined social interaction can reduce anxiety associated with inter-group interactions. What are some examples of social groups that you belong to that contribute to your identity? Social groups can include gender, race, ethnicity, nationality, social class, religion, sexual orientation, profession, and many more. And, as is true for social roles, you can simultaneously be a member of more than one social group. An example of prejudice is having a negative attitude toward people who are not born in the United States. Although people holding this prejudiced attitude do not know all people who were not born in the United States, they dislike them due to their status as foreigners.

Can you think of a prejudiced attitude you have held toward a group of people? How did your prejudice develop? Prejudice often begins in the form of a stereotype—that is, a negative belief about individuals based solely on their membership in a group, regardless of their individual characteristics. Stereotypes become overgeneralized and applied to all members of a group. For example, someone holding prejudiced attitudes toward older adults, may believe that older adults are slow and incompetent. We cannot possibly know each individual person of advanced age to know that all older adults are slow and incompetent. Therefore, this negative belief is overgeneralized to all members of the group, even though many of the individual group members may in fact be spry and intelligent.
Another example of a well-known stereotype involves beliefs about racial differences among athletes. As Hodge, Burden, Robinson, and Bennett point out, Black male athletes are often believed to be more athletic, yet less intelligent, than their White male counterparts. These beliefs persist despite a number of high profile examples to the contrary. Sadly, such beliefs often influence how these athletes are treated by others and how they view themselves and their own capabilities. Whether or not you agree with a stereotype, stereotypes are generally well-known within in a given culture. Sometimes people will act on their prejudiced attitudes toward a group of people, and this behavior is known as discrimination. **Discrimination** is negative action toward an individual as a result of one’s membership in a particular group about a particular group, people often treat the target of prejudice poorly, such as excluding older adults from their circle of friends. Figure summarizes the characteristics of stereotypes, prejudice, and discrimination. Have you ever been the target of discrimination? If so, how did this negative treatment make you feel?

So far, we’ve discussed stereotypes, prejudice, and discrimination as negative thoughts, feelings, and behaviors because these are typically the most problematic. However, it is important to also point out that people can hold positive thoughts, feelings, and behaviors toward individuals based on group membership; for example, they would show preferential treatment for people who are like themselves—that is, who share the same gender, race, or favorite sports team.

**TYPES OF PREJUDICE AND DISCRIMINATION**

When we meet strangers we automatically process three pieces of information about them: their race, gender, and age. Why are these aspects of an unfamiliar person so important? Why don’t we instead notice whether their eyes are friendly, whether they are smiling, their height, the type of clothes they are wearing? Although these secondary characteristics are important in forming a first impression of a stranger, the social categories of race, gender, and age provide a wealth of information about an individual. This information, however, often is based on stereotypes. We may have
different expectations of strangers depending on their race, gender, and age. What stereotypes and prejudices do you hold about people who are from a race, gender, and age group different from your own?

1. **Racism.** Racism is prejudice and discrimination against an individual based solely on one’s membership in a specific racial group (such as toward African Americans, Asian Americans, Latinos, Native Americans, European Americans). What are some stereotypes of various racial or ethnic groups? Research suggests cultural stereotypes for Asian Americans include cold, sly, and intelligent; for Latinos, cold and unintelligent; for European Americans, cold and intelligent; and for African Americans, aggressive, athletic, and more likely to be law breakers.

Racism exists for many racial and ethnic groups. For example, Blacks are significantly more likely to have their vehicles searched during traffic stops than Whites, particularly when Blacks are driving in predominately White neighborhoods, (a phenomenon often termed «DWB», or «driving while Black».

Mexican Americans and other Latino groups also are targets of racism from the police and other members of the community. For example, when purchasing items with a personal check, Latino shoppers are more likely than White shoppers to be asked to show formal identification.

In one case of alleged harassment by the police, several East Haven, Connecticut, police officers were arrested on federal charges due to reportedly continued harassment and brutalization of Latinos. When the accusations came out, the mayor of East Haven was asked, «What are you doing for the Latino community today?». The Mayor responded, «I might have tacos when I go home, I’m not quite sure yet». This statement undermines the important issue of racial profiling and police harassment of Latinos, while belittling Latino culture by emphasizing an interest in a food product stereotypically associated with Latinos.

Racism is prevalent toward many other groups in the United States including Native Americans, Arab Americans, Jewish Americans, and Asian Americans. Have you witnessed racism toward any of these racial or ethnic groups? Are you aware of racism in your community?

One reason modern forms of racism, and prejudice in general, are hard to detect is related to the dual attitudes model. Humans have two forms of attitudes: explicit attitudes, which are conscious and controllable, and implicit attitudes, which are unconscious and uncontrollable. Because holding egalitarian views is socially desirable, most people do not show extreme racial bias or other prejudices on measures of their explicit attitudes. However, measures of implicit attitudes often show evidence of mild to strong racial bias or other prejudices.

2. **Sexism.** Sexism is prejudice and discrimination toward individuals based on their sex. Typically, sexism takes the form of men holding biases against women, but either sex can show sexism toward their own or their opposite sex. Like racism, sexism may be subtle and difficult to detect. Common forms of sexism in modern society include gender role expectations, such as expecting women to be the caretakers of the household. Sexism also includes people's expectations for how members of a gender group should behave. For example, women are expected to be friendly, passive, and nurturing, and when women behave in an unfriendly, assertive, or neglectful manner they often are disliked for violating their gender role. Research by Laurie Rudman finds that when female job applicants self-promote, they are likely to be viewed as competent, but they may be disliked and are less likely to be hired because they violated gender expectations for modesty. Sexism can exist on a societal level such as in hiring, employment opportunities, and education. Women are less likely to be hired or promoted in male-dominated professions such as engineering, aviation, and construction. Have you ever experienced or witnessed sexism? Think about your family members’ jobs or careers. Why do you think there are differences in the jobs women and men have, such as more women nurses but more male surgeons?

3. **Ageism.** People often form judgments and hold expectations about people based on their age. These judgments and expectations can lead to ageism, or prejudice and discrimination toward individuals based solely on their age. Typically, ageism occurs against older adults, but ageism also can occur toward younger adults. Think of expectations you hold for older adults. How could some-
one’s expectations influence the feelings they hold toward individuals from older age groups? Ageism is widespread in U.S. culture, and a common ageist attitude toward older adults is that they are incompetent, physically weak, and slow and some people consider older adults less attractive. Some cultures, however, including some Asian, Latino, and African American cultures, both outside and within the United States afford older adults respect and honor.

Ageism can also occur toward younger adults. What expectations do you hold toward younger people? Does society expect younger adults to be immature and irresponsible? How might these two forms of ageism affect a younger and older adult who are applying for a sales clerk position?

4. Homophobia. Another form of prejudice is homophobia: prejudice and discrimination of individuals based solely on their sexual orientation. Like ageism, homophobia is a widespread prejudice in U.S. society that is tolerated by many people. Negative feelings often result in discrimination, such as the exclusion of lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) people from social groups and the avoidance of LGBT neighbors and co-workers. This discrimination also extends to employers deliberately declining to hire qualified LGBT job applicants. Have you experienced or witnessed homophobia? If so, what stereotypes, prejudiced attitudes, and discrimination were evident?

WHY DO PREJUDICE AND DISCRIMINATION EXIST?

Prejudice and discrimination persist in society due to social learning and conformity to social norms. Children learn prejudiced attitudes and beliefs from society: their parents, teachers, friends, the media, and other sources of socialization, such as Facebook. If certain types of prejudice and discrimination are acceptable in a society, there may be normative pressures to conform and share those prejudiced beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors. For example, public and private schools are still somewhat segregated by social class. Historically, only children from wealthy families could afford to attend private schools, whereas children from middle- and low-income families typically attended public schools. If a child from a low-income family received a merit scholarship to attend a private school, how might the child be treated by classmates? Can you recall a time when you held prejudiced attitudes or beliefs or acted in a discriminatory manner because your group of friends expected you to?

STEREOTYPES AND SELF-FULFILLING PROPHECY

When we hold a stereotype about a person, we have expectations that he or she will fulfill that stereotype. A self-fulfilling prophecy is an expectation held by a person that alters his or her behavior in a way that tends to make it true. When we hold stereotypes about a person, we tend to treat the person according to our expectations. This treatment can influence the person to act according to our stereotypic expectations, thus confirming our stereotypic beliefs. Research by Rosenthal and Jacobson found that disadvantaged students whose teachers expected them to perform well had higher grades than disadvantaged students whose teachers expected them to do poorly.

Consider this example of cause and effect in a self-fulfilling prophecy: If an employer expects an openly gay male job applicant to be incompetent, the potential employer might treat the applicant negatively during the interview by engaging in less conversation, making little eye contact, and generally behaving coldly toward the applicant. In turn, the job applicant will perceive that the potential employer dislikes him, and he will respond by giving shorter responses to interview questions, making less eye contact, and generally disengaging from the interview. After the interview, the employer will reflect on the applicant’s behavior, which seemed cold and distant, and the employer will conclude, based on the applicant’s poor performance during the interview, that the applicant was in fact incompetent. Thus, the employer’s stereotype — gay men are incompetent and do not make good employees — is reinforced. Do you think this job applicant is likely to be hired? Treating individuals according to stereotypic beliefs can lead to prejudice and discrimination.
Another dynamic that can reinforce stereotypes is confirmation bias. When interacting with the target of our prejudice, we tend to pay attention to information that is consistent with our stereotypic expectations and ignore information that is inconsistent with our expectations. In this process, known as **confirmation bias**, we seek out information that supports our stereotypes and ignore information that is inconsistent with our stereotypes. In the job interview example, the employer may not have noticed that the job applicant was friendly and engaging, and that he provided competent responses to the interview questions in the beginning of the interview. Instead, the employer focused on the job applicant’s performance in the later part of the interview, after the applicant changed his demeanor and behavior to match the interviewer’s negative treatment.

Have you ever fallen prey to the self-fulfilling prophecy or confirmation bias, either as the source or target of such bias? How might we stop the cycle of the self-fulfilling prophecy? Social class stereotypes of individuals tend to arise when information about the individual is ambiguous. If information is unambiguous, stereotypes do not tend to arise.

**IN-GROUPS AND OUT-GROUPS**

So, we all belong to a gender, race, age, and social economic group. These groups provide a powerful source of our identity and self-esteem. These groups serve as our in-groups. An in-group is a group that we identify with or see ourselves as belonging to. A group that we don’t belong to, or an out-group, is a group that we view as fundamentally different from us. For example, if you are female, your gender in-group includes all females, and your gender out-group includes all males. People often view gender groups as being fundamentally different from each other in personality traits, characteristics, social roles, and interests. Because we often feel a strong sense of belonging and emotional connection to our in-groups, we develop in-group bias: a preference for our own group over other groups. This in-group bias can result in prejudice and discrimination because the out-group is perceived as different and is less preferred than our in-group.

Despite the group dynamics that seem only to push groups toward conflict, there are forces that promote reconciliation between groups: the expression of empathy, of acknowledgment of past suffering on both sides, and the halt of destructive behaviors.

One function of prejudice is to help us feel good about ourselves and maintain a positive self-concept. This need to feel good about ourselves extends to our in-groups: We want to feel good and protect our in-groups. We seek to resolve threats individually and at the in-group level. This often happens by blaming an out-group for the problem. Scapegoating is the act of blaming an out-group when the in-group experiences frustration or is blocked from obtaining a goal.

**Unit 6. Aggression**

В данном разделе рассмотрена проблема человеческой агрессии.

Throughout this unit, we have discussed how people interact and influence one another’s thoughts, feelings, and behaviors in both positive and negative ways. People can work together to achieve great things, such as helping each other in emergencies: recall the heroism displayed during the 9/11 terrorist attacks. People also can do great harm to one another, such as conforming to group norms that are immoral and obeying authority to the point of murder: consider the mass conformity of Nazis during WWII. In this unit we will discuss a negative side of human behavior — aggression.

**AGGRESSION**

Humans engage in **aggression** when they seek to cause harm or pain to another person. Aggression takes two forms depending on one’s motives: hostile or instrumental. Hostile aggression
is motivated by feelings of anger with intent to cause pain; a fight in a bar with a stranger is an example of hostile aggression. In contrast, instrumental aggression is motivated by achieving a goal and does not necessarily involve intent to cause pain; a contract killer who murders for hire displays instrumental aggression.

There are many different theories as to why aggression exists. Some researchers argue that aggression serves an evolutionary function. Men are more likely than women to show aggression. From the perspective of evolutionary psychology, human male aggression, like that in nonhuman primates, likely serves to display dominance over other males, both to protect a mate and to perpetuate the male’s genes. Sexual jealousy is part of male aggression; males endeavor to make sure their mates are not copulating with other males, thus ensuring their own paternity of the female’s offspring. Although aggression provides an obvious evolutionary advantage for men, women also engage in aggression. Women typically display instrumental forms of aggression, with their aggression serving as a means to an end. For example, women may express their aggression covertly, for example, by communication that impairs the social standing of another person. Another theory that explains one of the functions of human aggression is frustration aggression theory. This theory states that when humans are prevented from achieving an important goal, they become frustrated and aggressive.

1. **Bullying.** A modern form of aggression is bullying. As you learn in your study of child development, socializing and playing with other children is beneficial for children’s psychological development. However, as you may have experienced as a child, not all play behavior has positive outcomes. Some children are aggressive and want to play roughly. Other children are selfish and do not want to share toys. One form of negative social interactions among children that has become a national concern is bullying. Bullying is repeated negative treatment of another person, often an adolescent, over time. A one-time incident in which one child hits another child on the playground would not be considered bullying: Bullying is repeated behavior. The negative treatment typical in bullying is the attempt to inflict harm, injury, or humiliation, and bullying can include physical or verbal attacks. However, bullying doesn’t have to be physical or verbal, it can be psychological. Research finds gender differences in how girls and boys bully others. Boys tend to engage in direct, physical aggression such as physically harming others. Girls tend to engage in indirect, social forms of aggression such as spreading rumors, ignoring, or socially isolating others. Based on what you have learned about child development and social roles, why do you think boys and girls display different types of bullying behavior?

Bullying involves three parties: the bully, the victim, and witnesses or bystanders. The act of bullying involves an imbalance of power with the bully holding more power—physically, emotionally, and/or socially over the victim. The experience of bullying can be positive for the bully, who may enjoy a boost to self-esteem. However, there are several negative consequences of bullying for the victim, and also for the bystanders. How do you think bullying negatively impacts adolescents? Being the victim of bullying is associated with decreased mental health, including experiencing anxiety and depression. Victims of bullying may underperform in schoolwork. Bullying also can result in the victim committing suicide. How might bullying negatively affect witnesses?

Although there is not one single personality profile for who becomes a bully and who becomes a victim of bullying, researchers have identified some patterns in children who are at a greater risk of being bullied:

- Children who are emotionally reactive are at a greater risk for being bullied. Bullies may be attracted to children who get upset easily because the bully can quickly get an emotional reaction from them.
- Children who are different from others are likely to be targeted for bullying. Children who are overweight, cognitively impaired, or racially or ethnically different from their peer group may be at higher risk.
- Gay, lesbian, bisexual, and transgender teens are at very high risk of being bullied and hurt due to their sexual orientation.
2. **Cyberbullying.** With the rapid growth of technology, and widely available mobile technology and social networking media, a new form of bullying has emerged: cyberbullying. Cyberbullying, like bullying, is repeated behavior that is intended to cause psychological or emotional harm to another person. What is unique about cyberbullying is that it is typically covert, concealed, done in private, and the bully can remain anonymous. This anonymity gives the bully power, and the victim may feel helpless, unable to escape the harassment, and unable to retaliate.

Cyberbullying can take many forms, including harassing a victim by spreading rumors, creating a website defaming the victim, and ignoring, insulting, laughing at, or teasing the victim. In cyberbullying, it is more common for girls to be the bullies and victims because cyberbullying is nonphysical and is a less direct form of bullying. Interestingly, girls who become cyberbullies often have been the victims of cyberbullying at one time. The effects of cyberbullying are just as harmful as traditional bullying and include the victim feeling frustration, anger, sadness, helplessness, powerlessness, and fear. Victims will also experience lower self-esteem. Furthermore, recent research suggests that both cyberbullying victims and perpetrators are more likely to experience suicidal ideation, and they are more likely to attempt suicide than individuals who have no experience with cyberbullying. What features of technology make cyberbullying easier and perhaps more accessible to young adults? What can parents, teachers, and social networking websites, like Facebook, do to prevent cyberbullying?

**THE BYSTANDER EFFECT**

The discussion of bullying highlights the problem of witnesses not intervening to help a victim. This is a common occurrence, as the following well-publicized event demonstrates. In 1964, in Queens, New York, a 19-year-old woman named Kitty Genovese was attacked by a person with a knife near the back entrance to her apartment building and again in the hallway inside her apartment building. When the attack occurred, she screamed for help numerous times and eventually died from her stab wounds. This story became famous because reportedly numerous residents in the apartment building heard her cries for help and did nothing—neither helping her nor summoning the police—though these have facts been disputed.

Based on this case, researchers Latané and Darley (1968) described a phenomenon called the bystander effect. The bystander effect is a phenomenon in which a witness or bystander does not volunteer to help a victim or person in distress. Instead, they just watch what is happening. Social psychologists hold that we make these decisions based on the social situation, not our own personality variables. Why do you think the bystanders didn’t help Genovese? What are the benefits to helping her? What are the risks? It is very likely you listed more costs than benefits to helping. In this situation, bystanders likely feared for their own lives—if they went to her aid the attacker might harm them. However, how difficult would it have been to make a phone call to the police from the safety of their apartments? Why do you think no one helped in any way? Social psychologists claim that diffusion of responsibility is the likely explanation. Diffusion of responsibility is the tendency for no one in a group to help because the responsibility to help is spread throughout the group. Because there were many witnesses to the attack on Genovese, as evidenced by the number of lit apartment windows in the building, individuals assumed someone else must have already called the police. The responsibility to call the police was diffused across the number of witnesses to the crime. Have you ever passed an accident on the freeway and assumed that a victim or certainly another motorist has already reported the accident? In general, the greater the number of bystanders, the less likely any one person will help.
You’ve learned about many of the negative behaviors of social psychology, but the field also studies many positive social interactions and behaviors. What makes people like each other? With whom are we friends? Whom do we date? Researchers have documented several features of the situation that influence whether we form relationships with others. There are also universal traits that humans find attractive in others. In this unit, we discuss conditions that make forming relationships more likely, what we look for in friendships and romantic relationships, the different types of love, and a theory explaining how our relationships are formed, maintained, and terminated.

**PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR AND ALTRUISM**

Do you voluntarily help others? Voluntary behavior with the intent to help other people is called **prosocial behavior**. Why do people help other people? Is personal benefit such as feeling good about oneself the only reason people help one another? Research suggests there are many other reasons. **Altruism** is people’s desire to help others even if the costs outweigh the benefits of helping. In fact, people acting in altruistic ways may disregard the personal costs associated with helping. For example, news accounts of the 9/11 terrorist attacks on the World Trade Center in New York reported an employee in the first tower helped his co-workers make it to the exit stairwell. After helping a co-worker to safety he went back in the burning building to help additional co-workers. In this case the costs of helping were great, and the hero lost his life in the destruction.

Some researchers suggest that altruism operates on empathy. **Empathy** is the capacity to understand another person’s perspective, to feel what he or she feels. An empathetic person makes an emotional connection with others and feels compelled to help. Other researchers argue that altruism is a form of selfless helping that is not motivated by benefits or feeling good about oneself. Certainly, after helping, people feel good about themselves, but some researchers argue that this is a consequence of altruism, not a cause. Other researchers argue that helping is always self-serving because our egos are involved, and we receive benefits from helping. It is challenging to determine experimentally the true motivation for helping, whether is it largely self-serving (egoism) or selfless (altruism). Thus, a debate on whether pure altruism exists continues.

What do you think is the single most influential factor in determining with whom you become friends and whom you form romantic relationships? You might be surprised to learn that the answer is simple: the people with whom you have the most contact. This most important factor is proximity. You are more likely to be friends with people you have regular contact with. For example, there are decades of research that shows that you are more likely to become friends with people who live in your dorm, your apartment building, or your immediate neighborhood than with people who live farther away. It is simply easier to form relationships with people you see often because you have the opportunity to get to know them.

**Similarity** is another factor that influences who we form relationships with. We are more likely to become friends or lovers with someone who is similar to us in background, attitudes, and lifestyle. In fact, there is no evidence that opposites attract. Rather, we are attracted to people who are most like us. Why do you think we are attracted to people who are similar to us? Sharing things in common will certainly make it easy to get along with others and form connections. When you and another person share similar music taste, hobbies, food preferences, and so on, deciding what to do with your time together might be easy. **Homophily** is the tendency for people to form social networks, including friendships, marriage, business relationships, and many other types of relationships, with others who are similar.

However, homophily limits our exposure to diversity. By forming relationships only with people who are similar to us, we will have homogenous groups and will not be exposed to different
points of view. In other words, because we are likely to spend time with those who are most like ourselves, we will have limited exposure to those who are different than ourselves, including people of different races, ethnicities, social-economic status, and life situations.

Once we form relationships with people, we desire reciprocity. Reciprocity is the give and take in relationships. We contribute to relationships, but we expect to receive benefits as well. That is, we want our relationships to be a two way street. We are more likely to like and engage with people who like us back. Self-disclosure is part of the two way street. Self-disclosure is the sharing of personal information. We form more intimate connections with people with whom we disclose important information about ourselves. Indeed, self-disclosure is a characteristic of healthy intimate relationships, as long as the information disclosed is consistent with our own views.

