

МИНИСТЕРСТВО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ И НАУКИ РОССИЙСКОЙ ФЕДЕРАЦИИ

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# **ПСИХОЛОГИЯ**

Учебное пособие  
по английскому языку  
(базовый уровень)

Ростов-на-Дону 2014

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## ПРЕДИСЛОВИЕ

Основной целью направления «Иностранный язык в профессиональной сфере» является овладение необходимым уровнем коммуникативной компетенции для решения социально-коммуникативных задач в профессиональной и научной деятельности при общении с зарубежными партнерами, при подготовке научных работ, а также для дальнейшего самообразования.

В процессе изучения дисциплины решаются основные задачи:

- расширение кругозора и повышение информационной культуры студентов;
- создание словарного запаса в пределах профессиональной сферы.

Студенты, завершившие изучение дисциплины «Психология», должны знать:

- знать базовую лексику;
- знать базовую грамматику;
- понимать устную речь;
- читать со словарем;
- владеть основными навыками письма.

Иностранный язык как никакой другой предмет имеет тесную связь со множеством гуманитарных направлений. Специфика направления «Иностранный язык в профессионально сфере» требует приоритетного внимания к определенной профессионально-ориентированной тематике на базе иностранного языка 1 курса (1-2 семестры) «General English».

В системе обучения по направлению Психология «Иностранный язык в профессиональной сфере»

используются тексты по широкому профилю направления обучения: социальная психология, история психологии, общая психология, анатомия ЦНС, нейрофизиология, введение в клиническую психологию: основы нейро- психологии, психодиагностика: теория и практика, психофизиология.

Оценка успеваемости студентов осуществляется на основе бально-рейтинговой системы. Максимально возможное количество баллов, которые может набрать студент за весь курс – 100 баллов. Половина возможных баллов (50 баллов) отводятся на текущую успеваемость, – по 25 баллов на каждый из двух рейтинговых блоков. Оставшиеся 50 баллов отводятся на итоговый экзамен, который традиционно проводится в виде теста из 50 вопросов.

Итоговая оценка студента формируется исходя из общего количества набранных баллов согласно таблице.

| Критерии оценки ответа на зачете |   |                           |                                 |
|----------------------------------|---|---------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Уровни                           | Критерии оценки результатов освоения дисциплины   | Итоговый семестровый балл | Итоговая оценка                 |
| Недостаточный                    | 1) не знает лексический минимум для работы с профессиональной литературой;<br>2) не способен осуществлять взаимодействие на иностранном языке;<br>3) не владеет терминологией по предмету;  | Менее 41                  | Незачтено (неудовлетворительно) |
| Основной                         | 1) владеет иностранным языком в недостаточном объеме для работы с профессиональной литературой;<br>2) испытывает трудность в понимании содержания терминологии изучаемой дисциплины;<br>3) испытывает трудность при работе со справочной специальной литературой по предмету на иностранном языке ; | 41-61                     | зачтено (удовлетворительно)     |

# Раздел I. Основы психологии.

## *Unit 1. Общее представление о психологии*

|         |
|---------|
| Перевод |
|---------|

### *Introduction to psychology*

Have you wondered why the full moon looks so much larger near the horizon than it does in the sky? Or what dreams mean? How about whether lie detectors really work or whether alcoholism is inherited? If so, you have entered the world of psychology, where scientists search for answers to these and many other fascinating questions.

*Psychology* is the science of behavior and mental processes. This means that psychologists conduct experiments and use other scientific methods to better understand the actions and thoughts of humans and animals, from the activity of a single nerve cell to the working of memory to the social conflicts in a complex society.

### *The World of Psychology: An Overview.*

In 1879, in Leipzig, Germany, Wilhelm Wundt established the first formal psychology laboratory. Wundt, a physician and physiologist, used the methods of laboratory science, especially experiments, in an effort to identify the basic elements of human consciousness. Over the ensuing 115 years, psychologists expanded the range of their research to encompass hundreds of other phenomena — from colorblindness and racial prejudice to severe depression and job satisfaction. As a result of this diversity, psychology today has numerous areas of specialization, or *subfields*.

### *Subfields of Psychology*

In March of 1991 television news programs aired a videotape showing four white police officers in Los Angeles kicking and severely beating Rodney King, an

unarmed African-American motorist whom they were trying to arrest. A years later, when an all-white jury in the officers' state trial found the officers not guilty of assault, live broadcasts showed parts of Los Angeles exploding in riots. These violent reflections of and reactions to prejudice against minorities in the United States provide but one example of the violence that is a distressing fact of public and private life in most countries around the world. In homes, children are abused and spouses are battered. In schools, there are fights and even shootings. Streets are the scene of murder and rape and conflicts between demonstrators and police. In some countries, rival militias clash, death squads torture and kill political opponents, and there is an endless procession of wars, large and small.