**ATTRACTION**

We have discussed how proximity and similarity lead to the formation of relationships, and that reciprocity and self-disclosure are important for relationship maintenance. But, what features of a person do we find attractive? We don’t form relationships with everyone that lives or works near us, so how is it that we decide which specific individuals we will select as friends and lovers?

Researchers have documented several characteristics in men and women that humans find attractive. First we look for friends and lovers who are physically attractive. People differ in what they consider attractive, and attractiveness is culturally influenced. Research, however, suggests that some universally attractive features in women include large eyes, high cheekbones, a narrow jaw line, a slender build, and a lower waist-to-hip ratio. For men, attractive traits include being tall, having broad shoulders, and a narrow waist. Both men and women with high levels of facial and body symmetry are generally considered more attractive than asymmetric individuals. Social traits that people find attractive in potential female mates include warmth, affection, and social skills; in males, the attractive traits include achievement, leadership qualities, and job skills. Although humans want mates who are physically attractive, this does not mean that we look for the most attractive person possible. In fact, this observation has led some to propose what is known as the matching hypothesis which asserts that people tend to pick someone they view as their equal in physical attractiveness and social desirability. For example, you and most people you know likely would say that a very attractive movie star is out of your league. So, even if you had proximity to that person, you likely would not ask them out on a date because you believe you likely would be rejected. People weigh a potential partner’s attractiveness against the likelihood of success with that person. If you think you are particularly unattractive (even if you are not), you likely will seek partners that are fairly unattractive (that is, unattractive in physical appearance or in behavior).

**STERNBERG’S TRIANGULAR THEORY OF LOVE**

We typically love the people with whom we form relationships, but the type of love we have for our family, friends, and lovers differs. Robert Sternberg proposed that there are three components of love: intimacy, passion, and commitment. These three components form a triangle that defines multiple types of love: this is known as Sternberg’s triangular theory of love. Intimacy is the sharing of details and intimate thoughts and emotions. Passion is the physical attraction—the flame in the fire. Commitment is standing by the person—the «in sickness and health» part of the relationship.

Sternberg states that a healthy relationship will have all three components of love—intimacy, passion, and commitment, which is described as consummate love. However, different aspects of love might be more prevalent at different life stages. Other forms of love include liking, which is defined as having intimacy but no passion or commitment. Infatuation is the presence of passion without intimacy or commitment. Empty love is having commitment without intimacy or passion. Companionate love, which is characteristic of close friendships and family relationships, consists of
intimacy and commitment but no passion. Romantic love is defined by having passion and inti-
macy, but no commitment. Finally, fatuous love is defined by having passion and commitment, but
no intimacy, such as a long term sexual love affair. Can you describe other examples of relationships
that fit these different types of love?

SOCIAL EXCHANGE THEORY

We have discussed why we form relationships, what attracts us to others, and different types
of love. But what determines whether we are satisfied with and stay in a relationship? One theory
that provides an explanation is social exchange theory. According to social exchange theory, we act
as naïve economists in keeping a tally of the ratio of costs and benefits of forming and maintaining
a relationship with others.

People are motivated to maximize the benefits of social exchanges, or relationships, and mini-
mize the costs. People prefer to have more benefits than costs, or to have nearly equal costs and
benefits, but most people are dissatisfied if their social exchanges create more costs than benefits.
Let’s discuss an example. If you have ever decided to commit to a romantic relationship, you prob-
ably considered the advantages and disadvantages of your decision. What are the benefits of being
in a committed romantic relationship? You may have considered having companionship, intimacy,
and passion, but also being comfortable with a person, you know well. What are the costs of being
in a committed romantic relationship? You may think that over time boredom from being with only
one person may set in; moreover, it may be expensive to share activities such as attending movies
and going to dinner. However, the benefits of dating your romantic partner presumably outweigh
the costs, or you wouldn’t continue the relationship.

TASKS TO CHAPTER 5

Review Questions

1. As a field, social psychology focuses on _______ in predicting human behavior.
   a. personality traits
   b. genetic predispositions
   c. biological forces
   d. situational factors

2. Making internal attributions for your successes and making external attributions for your fail-
   ures is an example of _______.
   a. actor-observer bias
   b. fundamental attribution error
   c. self-serving bias
   d. just-world hypothesis

3. Collectivistic cultures are to _______ as individualistic cultures are to _______.
   a. dispositional; situational
   b. situational; dispositional
   c. autonomy; group harmony
   d. just-world hypothesis; self-serving bias

4. According to the actor-observer bias, we have more information about _______.
   a. situational influences on behavior
   b. influences on our own behavior
   c. influences on others’ behavior
   d. dispositional influences on behavior

5. A(n) _______ is a set of group expectations for appropriate thoughts and behaviors of its mem-
   bers.
6. On his first day of soccer practice, Jose suits up in a t-shirt, shorts, and cleats and runs out to the field to join his teammates. Jose’s behavior is reflective of ________.
   a. a script
   b. social influence
   c. good athletic behavior
   d. normative behavior

7. When it comes to buying clothes, teenagers often follow social norms; this is likely motivated by ________.
   a. following parents’ rules
   b. saving money
   c. fitting in
   d. looking good

8. In the Stanford prison experiment, even the lead researcher succumbed to his role as a prison supervisor. This is an example of the power of ________ influencing behavior.
   a. scripts
   b. social norms
   c. conformity
   d. social roles

9. Attitudes describe our ________ of people, objects, and ideas.
   a. treatment
   b. evaluations
   c. cognitions
   d. knowledge

10. Cognitive dissonance causes discomfort because it disrupts our sense of ________.
    a. dependency
    b. unpredictability
    c. consistency
    d. power

11. In order for the central route to persuasion to be effective, the audience must be ________ and ________.
    a. analytical; motivated
    b. attentive; happy
    c. intelligent; unemotional
    d. gullible; distracted

12. Examples of cues used in peripheral route persuasion include all of the following except ________.
    a. celebrity endorsement
    b. positive emotions
    c. attractive models
    d. factual information

13. In the Asch experiment, participants conformed due to ________ social influence.
    a. informational
    b. normative
    c. inspirational
    d. persuasive

14. Under what conditions will informational social influence be more likely?
    a. when individuals want to fit in
    b. when the answer is unclear
c. when the group has expertise
d. both b and c
15. Social loafing occurs when ________.
   a. individual performance cannot be evaluated
   b. the task is easy
   c. both a and b
   d. none of the above
16. If group members modify their opinions to align with a perceived group consensus, then ________ has occurred.
   a. group cohesion
   b. social facilitation
   c. groupthink
   d. social loafing
17. Prejudice is to ________ as discrimination is to ________.
   a. feelings; behavior
   b. thoughts; feelings
   c. feelings; thoughts
   d. behavior; feelings
18. Which of the following is not a type of prejudice?
   a. homophobia
   b. racism
   c. sexism
   d. individualism
19. ________ occurs when the out-group is blamed for the in-group’s frustration.
   a. stereotyping
   b. in-group bias
   c. scapegoating
   d. ageism
20. When we seek out information that supports our stereotypes we are engaged in ________.
   a. scapegoating
   b. confirmation bias
   c. self-fulfilling prophecy
   d. in-group bias
21. Typically, bullying from boys is to ________ as bullying from girls is to ________.
   a. emotional harm; physical harm
   b. physical harm; emotional harm
   c. psychological harm; physical harm
   d. social exclusion; verbal taunting
22. Which of the following adolescents is least likely to be targeted for bullying?
   a. a child with a physical disability
   b. a transgender adolescent
   c. an emotionally sensitive boy
   d. the captain of the football team
23. The bystander effect likely occurs due to ________.
   a. desensitization to violence
   b. people not noticing the emergency
   c. diffusion of responsibility
   d. emotional insensitivity
24. Altruism is a form of prosocial behavior that is motivated by ________.
   a. feeling good about oneself
   b. selfless helping of others
c. earning a reward
d. showing bravery to bystanders

25. After moving to a new apartment building, research suggests that Sam will be most likely to become friends with ________.
   a. his next door neighbor
   b. someone who lives three floors up in the apartment building
   c. someone from across the street
   d. his new postal delivery person

26. What trait do both men and women tend to look for in a romantic partner?
   a. sense of humor
   b. social skills
   c. leadership potential
   d. physical attractiveness

27. According to the triangular theory of love, what type of love is defined by passion and intimacy but no commitment?
   a. consummate love
   b. empty love
   c. romantic love
   d. liking

28. According to social exchange theory, humans want to maximize the ________ and minimize the ________ in relationships.
   a. intimacy; commitment
   b. benefits; costs
   c. costs; benefits
   d. passion; intimacy

Critical Thinking Questions

29. Compare and contrast situational influences and dispositional influences and give an example of each. Explain how situational influences and dispositional influences might explain inappropriate behavior.

30. Provide an example of how people from individualistic and collectivistic cultures would differ in explaining why they won an important sporting event.

31. Why didn’t the “good” guards in the Stanford prison experiment object to other guards’ abusive behavior? Were the student prisoners simply weak people? Why didn’t they object to being abused?

32. Describe how social roles, social norms, and scripts were evident in the Stanford prison experiment. How can this experiment be applied to everyday life? Are there any more recent examples where people started fulfilling a role and became abusive?

33. Give an example (one not used in class or your text) of cognitive dissonance and how an individual might resolve this.

34. Imagine that you work for an advertising agency, and you’ve been tasked with developing an advertising campaign to increase sales of Bliss Soda. How would you develop an advertisement for this product that uses a central route of persuasion? How would you develop an ad using a peripheral route of persuasion?

35. Describe how seeking outside opinions can prevent groupthink.

36. Compare and contrast social loafing and social facilitation.

37. Some people seem more willing to openly display prejudice regarding sexual orientation than prejudice regarding race and gender. Speculate on why this might be.

38. When people blame a scapegoat, how do you think they choose evidence to support the blame?
39. Compare and contrast hostile and instrumental aggression.
40. Describe what influences whether relationships will be formed.
41. The evolutionary theory argues that humans are motivated to perpetuate their genes and reproduce. Using an evolutionary perspective, describe traits in men and women that humans find attractive.

Personal Application Questions

42. Provide a personal example of an experience in which your behavior was influenced by the power of the situation.
43. Think of an example in the media of a sports figure—player or coach—who gives a self-serving attribution for winning or losing. Examples might include accusing the referee of incorrect calls, in the case of losing, or citing their own hard work and talent, in the case of winning.
44. Try attending a religious service very different from your own and see how you feel and behave without knowing the appropriate script. Or, try attending an important, personal event that you have never attended before, such as a bar mitzvah (a coming-of-age ritual in Jewish culture), a quinceañera (in some Latin American cultures a party is given to a girl who is turning 15 years old), a wedding, a funeral, or a sporting event new to you, such as horse racing or bull riding. Observe and record your feelings and behaviors in this unfamiliar setting for which you lack the appropriate script. Do you silently observe the action, or do you ask another person for help interpreting the behaviors of people at the event? Describe in what ways your behavior would change if you were to attend a similar event in the future?
45. Name and describe at least three social roles you have adopted for yourself. Why did you adopt these roles? What are some roles that are expected of you, but that you try to resist?
46. Cognitive dissonance often arises after making an important decision, called post-decision dissonance (or in popular terms, buyer’s remorse). Describe a recent decision you made that caused dissonance and describe how you resolved it.
47. Describe a time when you or someone you know used the foot-in-the-door technique to gain someone’s compliance.
48. Most students adamantly state that they would never have turned up the voltage in the Milgram experiment. Do you think you would have refused to shock the learner? Looking at your own past behavior, what evidence suggests that you would go along with the order to increase the voltage?
49. Give an example when you felt that someone was prejudiced against you. What do you think caused this attitude? Did this person display any discrimination behaviors and, if so, how?
50. Give an example when you felt prejudiced against someone else. How did you discriminate against them? Why do you think you did this?
51. Have you ever experienced or witnessed bullying or cyberbullying? How did it make you feel? What did you do about it? After reading this chapter, would you have done anything differently?
52. The next time you see someone needing help, observe your surroundings. Look to see if the bystander effect is in action and take measures to make sure the person gets help. If you aren’t able to help, notify an adult or authority figure that can.
53. Think about your recent friendships and romantic relationship(s). What factors do you think influenced the development of these relationships? What attracted you to becoming friends or romantic partners?
54. Have you ever used a social exchange theory approach to determine how satisfied you were in a relationship, either a friendship or romantic relationship? Have you ever had the costs outweigh the benefits of a relationship? If so, how did you address this imbalance?
This section is an investigation on the role of educational psychology in the teaching process. Educational psychology is considered as important elements for training and providing teachers with the basic psychological principles of the nature of teaching. Thus, in this research, we try to shed light on the most crucial theories and the educational psychologists provide strategies of teaching that. We try to investigate the importance of teaching the module of psychopedagogy and the role of technology in the teaching learning process. In this research, we investigate and check the attitude of both teachers and students towards the role of educational psychology and the importance of the module of psychopedagogy in the teaching learning process. The present section aims at helping the teachers (present and future specialists) to be knowledgeable with the theories and strategies of educational psychology that may help them in their way of teaching.

CHAPTER 6. PSYCHOLOGICAL AND PEDAGOGICAL EDUCATION

What is educational psychology? An academic definition would perhaps say that educational psychology is the study of learners, learning, and teaching. However, for students who are or expect to be teachers, educational psychology is something more. It is the accumulated knowledge, wisdom, and seat-of-the-pants theory that every teacher should possess to intelligently solve the daily problems of teaching. Educational psychology cannot tell you as a teacher what to do, but it can give you the principles to use in making a good decision and a language to discuss your experiences and thinking.

Unit 1. What Makes a Good Teacher?

What makes a good teacher? Is it warmth, humor, and the ability to care about people? Is it planning, hard work, and self-discipline? What about leadership, enthusiasm, a contagious love of learning, and speaking ability? Most people would agree that all of these qualities are needed to make a good teacher, and they would certainly be correct. However, these qualities are not enough.

KNOWING THE SUBJECT MATTERS (BUT SO DOES TEACHING SKILL)

There is an old joke that goes like this:

Question: What do you need to know to be able to teach a horse?
Answer: More than the horse!

This joke makes the obvious point that the first thing a teacher must have is some knowledge or skills that the learner does not have; you must know the subject matter you plan to teach. But if you think about teaching horses (or children), you will soon realize that although subject matter knowledge is necessary, it is not enough. A rancher may have a good idea of how a horse is supposed to act and what a horse is supposed to be able to do, but if he doesn’t have the skills to make an untrained, scared, and unfriendly animal into a good saddle horse, he’s going to end up with nothing but broken ribs and teeth marks for his trouble. Children are a lot smarter and a little more...
forgiving than horses, but teaching them has this in common with teaching horses: Knowledge of how to transmit information and skills is at least as important as knowledge of the information and skills themselves. We have all had teachers (most often college professors, unfortunately) who were brilliant and thoroughly knowledgeable in their fields but who could not teach.

For effective teaching, subject matter knowledge is not a question of being a walking encyclopedia. Vast knowledge is readily available. However, effective teachers not only know their subjects but also can communicate their knowledge to students. The celebrated high school math teacher Jaime Escalante taught the concept of positive and negative numbers to students in a Los Angeles barrio by explaining that when you dig a hole, you might call the pile of dirt $+1$, the hole $-1$. What do you get when you put the dirt back in the hole? Zero. Escalante’s ability to relate the abstract concept of positive and negative numbers to everyday experience is one example of how the ability to communicate knowledge goes far beyond simply knowing the facts.

MASTERING TEACHING SKILLS

The link between what a teacher wants students to learn and students’ actual learning is called instruction, or pedagogy. Effective instruction is not a simple matter of one person with more knowledge transmitting that knowledge to another. If telling were teaching, this book would be unnecessary. Rather, effective instruction demands the use of many strategies.

For example, suppose teacher wants to teach a lesson on statistics to a diverse class of fourth graders. To do so, teacher must accomplish many related tasks. She must make sure that the class is orderly and that students know what behavior is expected of them. She must find out whether students have the prerequisite skills; for example, students need to be able to add and divide to find averages. If any do not, teacher must find a way to teach students those skills. She must engage students in activities that lead them toward an understanding of statistics, such as having students roll dice, play cards, or collect data from experiments; and she must use teaching strategies that help students remember what they have been taught. The lessons should also take into account the intellectual and social characteristics of students in the fourth grade and the intellectual, social, and cultural characteristics of these particular students. Teacher must make sure that students are interested in the lesson and motivated to learn statistics. To see whether students are learning what is being taught, she may ask questions or use quizzes or have students demonstrate their understanding by setting up and interpreting experiments, and she must respond appropriately if these assessments show that students are having problems. After the series of lessons on statistics ends, teacher should review this topic from time to time to ensure that it is remembered.

These tasks—motivating students, managing the classroom, assessing prior knowledge, communicating ideas effectively, taking into account the characteristics of the learners, assessing learning outcomes, and reviewing information—must be attended to at all levels of education, in or out of schools. They apply as much to the training of astronauts as to the teaching of reading. How these tasks are accomplished, however, differs widely according to the ages of the students, the objectives of instruction, and other factors.

What makes a good teacher is the ability to carry out all the tasks involved in effective instruction. Warmth, enthusiasm, and caring are essential, as is subject matter knowledge and understanding of how children learn. But it is the successful accomplishment of all the tasks of teaching that makes for instructional effectiveness.

CAN GOOD TEACHING BE TAUGHT?

Some people think that good teachers are born that way. Outstanding teachers sometimes seem to have a magic, a charisma that mere mortals could never hope to achieve. Yet research has begun to identify the specific behaviors and skills that make a «magic» teacher. An outstanding teacher does nothing that any other teacher cannot also do—it is just a question of knowing the principles of effective teaching and how to apply them. Take one small example: In a high school history class,
two students in the back of the class are whispering to each other, and they are not discussing the Treaty of Paris! The teacher slowly walks toward them without looking, continuing his lesson as he walks. The students stop whispering and pay attention. If you didn’t know what to look for, you might miss this brief but critical interchange and believe that the teacher just has a way with students, a knack for keeping their attention. But the teacher is simply applying principles of classroom management that anyone could learn: Maintain momentum in the lesson, deal with behavior problems by using the mildest intervention that will work, and resolve minor problems before they become major ones. When Jaime Escalante gave the example of digging a hole to illustrate the concept of positive and negative numbers, he was also applying several important principles of educational psychology: Make abstract ideas concrete by using many examples, relate the content of instruction to the students’ background, state rules, give examples, and then restate rules. Can good teaching be taught? The answer is definitely yes. Good teaching has to be observed and practiced, but there are principles of good teaching that teachers need to know, which can then be applied in the classroom. The major components of effective instruction are summarized in Figure.

THE INTENTIONAL TEACHER

There is no formula for good teaching, no seven steps to Teacher of the Year. Teaching involves planning and preparation, and then dozens of decisions every hour. Yet one attribute seems to be characteristic of outstanding teachers: intentionality. Intentionality means doing things for a reason, on purpose. Intentional teachers will constantly think about the outcomes they want for their students and about how each decision they make moves children toward those outcomes. Intentional teachers know that maximum learning does not happen by chance. Yes, children do learn in unplanned ways all the time, and many will learn from even the most chaotic lesson. But to really challenge students, to get their best efforts, to help them make conceptual leaps and organize and retain new knowledge, teachers need to be purposeful, thoughtful, and flexible, without ever losing sight of their goals for every child. In a word, they need to be intentional.

The idea that teachers should always do things for a reason seems obvious, and in principle it is. Yet in practice, it is difficult to constantly make certain that all students are engaged in activities that lead to important learning outcomes. Teachers very frequently fall into strategies that they themselves would recognize, on reflection, as being time fillers rather than instructionally essential activities. For example, an otherwise outstanding third-grade teacher once assigned seatwork to one of her reading groups. The children were given two sheets of paper with words in squares. Their task was to cut out the squares on one sheet and then paste them onto synonyms on the other. When all the words were pasted correctly, lines on the pasted squares would form an outline of a cat, which the children were then to color. Once the children pasted a few squares, the puzzle became clear, so they could paste the remainder without paying any attention to the words themselves. For almost an hour of precious class time, these children happily cut, pasted, and colored—not highpriority skills for third-graders. The teacher would have said that the objective was for children
to learn or practice synonyms, of course; but in fact the activity could not possibly have moved the children forward on that skill. Similarly, many teachers have one child laboriously work a problem on the chalkboard while the rest of the class has nothing important to do. Many secondary teachers spend most of the class period going over homework and classwork and end up doing very little teaching of new content. Again, these may be excellent teachers in other ways, but they sometimes lose sight of what they are trying to achieve and how they are going to achieve it.

Intentional teachers are constantly asking themselves what goals they and their students are trying to accomplish. Is each portion of their lesson appropriate to students’ background knowledge, skills, and needs? Is each activity or assignment clearly related to a valued outcome? Is each instructional minute used wisely and well? An intentional teacher trying to build students’ synonym skills during follow-up time might have them work in pairs to master a set of synonyms in preparation for individual quizzes. An intentional teacher might have all children work a given problem while one works at the board, so that all can compare answers and strategies together. An intentional teacher might quickly give homework answers for students to check themselves, ask for a show of hands for correct answers, and then review and reteach only those exercises missed by many students to save time for teaching of new content. An intentional teacher uses a wide variety of instructional methods, experiences, assignments, and materials to be sure that children are achieving all sorts of cognitive objectives, from knowledge to application to creativity, and that at the same time children are learning important affective objectives, such as love of learning, respect for others, and personal responsibility. An intentional teacher constantly reflects on his or her practices and outcomes.

Research finds that one of the most powerful predictors of a teacher’s impact on students is the belief that what he or she does makes a difference. This belief, called teacher efficacy, is at the heart of what it means to be an intentional teacher. Teachers who believe that success in school is almost entirely due to children’s inborn intelligence, home environment, or other factors that teachers cannot influence are unlikely to teach in the same way as those who believe that their own efforts are the key to children’s learning. An intentional teacher, one who has a strong belief in her or his efficacy, is more likely to put forth consistent effort, to persist in the face of obstacles, and to keep trying relentlessly until every student succeeds. Intentional teachers achieve a sense of efficacy by constantly assessing the results of their instruction; trying new strategies if their initial instruction doesn’t work; and continually seeking ideas from colleagues, books, magazines, workshops, and other sources to enrich and solidify their teaching skills. Collective efficacy can have a particularly strong impact on student achievement. Groups of teachers, such as the entire faculty of an elementary school or all teachers in a given academic department, can attain collective efficacy by working together to examine their practices and outcomes, seeking professional development, and helping each other succeed.

The most important purpose of this chapter (and whole section) is to give you, tomorrow’s teacher, the intellectual grounding in research, theory, and practical wisdom you will need in order to become an intentional, effective teacher. To plan and carry out effective lessons, discussions, projects, and other learning experiences, teachers need to know a great deal. Besides knowing your subjects, you need to understand the developmental levels and needs of your students. You need to understand how learning, memory, problem-solving skill, and creativity are acquired and how to promote their acquisition. You need to know how to set objectives, organize activities designed to help students attain those objectives, and assess students’ progress toward them. You need to know how to motivate children, how to use class time effectively, and how to respond to individual differences among students. Intentional teachers are continually experimenting with strategies to solve problems of instruction and then observing the results of their actions to see if they were effective. They pay attention to research on effective teaching and incorporate research findings in their daily teaching. Intentional teachers are constantly combining their knowledge of principles of educational psychology, their experience, and their creativity to make instructional decisions and help children become enthusiastic and effective learners.
Below are highlights the ideas that are central to educational psychology and the related research. We also present many examples of how these ideas apply in practice, emphasizing teaching practices, not only theory or suggestions, that have been evaluated and found to be effective. The text is designed to help you develop critical-thinking skills for teaching: a logical and systematic approach to the many dilemmas that are found in practice and research. No text can provide all the right answers for teaching, but this one tries to pose the right questions and to engage you by presenting realistic alternatives and the concepts and research behind them.

Many studies have looked at the differences between expert and novice teachers and between more and less effective teachers. One theme comes through these studies: Expert teachers are critical thinkers. Intentional teachers are constantly upgrading and examining their own teaching practices, reading and attending conferences to learn new ideas, and using their own students’ responses to guide their instructional decisions. There’s an old saying to the effect that there are teachers with 20 years of experience and there are teachers with 1 year of experience 20 times. Teachers who get better each year are the ones who are open to new ideas and who look at their own teaching critically. Perhaps the most important goal of this textbook is to get you in the habit of using informed reflection to become one of tomorrow’s expert teachers.

21ST CENTURY SKILLS

Back when we was growing up, the 21st century was expected to be totally different from the 20th. The Jetsons, for example, projected an image of flying cars, robots in every home, and all sorts of amazing technology. More serious futurologists expected more or less the same. The reality has turned out to be a little more prosaic, but nevertheless, developments in technology and globalization have dramatically changed key aspects of our economy and society. In particular, economic security, for both individuals and for nations, depends more than ever on innovation, creativity, and design. The ability to work cooperatively with others, to see many solutions to problems, and to be flexible and responsive to rapid change are all becoming keys to success, as traditional «strong back» jobs disappear to be replaced by «strong mind» careers.

All of these changes have profound significance for education. They lead educators to put a strong value on skills, attitudes, and ways of working that more closely resemble new workforce conditions. It should go without saying that students need extensive experience with technology, but that is not enough. They also need extensive experience working in groups, solving problems, and learning to read critically and think creatively. Ironically, these kinds of experiences are at the core of the progressive philosophy of John Dewey and many others, which date back to the beginning of the 20th century. What has changed is that these ideas are no longer optional, as they happen to correspond to today’s needs. Moreover, these skills are now needed for everyone, from the executive office to the shop floor.

Consistent with this line of reasoning, a Partnership for 21st Century Skills has been created to promote policies defining and supporting student outcomes that align with today’s needs. The Partnership has created a framework that organizes 21st century skills in four categories, synthesizing suggestions from dozens of stakeholder groups at all levels of education:

1. Core subjects and 21st century themes (such as language arts, mathematics, science, global awareness, and financial literacy).
2. Learning and innovation skills (such as creativity, critical thinking, and problem solving).
3. Information, media, and technology skills.
4. Life and career skills (such as initiative and self-direction).

Educational policies and practices usually lag behind changes in society and the economy. The emphasis on 21st century skills is intended to help you think more deeply about how each of the decisions you make about curriculum, teaching methods, use of technology, assessments, and so on contribute to helping students succeed not only by today’s standards, but also in tomorrow’s world.
Unit 2. An introduction to the educational psychology

В данном разделе рассмотрены исторические и теоретические аспекты преподавания психологии. Изучены различные психологические школы в области развития идей образования и преподавания.

Educational psychology has developed through several periods of time which differ from each other. The roots of educational psychology are emerged from the era of ancient Greek philosophers and develop through times to become a more interesting field in Education. Through the changes of educational psychology, several theories and approaches emerged and studied different issues that have relationships with education as well as psychology. Each one of these approaches and theories has a different point of view on the teaching-learning process.

In this chapter, we try to make a glimpse to the development of educational psychology and its approaches. First, we have to make an investigation on the historical background of educational psychology in short, and then to expose the important approaches of educational psychology.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

The field of educational psychology has a long and prestigious history; it started with the ancient Greek philosophers like Plato and Aristotle. Now, educational psychology is developed to discuss the best methods and strategies of teaching and other issues concerning the learning process such as the relationship between a student and a teacher, and the nature of learning.

In the Sixteenth-century, the Spanish philosopher Juan Luis Vives emphasized on the need of adapting teaching methods according to the students’ levels and needs. Additionally, He also believed that the use of self-comparison assessment methods is better than competition, to evaluate the students’ work.

In the1600s, the Czech theologian and educator Johan Amos Comenius, was the first to introduce visual aids in the classroom. He claimed that understanding is the goal of teaching not memorization. The 1700s is distinguished with several European philosophers such as Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Johann Friedrich Herbart, and Friedrich Wilhelm August Froebel. They focused on the value of activity, prior experience of students, and interest. All these ideas are consistent with current work in educational psychology.

In the 1890s, the philosopher William James wrote the text book principles of psychology then he provided American education psychology with a series of lectures for educators given around the country called «Talks to Teachers about Psychology» which was about the application of psychology in education. He supported the idea that stress on the importance of observing teaching and learning in classroom for improving education. His methods seem to have taken effect: James’ student, G. Stanley Hall, founded the American Psychological Association. Hall wrote prolifically about children and adolescents, encouraging teachers to keep careful records of the academic development of their students.

John Dewey, the student of Hall, is considered to be the father of the progressive education movement. Edward Lee Thorndike was also one of Jame’s students and went on to start the Journal of Educational Psychology in 1910. Thorndike wrote the first textbook on educational psychology at the turn of the twentieth century. For the first half of the century, educational development and psychology remained closely tied, as evidenced by the contributions to education supplied by renowned psychologists Jean Piaget, Alfred Binet, and Benjamin Bloom.

In the 1960s, modern educational psychology was distinguished with the contributions of Jerome Bruner and David Ausubel. Jerome Bruner emphasized on the research into inductive reasoning and discovery learning, but Ausubel disagreed because he emphasized that the learning process must occur deductively.

In the contemporary study of educational psychology, we found three views, which are: Cognitivism, Behaviorism, and Constructivism. Cognitive psychologists look at the learning as a result of mental operations and the focus is not on behavior or behavior change, but on the mental process.
Behaviorism is an approach, which was developed by B. F. Skinner. It sees learning as the information of habits. Environment factors are seen as more important than the student’s mental, internal factors.

Finally, constructivism is a category of learning theory in which emphasis is placed on the agency and prior «knowing» and experience of the learner, and often on the social and cultural determinants of the learning process. According to the constructivist view in educational psychology, the knowledge cannot simply be given to students by teachers. Students must construct knowledge in their own minds.

**EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY**

Educational psychology is one of the most exciting fast growing and dynamic field in psychology today. As Marcia defined, «It is the branch of psychology focused on the development of effective teaching techniques and assessment of learners’ aptitudes and progress».

Educational psychology is also defined by Kaplan «as the application of psychology to education by focusing on the development, evaluation and application of theories and principles of learning and instruction that can enhance lifelong learning». It is the application of the principles and concepts of psychology in the different issues of education such as the development of teaching, learning, motivation, instruction, assessment, and others topics which are concerned with the teaching and learning process.

**APPROACHES TO EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY**

Educational psychology has passed through a number of changes which made a contribution to the development of this field. From these changes, several approaches are emerged, those which are concerned with educational psychology and its issues. The most famous approaches to educational psychology are Behaviorism, Cognitive psychology, and Humanism, and each one of these approaches tackles the scope of educational psychology in a different way, according to its point of view and its principles. However these approaches are different, they have the same aim in mind which is to help persons to reach their possible achievements, efforts, and capacities to develop their levels.

1. **The positivism.** Psychology is grown out of philosophy which is relied on abstract sciences. Its early pioneers neglect the focus on human mental and try to emphasize on the human behavior with «scientific method». Logical behaviorism is focusing on an experiment which is one of the principles of this approach. This approach believed that knowledge and facts which existed in the real world can be discovered by the experiment in which has a certain conditions and where hypotheses are tested.

2. **Behaviorism.** Behaviorism is one of the approaches of psychology which is emerged from the positivism. This approach is concerned with the role of learning in human behaviors. Also it is a theory of learning which claimed that the learner acquired the behavior through conditioning. This approach is developed by famous psychologists such as John B. Watson and B.F. Skinner, Thorndike, Pavlov. Behaviorism is dominated for a half from the twentieth century and its principles and techniques are still applied to help humans learn new skills and behaviors.

The Russian scientist Pavlov, who dealt with dogs in his study, proposed, that a certain response is generated by a certain stimulus at the same time, which is known as S-R (Stimulus Response) theory or classical conditioning. Watson was so influenced by classical conditioning as he said that he could make from a group of adults whatever of types he wants. He proposed that wrong behavior was the result of wrong learning rather than ego defense, and that it could be changed by reconditioning. He also emphasized on the role of environment in the development of behavior.

Skinner and Thorndike were the first to create the phrase «Operant Conditioning» or the idea that behaviors are controlled by the consequences that follow them. «Thorndike laid the foundations for the formulation of the »Law of effect«: a living organism will increase behaviors that are
followed by positive results, and vice versa—behaviors that are followed by negative results will be decreased».

Skinner claimed that the learning was the result of environmental rather than genetic factors. He also emphasized the importance of reinforcement. Skinner believes that positive reinforcing behavior is an effective way to improve and create a new desired behavior. Behaviorist theory thus came to explain learning in terms of operant conditioning. Classical conditioning is linked to the idea of developing involuntary behaviors, while operant conditioning refers to voluntary behaviors». According to Sue et al, behavior is based on classical conditioning which is controlled by stimuli, in operant conditioning reinforcement control behaviors.

Behaviorism in its focus on the observable behavior neglects the role of the learners to create their worlds and the importance of mental processes in the learning process. In addition, this approach relies on the work with animals much more than human being.

However behaviorism denied the importance of the mind, it had a vital influence on education and teaching process. According to Stephen Brookfield, who is a leading adult education theorist, when he wrote in Understanding and Facilitating Adult Learning: «Behaviorism is seen most prominently in contexts where the objectives to be attained are unambiguous, where their attainment can be judged according to commonly agreed upon criteria of successful performance, and where a clear imbalance exists between teachers’ and learners’ areas of expertise. Examples might be learning to give an injection, learning a computer program, learning accountancy procedures, learning to swim, or learning to operate a sophisticated machine...these examples are all located primarily in the domain of task-oriented, instrumental learning, and it is this domain that fits most easily with the behaviorist approach».

3. Cognitivism. Unlike behaviorism, cognitivism is focusing on the mental process behind the human behavior. The cognitive approach emphasizes on the mental process of learning, which contained how human create and store knowledge and memories in the mind then the process in which people become involved in the learning process. Cognitivism concentrates on the internal states, such as motivation, memory, problem solving, decision-making, thinking, attention, and what is going on the learner’s mind.

There are two main schools of cognitive learning psychology, which are the Information Processing approach and Cognitive Constructivism. Each one of these approaches has its point of view on the learning process. The first concentrates on how the information is perceived by the senses then stored and used by the brain. The second is concerned with the idea of constructing knowledge by the mind.

CONSTRUCTIVISM

Constructivism is derived from the cognitive approach with some differences and progress. According to the constructivist psychology, the learners do not just absorb and store the information as a machine, but they must construct knowledge in their own minds. This claims that the teacher can facilitate and explain the learning process by using a meaningful information, which is acknowledgeable to the students and to give them the opportunities to discover and create their own ideas. The main goal of the constructivism is to make the learners able to discover new information and apply it when they need it.

The famous psychologist in this approach was the Swiss Jean Piaget. He focused on the constructive nature of the learning process and on the idea, which claimed that the learner is involved from the birth to construct his own meaning and knowledge.

Piaget considers the cognitive development as a process of maturation, which is «the unfolding of the biological changes that are genetically programmed». Piaget claimed that the cognitive development is influenced by the interaction with the environment «social transmission» or other persons. The amounts of people who can read from the social context are depending on the cognitive
development degree, so both of maturation and social transmission influence the cognitive develop-
ment.

In his study in biology, Piaget stated that human born with two tendencies, which are Organiza-
tion and Adaptation. The first means that the human born with innate ability to organize the
thinking process in psychological structures which are named by Piaget «Schemes». Schemes are
cognitive patterns of information, which are used by individuals to explain, interpret, encode, and
respond to a difficult tasks and hard experiences. The second, adaptation; means that people also
has the tendency to be adapted to their environment. It includes two elements: assimilation which
means that «Fitting new information into existing schemes» and accommodation which means that
«Altering existing schemes or creating new ones in response to new information».

In Piaget’s theory, Equilibration was the primary developmental mechanisms, which is defined
«Equilibration pertains to restoring the balance between two competing tendencies in the mind: assimilation and accommodation».

Piaget claimed that the young people pass through four stages as they develop: are sensorimo-
tor, preoperational, concrete-operational, and formal operational. He is starting with the sensorimo-
tor stage when the child interacts with the real world in ways that are more sophisticated. This stage
involves seeing, hearing, moving, touching, and tasting. The next stage is the Preoperational stage,
when the memory and imagination are developed. According to Piaget, this stage is distinguished
by using symbols and intuition. Piaget used the term Operation to refer to internalized actions, in
other words is to make these actions a part from the children’s imaginations. In the preoperational
stage, reversible thinking is involved in many tasks, which are difficult to the child, such as the
conservation of matter.

The Concrete Operational stage is concerning the concrete issues when the child can understand
the changes or transformations of the concrete objects. Piaget considers the child in this stage to
master the conservation of numbers, which is «an important milestone that reached when a shift in
cognitive thinking occurs».

Finally, there is a move into Formal Operational stage, which is distinguished by the ability of
learners to function and to think logically about abstract concepts.

As a cognitive development psychologist, Piaget has a little implication for educators.

However, his common interpretations are interesting for some teacher-training: «First, it be-
came popular in some teacher-training establishments to interpret Piaget’s views on maturation
and personal experience as indicating that there is no place for direct instruction in teaching...While
this kind of interpretation had the positive effect of encouraging teachers to place more emphasis
upon their classroom as environments in which experiential learning could take place, it also meant
that many teachers of young children, in particular, became insecure as to what an appropriate role
might be for them beyond this».

According to this quotation, Piaget has a little impact on the teacher-training by his views on
maturation and personal experience. According to Lawton and Hooper, Piaget with his theory of
cognitive development made revolutionary changes in the preschool and elementary school curric-
ulum practices and it was a dominant learning theory in educational psychology.

The Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky is another pioneer of constructivism who believes that
the effective learning was enhanced by collaborative social interaction and communication, in other
words; it means that to share the thoughts and knowledge with other person that is more knowl-
edgeable and skillful. This person is known as a mediator in which his role is to guide the learner
in the learning process and helping them to pass to another level of knowledge and understanding.
Vygotsky’s view about the role of social interaction on the learning was termed «social constructiv-
ism» to distinguish it from the cognitive constructivism view of Piaget.

Vygotsky claimed that the purpose of education is to improve and develop the child’s cognitive
processes. The most known concept in his point of view is the Zone of Proximal development. Eloff
and Ebersohn comment on Vygotsky’s concept saying, «his notion concerning the Zone of proximal
development, or the specific learning phase in which a learner can benefit from assistance or help,
is widely accepted and respected as are his views in scaffolding». Vygotsky in his book Mind in
Society: The development of higher psychological process defined the ZPD as «the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peer». Vygotsky made an important contribution to education, especially the ZPD concept.

Jerome Bruner was another psychologist who deals with the thoughts of constructivism. The main theme in his theory was about the concept of learning, which he claimed that «learning is a process in which the learner is able to build on present and previous information», and he believed that the student has the ability to take information and create new thoughts then use them in the appropriate way. Bruner believed that the role of the teacher is to help the students to improve their skills and knowledge by themselves and to simplify the information, which was comprehended and acknowledgeable by them.

HUMANISM

Humanism focuses on the individual growth and development of the inner world of the learner. This approach begins with the theory that learning occurs primarily by the interaction and reflection on the personal experiences of the human. Humanism study the human’s thoughts, feelings, and emotions, which are difficult issues. In the point of view of humanistic psychology, the role of the instructor is to make a connection between the learner’s insights and his experience and the learner or human has the responsibility to choose because he is not a machine to control.

The most well-known humanistic psychologists in humanism are Erik Erikson, Abraham Maslow, and Carl Rogers. Erikson’s theory of psychological development has been an important use for educators and teachers. It provides teachers with a point of view on the development of the child for more than 50 years. The important of Erikson’s theory may be summarized in the following quotation: «…it provides a life-span view of psychology which helps us to recognize learning and development as lifelong, rather than restricted to a particular phase of one’s life. At the same time, by focusing on important tasks at different stages of a person’s life, it enables us to see that real-life learning involves challenges, which often require a particular kind of help from others who are in the position of providing this help, if we are to meet them successfully. It also presents learning as a cumulative process whereby our resolution of one set of life tasks will have a profound influence upon how we deal with subsequent tasks. In addition, education is viewed as involving the whole person, the emotions and feelings; it does not involve merely transmitting pieces of knowledge.

Abraham Harold Maslow’s theory about the human motivation suggested that the human being has a number of needs that can be arranged in a hierarchy. Maslow divided this needs into two parts, deficiency needs and being needs. The first is concerned with the person’s psychological and physiological requirements. It includes need for self-esteem, interpersonal closeness, belongingness and love needs, safety and security, and physiological needs such as food, water, sleep and the absence of pain. The second, being needs, is concerned with the fulfillment of individual potential, as Williams and Burden said «These are related to the fulfillment of individual potential, in terms of cognitive and aesthetic development and the attainment of self-actualization (realizing one’s full potential)». Maslow was stressed on the self-actualization, which is «the need to develop one’s common potential and unique talent at the highest possible level of growth and achievement». He emphasized to make it at the highest in the hierarchy because it will impede when the lower order needs are not satisfied.

Here is a figure, which presents Maslow’s hierarchy of human needs. This figure summarizes the two distinctive categories of needs, deficiency needs and being needs.

Maslow’s idea about human needs helps teachers to know the difficulties, which cope the children when they are missing the basic needs inside or outside the home. Maslow shows the importance of the secure environment in the learning and how the encouragement of thinking and creativity by the teacher can help students to improve themselves. He also focuses on the kind of activities which must encourage curiosity for make the learners reach their full potential.
Carl Rogers is an important psychologist in the humanistic approach. He provided this approach with a number of ideas, which concern the scope of education. Rogers suggested that humans have a natural potential for learning and this process will take place just when the subject has a personal relevance to the learner and when the learner was an active participant. Rogers stated «Learning which is self-initiated and which involves feelings as well as cognition is most likely to be lasting and pervasive», he also claimed that the most important learning is learning about the process of learning itself and it would be better when it takes place in an atmosphere of «unconditional positive regard». This learning in such condition can make a good relationship between teacher and learner and it permit to the teacher to convey kindness and empathy to his learners for make them trust on him.

This approach helps teachers and learners in the teaching-learning process. It holds that the teachers must be different to meet the individual learner’s needs. At the same time, teachers should help, encourage, and guide learners to choose the best ways in learning. The knowledge of teachers to their learners as individuals is important to understand and know the appropriate way to help them to realize themselves, this what Hamachek means in his sentence «Humanistic education starts with the idea that students are different, and it strives to help students become more like themselves and less like each other».

INFORMATION PROCESSING

This approach is focusing on how the information is stored in memory and how is produced again by the human. In other words, «How does the human mind work? What happens when someone learns or when someone solves problem?». According to the information processing view, the human mind works by forming mental representations and applying cognitive processes to them. The theorists of information processing were focused in their work on factors, which affected the mind such as attention, perception, and memory. The Information Processing Model has three major components of memory, which are Sensory registers, Short-term memory, and long-term memory.

Sensory registers: short memories, which concerned the senses at the level of perception.

Short-term memory: is also called working memory and it concerned what we are thinking about at any given moment in time. In other words, it is «where coded information is temporarily stored so that it can be immediately recalled and used».

Long-term memory: it is where a large number of knowledge and information are stored for a long period.

Here an example of how we can use the Information Processing approaches in the teaching process and the classroom.