What causes violence? Why are some people so much more violent than others? What can be done to prevent violence? Some psychologists have addressed these important questions in their research (National Research Council, 1993). The particular aspects of violence they study illustrate the differences in the subject matter of psychology's subfields.

*Experimental and cognitive psychologists*, for example, study such basic components of behavior and mental processes as perception, learning, memory, motivation, and emotion, as well as judgment, decision making, and problem solving. Thus, their study of violence might focus on the effect of high temperatures on aggressiveness or how the information people recall about other people might affect the probability of physically attacking them. *Biological psychologists*, who are also called *physiological psychologists*, analyze how biology shapes behavior and mental processes. Their work has helped us understand, for example, how the brain controls physical movements, regulates eating, and receives information from the senses.

With regard to violence, they have looked at whether differences in hormones account for the fact that men tend to be more violent than women; they also study how drugs or brain tumors can create episodes of aggression in normally peaceful people.

While some psychologists seek laws that govern the behavior of people in general, *personality psychologists* focus on the characteristics that make each person unique. They have identified, for example, the personality dimension known as introversion-extraversion, and they study relationships between people's scores on personality tests and their tendency to display violent, shy, bold, or fearful behavior. *Social psychologists* study how people influence one another, especially in groups. They have found that the presence and actions of others affect a wide range of behaviors, from individual athletic performance and jury verdicts to group problem solving and mob violence. The research of *clinical and counseling psychologists* on violence is just one example of their interest in all forms of abnormal behavior; they also provide direct aid to troubled people.

Behavior and mental processes are always changing. *Developmental psychologists* describe these changes and try to understand their causes and effects throughout the life span. They ask, for example, whether differences in temperament at birth or variations in parenting patterns might be tied to, say, differences in dependency or aggressiveness in adulthood.

Research in yet other subfields — such as community, industrial-organizational, and quantitative psychology — has also shed light on various aspects of violence, as well as on many other behaviors and mental processes.

#### *Approaches to Psychology*

Suppose you were a psychologist trying to understand

the origins of violence. Where would you look for answers? Do the origins lie in hormonal imbalances or brain disorders? Is its source an ancient instinct once necessary for survival, or do learned habits create violence? Each of these questions reflects a different approach to psychology, a different set of guiding assumptions, questions, and methods for understanding behavior and mental processes. Some psychologists adopt only one approach, but many are *eclectic*, combining features of two or more approaches because they believe that no one perspective can fully account for all aspects of every psychological phenomenon. Though they differ in their influence today, the approaches that have been most significant throughout the history of psychology are the biological, evolutionary, psychodynamic, behavioral, humanistic, and cognitive approaches.

*The Biological Approach.* The possibility that violent behavior might stem from a hormonal imbalance or brain disorder reflects the biological approach. Its roots can be traced back to Wilhelm Wundt. He studied biological processes only indirectly, by exploring, for example, how long it took people to react to a stimulus. Today, the *biological approach* focuses on biological processes more directly, examining how specific physiological processes shape behavior and mental processes.

As you might expect, the biological approach is prominent among biological psychologists, who study the psychological effects of hormones, genes, and electrical and chemical activity in the nervous system, especially the brain. However, psychologists in other subfields, such as cognitive or clinical psychology, may also take a biological approach. They try to understand how memories are stored in the brain; they look for patterns of physiological arousal associated with certain forms of thought; they analyze the



degree to which a tendency toward mental disorder is affected by the genes inherited from one's parents.

Wilhelm Wundt and other early psychologists such as Edward Titchener and Hermann Ebbinghaus, used the term *experimental psychology* to distinguish their laboratory work from the endeavors of philosophers and others who thought and speculated about consciousness, memory, and other psychological matters but performed no experiments.

|   |
|---|
| <b>Грамматика</b><br><b>Теория и практика</b> |
|---|

**Множественное число имён существительных.**

Множественное число имен существительных образуется путем:

1. Добавления окончания «s» к существительному:

*a book* *books*

*a pen* *pens*

2. Добавления окончания «s» к существительным, оканчивающимся на гласную + «у»:

*turkey* индюк *turkeys*

*monkey* обезьяна *monkeys*

*day* день *days*

3. Замены «у» на «i» и добавления «es» к существительным, оканчивающимся на согласную + «у»:

*a country* страна *countries*

*a company* компания *companies*

4. Добавления окончания «es» к существительным, оканчивающимся на «s», «x», «z», «ch», and «sh»:

*class* класс *classes*

*buzz* звонок *buzzes*

*watch* часы *watches*

*crash* крушение *crashes*

5. Замены «f» на «v» и добавления окончания «es» к существительным, оканчивающимся на «f» и «fe»:

|                      |                |
|----------------------|----------------|
| <i>knife</i> нож     | <i>knives</i>  |
| <i>wife</i> жена     | <i>wives</i>   |
| <i>life</i> жизнь    | <i>lives</i>   |
| <i>half</i> половина | <i>halves</i>  |
| <i>shelf</i> полка   | <i>shelves</i> |
| <i>wolf</i> волк     | <i>wolves</i>  |

Но не всегда. Исключениями являются:

|                       |                              |
|-----------------------|------------------------------|
| <i>belief</i> вера    | <i>beliefs</i>               |
| <i>chief</i> шеф      | <i>chiefs</i>                |
| <i>chef</i> шеф-повар | <i>chefs</i>                 |
| <i>cliff</i> утёс     | <i>cliffs</i>                |
| <i>roof</i> крыша     | <i>roofs</i>                 |
| <i>hoof</i> копыто    | <i>hoofs</i> и <i>hooves</i> |

6. Добавления «s» или «es» к существительному, оканчивающиеся на «o»:

|                         |                 |
|-------------------------|-----------------|
| <i>piano</i> пианино    | <i>pianos</i>   |
| <i>potato</i> картофель | <i>potatoes</i> |
| <i>tomato</i> помидор   | <i>tomatoes</i> |
| <i>hero</i> герой       | <i>heroes</i>   |

Ряд существительных образуют множественное число *не по общим правилам*:

а) изменяется корневая гласная:

|                        |              |         |
|------------------------|--------------|---------|
| <i>a man</i> мужчина   | <i>men</i>   | мужчины |
| <i>a woman</i> женщина | <i>women</i> | женщины |
| <i>a foot</i> нога     | <i>feet</i>  | ноги    |
| <i>a tooth</i> зуб     | <i>teeth</i> | зубы    |
| <i>a goose</i> гусь    | <i>geese</i> | гуси    |
| <i>a mouse</i> мышь    | <i>mice</i>  | мыши    |

б) добавляется окончание **-en**;

|                        |                 |      |
|------------------------|-----------------|------|
| <i>an ox</i> бык       | <i>oxen</i>     | быки |
| <i>a child</i> ребенок | <i>children</i> | дети |

в) заимствуются формы единственного и множественного числа из латинского и греческого языков:

|       |                  |         |                            |          |
|-------|------------------|---------|----------------------------|----------|
| В     | <i>a formu</i>   | формул  | <i>formulae (formulas)</i> | формулы  |
| англи | <i>a crisis</i>  | кризис  | <i>crises</i>              | кризисы  |
| йском | <i>a criteri</i> | критери | <i>criteri</i>             | критерии |
| языке | <i>a bacter</i>  | бактери | <i>bacter</i>              | бактерии |
| есть  | <i>a datum</i>   | данное  | <i>data</i>                | данные   |
| сущес | <i>an index</i>  | индекс  | <i>indice</i>              | индексы  |

твительные, которые имеют одну (общую) форму для единственного и множественного чисел:

|                |      |              |        |
|----------------|------|--------------|--------|
| <i>a deer</i>  | олен | <i>deer</i>  | олени  |
| <i>a sheep</i> | овца | <i>sheep</i> | овцы   |
| <i>a fish</i>  | рыба | <i>fish</i>  | рыбы   |
| <i>a swine</i> | свин | <i>swine</i> | свиньи |
| <i>moose</i>   | лось | <i>moose</i> | лоси   |
| <i>bison</i>   | бизо | <i>bison</i> | бизоны |

Исчисляемые существительные легко узнать. Они обозначают предметы, которые мы можем сосчитать. Например: «ручка». Мы можем посчитать ручки. Их может быть одна, две, три или большее количество. Вот некоторые примеры исчисляемых существительных:

*cat* кот

*person* человек

*litre* литр

Неисчисляемые существительные обозначают вещества, понятия и т.д., то есть то, что не может делиться на отдельные элементы. Мы не можем «посчитать» их. Например, мы не можем посчитать «молоко». Мы можем посчитать «бутылки молока» или «литры молока», но мы не можем непосредственно посчитать «молоко». Вот некоторые примеры неисчисляемых существительных:

*music* музыка

*art* искусство

*love* любовь

Неисчисляемые существительные обычно употребляются в единственном числе, поэтому используется глагол в единственном числе. Например:

***This news is very important.*** Эти новости очень важны.

*Your luggage looks heavy.* Ваш багаж выглядит тяжелым.