Using the Information Processing Approach in the Classroom

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>principle</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
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</table>
| 1. Gain the students’ attention. | – Use cues to signal when you are ready to begin.  
– Move around the room and use voice inflections. |
| 2. Bring to mind relevant prior learning. | – Review previous day’s lesson.  
– Have a discussion about previously covered content. |
| 3. Point out the important information. | – Provide handouts.  
– Write on the board. |
| 4. Present information in an organized manner. | – Show a logical sequence to concepts and skills.  
– Go from simple to complex when presenting new material. |
| 5. Show students how to categorize (chunk) related information. | – Present information in categories.  
– Teach inductive reasoning. |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>6. Provide opportunities for students to elaborate on new information.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>– Connect new information to something already known.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– Look for similarities and differences among concepts.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>7. Show students how to use coding when memorizing lists.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>– Make up silly sentence with first letter of each word on the list.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– Use mental imagery techniques such as the keyword method.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
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<tr>
<th>8. Provide for repetition of learning.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>– State important principles several times in different ways during presentation of information (STM).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– Have items on each day’s lesson from previous lesson (LTM).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– Schedule periodic review of previous learned concepts and skills (LTM).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
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<tr>
<th>9. Provide opportunities for over learning of fundamental concepts and skills.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>– Use daily drill for arithmetic facts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– Play form of trivial purist with content related to class.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to this example, teachers can use the Information processing in their classrooms to help them in the teaching process. Therefore, the information process is an important model, which the teachers can follow to make their teaching efficient and interesting.

**A CONSTRUCTIVIST VIEW OF TEACHING**

Constructivism claimed that the ways of teaching are different and no one right or wrong. Constructivist approach helps teachers in the teaching process by given them some suggestions how to teach as Von Glasersfeld said: «Constructivism cannot tell teachers new things to do, but it may suggest why certain attitudes and procedures are counter-productive, and it may point out opportunities for teachers to use their own spontaneous imagination».

Researchers as Louden discussed the role of teacher and what do teachers bring to the teaching-learning process? Louden also discussed the struggle of the teacher when he tried to establish professional competence. Louden summarized his point of view in these sentences: «From a practitioner’s perspective…teaching is a struggle to discover and maintain a settled practice, a set of routines and patterns of action which resolve the problems posed by particular subjects and groups of children». These patterns, content and resolutions to familiar classroom problems are shaped by each teacher’s biography and professional experience. The meaning of these patterns of action only becomes clear when they are set in the context of a teacher’s personal and professional history, her hopes and dreams for teaching, and the school in which she works.

Louden believes that teachers need to pay attention to the meaning, and that teachers must use the physical environment of their classroom, the syllabus, activities, and to move in harmony with their understanding of those concepts and meanings.

Constructive approach to teaching focuses on the idea of the variety between teachers and their ways of teaching. This approach considered both of the content and the way of teaching are important parts in the personality of the teacher. Constructivism emphasized on the teacher to be more self-aware «…to become more self-aware with regard to their beliefs and the ways in which they make sense of the world, particularly with regard to their views about education and how those views themselves come to be shaped». At the same time, the teacher must be aware because their learners are judging their words, their actions, and their interactions. The most important in the constructive approach is that teachers’ awareness of their beliefs and views of the world, which make them a reflective practitioner.

So, in this chapter we started with an overview to educational psychology, and then presented its major approaches. We began with the positivism which is the roots of the behaviorist approach.
This was followed by a survey on the cognitivism, which includes the Information processing, and constructivist approach. We then considered the constructivist views on teaching. Finally, we moved to the Humanism approach and its contribution to education.

According to the history of educational psychology we can notice the great contribution which is made by its various approaches and theories. Those approaches and theories help the teachers to be able to understand, predict, and control the students’ behavior and facilitate the choices of teaching. It also helps the teachers to understand the differences of the students and how to deal with them. However, those approaches and theories are different. They have the same aim in mind which is the explanation of human behavior and its development.

To sum up, those approaches have a great contribution to the teaching-learning process and education in general. The teachers should know those theories and approaches, and their application to reach the goals of education and the teaching-learning process. He also should be a master in educational psychology to deal with a complex educational situation. If the teacher has not knowledge of the theories of educational psychology and the appropriate manner of apply them, he never could be an effective teacher.

Unit 3. Methodology of teaching psychology

Unit 3. Methodology of teaching psychology

В данном разделе рассмотрена методология преподавания психологии

In this chapter, the focus is first on issues related to the effective teaching process: the effective teaching strategies and techniques which are used by teachers in EFL classroom; second on the importance of the module of psychopedagogy and the role of both teacher in teaching it and learner in receiving input, and finally on the relationship between psychology and different issues in education, and the role of using technology in teaching.

EFFECTIVE TEACHING METHODS AND STRATEGIES

Teaching methods and strategies are the ways, which are used by the teachers in teaching, in other words; they are the procedures, processes, and tools used to assist the teacher to teach. Those methods and strategies are used for a particular lesson. They depend on many factors such as the students’ characteristics, what they need to know to succeed with the lesson, the learning tasks, the subject-matter content, and the objectives of the lesson, the physical setting, and the knowledge and skills of the teacher. There are a lot of methods and strategies, but the most important are Instruction-centered and Student-centered teaching strategies. In instructed-centered teaching strategies, the teacher plays an active role and he has the authority to control the learning process, while in student-centered teaching strategies the teacher plays several roles as guide, observer, facilitator, or even mediator in the learning process. Student-centered teaching strategies have a similar planning and instructions like instruction-centered teaching strategies, but less control and dominance in the learning process.

1. Instructor-centered teaching strategies. Instructor-centered teaching strategies include four types, which are expository teaching strategies, interactive-expository teaching strategies, modeling, and direct instruction.

   – Expository teaching strategies. In these strategies, the teacher used the verbal instructions to guide the students in the learning process. It contains the traditional lecture method or smaller, mini-lecture/presentations. Lecture is an appropriate method when it gives important and new information to the students, and it is suitable for the secondary and university level because in this level the learners have «the necessary study skills, motivation, attention span and self-management to be able to benefit from this approach». Unlike the lecture, mini-lecture is appropriate for the students of secondary schools.
- **Interactive-Expository teaching strategies.** Interactive-expository teaching strategies are similar to the expository teaching strategies with additional elements that are included in the lesson such as interactive questioning, modeling, and high levels of students responding. In interactive-expository teaching strategies, students are encouraged to participate in the lessons through dialogues that are more interesting than a traditional lecture and the teachers can push them in these dialogues. Students could make dialogues by:
  - Discussing topics with their peers.
  - Writing responses.
  - Posing questions.
  - Completing graphic organizers.
  - Constructing semantic maps.
  - Paraphrasing content presented.

The teachers control the students’ dialogues to make the students understand better and to co-constructing their knowledge through the conversation of the dialogues. The teacher’s role also is to ask question and give comments on the students’ responses to realize the objectives of learning. Interactive-expository strategies may help the teacher in some cases, but not all of them because sometimes we need to the students the opportunity to choose the appropriate strategy for them.

- **Modeling.** It is another strategy. The teacher modeling a task, a procedure, or a research paper to explain or illustrate the learning process. It includes short verbal explanations on the ways and the purpose of the tasks. Teachers should select the appropriate model to fit the goals of the teaching process because the wrong choice will make bad results on the teaching-learning process.

- **Direct Instruction.** Direct instruction is one of the Instructor-centered teaching strategies. Scientists defined it as important strategy that includes identical group instructions, students’ responses, teachers’ feedback and correction, sequenced lessons, and instructor scaffolding. This strategy may help students to master new concepts and to improve their levels directly.

  In direct instruction, the teachers introduce new skills, knowledge, and concepts to their students through clear direct instructions. They continually check and assess the students’ understand of this new information and knowledge by asking clear questions about each lesson. The students’ responses on the questions allow the teacher to evaluate and to give feedback to each answer. The choral responding by the group is more effective than the individual answers because it motivates and raises the participation of the students.

  Direct instruction is not an easy strategy to apply in the classroom. It needs hard efforts by the teachers and the students.

2. **Student-Centered Teaching Strategies.** Student-centered teaching strategies are based on constructivist views of learning. In these strategies, the teacher will be indirectly given the instructions because the focus will be on the student. These strategies allow the student to be more effective in acquiring knowledge, skill and strategies. It is also appropriate when reaching the teaching objectives of the lessons «acquisition of independent study skills, greater student autonomy, working collaboratively with others, the construction of knowledge from firsthand experience, and the application of basic academic skills for authentic purposes».

  In these strategies, we will discuss the important strategies that are peer learning groups and inquiry, discovery, and problem-based strategies.

- **Peer learning Groups.** Teachers use student groups as a teaching strategy. Those groups can take different forms, homogeneous and heterogeneous groups. Homogeneous groups include students with similar characteristics and interests, however; heterogeneous comprise students with different characteristics and interests. Skill groups are homogeneous groups, which determine the students’ levels and understand to a particular subject. This strategy is very important for match the students’ specific capabilities and the other students «Skills grouping is a teaching strategy that can be used with struggling as well as with highly capable students».

  In heterogeneous groups, cooperative learning groups is the most popular strategy used by teachers. Cooperative learning groups is a successful teaching strategy in which comprises students with different levels of ability, use variety of learning activities to improve their understanding of
the subject matter. Each member of the group is responsible not only for what is learned, but also for helping the other members. Cooperative learning groups provide each member with opportunity to participate and make his decisions in the group. It also encourages the skills of cooperation and negotiation. Face-to-face learning promotes an atmosphere of cooperation and empathy between the students.

- Inquiry, Discovery, and Problem-Based strategies. Teaching strategies for inquiry, discovery, and problem-based learning are concerned with the role of the teachers to facilitate the student curiosity and interest about the subjects of learning. This strategy encourages students to explore, study, and research in the topics of the learning process themselves with the help of the teacher, of course, and find solution for their problems. The teacher, here, helps the students by:
  o Providing guidance.
  o Asking questions.
  o Directing students to information and resources.
  o Providing social skills support.

  With less number of students, teachers need to work hard for giving more instructions and guidance in every stage of the lesson.

TEACHING TECHNIQUES

These techniques are different and vary in terms of many factors. Teachers use those techniques depending on the students’ needs, their styles of learning, their personalities, and the subjects of learning. Furthermore, the choice of the appropriate teaching techniques is determined by the right choice of the teachers, so they are responsible for the use of the suitable techniques.

Here, we try to select some of those teaching techniques that they may be used by the teachers in their classroom.

1. Lecture. It is one of the teaching techniques that are used by teachers, especially teachers of university. Lecture may help teachers to reach some the objectives of teaching. We try to summarize those benefits in the following points:
  o Introducing and providing an overview on new topics.
  o Raising interest and issues that can appear later.
  o Bringing students up to date with recent information that is not readily available through other media.
  o Presenting information in a quick and concise way for facilitate it to the students.
  o Providing an opportunity for review and discover of course material.

  According to Good and Brophy (2008), the efficient lecture can motivate and challenge students’ thinking, and discuss new topics and issues that would appear in their way of learning.

2. Discussion. Discussion is an excellent way to urge the students to think and analyze issues in the learning. The students should interact with each other to solve problems and find explanations for new issues that are emerged later. Discussion technique allows students to share their thoughts and point of views with each other and with the teachers. This technique may also help teachers to facilitate and convey the information easily.

3. Debates. Debates also are a useful technique, which can engage students in their learning and urge them to deal with complexity of the leaning topics and new issues. Debates can improve students’ oral communication skills.

4. Role-playing. Role-playing and simulation in class can be an effective technique to enhance students in the learning process. Role-playing engages students to the real world by introducing problems and trying to solve them, it provides opportunities to the students to play different roles of others, which help them to explain and solve the difficult issues. Role-playing also can provide students with opportunities to practice and improve their skills.

5. Peer tutoring and peer assistance. This technique can help students to understand and construct new knowledge by the assistance of each other. Peer tutoring makes a good relationship among the students and build a satisfied atmosphere in the classroom. The instructors support the
use of peer tutoring in the classroom to achieve the learning outcomes. Those are some of the different techniques that can be used in teaching in addition to other techniques such as using visual aids and graphics, illustrating with images, and using games and quiz. Teachers must be careful when they choose any technique because every technique is suitable for specific situation and context.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHING

Teaching is different from what was in the past. It has many changes, which affected the teaching learning process. These changes have affected the ways, skill, methods, attitudes, and style of teaching in which made new challenges and difficulties to the teachers and the teaching process. Four trends have emerged from these changes in teaching which are: increased diversity, increased instructional technology, greater accountability in education, and increased professionalism of teachers.

1. Increased Diversity. Diversity in the classroom means the diversity of the students. This means the diversity in their ways of learning, thinking, behaving, and acquiring knowledge. It also includes the variety of their levels, background, language, and personality. Unlike in the past, teachers are care more about those differences and they give more importance to the students from diverse language background and special education needs. Teachers try to cover all the increased diversity in the classroom and to solve the problems, which may appear from those differences. The challenges of the teachers are more than in the past, so they should work hard with the help of educational psychology.

2. Increased Instructional Technology. According to the development, the use of technology has increased in which we find all of teachers, students, and schools use computers, internet, and every tool could which help them in the teaching learning process. Those tools are more helpful for both teacher and student. With internet, it is easy to gather information in different subjects with pictures, video clips, and audio records. Internet and computer may facilitate the learning process and delivering information to the students in an interesting and motivating manner.

Technology is a crucial factor in the development of the teaching learning process, but it also makes a several challenges for the teachers. The teachers are responsible for helping the students in using the internet and choosing the appropriate tool for teaching. Money is another challenge in which those materials need money and lot of efforts. In many societies and schools, classrooms have only one or two computers and may be no one at all. This creates a big challenge for the teachers, which is how could they; benefit from this limit materials in their classrooms. Another problem or challenge is the use of technology by teachers in the classroom. As Crowley and Richardson said: «The most problem come because things are done out of sequence due to assumptions made by the user», so the teacher needs to know the way of how to use and choose the material for helping him in teaching. Technology shows the students new ways of learning and helps teachers to teach effectively, and develops issues about the real teaching and learning.

3. Greater Accountability in Education. Nowadays, the educators pay more attention to the quality of the good teachers and their ways of teaching. The aim of educators is to improve the levels of both students and teachers. Therefore, they are expecting teachers to be responsible for applying and completing particular curricula and goals, and students to be responsible for learning particular knowledge. This emphasize on the affectivity of the teachers oblige them to practice teaching more and to pass one or more examinations of knowledge. The educators focus a lot on the teachers and students to be more accountable for their role in the teaching learning process.

This objective has created a more challenges and constraints to the teachers and students. Both of them must pass examinations to prove their levels to the public and educators. Teachers often pass examinations in which they raise many questions about the way of teaching, testing, evaluating and other issues concerning the teaching learning process.

4. Increased Professionalism of Teachers. According to Seifert and Sutton, teaching is a profession «if its members take personal responsibility for the quality of their work, hold each other
accountable for its quality, and recognize and require special training in order to practice it». This means that the teachers should be responsible for their works and should be able to improve themselves for their students. Nowadays, teachers need to be more professional than in the past. The students are developing every day, so the teachers also must develop and improve their methods and strategies according to the students’ development.

To be new teacher, today, is not easy because you will face many challenges and problems. Teaching in the past is different from the present because the teacher now needs to work and be more specialized and has new requirement than in the past.

Seifert and Sutton believe that the increased requirements are the reflection of the complexities, which are emerged from the increasing of students and the increasing use of technology in classroom. They also think that the best way for the teachers to improve themselves is through what they called «action research» or «teacher research» which is «a form of investigation carried out by the teachers about their own students or their own teaching». This solution may help the teachers for answer some questions about their students and the teaching process.

Those trends show that the teachers must prepare themselves differently than the past and work hard to reach the objectives of teaching. Educators offer more time for teachers to practice teaching in school and teacher education instructors to connect the best ideas and concepts of education and psychology to the current best practices of education. Those trends open new opportunities for the teacher and the student and in the same time create for them new challenges and difficulties in which they should face and solve it.

TEACHING PSYCHOPEDAGOGY

Psychopedagogy is a crucial and interesting module in teaching. It is important for both teacher and student because it includes the most theories and strategies that can help them in the teaching learning process. Psychopedagogy as a module can help students to understand the way and style of learning and choose the appropriate among them.

1. The Role of the Teacher. There is no one role for the teacher in the classroom. He has many roles such as controller, facilitator, prompter, resource, tutor, organizer, and assessor. In teaching psychopedagogy, the teachers try to do the best efforts for conveying the principles of this module to their students. The teachers try to be good teachers in teaching psychopedagogy as well as the other modules.

   We try to summarize the role of the teacher in teaching psychopedagogy in the following points:
   - Engages the students to learn about the psychological issues and the different theories of teaching and learning.
   - Makes the students knowledgeable with those theories and their impact in their way of learning.
   - Facilitates the difficult and complex issues in psychopedagogy.
   - Makes a link between psychopedagogy and the other modules.
   - Tries to apply the strategies and techniques of psychopedagogy in the classroom.
   - Motivates and creates interest to the treated topics in the module.
   - Creates an appropriate atmosphere to make the students comfortable for asking and learning.

2. The Role of the Learner. Students are responsible for managing their learning process. Learners need to become self-reliant and active researchers in this module. They must be motivated and selfregulated to adopt the useful information from the teacher. In general, the learners tend to be more effective and motivated in the teaching learning process.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EDUCATION AND PSYCHOLOGY
1. **Psychology and Education.** Psychology and Education are correlated fields. Psychology is a large area in which Education uses its theories in practice within the teaching learning process. Psychology provided education with the knowledge of the differences of student’s abilities and needs. According to Mohammad Psychology has a great impact on the most subjects of education, especially; the teaching learning process. Psychology affects the learning process in different parties and below we have summarized some of these consequences:

   - Psychologist suggest use of different methods in teaching learning process to achieve better result.
   - Psychologist emphasis on Motivation and readiness in class room.
   - Psychology introduce new theories of learning in education.
   - Psychology emphasis on activity base teaching learning process.
   - Use of Visual Aid in teaching learning process.
   - Psychology is the study of human behavior while Education is the process of modifying human behavior so both deal with human behavior in different ways.
   - Educational psychology deals with educational problems.
   - General psychology deals with different problems other than education.

2. **Psychology and Teacher.** Psychology sheds a great light on the role of the teacher in the teaching learning process, therefore; teachers should be knowledgeable with psychology to deal with the different problems of educational situation. They should know how to solve the learner’s needs and problems. Psychology helps the teachers to understand and to solve the complex problems of the learner. The knowledge of psychology and educational psychology enlighten the teacher about the ways and means in which learning can take place in the best possible manner.

   The most effects of psychology on the teacher can be summarized in the following points, which are claimed by Muhammad:

   - Psychology helps teacher to understand and to explain the mental situations of the learner.
   - Psychology help teacher in the evaluation and measurement of the learners’ achievements.
   - Psychology helps the teacher to recognize and to solve the learners’ problems
   - Psychology brings change in the attitude of the teacher toward his students
   - Psychology emphasize on the important of a proper training for teachers. A train teacher should understand the learners’ problems and solve it.
   - Psychology provide education with new theories of learning for better teaching and learning
   - The help of psychology show the teacher how to improve the learners’ behavior
   - Psychology help teacher to understand the changes in the learners’ behavior in certain situation.

3. **Psychology and Curriculum.** The curriculum should cover the needs of the learners and their mental differences. Psychology emphasizes on the proper and good curriculum in which is prepared to fit the needs of the learner. The curriculum should account the subjects of teaching, the way, the needs of the learner and society, complexity, and the individual differences of the learners.

4. **Psychology and Evaluation.** Psychology gives an importance to the process of evaluation. It brings new methods of evaluation. Thus, the knowledge of psychology can help the teacher or educators to know the individuals differences of learners, then to make the appropriate methods and techniques of evaluation. Psychology provides the teaching process with new methods of evaluation.

   - Evaluation of child IQ ( Intelligence test )
   - Evaluate the factor of slow learning in the class room situation
   - Personality test
   - Attitude and interest Test
   - The Stanford-binet scale of intelligence test
The Stanford-Binet intelligence scale is a standardized test that assesses intelligence and cognitive abilities in children and adults aged two to twenty three years, determining the presence of a learning disability or a developmental delay.

5. **Psychology and Methods of Teaching.** The knowledge of teachers to the psychological characteristics of their learners helps them to devise such methods and techniques of teaching. Those methods and techniques are chosen according to the level and needs of the learner. The teacher should differentiate the methods of teaching to fit all the learners’ needs.

6. **Psychology and Timetable, Textbook preparation.** The preparation of the timetable of learning should be according to the interest, needs, time, suitability, local condition of the learner. Also, the preparation of the textbook should be prepared according to the needs, abilities, differences, level of the learners.

7. **Psychology and Guidance and Counseling.** According to psychologists, every school must contain a guidance to help the learners in their problems inside and outside the school. Psychologists emphasize on the role of guidance in the learner’s life in which the counselor can state and solve the problem, he also can make the learner more relaxed in the learning. The guidance can help the teacher to understand the learners’ behavior and to know how to deal with them.

8. **Psychology and the Development of the Learner.** From the knowledge of psychology, the teacher could know the development of the learner and assess the appropriate methods and techniques according to their level of progress. In other words, the learner moves through different stages, which differ from each other, for example; childhood and adulthood are not the same. Thus, the teacher chooses various methods of teaching in each stage.

9. **Psychology and School Organization.** Psychologists focus on the role of the school in the teaching learning process. According to Muhammad democratic atmosphere can develop the personality of the learner and social environment can make the learner more open to confidence, leadership, cooperation and healthy competition, decision making, problem solving and good citizenship and more effectiveness in the school and the environment.

THE ROLE OF TECHNOLOGY IN THE TEACHING LEARNING PROCESS

Association for Educational Communications and Technology (AECT) defined the term «educational technology» as «the study and ethical practice of facilitating learning and improving performance by creating, using, managing appropriate technological process and resources». Educational technology involves the application of the important ideas from different sources to achieve a good atmosphere for the learners.

The psychologists and educators give a crucial value to the role of technology in education. Thus, some of them classified educational technologies from a variety of perspectives: as information sources, curricular areas, communications media, tools, environment, and partners.

In the other hand, we find others focus on the applications of educational technologies in learning. Those technologies are divided into four categories that are:

1. **Technologies for teaching and learning.** It includes technologies for creating learning materials. Those technologies can be categorized as follow:
   - Technologies for designing and developing the materials such as typewriter, computers, software for publishing materials online, internet.
   - Technologies for providing the materials, which includes equipment for recording visual images and audio, equipment for developing photographs.
   - Technology for reproducing the learning materials such as making copies of audiotapes, films, and articles.
   - Technologies for playing the recordings or using the content which includes the use of projectors and other similar playback equipment.

2. Technologies for facilitating communication among participants in the learning process. This category includes the use of electronic mail, internet telephony, and discussions on line. The use of
those technologies can be a useful method to make students from different countries to write to each other for both their English development and especially their motivation.

3. Technologies for facilitating evaluation. Scantron is one of those technologies «which lets instructors automatically grade exams with objective questions (true/false, multiple choice) by having students fill out a form that can be read by the grading machine». It also includes testing on line.

These technologies allow instructors to make and grade questions on line to facilitate the work of the teachers. The e-mail can be a good way for sending and receiving documents between teachers and students, so teachers can send feedback of the students ‘works and examinations.

4. Technologies for managing learning activities. These technologies help the teachers to manage learning activities. It includes learning management systems, course management systems, and learning content management.

Learning management systems takes a form of registers, which can do many tasks such as registration, tracking of participation, testing, suggesting curricula for learners, sharing information with other systems, and other tasks. While, course management systems build for support classroom learning in academic setting like universities. Course management systems can provide teachers by the ability to do some tasks such as place course materials online, track student progress by assessing and grading them on line, gives quizzes and testing on line.

Learning content management systems defined as «software for creating, storing, retrieving, changing, and reusing material intended for use in an online learning program». It also works in storing questions and tracking activities for developing materials. Learning content management systems have the same registration and management of learning management systems.

In the present, the use of technologies in education is very important. Technologies open new opportunities for learning, teaching, and research in education. It makes the teaching learning process more interesting and easier. Those technologies are important, but we must pay attention to the objectives of using them because they may be used for bad goals.

So, in this chapter, we show the variety of the teaching strategies and techniques, which they seem helpful for teachers of EFL in the classroom and to promote the teaching process for the best. We also tried to carry out the importance of the module of psychopedagogy and the teachers’ and students’ role in teaching this module.

We investigated the relationship of psychology with education which showed that variety of relationships between psychology and different issues of education. These relationships prove the extent of the role of psychology in education.

The investigation on the use of technology in the teaching process showed that it can increase the affectivity and motivation of the teachers and the variety and diversity of learning opportunities.
CHAPTER 7. EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

TEACHERS’ INTERVIEW

Unite in groups and answer the questions of the questionnaire, presented in the Appendix 1. Discuss the answers. Then study and analyze the results of interviews with teachers and students of one of the American institutions. In the same groups, conduct a training-game.

ANALYSIS OF TEACHERS’ INTERVIEW

Introduction. The purpose of this interview is to explore teachers’ attitude to psychiatry and its value in the educational process. This interview is intended to check the degree of teacher’s awareness about the basic principles of pedagogy and its implementation in the classroom. Below are the results of a real interview. Students - future teachers-psychologists, who can conduct such a study in the class.

Administration of the interview. The interview was with four teachers. Two teachers are teachers of psychopedagogy, while the others are teaching other subjects. The teachers were very cooperative in that they answered all the questions of the interview with pleasure and showed a real interest to do that. The interview includes 17 questions. These questions concern teachers’ point of views about the teaching process and the role of psychopedagogy as module. This interview investigates the role of psychopedagogy, its importance, and its implications in the teaching process. In this interview, we give a space for teachers to give advice and instructions for the other teachers, and to add comments about psychopedagogy.

1. Analysis of the Teachers’ Interview:

Question 01: What do you think about the teaching process?
- **Teacher one**: it is a very important process. It is an active process, so it needs a lot of motivation, commitments, energy, and hard work.
- **Teacher two**: it is an important process which includes two main elements teacher and learner.
- **Teacher three**: it is interesting and hard process.
- **Teacher four**: it is interesting and difficult mission which has many challenges and difficulties.

Question 02: Do you follow a particular way in teaching EFL classroom?
- **Teacher one**: yes, I do. I use the communicative approach in which I ask the question and receive the answer then evaluate the students’ participation and share knowledge and meaning together.
- **Teacher two**: yes, I do. I use the communicative methodology.
- **Teacher three**: yes, I do.
- **Teacher four**: yes, I do. I follow the communicative approach because I think that it is the appropriate one for teaching.

Question 03: How many years have you been teaching English?
- **Teacher one**: 10 years in the university and 12 years in the middle and high school.
Question 04: What are the main subjects you have been teaching?
- **Teacher one:** almost all modules in the university (exception for two or three).
- **Teacher two:** different modules.
- **Teacher three:** secondary school and then university level.
- **Teacher four:** all modules.

Question 05: What do you think about the module of psychopedagogy?
- **Teacher one:** it is an important one. I think the students should know that teaching is mostly pedagogical but also mostly psychological.
- **Teacher two:** psychopedagogy or educational psychology is a very important course.
- **Teacher three:** important module which prepares students to be good teachers.
- **Teacher four:** it is an interesting module which will help teachers in the teaching learning process.

Question 06: What do you think about the role of Educational psychology in teacher’s career?
- **Teacher one:** the good teacher is the one who understand the psychology of his students.
- **Teacher two:** we cannot speak on teaching without psychopedagogy. Any teacher without knowledge about psychopedagogy is like someone who jumps in an ocean without knowing how to swim. The teacher who has knowledge about educational psychology can face the different situations in his career. Educational psychology is crucial in the teacher’s career.
- **Teacher three:** it helps a lot in making teachers dealing with class issues like teaching material, dealing with learners...ect.
- **Teacher four:** it helps teachers to understand the psychology of the students and how to interact with them. It also provides teachers with methods and techniques of teaching which help them later on.

Question 07: What is the role of the teacher in teaching psychopedagogy?
- **Teacher one:** to make his students think as researchers on the psychological issues that may influence or may have impact on the learner.
- **Teacher two:** to prepare the students to be teachers, to conduct and to guide them.
- **Teacher three:** guide future teachers in their teaching task.
- **Teacher four:** help the students to understand and to deal with the different subjects in psychopedagogy.

Question 08: What are the objectives of educational psychology?
- **Teacher one:** educational psychology aim in the first place to identify all those effects of human psyche or learning new information.
- **Teacher two:** it has many objectives but the main aims are to prepare persons for teaching, to show that there is different ways of learning and teaching and differences between the learners, and to know the personality development and psychological problems.
- **Teacher three:** make the link between theory and practice.
- **Teacher four:** helps both teacher and learner to understand better the teaching learning process and to develop them.

Question 09: Educational psychology provides the teaching process with theories, strategies and techniques which help teachers in the teaching process. What do you think about that?
Teacher one: yes. This scientific aspect of educational psychology, we need to produce theories and techniques to help, especially; teachers to understand the teaching process and understand the human mind.

Teacher two: This is the court of educational psychology. Those theories explain how human acquire knowledge and which strategy or technique they use.

Teacher three: yes.

Teacher four: yes. Educational psychology provides the teaching process with theories and strategies. Those theories and strategies are used by the good teachers in their classroom.

Question 10: Do you apply some those techniques and strategies in your daily teaching? Do you find it useful?

Teacher one: of course, I do. All the teachers knowing or without knowing they do that. Those techniques and strategies are helpful for any teacher in his/her career (job).

Teacher two: yes, I do. Through my teaching to educational psychology, I benefit from its theories and strategies and I use some of them in the classroom. They are very helpful.

Teacher three: yes, I do.

Teacher four: of course, I do. Those strategies and techniques are important for all the teachers to be successful in the teaching process.

Question 11: In your opinion what is the more appropriate one among: Instructor centered or Students-centered teaching strategies? Why?

Teacher one: I would prefer to have Instructor and student-centered strategies in the same time. Because some situations urge the teacher to use Instructor-centered strategies and sometimes you s/he needs to follow Student-centered strategies, so both of them complete each other.

Teacher two: It depends on the approach which is adopted, the subject you teach, and the role of the learner. Sometimes in the same course, we need to use both of them. in general, people now agree on the Student-centered strategies.

Teacher three: every tool, every techniques, any strategy can help the teacher when s/he is teaching.

Teacher four: both of them are useful and we can use every one according to the students’ needs and their style of learning.

Question 12; 13: What is your point of view about the teachers who do not have knowledge about the theories and strategies of educational psychology within their teaching process?

Teacher one: they are not teachers. They could not understand the psyche of their students and the way human mind processes the information. They cannot be teachers.

Teacher two: I think this is a failure. They may not be professional teachers.

Teacher three: They need to know. They will fail in their mission as teachers.

Teacher four: We cannot call them teachers because they will fail in their mission of teaching.

Question 14: What is your advice for them?

Teacher one: I would advice every teacher to read a lot and to attend educational psychology courses because it will help him/her to know more about the students, their personalities, their needs, and everything concerning them.

Teacher two: They should know things about the psychological development, the basic and principles of educational psychology, and they should contact with the experienced teachers.

Teacher three: Try to read about the different theories and strategies of educational psychology.

Teacher four: be aware about the knowledge of educational psychology because it is the key of the successful teachers.

Question 15: What is your advice to the novice teachers of English today?
Teacher one: to read a lot, to research a lot, to attend with senior teachers.
Teacher two: take advice and guide from the experienced teachers and to accept the different advice and criticism.
Teacher three: be aware of complexity of the task of teaching. They need to read and get in touch with experienced teachers.
Teacher four: be in contact with the experienced teachers and be aware about the differences among the students.

Question 16: What do you think about the use of media in the teaching process?
Teacher one: We are in the information age, so we are fast to use media in our classrooms.
Teacher two: Of course, it is useful for teaching. As teacher, I use data show, computer, and other materials in my lectures. Today, persons learn through technology because they find it interesting, fast, easier, and useful.
Teacher three: it helps but you need to select appropriate materials for teaching.
Teacher four: it is useful for both teachers and learners.

Question 17: Any comments?
The most comments of the teachers were:
Every teacher should learn about educational psychology.
Educational psychology is important module. We should give it an importance.
Teach the principles of educational psychology to the students.
The educators should give a importance to the module of psychopedagogy and make specialist in teaching this module.
Raise students’ awareness towards the importance of psychopedagogy.

Conclusion. The obtained data show that the teachers are aware about the crucial role of educational psychology in the teaching process. Most of the teachers used the theories and strategies of educational psychology in their classroom. Their responses reveal that the teacher without knowledge about educational psychology is like a person who jump in the ocean without knowing how to swim.

STUDENTS’ QUESTIONNAIRE
Look at the answers of the students below. Comment on the general situation in the group of respondents. Then do the research in the classroom.

ANALYSIS OF THE STUDENTS’ QUESTIONNAIRE

Introduction. The aim of this questionnaire is to assess the students’ attitudes toward the module of Psychopedagogy, its importance and its theories application in education.

We use the questionnaire in this study because it is easier and faster for collecting a large amount of data in a short time.

Administration of the questionnaire. The questionnaire was handed out to sixty students chosen randomly, with a total of sixty copies of the questionnaire, fifty five of which were returned.
The final questionnaire includes 18 questions. The questionnaire is divided into three main parts; they are entitled as follow:
1. Background information
2. Attitude of the students toward the teacher and classroom
3. Some questions about the classroom

The first part allows us to get general information about the age, gender, and the main reasons to study English at University with justification. The second part is intended to check students’ attitudes toward the teacher and classroom. The third part includes the students’ attitudes towards the module of Psychopedagogy. In this section we focus on the role of both the module and teacher of psychopedagogy.

This part includes a space which is allocated for any comments the students would like to add.

Results of the Questionnaire:
Section one: Background information

Item 01: Age distribution

Students’ age distribution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>Ps</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>43.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the table, we notice that our population is young. We find that the scope of students age range between 20 (3,63%) and 36 (1,81%) with the supremacy of the percentage of students aged 22(43,63%). Few students represent (3,63%) are 20, 25, or 29, and fewer students represent (1,81%) are either 32 or 36 years old.

Item 02: Gender distribution

Students’ sex distribution.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>30,91%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>69,09%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From this table, we can observe that the majority of the students are female (69,09%) and the male represent just (30,91%).

Item 03: Choice of study English

Students’ choice of study English.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Your parents’ choice</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5,45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your choice</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You just choose it</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14,55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the this table we recognize that the most of the students chose to study English (80%) because they love English language and consider it as international language. Few of the students are obliged by their parents to study English (5, 45%).

ATTITUDE OF THE STUDENTS TOWARDS THE TEACHER AND THE CLASSROOM.

Item 01: What type of atmosphere exists in the classroom?
Students’ point of view about the classroom’s atmosphere.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Friendly</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>49.09%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fearly</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.63%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>47.28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the table, we recognize that the most of students agree on the existence of good atmosphere in the classroom (49.09%) and (47.28%).

**Item 02: What is the type of relationship between you and your teacher?**

Students’ response about the relationship between them and their teacher.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>56.36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>43.64%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this table, the students are divided into two parts. The first part (56.36%) agrees on a good relationship with the teacher which means the affectivity of the teacher in the classroom. The second part (43.64%) also emphasize on the normal relationship between them and their teacher.

**Item 03: Did your teacher fit all your needs?**

Students’ viewpoints about the teacher’s role to fit their needs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Most of them</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>27.27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some of them</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>61.81%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10.90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We observe that the teacher fits just some of the students’ needs (61.81%) which mean that the teacher attempts to cover all the difficulties and needs of the students but with certain failure due to many reasons, which are related to the teacher himself, the classroom content, nature of the taught subject and types of material used. In the other hand, we find the percentage (27.27%) which represents the students who said that the teacher fits all their needs.

**Item 04: What’s his role in the classroom?**

According to the responses of the students, we can summarize the role of the teacher on the classroom as follow:
- Tutor
- Organizer
- Instructor
- Facilitator
- Controller
- Observer
- Examiner
The students agree that the teacher plays different roles in the classroom, which have changed and continue to change to fit all the students’ needs.

**Item 05: Did your teacher use different strategies in teaching?**

Students’ viewpoints about the teacher’s use of teaching strategies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>32.72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>67.28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this table, the majority of the students (67.28%) ignore the use of the teacher to the teaching strategies in the classroom. What this result shows?

According to the justification of the students, we summarize the reasons, which explain their responses in few points:

- The teacher does not understand the differences of the students’ levels and the needs for differentiate the strategies to fit all those differences.
- The teacher believes that one strategy is enough for teaching.
- The teacher uses just one strategy, which is the easier, and the simple one for teaching.
- The short time and the large number of the students oblige the teacher to use only one strategy.
- The teacher thinks that his/her strategy is the best one and each teacher has his own strategy of teaching.
- The teacher does not have the ability to use different strategies.
- The teacher does not care about the students’ understand, s/he just teach without delivering the information to the students.
- The teacher does not know other strategies of teaching.

In the other hand, we find the percentage of the students who agree with the use of the teacher to different strategies of teaching (32.72%). According to the students’ responses, the teacher uses varieties of strategies such as:

- Give handout then explain it.
- Use activities to explain the lectures.
- Making groups or individual work.
- Lecturing and discussing.
- Explanation of the lesson more than one time.
- Ask questions, testing students’ background, given varieties of practices, and ask to check the students’ understanding.

**PSYCHOPEDAGOGY AND ITS IMPLICATION IN EFL CLASSES**

**Item 01: What do you think about the module of psychopedagogy?**

Students’ viewpoints about the module of psychopedagogy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interesting</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>49.09%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boring</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>32.72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18.19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to this table, 27 students (49.09%) inform that the module of psychopedagogy is an interesting module, and 18 students (32.72%) think that this module is boring, whereas 10 students (18.19%) think that the module of psychopedagogy has a little importance (neutral).

**Item 02: What is its main role in both learning and teaching?**

Concerning our learners’ answers about this statement, the majority of the students agree on the importance of the module of psychopedagogy in both learning and teaching. They claim that psychopedagogy provide both teacher and student with different theories and strategies to facilitate the learning teaching process.

**Item 03: Did you know the most apparent and successful theories and strategies of psychopedagogy?**

Students’ knowledge about the theories and strategies of psychopedagogy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>25.45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>74.55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the students’ answers, we notice that the majority of the students (74.55%) do not know the theories and strategies of psychopedagogy, and few of them (25.45%) have an idea about it. What can this result say?

**Item 04: If yes, did your teacher apply those theories and strategies in the classroom?**

Students’ viewpoints about the teachers’ use of the theories and strategies in the classroom.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>71.43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>28.57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Concerning the response on this statement, the majority of the students (71.43%) say that their teachers apply the theories and strategies of psychopedagogy in the classroom. Few of the students (28.57%) inform that their teacher does not use those theories in the classroom.

**Item 05: Do you think that this module would be helpful for you?**

Students’ attitudes towards the importance of psychopedagogy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>74.55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>25.45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Concerning the students’ answers on this question, we find that 41 students (74.55%) inform that the module of psychopedagogy is helpful for them. Their justifications are summarized in the following points:

- It is helpful in both learning and teaching.
- Focuses on the two parts theory and practice in the teaching learning process.
- Prepares us to be good teachers in the future.
- Helps us to know different style of learning and teaching.
- Helps us to face the difficulties in learning and solve them.
- Helps us to build a relationship with the teacher.
- Shows the teacher how to deal with the students’ behavior and how to manage the classroom.
- Helps teacher to understand the internal and external behavior of the students.
- Show us how we learn and how we can improve our levels.

What these responses show?
In the other hand, 14 students (25, 45%) claimed that they do not benefit from this module because they think that this module is complex, boring, and just a focus on the theoretical subjects.

**Item 06: Are the teachers of psychopedagogy different from the other teachers of other modules?**

Students’ attitudes towards the teachers of psychopedagogy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>45,45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>54,55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the table, we can notice that there is a certain balance in the responses of the students. The first part of the students (54, 55%) says that there is no difference between teachers of psychopedagogy and the other teachers of other modules. The second part of the students represent (45, 45%). They said that there is a difference between the teacher of psychopedagogy and the other teachers. They said that each teacher has a special style and methods of teaching. They also said that the teachers of psychopedagogy are more awareness about the problems, difficulties, behavior, and needs of the students.

**Item 07: Do you think that psychopedagogy is different from the other modules?**

Students’ attitudes towards the difference between the module of psychopedagogy and other modules.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>70,90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>29,10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the table above, we observe that 39 students (70, 90%) agree on the difference between psychopedagogy and other modules. The students’ justifications about their responses are summarized in the following points:

- This module is based on mental and abstract studies.
- It concerns the teaching process in which the teacher may benefit from its theories.
- New lessons and theories
- Unlike the other modules, psychopedagogy discusses all the subjects of education.
- It studies the psychology of the students and their problems.
- It prepares the students to be good teachers in the future.
- It includes interesting topics such as learning and teaching theories, motivation, styles of learning, and other subjects.
- It needs to use both mind and logic for study its theories and assumptions.

In the other hand, we have 16 students (29, 10%) say that there is no difference between psychopedagogy and the other modules. They believe that all the modules are important and have the same way and methods of teaching and presentation.
**Item 08: Any comments about the module of psychopedagogy:**

According to the last item in the questionnaire, we find the most comments focus on the importance of the module of psychopedagogy and the responsibility of the teachers and educators to develop it. The students consider psychopedagogy as crucial and interesting module, which could help them in the future.

**Conclusion:** The analysis of students’ questionnaire reveals that most of the students agree on the importance of psychopedagogy in the teaching learning process. It confirms that psychopedagogy has a crucial role for helping both the teacher and learner. The results of the study also show that the students are not knowledgeable with the theories and strategies of psychopedagogy and this reflects the weakness of the teachers of psychopedagogy. Furthermore, the results shows that the majority of teachers do not apply the theories and strategies of psychopedagogy in the classroom may be because they lack the necessary basics to be known about the importance of psychopedagogy in the teaching learning process.

**RECOMMENDATIONS**

In the light of our finding, we would like to present some recommendations in which may be helpful for improving the teaching learning process. The recommendations could be summarized as follows:

- Teachers need to read more about educational psychology and to be more knowledgeable with its theories.
- Teachers need to make contact with the experienced teachers for help them to improve their ways of teaching and to benefit from their experiences.
- Teachers must link the theories and strategies of educational psychology with their application in the classroom.
- Teachers need to teach psychopedagogy to their students effectively and to make them knowledgeable with its most important theories.
- Teachers should simplify the complex subjects in psychopedagogy to the students to allow them for better understand.
- Teachers should talk with their students and decide what are their problems in the module.
- Teachers need to provide the students with an appropriate setting and atmosphere in the classroom in which they were motivated and interested with the module.
- Teachers should show the role of psychopedagogy in both teaching and learning.
- For better teaching, teachers need to teach small groups of students because the small numbers of students help for better understand to the module.

These are some recommendations for benefit from the theories and strategies of educational psychology, and for make the students aware and motivated in learning psychopedagogy. We hope that teachers and students benefit from our research and recommendation in developing the teaching learning process.

Suggest recommendations for the results of the survey in the class.
ACTIVE LEARNING ACTIVITIES TO GET PSYCHOLOGY STUDENTS OUT OF THEIR SEATS

Introductory Psychology courses are filled with interesting concepts that can be demonstrated to students using methods other than lecture and reading. Here are a few activities we have put together. They work great for high school.

1. **Understanding Depth Perception using Echo Location.** Have a student stand about 8 feet away from a brick wall or other wall with a hard flat surface (no posters, pictures, windows). Then have the student hum or hold a note out loud as he or she walks toward the wall with EYES CLOSED. Instruct the student to listen to the tone as he approaches the wall. Without peeking, he will be able to get within an inch of the wall by sound alone.

2. **Where Rods and Cones Are and Aren’t.** Have a student sit in a chair facing the class. Have another student stand behind him with a handful of different colored pens or markers. It doesn’t matter what the ink is, the outside of the pens need to have different colors. Have the student who is standing behind the seated student slowly bring one of the colored pens around to the seated student’s peripheral vision. Try to keep the colored pen about two feet away from the seated student’s head. The seated student will be able to see movement but will not be able to determine the color of the pen.

3. **Classical conditioning.** This one requires a teacher who paces during lectures and is not afraid of annoying the students. For a few weeks before the unit on classical conditioning, the
teacher should push the top of the pen of a student in the front row. The instructor should do this for every student in the front row. It is terribly annoying, but the instructor should do this a few times every class before the unit on conditioning. After only a few trials, the students will associate the instructor's presence near their desks with pens being jostled. As a result, after only a few classes of this the instructor can simply walk by each of the student’s desk and watch them automatically pick up their pen until the instructor has passed by.

Once the instructor reveals that students have been trained, a discussion should ensue as to whether it was classical conditioning or operant conditioning. Note: Even though the students cognitively understand why their pens were annoyingly jostled, the effect is long lasting and students will pull their pen from the paper for weeks afterward.

4. Conformity. Either wait for or construct a situation where a student leaves the room for a few minutes. While he is outside of the classroom, instruct the other students to stand up when the student returns and sits in his seat. As soon as the returning student sits down in his seat, he will see his classmates immediately rise. For added effect, have the classmates rise with their notebooks and continue with the lecture. Chances are the student will stand.

A less dramatic but a more sure effect is to have the students already standing when the student returns. If class continues and the lecture proceeds with the rest of the class ignoring him, the returning student will blend in and remain standing. Note: If the class is aware that the lesson is on conformity, the student might be wise to the gag.

5. Serial Position Curve. Have the student put away pens and paper. Ask them to remember as many words from the following list: giraffe, lion, tiger, rat, alligator, buffalo, eagle, ox, bear, beaver, mouse, cat, deer, fox, raccoon, opossum, rabbit, squirrel, elephant, cheetah. Take a moment to distract the student by reminding them of upcoming homework or by telling them a knock-knock joke.

Then, ask students to write down as many words as possible. Give them a few minutes to wrack their brains. Ask, by show of hands how many students remembered which words. Tally student responses on the board. Have students notice that the animals in the middle of the list were not remembered as much as the animals at the beginning and at the end of the list.

6. Remembering by Schema. Have the student put away pens and paper. Ask them to remember as many words from the following list: refrigerator, oven, cutting board, dishwasher, knife, pot holder, blender, spatula, toaster fork microwave, spoon, toaster, fork, stove, frying pan, dish towel, freezer.

Take a moment to distract the student by reminding them of upcoming homework or by telling them a knock-knock joke. Then, ask students to write down as many words as possible. Give them a few minutes to wrack their brains. Ask, by show of hands how many students remembered refrigerator, how many remembered oven. Hands will raise as students eagerly display their brilliance. Then ask how many remembered sink. A few students will raise their hands despite the fact that sink was never mentioned.

7. Priming and «Reading Students’ Minds». This one takes a little planning and works well for a lecture on consciousness. On the day before the demonstration takes place, create baseline data by having student write down the first animal that pops in their head. Collect the papers. Then on the day in question and throughout the lecture, the instructor will lace his words with the theme of jungle cats. It is a common school mascot and the teacher can remark ask about how the «Lions» did. Alternatively, the instructor can ask about the Cincinnati football team and what the heck is a Bengal anyway. Throughout the lecture, the teacher might refer to Simba or Mufasa. The teacher might remark about how he played golf on the «linx».

After weaving such instances into his remarks, lectures and conversation, the instructor should then ask students to write down the first animal that springs to mind. Collect the responses and explain how instances of big cats have been ‘subtly’ presented to the students. Record the baseline data on the board from the previous day. Record the current collection of student response on the board as well. Check to see if there is a noticeable difference in responses that include big cats.
8. Operant Conditioning Using Token Economy. The instructor should ask for two student volunteers. One will be the trainee and the other will be the trainer. The trainee will need to step outside of the room for a few minutes. During that time, the class will determine what behavior the trainee will perform (standing on a desk, walking near a window, erasing the chalkboard, etc.).

When the trainee returns to class the only feedback he or she is given is the words hotter or colder. Using these as makeshift punishments and rewards in a token economy the trainee will attempt behaviors in order to receive a «warmer» reward and avoid the punishment of «colder.» This works remarkably well and it is surprising how easy it is to get an average student to do an abnormal behavior with the right system of rewards and punishments.

9. Speed of Neural Impulse. Generally, the neural unit comes after the unit on research methods, so this activity is a nice one to tie the two units together. You will need a stop watch and a calculator. Have students stand up in a circle around the room. Have each student use their right hand to grab the left wrist of a classmate.

Assign one person the job of starting the impulse. Start the stopwatch at the same time you say «go.» He will then squeeze the wrist of the person to his right. As soon as that person feels the squeeze, he will then squeeze the left wrist of the other classmate and so on. Have the last person in the circle say «stop» when they feel the squeeze. Stop the stop watch as soon as he says «stop» record time on the board. Do this a few times and record the time for each trial.

For tie-ins to the neural unit, estimate or measure the arm length + shoulders + neck of each student. Add that combined distance and divide by the time it took the signal to get around the circle. That is an approximate speed for the neural transmission.

For the research tie-in, have your students predict what would happen if student grabbed the other wrist and reversed the direction. Test it. Have you students predict what would happen with eyes closed. Test it. What are some confounding variables? Are their biases? The activity is flexible enough to be the start of quite a few subsequent activities, discussions and assignments.

10. Taste Transduction and Spatial Coding. This one is the only tip that requires special material, a bag of Hersey Kisses. Distribute a Kiss to each student. Have them «dry» their tongue as much as possible. One method, however awkward they might be, is to have students blot their tongues with a paper towel or napkin.

Once the tongue is free of saliva, have the students place the Kiss on the back of the tongue. It is helpful to have students look up while doing this so saliva has a more difficult time reaching the tip of the tongue. Most students will report that they feel the texture and weight of the candy, but they do not taste sweetness. Some will report that they can smell the aroma of cocoa but cannot taste chocolate. Eventually the saliva will carry chocolate molecules to the front of the tongue and the students will taste sweetness.

OTHER IDEAS FOR THE PSYCHOLOGY CLASSROOM

1. Heads Up. «Heads up» is a mobile game that appeared on the Ellen Degeneres show and is sold by Warner Bros as a phone app. One player places their phone on their forehead and a word appears that other players can see. The others give clues until the player with the phone guesses the word correctly. This simple game can be modified for classroom use by using a mobile device delivery system (e.g. Learning Catalytics, gosoapbox, TopHat) in which the instructor can deliver psychology terms to teams of students. For a low technology alternative, psychology terms can be written on index cards, shuffled face down, and then drawn and placed against the forehead. In teams of 3 or 4, students take turns being the «guesser» and the «clue givers». To intensify the game, ask students to time how long it takes to get through all the terms, and perhaps complete the game a second time trying to improve their response time. Or, teams can compete to see which group gets through the stack of terms first.
2. **Draw it!** The instructor provides teams of students with a stack of cards with key terms/course concepts. Alternatively, the instructor can use a classroom management software program and deliver the terms to students on their mobile devices. Similar to Pictionary, students see if they can get their teammates to guess the course concept correctly by drawing pictures. They may not use words or symbols in their drawing and may not talk or gesture while drawing.

3. **Scavenger Hunt.** There is something innately fun about scavenger hunts – the thrill of searching and then finding! On the first day of class when you go over the syllabus, you could finish with a game in which you divide students into teams and hand them a list of questions that can be answered by searching through the syllabus (e.g. On what day will you be taking exam #3? Where is your instructor’s office located?). When students complete the scavenger hunt they can turn in their answers to be corrected and perhaps receive a small reward such as a piece of candy. Another example would be to give students the challenge of searching for examples that illustrate lecture content. For example, you could ask students to use their mobile devices to locate an everyday example of classical conditioning. Or, you could ask students to search for famous people who have self-identified as having a psychological disorder. Students can work individually or in teams and can use their mobile devices. How many different disorders/celebrities can they or their team find in 15 minutes?

4. **Daily Puzzles.** Consider starting class with a «daily puzzle» of some type. One option is to provide a visual quiz item that students can work on while waiting for class to start. For example, you could show a cartoon and see if students can identify the psychological concept at work. «Psychology» cartoons can be found online on websites like www.cartoonstock.com. Another option is to start class each day with a «Dear Abby» type question that deals with the days topic and ask students to come up with a recommendation. Students will be interested to find out if their recommendation matches the one a psychologist would give based on the research in that topic area.

5. **Describe it!** The instructor provides teams of students with a stack of cards with key terms/course concepts (e.g. theories of motivation, or parts of the brain). One student selects a card and attempts to get their team members to guess the term by giving verbal clues. The students can give any information they want, as long as they don’t use the word(s) on the card.

6. **Brainstorm Blitz.** For topics where you’d like students to generate examples, consider dividing students into pairs or larger teams and asking students to brainstorm and come up with as many answers as they can. For example, you might want students to generate examples of intrinsic or extrinsic awards, or names of psychoactive drugs they’ve seen in advertisements, etc. To «gamify» this activity you can either give teams a time limit to see how many they can come up with in that period of time, or give students a set number of examples they need to come up with and ask teams to ring their buzzer when they’re done.

7. **Solve it!** Humans love a good mystery or challenge. Provide students with a scenario of some type – a case study of a person with a disorder, or an example of classical conditioning, etc. Give students rules or constraints (time limits, what resources they can use, team member they can work with, etc.) and consider using game elements for engagement. For examples, when teams have solved their mystery, send a runner to the front of the room to ring the buzzer.

8. **Act it out!** The instructor provides teams of students with a list of key terms/course concepts (e.g. historical figures in psychology). Like the game Charades, students try to get their team to guess the term using only non-verbal cues such as acting, mimicking, or gesturing. The «actor» must remain silent.

9. **Dice and buzzers.** Sometimes an ordinary exercise or activity can be energized by using game mechanics/materials such as dice or buzzers commonly found on teaching/educator supply websites. One option is to purchase giant foam dice that can be used to call on people (e.g. one die can determine the row and the second die the seat). Dice can also be rolled to determine the amount of extra credit to give to a class following an activity or game. If students are timed doing an exercise or you want to encourage participation, consider using buzzer buttons. Buzzers can be purchased in a variety of crazy sounds, and add an element of humor and fun.
10. **Sculpt it!** The popular board game Cranium requires players to engage in a variety of tasks including one in which they use modeling clay to sculpt an object that their teammates must correctly identify. This is called a «sculpturade». This same activity can be modified to review or apply psychological concepts. You will need to purchase play-doh (I recommend black play-doh that can be purchased in individual containers from Walmart for .99). This game can be particularly useful when the goal is application or deeper processing. For example, you can ask students to sculpt various monocular cues for depth. In order to sculpt «linear perspective», for example, you have to have done more than just memorize the definition, you have to understand how it creates depth in order to sculpt it for others.

11. **What’s on my back?** A psychological concept written on a small index card or sticky note is placed on each student’s back when they enter the classroom. Students try to find out what’s written on their back by asking their classmates questions that can only be answered with yes or no. You may or may not want to allow students to use their books or notes as aids. Certain topics, such as those that have lists of different items make good candidates for this game. For example, students can review the various psychological disorders by placing a different one on each person’s back. Once the student has guessed their disorder they remove the card from their back, but are still available to play the game with others by answering their classmate’s questions.

12. **Classification Games.** Most people enjoy the challenge of sorting, categorizing and classifying information. For example, you could have students sort statements or examples according to what psychology theory they belong to, the type of therapy, the class of disorder, the form of learning, etc. Another idea is to give students information on individual slips of paper and have them physically manipulate them into the correct sequence (e.g. ordering the correct steps in systematic desensitization therapy or the correct order of Erikson’s developmental stages).

13. **Survival Games.** There are a variety of games in which students are given a scenario involving a major catastrophe -- the world is ending, people are stranded on an island, or left on the moon, and decisions have to be made about which individuals should be kept and which should be given the boot. These survival games can be used to introduce or discuss social psychology topics such as conflict resolution, group dynamics, stereotyping, social roles, etc. The following website offers a list of free survival scenarios including lost at sea, survival on the moon, plane crash survival, nuclear holocaust, island survival, and more.

14. **COTS** – Commercially available off the shelf games aka COTS are few and far between in psychology but they do exist. Most COTS were not developed for educational purposes, and do not warrant spending precious classroom time to play a full game. However, the games can be used in educational ways. For example, after a few minutes of playing the game, students could be asked to analyze the game for accuracy or to categorize playing cards (e.g. by therapy type, or psychological perspective).
CHAPTER 9. CASE STUDIES AND PRACTICE EXERCISES

CASE STUDY 1 - «PSYCHOLOGICAL PROBLEM»

The Incident. A Division administrator contacted Human Resources because of a female employee who was displaying memory lapses, sudden physical disability, disorientation, agitation, inability to focus and retain information, sudden arrival at coworkers’ residences in a troubled state, threats to harm herself, and possession of a knife and a handgun while off-duty at the homes and in the presence of a coworker. The employee had been an unexpected overnight guest when she appeared at colleagues’ homes in a troubled state. She has been disoriented to her surroundings, and unable to identify those with whom she regularly works. Colleagues have transported her to hospital emergency rooms, and to scheduled medical and mental health treatments.

Coworkers are distressed about the potential threat posed to them by the employee.

Incident Response. The Human Resources Division contacted the Employee Assistance Program (EAP) for initial consultation. The EAP recommended bringing in a psychologist with threat assessment expertise to meet and help devise a response plan. The initial meeting consisted of several representatives of Human Resources, the Division administrator, the EAP and the threat assessment psychologist. At this meeting, the background of the case and the employee was discussed. The employer revealed that the goal of the intervention was to devise a strategy which would enable the safe retention of the employee.

Administrator. The Division administrator was tasked with providing the personnel file to the psychologist for review. He would also arrange for the employee to be evaluated by the psychologist for purposes of providing a plan of action based upon a mental health, or Fitness for Duty evaluation. He arranged for coworkers to have access to the EAP program in order to address their fears and consequent mental health needs.

Human Resources. The Human Resources administrator contacted security in order to develop background information related to the employee. Information about the employee’s criminal history of violence and weapons possession was desired. The Human Resources administrator also consulted with the Division administrator to make sure that the organization’s policies and procedures were implemented. The Human Resources office articulated questions that they wanted answered by the Fitness for Duty evaluation.

Employee Assistance Program. Timed to coincide with when the Fitness for Duty evaluation was being conducted, the EAP had a crisis debriefing session with all employees. The purpose of this debriefing was to address ongoing concerns of the employees, provide information that may lead to their reassurance that the organization was acting responsibly, and to provide linkage to individual counseling. The EAP also conducted individual short-term counseling and referrals for employees who expressed a need for these services. In a manner ensuring confidentiality, the EAP provided information to the threat assessment psychologist about behaviors of concern to these employees.

Threat Assessment Psychologist. The psychologist interviewed selected administrative staff and learned the employer’s goal was the safe retention of the employee. Information was developed that the employee had no criminal history. Initial information was that the employee had recently been evaluated for a stroke, but that the physical complaints of this employee had no known medical causation. A referral had then been made for psychological care.
The threat assessment psychologist met with the employee and gained access to her mental health files. It was learned that she became depressed and anxious, and started to have flashbacks and disconnected memories of her childhood. She had trance-like dissociative states. She was suspected of being a victim of sexual abuse as a child, as well as some other violence. Her psychiatrist prescribed a number of medications commonly used in treating depressive, panic, seizure and psychotic disorders.

Psychological testing was conducted, with results indicating the employee was not in touch with her emotions, that may over control the way that she expressed her anger. Her profile indicated that she tended to be impulsive and act out in socially unacceptable ways. She showed a pattern of guilt and remorse and negative self-evaluation after her impulsive behavior, but she tended to repeat this behavior. People with her profile tend to feel tense, agitated and unable to manage their problems. They engage in compulsive behavior and set high standards for themselves and feel guilty when such standards are not met. The test results showed that she had superior intellectual functioning. While she has admitted to recent suicidal ideation, her test results did not suggest a tendency to express anger outwardly. Her pattern of test results suggests that she may have symptoms of a number of psychological conditions.

The psychologist interviewed the employee. She admitted hearing voices. She described these voices as coming from within her head and that the identity of the voice was known to be her. At times, the voices argue. She showed no evidence of obvious delusional beliefs. At times, her memory and concentration appeared lacking for someone of her intellectual capacity. She said that she did not understand why her employer was involved in her situation. She expressed apprehension that she may lose her job.

The employee expressed distress over her recent behavioral changes. She claimed that she finds herself at different locations without remembering the circumstances of her travel.

The employee denied any homicidal ideation, thoughts, intent or plans. She admitted to suicidal ideation in the past, the last time 2-3 months ago. Her plan had involved shooting herself and at least on one occasion, she had placed a gun to her head. She had thoughts about driving her car over a cliff, but she did not pursue this because the outcome was «not guaranteed».

She told the psychologist that a few months ago that she had attempted to acquire a handgun for target practice because she could not bring an unregistered weapon, which she possessed — to the range. She was unable to acquire one because she truthfully answered registration questions pertaining to her mental condition. She had, and may continue to have, access to two other weapons. She claimed that her husband’s unregistered handgun was dismantled. She said that a second unregistered weapon had been in a safe deposit box, but that she then anonymously had mailed it to the police. When the psychologist expressed skepticism that she had mailed this weapon to the police, she then denied mailing it and claimed that she had thrown the gun into the ocean after contemplating killing herself. The employee revealed that she is an experienced shooter of weapons, having been trained to shoot by her father when she was aged four or five. She said that she knows that she can always go to a shooting range to use a weapon there.

The employee disclosed that she had increased her level of alcohol consumption over the past six months. She admitted that she had consumed one and a half beers before coming into the psychological interview in an attempt to manage her anxieties. While she denied any history of problems with alcohol or craving to drink, she revealed that a friend of hers had told her that her drinking was making matters worse. She denied any current abuse of illegal substances, but admitted smoking marijuana and using Ecstasy on several occasions while in college.

An interview with the employee’s supervisor indicated that over the past few weeks, she had been doing well in her work. He felt that she was getting better. He was able to tolerate her occasionally taking sick leave because of episodes that she may experience. He considered her one of the best employees he ever had.

The psychologist completed his evaluation and wrote a detailed report on his findings.
Resolution. The Fitness for Duty documented the severity and variety of her psychological conditions, that the conditions would become noticeable on a periodic basis, and that this would prevent her from working during that time period. During acute episodes of her disorder, she was viewed as being unable to perform some or all of her work functions, duties and responsibilities.

During the period of time that her condition flared, she was considered to be a mild-substantial danger to hurt herself. The level of risk varied as a function of her fluctuating psychological course. Also elevating the risk level was the potential presence of handguns, the location and security of which were not adequately documented. While the employee denied any thoughts, intent or plan to hurt others, the presence of weapons was perceived to elevate the risk that others could be inadvertently hurt in any attempt to hurt herself. Additionally, others who might seek to disarm her could be injured in this process.

The report concluded that if the employer wanted to keep the employee working under these conditions, that coworkers should not transport her for medical care, but should call an ambulance and security if such care was needed. It was also recommended that the employee be directed to have her weapons secured by police authorities. The Employee Assistance Program was suggested as a resource that could be tasked with making recommendations regarding the employee gaining access to specialized treatment programs on the mainland, which programs could be helpful to the employee.

The employer was advised that a comprehensive risk management approach would also involve retaining a security firm that could develop additional information about the behavior, thinking and plans of the employee. The security firm could engage in surveillance or pretext contacts in order to aid in managing the case. The employer was informed that this approach could serve as an early warning system if the employee were engaged in active measures to plan an act of violence. Despite this recommendation, the employer decided against these measures.

The employer decided to retain the employee and to continue to provide accommodation. The employer provided time off for psychological care and discontinued the practice of employees providing transportation to psychological and medical care. The employee has been performing her duties well. Another employee decided to quit because she was so traumatized about being exposed to the behavior of her coworker.

Questions for Discussion:
1. Do you agree with the employer’s willingness to retain the employee?
2. Would your organization handle the situation differently? How?
3. Has your organization identified a threat assessment professional if a similar situation occurred in your organization?

CASE STUDY 2 - "HARASSING BEHAVIOR"

The Incident. A Division administrator contacted Human Resources because of a male employee who, for a period of four years, had engaged in harassing behavior that included threatening hand gestures, facial sneers, hitting another employee with a refrigerator door, being confrontational and intimidating others. In addition, the one employee had made racially derogatory remarks and was badgering and confrontational. The employee had a history of complaining about alleged mistreatment at his workplace. Eight formal internal complaints were documented about the behavior of four coworkers. In formal and informal complaints, he had claimed sexual harassment, reprisals, retaliation, hostile behavior, and racial harassment. He claimed there was a conspiracy against him. He said that he had received prank calls from a coworker. In about a four-month period, he had filed five complaints alleging coworkers had engaged in racial discrimination and lying. No complaints were sustained. Over a four-year span, few of his complaints resulted in coworkers being counseled about their behavior. Most of his complaints were not sustained.

His supervisor and coworkers started to complain about his behavior. He asked if he could get directives in writing. He was observed making extensive use of the telephone for personal calls. He yelled at a coworker. His continuous talking was interfering with other coworkers’ productivity.
He was tardy to work. His supervisor complained about the employee causing her stress. He was noted as moody, making threatening gestures (punching his fist into the palm of his hand), and recording his conversations with everyone by means of a tape recorder. He was asked to calm down as his voice escalated and got very loud. He was unwilling to work required overtime.

He asked a supervisor if he could bring a gun to work in order to protect himself. When he was told «no,» he asked if he could bring pepper spray to work. A coworker claimed that the employee confided that he carried a knife in his socks.

The employee was placed on leave with pay in order to conduct an investigation of his work environment. Three years later, the company sought to take action to resolve this situation.

**Incident Response.** The Human Resources Division contacted a psychologist with threat assessment expertise to meet and help devise a response plan. The initial meeting consisted of a representative of the Human Resources office and the threat assessment psychologist. At this meeting, the background of the case and the employee was discussed. The employer revealed that the goal of the intervention was to devise a strategy which would enable the safe return to work of the employee.

**Human Resources.** The Human Resources administrator was tasked with providing the personnel file and other documents (including the complaint file) to the psychologist for review. He would also arrange for the employee to be evaluated by the psychologist for purposes of providing a plan of action based upon a mental health, or Fitness for Duty evaluation.

**Threat Assessment Psychologist.** The psychologist interviewed selected administrative staff and learned that the employer’s goal was the safe return to work of the employee. The psychologist was provided information that the employer had sent the employee to a psychiatrist at the time he was removed from work status. The psychiatrist conducted one interview and performed no testing. The psychiatrist’s report indicated that coworkers had anxiety about the employee’s potential for dangerousness.

Psychological testing results indicated the employee may have tried to present a distorted and overly positive impression of himself, thereby limiting confidence in the psychological test results. His psychological test results showed that he desires to dominate in relationships and that he may have occasional exaggerated aggressive responses. He has strong need for attention and affection from others and he may fear that these needs will not be met if he is more honest and open about his attitudes. People with his profile are perfectionists and condemnation causes them considerable tension, especially if conveyed by persons in authority. There was no evidence that the employee suffered from disorders such as psychosis, depression, or anxiety disorders. He operated at a normal level of intellectual functioning. There was evidence that he may have various personality disorders.

The psychologist interviewed the employee, who was tense and cautious. He had an unusual affect, a prominent and intermittent facial grimace. He was articulate, deliberate and overtly cooperative. He denied any homicidal or suicidal ideation, thoughts, intent or plans. He claimed that he owned no weapons. He denied any intent to bring a firearm to work, claiming that he only wanted permission to carry a «pepper spray gun.» The reason for this was his purported fear of a coworker. He denied telling this same coworker that he carried a knife on his person, or that he ever does carry a knife.

The employee showed no evidence of hallucinatory behavior or obvious delusional beliefs. He said that he had no problems with alcohol, and previously used it very rarely. He denied any current substance abuse, but admitted smoking marijuana while in high school. He does not take any medication.

The employee was asked if he would be willing to disavow any rights to gun ownership in order to return to work. Initially he responded by saying that he would have to consult with his union in order to not give up any rights. When told that some people are willing to disclaim such ownership rights in order to regain their position, he instructed this evaluator to write that he would do so.

The psychologist completed his evaluation and wrote a detailed report on his findings.
Resolution. The Fitness for Duty report documented that the employee currently showed evidence that he represents a low risk of present danger to himself or others. There was no recent or past specific threat. There was no known substance abuse or psychotic disorder. There was no known history of violence, other than a reported incident when he hit a coworker with a refrigerator door. However, the request to bring a gun to work and allegations that he wore a knife on his person were concerns. It was suggested that if the employee was allowed to return to the workplace, it would be prudent to accept his offer to disavow any gun ownership rights by having him submit a statement to this effect to authorities.

The psychologist stated that because of the employee’s personality disorder, he was likely to continue to have problems dealing tactfully with people. Training classes in anger management, stress management, and conflict resolution were suggested. However, the employer was warned that supervisory tactics would need to be employed to observe his work behavior and document whether or not he meets all requirements, including interpersonal comportment.

The threat assessment psychologist suggested to the employer that the services of a security firm be retained in order to develop more information on the criminal background and weapons ownership profile of the employee. The employer was advised that a comprehensive risk management approach would also involve the security firm engaging in surveillance or pretext contacts in order to aid in managing the case. The employer was informed that this approach could serve as an early warning system if the employee was engaged in active measures to plan an act of violence. Despite these recommendations, the employer decided against these measures.

The employer decided to retain the employee. The employer required the employee to attend extensive anger management training. The employee complained about this requirement and continues to be uncooperative with the employer.

Questions for Discussion:
1. Do you agree with the employer’s willingness to retain the employee?
2. Would your organization handle the situation differently? How?
3. Has your organization identified a threat assessment professional if a similar situation occurred in your organization?

CASE STUDY 3 - «BEHAVIORAL PROBLEM»

The Incident. A supervisor calls the Corporate Director of Safety/Security over the concern of an employee. The supervisor indicates that the employee had asked if their neighbors had called. When asked why, the employee had related a story about his neighbors who have a machine that can read his mind. The employee had told the supervisor that this matter needs to be reported because only the FBI is authorized to have such a machine.

Incident Response. The Assistant General Manager, Department Head, Corporate Director of Safety/Security, Corporate Counsel, and Director of Human Resources reviewed the facts regarding the situation and developed a course of action. The Incident Response Team concluded that the employee should be sent to his personal physician and should return with a letter from his physician stating that the employee «... is not a threat to themselves or someone else ...». Several months later, the employee returned to work with a letter from the doctor. The letter stated that it was the doctor’s opinion that returning to work would be good therapy for the employee. The company did not have an Employee Assistance Program (EAP), which made it difficult to handle.

Investigation. While interviewing the employee, it was found that the employee had thrown rocks at the neighbors’ house causing damage to the windows and roof. The employee explained that this was an attempt to stop them from using the mind reading machine. The employee seemed confused. He indicated that he was seeing a state chiropractor, who suggested that he move because of the neighbors, which he did.

Conclusion. The employee did return to work under close supervision and is doing well.

Lessons Learned:
1. Employees should be treated with respect at all times.
2. When dealing with this type of situation, the individual can be unpredictable. It is important that trained staff handle such matters and consult with an expert in human behavior and risk assessment.

3. It is also very important to consider not only violations of company policy but also violations of criminal laws. Not taking appropriate action to correct behavioral problems is actually giving permission to continue with the actions.

4. It is very important to identify who is on the Incident Response Team and to activate the Incident Response Team as soon as a potential threat is identified.

**EXERCISE 1: «THANK GOODNESS IT’S FRIDAY»**

You are sitting at your desk quietly winding up your work for the day. It’s Friday afternoon and your thoughts turn to your plans for the weekend. Suddenly you are startled by some commotion you hear in the hall. You recognize the voices of your coworkers John and Sarah. Sarah is yelling at John to stop bothering her, that she is sick and tired of his sexual harassment. John is yelling back at her, telling her she’s crazy and that he can’t stand to be with her, much less sexually harass her. The screaming continues and you step out into the hall to try to intervene. About that time, John storms off saying to Sarah, «I hope you have a horrible weekend, I’ll make sure that you do!»

Sarah is shaking and runs out the door. You start thinking about what you should do. All you really want to do is go home and forget this event. It will cool down by Monday. Something bothers you, though. You know that John is an avid gun collector and user and there have been rumors that he has hit his wife. Suddenly you are worried about Sarah.

**Things to think about:**
1. Do you think you should get involved in this situation?
2. What are you going to do now?
3. Is John a violent person?

**EXERCISE 2: «HELPING MARY»**

Mary is a coworker in your agency. She has been a valuable employee to your group and one of the most respected experts in her field. You notice lately, though, that she is more reserved and is absent quite a bit. You hear her quietly crying or having a fight with someone on the phone frequently. She is a bit jumpy while she is at work, always looking over her shoulder when she goes somewhere.

You ask her to lunch one day and voice your concern. Mary says she is having some problems at home but that they are is nothing to worry about; she can handle them herself. Several weeks later you notice that Mary’s fear has escalated. She rarely leaves the building. When she must leave, she moves quickly, always covering her face. She works erratic hours. Her fear is really beginning to affect everyone at work. You are all concerned for her but don’t know what is going on. You begin to wonder if there is a real danger, both to Mary and to the rest of you who work with her.

**Things to think about:**
1. Do you believe this is a situation that requires further action on your part? Why or why not?
2. What are the appropriate interventions in this situation? Think about those things that you and the other coworkers can do, what Mary’s supervisor can do, what security staff can do, and what any other agency staff can do.
3. Are there other protections that should be considered for Mary and her coworkers?

**EXERCISE 3: «THE UNHAPPY CUSTOMER»**

Your job in this Department is to assist recipients of substance abuse grants. It involves working with customers face-to-face each day. Since there are many recipients of these grants, it is impossible
to know all of them personally. Due to recent budget cuts, some of the grantees have been elimi-
nated.

Some of the discontinued recipients have been calling you. They are extremely upset and have
even screamed at you. One even threatened to get even since you ruined his life. You ignore these
calls and threats, attributing the behavior to the situation of losing their livelihoods. In fact, you
actually feel sorry for them and decide you would also be upset if you lost your program.

One morning, you are sitting in your office and a man bursts in and starts waving a gun at you.
You do not recognize him. He starts screaming, «It’s time to get even and don’t act like you don’t
know what I’m talking about!»

**Things to think about:**
1. Detail what you would do in this situation.
2. Could this situation have been prevented? If so, what are some of the preventative actions
you and your Department could have taken?

EXERCISE 4: «THE BURNT-OUT ADMINISTRATOR»

In the last few months, your agency has undergone a re-organization. You are the computer
network administrator and have been working very hard to reconfigure everyone’s computers. You
have been putting in a lot of hours at night so you cause as little disruption as possible. You are
starting to feel extremely stressed. Your attitude has been bad and you don’t particularly like com-
ing to work. You tell yourself that this will end soon, after the new system is put in place.

One morning, after a particularly long night, you come in to work and sit down to read your
email messages. There is a message from a very angry employee whose computer has crashed and
she needs your help immediately. You walk around to her space and the woman starts to verbally
attack you.

She screams, «YOU ARE SO STUPID! ONLY STUPID PEOPLE WOULD MESS UP A COM-
PUTER THE WAY YOU DID. WHY DON’T YOU GET A JOB THAT YOU CAN HANDLE? DON’T
YOU FEEL ASHAMED FOR WHAT YOU HAVE DONE TO ME?»

**Things to think about:**
1. What are your thoughts about this woman right now?
2. Based on these thoughts, how do you think you will respond to her?
3. What are some effective thoughts that would let you see this situation in a different light?
4. What are some things you can do to handle the stress you are feeling at work lately?

EXERCISE 5: «THE STRANGE VISITOR»

In the middle of the day, you leave your office to go the restroom. You notice that the back
emergency door has been propped open to let in the cool breeze. Once you are in the restroom, you
notice a woman acting very strange. She is talking to herself and seems to be agitated. You have
never seen her before and she does not have an ID badge on. When you leave the restroom, she
follows you to your office. She states she is a job applicant but no one will talk to her and she doesn’t
know where to go. Her voice starts to get more frantic.

You offer to take her to the personnel office but she refuses to cooperate and becomes belliger-
ent. She begins to scream about how the government is out to get her. It becomes clear that this
woman is going to be a problem. You wonder how she ever got past the guard.

**Things to think about:**
1. Now that this situation has escalated, what are the best ways to intervene?
2. Would you be concerned about the physical security precautions in your building? Why or
why not? If you are concerned, what would you do to address these concerns?

EXERCISE 7: «ANOTHER VISIT WITH JOHN»
Monday morning. This morning you receive an anonymous note from a female employee in your Department who has accused John of sexual harassment. The note states that he has placed several calls to this employee’s home and asked her out on dates. The employee has refused and has asked John to stop calling her. The employee complaint was anonymous, but because you only have 25 female employees in your area, you have been able to narrow it down to five possibilities, based upon facts you received in the complaint. The complaint also alleges that while the female employee was standing at the copy machine, John rubbed up against her and made a comment about being physically attracted to her.

John is a 56-year old employee who has worked for the Government for 28 years. While John has not been a stellar employee, his performance has been adequate and he has received regular pay increases consistent with his longevity.

During the last five years, John has applied for two promotions and has been turned down both times. On those two occasions, he was disappointed that he was not chosen and made negative comments to his coworkers about affirmative action. However, it did not seem to have a significant impact on his work.

About six months ago, John and his wife of thirty years separated. They have three grown children, none of whom live in this area. While John didn’t really talk about his separation and the details, there were some quiet rumors that John was abusing his wife. In addition, there have been many rumors over the years that John has an alcohol problem. However, since he has a very good attendance record and his performance is adequate, his supervisors decided to respect his privacy and not look into the rumors.

John has only a few friends at work. In his spare time, he is an avid hunter and competitive pistol shooter. In fact, he has won several national awards in competitions sponsored by the NRA. To your knowledge, he has never brought a firearm into the workplace.

**Things to think about:**
1. What are you going to do now?
2. Do you want to change any plans you made at the beginning of this training?

Next day 8:00 am. You read the complaint carefully again several times after not having slept well all night. You decide to contact the human resources office and speak to a special investigator who regularly conducts sexual harassment investigations. Since you do not know the identity of the complainant, it is impossible for you to conduct any interviews of that person. The human resources investigator calls John to come join you for a discussion.

9:00 am. John arrives and you and the investigator inform him that someone has complained about his behavior. You ask him if he will cooperate with the investigation. John expresses outrage that his reputation is being tarnished and demands to know the identity of the accuser. You tell him the complaint was anonymous, but he does not believe you. He insists that he is a good loyal employee with many years of services who is being unfairly maligned by some «bitch.» This language and this type of behavior are fairly unusual for John.

Toward the end of the meeting with John, he becomes belligerent and says, «You have some nerve; I have worked here for 28 years and done a damn good job. Now, you have accused me of sexual harassment. This is outrageous.» Then his face becomes beet red and he says, «I’ll show all of you; nobody messes with me. I’m going to teach all of you a lesson you’ll never forget!» With that, John bolts out of the meeting, walks out and grabs his coat, looks back and says, «I’ll be back later, after I’ve taken care of a few things.»

**Things to think about:**
1. What would you do now?
2. Would you involve others at this point? What are the consequences if you do?
3. Do you think John has made a threat?
4. Do you think a request for a medical exam is appropriate at this time?
EXERCISE 8: «THE BICKERING COWORKERS»

You are the supervisor of a large group of employees. Over the last few months, you notice that two of your employees, Bob and Ed, have not been getting along. They have been calling each other names and have been raising their voices at each other. You have ignored this up until now thinking, «Boys will be boys.» But the situation has escalated now and you are afraid one of them will harm the other. Coworkers are starting to complain that they are afraid and that they can’t concentrate with the disruptions. When you try to sit them down and talk to them, they are belligerent and tell you to stay out of the situation. They tell you this has nothing to do with work and they will handle it on their own. They get up and leave your office.

Things to think about:
1. Do you think this is a violent situation? Why or why not?
2. What would you do at this point?
3. Do you think disciplinary action is warranted? If so, identify the behavior or conduct that is inappropriate. What is your recommended action?
4. Would you consider terminating these employees if the behavior did not stop? If so, what precautions would you take to assure the safety of everyone involved?
GLOSSARY OF PSYCHOLOGICAL TERMS

A

• Adler, Alfred
  Alfred Adler (1870-1937): Austrian psychologist and follower of Freudian psychoanalysis until he broke away to help found the field of individual psychology. Influential in the foundation of psychotherapy and counseling.
• Adorno, Theodor
  Theodor Adorno (1903-1969): German-born psychologist known for research into authoritarian personality traits with the Fascism Scale (F-Scale).
• Agency Theory
  Relating to experiment by Milgram (1963). Theory that a person acts in one of two states: in an Agentic State or Autonomous State.
• Agentic State
  A state of mind in which a person acts on behalf of somebody else, devoid of free will. Opposite to Autonomous State.
• Aggression
  Physical or verbal attitude of acting assertively but negatively towards others.
• Agreeableness
  Personality trait of tending to appease and agree with others. One of the Big Five Personality Traits.
• Ainsworth, Mary
• Altered State of Awareness
  See Altered State of Consciousness (ASC)
• Altered State of Consciousness (ASC)
  State of mind that deviates from normal consciousness. Induced, for example, through hypnosis, meditation, sleep or mental disorder such as Major Depressive Disorder.
• Altruism
  Act of goodwill towards another, either in a selfless manner or with the expectation of a return of favour.
• Anal Stage
  A part of Sigmund Freud's Stages of Psychosexual Development, the anal stage follows the Oral Stage (from birth until around the first year) and can last up to the age of 3. A preoccupation with oral satisfaction, such as feeding, is superseded by satisfaction from defecation. Disruption at this stage can lead to an anal fixation: anally retentive personalities may show signs of obsessive orderliness, while anally expulsive types may be messy or disorganised in later life.
• Anger Management
  Therapy encouraging looking at anger in a different way, often involving the use of relaxation to prevent anger.
• Anima
  The Anima is a key archetype in Jungian psychology. It represents qualities considered to be idealised feminine attributes, such as compassion and sensitivity, and may be repressed in males. Conversely, the animus in females represents those qualities which are seen as masculine.
• Anna O
  Anna O is the pseudonym of Bertha Pappenheim, a patient of Josef Breuer whose hysteria formed the basis of a case study by Breuer and his colleague, Sigmund Freud. Anna O is discussed in Studies on Hysteria (Freud and Breuer, 1895).
• Anorexia
  Eating disorder resulting loss of weight from negative body image or fear of gaining weight.
• Anti-Psychiatry
  Movement opposing the classification of people with abnormal behavior or thoughts as mentally ill.
• Anxiety
  Internal feeling of stress and worry. Can be a symptom of anxiety disorders such as Generalized Anxiety Disorder.
• Applied Psychology
  Principle of using knowledge from psychology theories, studies and experiments to help people to overcome mental issues and in other areas of life.
• Archetype
  In Jungian psychology, archetypes are common model concepts which are held in the collective unconscious and manifest as characters in cultural artefacts such as paintings, myths and other stories. Archetypes include the Great Mother, the Trickster and the Wise Old Man.
• Asch, Solomon
Solomon Asch (1907-1996): Poland-born psychologist commonly known for numerous studies into human conformity in groups.
- Association
  Conditioning involving the linking of two concepts, e.g., drink-driving advertisements encourage the association of drink-driving with car accidents.
- Attachment
  According to John Bowlby's Attachment Theory, an attachment is the bond formed in the early stages of development between an infant and a person such as a caregiver (e.g., a parent). Bowlby emphasized the importance of such attachments and claimed that the quality of such bonds can affect us later in life.
- Attachment Theory
  Theory of bonds formulated by psychologist John Bowlby, usually between parent and baby at an early stage, that can influence future relationships.
- Atypical Psychology
  See Abnormal Psychology
- Authoritarian Personality
  Personality type theorised by Theodor Adorno in a book of the same name. Authoritarian personality types may be influenced by harsh treatment in early years of development, and can result in an empathy with authority.
- Authoritarianism
  In political philosophy, authoritarianism is the belief that power should be concentrated in a limited group of persons or in the case of a dictatorship, often a singular person. Authoritarians require complete obedience by subjects are prone to arbitrary behavior such as punishments and may be resistant to those who question the source of their authority.
- Autonomous State
  State of mind in which one's actions are based on one's own thoughts and inclinations as opposed to Agentic State.

B
- Baddeley & Hitch (1974)
  Working Memory Model - theory of memory consisting of a central executive, articulatory-phonological loop and visuospatial sketchpad.
- Baddeley, Alan

British psychologist known for his work on memory, with the Working Memory Model - Baddeley and Hitch (1974).
- Bandura, Albert
  Albert Bandura (1925-): Canadian psychologist known for his Social Learning Theory in developmental psychology.
- Behavior Modification
  Behavior Modification consists of techniques designed to improve behavior, often using conditioning.
- Behaviorism
  Approach in psychology focusing on external (as opposed to cognitive) behavior
- Big Five Personality Traits
  Common areas of personality measure: Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness and Neuroticism.
- Biological Approach
  Approach takes the view that hereditary, genetic factors, as well as brain and body chemistry, can influence mood and behavior.
- Bowlby, John
  Bowlby, John (1907-1990): British psychologist responsible for theory of attachment in developmental psychology.
- Brainwashing
  Technique of behavior modification through the internalisation of ideas or an ideology.
- Breuer, Josef
  Josef Breuer (1842-1925) was an Austrian physician known for his patient, Anna O, whose case history influenced the theories of his protege, Sigmund Freud. Breuer also co-authored Studies on Hysteria (1895) with Freud.
- Brown & Kulik (1977)
  Study proposing Flashbulb Memories - vivid recollections created at the time of significant events.

C
- Circadian Rhythm
  A circadian rhythm is a biological rhythm which repeats approximately every 24 hours. An example of a circadian rhythm is the sleep-wake cycle.
- Circannual Rhythm
  A circannual rhythm is a biological rhythm which occurs approximately once each year. Birds' migration is an example of a circannual rhythm.
- Coan (1997)
The Lost in the Mall technique is a method of implanting false memories of an event which never occurred. The technique was popularized by an experiment in which James Coan provided family members with reminiscing stories. The story given to his brother - that of being lost in a shopping mall as a child - was invented, but when the participant was questioned, he believed that it had actually happened (Coan, 1997). The Lost in the Mall technique demonstrates the effect of retroactive interference on our memories.

Reference(s):

• Cognitive Approach
The cognitive approach in psychology emphasizes the significance of a person's cognitive processes, such as thoughts, as an influence on their behavior. The approach was popularized by Ulric Neisser's 1967 book Cognitive Psychology.

Reference(s):

• Collective Unconscious
According to Carl Jung, a collection of memories and ideas which we all inherit, regardless of the culture or time period into which we were born. The collective unconscious contains archetypes which may surface in dreams and myths independently across different societies.

• Compatibilism
Compatibilism is a theory that free will and determinism can co-exist.

• Computer Dance Experiment
See Walster (1966)

• Conscientiousness
Personality trait of being conscious of one's actions. One of the Big Five Personality Traits.

• Conscious
Area of the psyche in which a person's awareness operates and readily accessible memories reside.

• Craik and Lockhart (1972)
Levels of processing theory linking the re-hearing of information to its retention.

Reference(s):

• Critical Period
A critical period in developmental psychology are periods of time during which a particular process, such as filial imprinting, may be expected to occur. The absence of the required external stimuli can lead to incomplete development during this stage. For example, in the case of filial imprinting, if a moving object (e.g. their mother) is not witnessed during the critical period shortly after birth, a baby may not form a filial imprint of that stimulus.

D

• Determinism
In psychology, the belief that cognitive processes and behavior are determined by genetic factors and external environmental influences. Determinism negates the ability of humans to choose their behavior entirely of their own free will.

• Didactic
Informative with a focus on instructive teaching.

E

• Ego
In the psychodynamic model, the ego is the aspect of the personality which attempts to satisfy the needs of the id, but recognises that not all of its needs can be reasonably fulfilled.

• Electra Complex
Comparable to the Oedipus Complex in Freudian psychology, the Electra Complex refers to the competition for the affection of the father in females. This can lead to a resentment of the mother, whom the father demonstrates love for. The Electra Complex is named after Electra in Greek mythology, a character who plans with her brother, Orestes, to murder her mother, Clytemnestra, in revenge for her murdering the Electra's father.

• Extraversion
Personality trait of confident, outgoing behavior and being assertive in one's actions. One of the Big Five Personality Traits.

• Eyewitness Testimony
Eyewitness testimony is the evidence given by witnesses primarily in court cases. The reliability and accuracy of eyewitness testimonies has been questioned by psychologists such as Elizabeth Loftus and can be affected by false memories.

- **F-Scale**
  See Adorno (1947)

- **False Memory**
  A false memory is a memory which a person may falsely recall in the belief that it is true. False memories may be created inadvertently or intentionally, as demonstrated by the Lost in the Mall Technique (Coan, 1997). The discovery of false memories has had implications for use of eyewitness testimonies in court cases.

Reference(s):

- **Fight-or-Flight Response**
  The fight-or-flight response was first used by Walter Bradford Cannon to describe a set of physiological responses that are triggered in stressful situations, including the contraction of muscles and dilation of the pupils in a state of heightened awareness in preparation to respond to a threat.

- **Filial Imprinting**
  Filial imprinting is a process which occurs in the early stages of life, when an infant observes a moving person or object and forms an attachment to them. Originally described by Douglas Spalding as 'stamping in', the process was referred to as 'imprinting' by Oskar Heinroth and demonstrated by his student, Konrad Lorenz, in greylag geese (Lorenz, 1935).

Reference(s):

- **Flashbulb Memory**
  See Brown and Kulik (1977)

- **Free Will**
  The ability to make one's own decisions and to choose how to behave without external influences determining behavior. Opposed to determinism.

- **Freud, Sigmund**
  Freud, Sigmund (1856-1939) was an Austrian psychoanalyst who developed the psychodynamic theory in psychology. Freud maintained that the Oedipus and Electra complexes, along with other desires, motivate human behavior.

- **Freudian Slip**
  Inadvertent mispronunciation of, or unconscious use of, a word or phrase in a way that unintentionally reveals a person's true feelings or opinions.

- **Great Mother**
  The Great Mother is one of the primary archetypes described by Carl Jung. She may embody typical maternal qualities such as that of a caring, understanding and encouraging parent who may be consulted for advice or sought in times of need. Another contrasting side of this archetype is the Shadow of the Great Mother, whose destructive forces is to be feared. The concept of Mother Nature, for example, sees the positive, creative influence of the Great Mother in the fertility, growth and abundance of crops, whilst her Shadow is embodied in the destructive tendencies of storms, tsunamis and earthquakes.

- **Heinroth, Oskar**
  Oskar Heinroth (1871-1945) was a German biologist who re-discovered 'imprinting' during a critical period of development (the process was originally referred to by Douglas Spalding as 'stamping in'). Heinroth mentored Austrian ornithologist Konrad Lorenz, whose work imprinting greylag geese introduced a wider audience to imprinting (Lorenz, 1935).

Reference(s):

- **Hierarchy of Needs**
Set of physiological and growth needs identified by Abraham Maslow (1943) as motivating our behavior.

- Humanistic Psychology
  Approach in psychology emphasizing the ability of the patient or other subject to determine their behavior.

- Hypnosis
  Altered state of awareness induced by a combination of relaxation and suggestion, allowing access to the subconscious.

- Id
  Id (meaning 'it' in Latin) in the psychodynamic model is the aspect of one's personality which expresses a person's innate needs and demands instant gratification of those needs. Later in development, a person's id is tempered by the ego and eventually the superego.

- Individuation
  According to Carl Jung, individuation is a process of realising one's true Self. Jung claimed that people's aspiration to live up to certain archetypes lead to them repressing some aspects of their Self. These must be allowed to surface and coexist (a process referred to as 'integration') for a person to understand who they really are.

- Infradian Rhythm
  An infradian rhythm is a biological rhythm which occurs less than once every 24 hours. The menstruation cycle is an example of an infradian rhythm.

- Introversion
  Personality trait characterised by quiet thoughtfulness and an aversion to social situations particularly in large groups, in contrast to extroversion.

- Introvert
  An introvert is a person whose personality type is one of introversion. Characteristics often include reserved behavior such as quietness and an aversion to social interactions. An introvert may prefer their own company or small groups and take a contemplative approach to problems. The opposite of an introvert is an extrovert.

- Jung, Carl
  Carl Jung (1875-1961) was a Swiss psychiatrist known for his contributions to analytical psychology. Jung was a friend of Sigmund Freud but later disagreed with his theories. Jung proposed that humans inherit common memories and ideas in a collective unconscious and noted numerous characters, or archetypes, which people are widely able to relate to.

- Law of Effect
  In behavioral psychology, the Law of Effect was a theory put forward by Edward Thorndike which proposed that behavior carrying a reward would be 'stamped in' - associated with the reward and so carried out more often - and behavior that was punished or produced no reward would be 'stamped out' and reduced.

- Neuroticism
  Anxious mentality, often leading to stress and/or anger. One of the Big Five Personality Traits.

- O, Anna
  Anna O was a patient of Josef Breuer who suffered from hysteria, with symptoms including hydrophobia, partial paralysis and involuntary eye movements. Breuer claimed that these were caused by events earlier in life and could be alleviated by expressing them in psychoanalytic sessions. The case of Anna O later influenced the theories of Sigmund Freud.

- Observational Psychology
  Approach which aims to understand behaviour and learning through observation.

- Oedipus Complex
  In Freudian psychology, a complex in males which leads to a person competing for the attention and affection of their mother. This demand is often in competition with a person's father, who may become the focus of feelings of resentment or jealousy. The Oedipus Complex takes its name from a character in Greek mythology whose competition for the affection of his mother, Jocasta, leads Oedipus to murder his own father, Laius. In females, the Oedipus Complex may be compared to the Electra Complex.
Open-minded attitude towards new ideas. One of the Big Five Personality Traits.

- Oral Stage
  According to Sigmund Freud's Stages of Psychosexual Development, the oral stage occurs in the first year after birth, when the need to feed is satisfied orally. Irregularities experienced during the oral stage, such as food deprivation, can lead to an oral fixation, which can manifest itself as a need for oral satisfaction (e.g. chewing gum) later in life.

- Pavlov's Dogs
  Experiments by Ivan Pavlov demonstrating classical conditioning with regards to salivation in dogs.

- Pavlov, Ivan
  Russian physiologist known for experiments demonstrating classical conditioning, a key tenet of the behaviorist approach.

- Persona
  According to Jungian psychology, the persona is the image of ourselves which we attempt to project to others. We may view some traits of our personality as negative and suppress them from our Persona. Therefore, the Persona may not represent a person's genuine inner Self, and may also be influenced by the model personalities, or archetypes, which a person aspires to.

- Personal Unconscious
  In Jungian psychology, the Personal Unconscious is a component of the psyche, in which experiences, thoughts or feelings that have been repressed may reside. The contents of the Personal Unconscious can affect the subject matter of dreams, can and emerge in other forms, such as an irrational fear.

- Phallic Stage
  According to Sigmund Freud's Stages of Psychosexual Development, the Phallic Stage follows the Oral and Anal stages and occurs between the ages of approximately 3 to 6 years. During the Phallic Stage, the erogenous zone moves from anal/bowel movements to the genitals. At this stage, the person may experience the Oedipus Complex or Electra Complex.

- Pleasure Principle
  Assertion that our actions are motivated by the pursuit of maximum pleasure and enduring the least amount of pain possible.

- Psyche
  Totality of the human mind, including the conscious and subconscious. The role of the psyche is the focus of the psychoanalytic approach, whose proponents include Sigmund Freud and Carl Jung.

- Psychoanalysis
  Psychoanalysis consists of a range of techniques which attribute abnormal feelings and behaviors to the internal conflicts of the mind. Psychoanalysts, beginning with Sigmund Freud and later Carl Jung amongst others, may use techniques such as hypnosis and regression to uncover repressed memories and thoughts in the subconscious mind, with the belief that by enabling them to surface in the conscious mind, a person can overcome problems.

- Psychodynamic Approach
  An approach in psychology which focuses on internal process of the psyche. Originating from the theories of Sigmund Freud, the psychodynamic approach looks at 'dynamics' which can influence feelings, thoughts and behavior, including conflicts between the subconscious and conscious mind, the effect of experiences earlier in life, such as fixation during Freud's Stages of Psychosexual Development.

- Rapid Eye Movement
  Rapid Eye Movement, or REM, is the rapid movement of the eyes which occurs during the sleep cycle. REM is commonly associated with dreaming.

- Reality Principle
  According to the analytical approach, the idea that our behavior is informed not only by one's inner desires (as opposed to the Pleasure Principle) but with recognition of external realities and what is reasonable or acceptable.

- Recall
  In the study of human memory, recall is the ability to access a memory when it is needed. Successful memory recall depends on various factors. For example, Craik and Lockhart (1972) claimed that increased effort spent thinking over, or rehearsing, information can lead to an increased chance of recall.

Reference(s):
• **Reciprocal Altruism**
Helping others at the expense of one's own resources, in the expectation that the favor will be repaid in the future. E.g. vampire bats feed related bats blood and expect that they will do the same when requested (Trivers, 1971).

Reference(s):

• **Reductionism**
In psychology, considering human processes in a simplified manner, often criticized by humanistic theories for de-humanizing subjects by considering them on an atomistic level.

• **Regression**
Regression is often used as a therapeutic technique to take a subject back to an earlier point in their life with a hope of finding causes to problems in the present.

• **Repression**
Repression refers to the concealment of memories, thoughts or feelings which in the conscious would cause anxiety or discomfort. These repressed ideas reside in the unconscious (or, according to Carl Jung, the Personal Unconscious) and may surface in dreams or influence a person without them being aware, such as in the case of Josef Breuer's client, Anna O. Therefore, repressed thoughts and their effect on a person are often the subject of psychoanalysts' work.

• **Retroactive Interference**
Retroactive interference refers to the impact of information on the recall of memories that have already been stored. Interference can include the wording of questions that a research uses, as demonstrated in a 1978 experiment which manipulated participants' recall of the events in a video with the use of different questions (Loftus, Miller and Burns, 1978).

Reference(s):

• **Selye, Hans**
Hans Selye (1907-1982) was a Vienna-born endocrinologist known for identifying General Adaptation Syndrome. Selye born in Vienna, Austro-Hungary and graduated with an MD from the German University of Prague in 1929, received a PhD in 1931 and the following year, accepted a position at McGill University in Montreal, Canada to continue his biochemistry research. Whilst at McGill, in a 1926 article in Nature entitled, "A Syndrome produced by Diverse Nocuous Agents", he identified a set of symptoms of being exposed to various threats in rats as general adaptation syndrome, and later labelled "stress" as we understand it today. Selye died in Montreal in 1982 at the age of 75.

• **Sexual Imprinting**
Sexual imprinting is a process of observation of one's parents which influences a person's sexual preferences later in life. Sexual imprinting can, for example, affect the traits that an animal will seek in a potential mate (Gallagher, 1977).

Reference(s):

• **Shadow**
In Jungian psychology, the Shadow is an archetype which represents the side of a person which is hidden from the persona. The Shadow contains a person's anxieties and traits which they consider, correctly or incorrectly, to be negative. For example, it may contain a person's sensitivity and humility, which to some is a positive attribute but to the person may be a sign of weakness.

• **Simultaneous Discovery**
When a discovery is made by two or more parties independently of each other. For example, U.S. psychologist Edwin Twitmyer produced theories similar to classical conditioning around the time that Ivan Pavlov demonstrated it in Russia (Coon, 1982).

Reference(s):
• Sleep Cycle
Circadian biological rhythm oscillating between sleep and awakenedness.

• Spalding, Douglas
Douglas Spalding (1841-1877) was an English biologist who noted the concept of "stamping in" in newborn chickens (Spalding, 1873). Spalding’s observations were developed in the 20th Century by German biologist Oskar Heinroth and referred to as imprinting. Heinroth’s student Konrad Lorenz then popularised the concept through his practise of imprinting himself as a parental figure in greylag geese.

Reference(s):

• Stamping In
According to Edward Thorndike's Law of Effect, stamping in is the association of a particular type of behavior with a subsequent reward. Thorndike proposed that this association would produce similar behavior as a result of the reward.

• Stamping Out
In the Law of Effect proposed by Edward Thorndike, stamping out is the association of a certain behavior with a punishment, or at least the absence of any reward. Over time, the behavior would be 'stamped out' - it would gradually decrease as a result of the association.

• Stanford Prison Experiment (1971)
Experiment conducted by Philip Zimbardo in which participants were assigned roles of prison guard or prisoner. Participants assigned as prison guards undertook increasingly cruel behavior in the believe that they were conforming to their social role.

• Subconscious
Level of consciousness beneath our awareness which cannot be accessed at will. According to psychodynamic theory, the subconscious may contain repressed thoughts and memories and can influence dreams. Attempts to access the subconscious have been made using hypnosis and regression.

• Superego
The superego is the most developed aspect of the personality compared to the id and the ego, according to the psychodynamic model. The superego represents our conscience, recognising the needs of those in the external world, and is responsible for feelings of guilt.

• Superstition
Irrational belief, often involving a fear of consequences arising from another, un-linked behavior or absence of behavior.

• Systematic Desensitization
Treatment used to help users to overcome fears and phobias with a user embracing relaxation and 'coping' techniques.

T

• Tabula Rasa
Meaning 'blank slate' in Latin, the idea that humans are influenced by environmental, rather than innate, influences.

• Token Economy
Form of operant conditioning by which a subject is 'taught' to behave in a particular manner through a process of rewarding.

• Tolman, Edward
Edward Tolman (1886-1959): U.S. psychologist known for theory of Sign Learning, with a focus on stimuli as opposed to responses.

• Trait
With regards to personality, a trait is aspect of someone's personality, e.g. Agreeableness.

• Trance
Relaxed state of mind commonly used in hypnosis.

• Transactional Analysis
Theory of personality in psychology, developed by Eric Berne. A humanistic, neo-Freudian approach which focuses on interpersonal 'transactions' - communication.

• Tulving, Endel
Endel Tulving (1927-): Estonian psychologist know for research into Levels of Processing in memory (Craik and Tulving, 1975).

• Twin Studies
Twin studies are common in psychology, enabling researchers to identify variations among subjects whose genetic makeup are very similar, therefore eliminating hereditary factors as an influence on a disorder or other issue.

• Twins, Mono-Zygotic
Mono-zygotic twins are identical twins.
• Ultradian Rhythm
An ultradian rhythm, such as the stages of sleep, is a biological rhythm which occurs more frequently than every 24 hours.

• Validity
In psychological research, the quality of an argument or degree to which an experiment is accurate and may be generalized.

• Vanity
Narcissistic personality trait, with focus on one's self.

• Vygotsky, Leo

• Vygotsky, Lev
Lev Semyonovich Vygotsky (1896-1934) was a Belarusian psychologist whose theory of a Zone of Proximal Development with regards to the development of cognitive abilities through social interaction learning gained supporters during the 20th Century. In his work Thought and Language, Vygotsky also observed the significance of vocalizing one's thought process, which in later internalised to became an 'inner voice'.

• Watson, John

• Westermarck Effect
The Westermarck Effect, named after Finnish anthropologist Edvard Westermarck, is a tendency for people to develop sexually passive attitude to those in their social circle, and to seek a partner who is outside of that circle (Westermarck, 1891).

• Westermarck, Edvard
Edvard Westermarck (1862-1939) was a Finnish anthropologist often known for what has later been referred to as the Westermarck Effect (Westermarck, 1891).

Reference(s):

• Wise Old Man
Archetype in Jungian psychology representing stoic contemplation and reasoning. The Wise Old Man is reclusive but reaches thought-out decisions.

• Working Memory Model
In memory, a theory of remembering devised by Baddeley and Hitch. Proposes that the human memory may be divided into a Articulatory Phonological Loop, Visuo-Spatial Sketchpad which communicate with a Central Executive.

• Wundt, Wilhelm
Wilhelm Wundt (1832-1920): German philosopher and a founder of the modern study of psychology.

• Zeitgeber
A zeitgeber (from the German "time" and "giver") is an endogenous cue in the environment which helps animals' internal pacemaker to regulate biological rhythms. For example, daylight is a zeitgeber which helps to regulate daily (circadian) rhythms.

• Zimbardo, Philip
Philip Zimbardo (1933-): US psychologist famous for the 1971 Stanford Prison experiment which looked into the way in which we conform to our social roles.

• Zone of Proximal Development
Theory proposed by Belarusian psychologist Lev Vygotsky which proposes that a person's cognitive abilities are central to a 'zone', further out of which one finds their potential abilities, which can be developed through social learning.
REFERENCES FOR STUDY

Dear teachers,

This interview is devised to collect information about the role of educational psychology in the teaching process and the importance of teaching the module of psychopedagy at the university. We would be grateful if you could answer these questions to help us in our research for the Master’s degree in Language Sciences.

We would thank You in advance

1. What do you think about the teaching process?
2. Do you follow a particular way in teaching classroom?
3. How many years have you been teaching English?
4. What are the main subjects you have been teaching?
5. What do you think about the module of psycho-pedagogy?
6. What do you think about the role of Educational psychology in teacher’s career?
7. What is the role of the teacher in teaching psycho-pedagogy?
8. What are the objectives of educational psychology?
9. Educational psychology provides the teaching process with theories, strategies and techniques which help teachers in the teaching process. What do you think?
10. Do you apply some of those techniques and strategies in your daily teaching? Do you find it useful?
11. In your opinion what is the more appropriate one among: Instruction-centered or Student-centered teaching strategies? Why?
12. What is your point of view about the teachers who do not have knowledge about the theories and strategies of educational psychology about the teaching process?
13. Could they be successful teachers?
14. What is your advice for them?
15. What is your advice to the novice teacher of English today?
16. What do you think about the use of technology in the teaching process?
17. Any comments?
Dear students.

You are kindly invited to fill in the following questionnaire. It is designed to check your attitudes towards the module of Psychopedagogy, its importance and its application in education. Please, tick the appropriate answer and justify it whenever it is possible. We extremely appreciate your collaboration.

1. Background information:
   a. Age
   b. Gender:
      - Male
      - Female
   c. Why did you choose to study English?
      - Your parents obliged you
      - Your choice
      - You just choose it.
   d. If it is your choice, state the reason.

2. Attitude of the students toward the teacher and the classroom.
   a. What is the type of atmosphere, which exists in the classroom?
      - Friendly
      - Fearly
      - Neutral
   b. What is the type of relationship between you and your teacher?
      - Good
      - Bad
      - Neutral
   c. Did your teacher fits all your needs?
      - Most of them
      - Some of them
      - Not at all
   d. What is his role in the classroom?
   e. Did your teacher use different strategies in teaching?
      - Yes
      - No
   f. If yes, what are these strategies?

   g. If not, why did not he do?

3. Some questions about the classroom:
   a. what do you think about the module of psycho-pedagogy?
      - Interesting
      - Boring
b. What is its main role in both learning and teaching?

c. Did you know the most theories and strategies of psychopedagogy?
   – Yes
   – No

d. If yes, did your teachers apply those theories and strategies in the classroom?
   – Yes
   – No

e. Do you think that this module would be helpful for you?
   – Yes
   – No

f. Are the teachers of psychopedagogy different from the other teachers of other modules?
   – Yes
   – No

Justify:

_______________________________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________________________

_______________________________________________________________________________________
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_______________________________________________________________________________________

__________

g. Do you think that psychopedagogy is different from the other modules?
   – Yes
   – No

Justify:

_______________________________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________________________

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h. Any comments about the module of psychopedagogy.

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_______________________________________________________________________________________

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Учебное издание

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