С неисчисляемыми существительными обычно не используется неопределенный артикль а/ап. Нельзя сказать *an information* или *a music*. Но можно сказать: *a piece of news* новость *a bottle of water* бутылка воды *a grain of rice* зерно риса

Напитки (кофе, вода, чай) обычно неисчисляемые существительные. Но мы можем сказать (в ресторане, например): *Two teas and one coffee, please.* Два чая и один кофе, пожалуйста.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.1.** *Перепишите исчисляемые и неисчисляемые существительные в 2 столбика и переведите их.*

clothes, picture, air, time, water, machine, music, snow, word, coffee, money, idea, family, knowledge, sea, hour, tree, silver, meat, happiness, information, speed, book, news, house, friend, milk, student, pen, paper

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.2.** *Напишите следующие существительные во множественном числе.*

woman, money, information, box, sheep, place, library, photo, mouse, lady, glasses, bush, dress, country, bus, party, wife, day, knife, knowledge, month, pen, hero, goose, company, life, deer, tomato, city, man, play, news, child, fruit, shelf, leaf, foot, fish

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.3.** *Выберите правильный вариант, обращая внимание на исчисляемые и неисчисляемые существительные.*

1. He's got much information / informations about our travel.

2. He's going to buy some new trouser / trousers.

3. They are not going to buy new furniture / furnitures.
4. His hair / hairs is fair.
5. I'm going to buy new sunglass / sunglasses.
6. They gave us some advice / advices.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.4.** *Поставьте существительные в следующих предложениях во множественное число (обратите внимание на изменения в указательных местоимениях и формах глагола to be).*

1. This man works at our office. 2. I'll give you my book. This story is very interesting. 3. A woman, a man, a boy and a girl are the room. 4. Put this knife on that table. 5. What is your name? 6. He keeps his toy in a box. 7. A new house is in our street. 8. He has a new suit. 9. The plate was on the table.

1. This town is very large. 11. Is that girl your sister? 12. Is this a good student? 13. Is this a good match? 14. The student put his book on the desk. 15. That house is new.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.5** *Перепишите предложения во множественном числе.*

Образец: *There is a man on a bicycle. — There are men on bicycles.*

1. His report is not ready yet.
2. Is there a mouse under the bed?
3. A high mountain is very cold at the top.
4. There is a large window in the classroom.
5. There is only one holiday this month.
6. This flower is beautiful.
7. My foot is tired.
8. There is a party this weekend.
9. That is a large box.
10. This is an expensive watch.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.6.** *Перепишите предложения в единственном числе.*

Образец: *There are many museums in Madrid. — There is a museum in Madrid.*

1. Are there any geese on the pond?
2. Our schools are near.
3. These watches are broken.
4. Those Rock and Roll bands are loud.
5. There are many fish in the sea.
6. There are potatoes for dinner.
7. Those knives are very sharp.
8. Your children are very good.
9. These cliffs are dangerous.
10. There are many car crashes every year.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.7.** *Перепишите предложения без ошибок.*

Образец: *How many houses is there on your street? — How many houses **are** there on your street?*

1. Mathematics are very difficult.
2. Our football team are winners.
3. There are many monkees in the tree.
4. The dishes are on the table.
5. My tooths are yellow.
6. How many womans are there in your company?
7. Are my shirtes washed yet?
8. Not many citys is clean and safe.
9. There is many problem in this exercises.
10. There are six librарys in our school.

### **Притяжательный падеж существительных**

Притяжательный падеж существительных, обозначающих людей и животных, образуется путем добавления к существительному апострофа и окончания ('s). Например: John's car машина Джона, the cow's milk молоко коровы, the dog's tail хвост собаки.

Притяжательный падеж существительных, обозначающих предметы; образуется с помощью предлога of. Например: The pupils of the Mass. The door of the car.

После имен, оканчивающихся на s, ставится ('s). Например: Denis's wife. Gladys's job.

К существительным во множественном числе, уже имеющим окончание s, добавляется только апостроф ('). Например: to parents' car, to grandparents' house.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.8.** *Употребите притяжательный падеж существительных.*

Образец: *The friends of my parents — My parents' friends.*

1. The children of John Turner. 2. The questions of my son. 3. The wife of my brother. 4. The name of this man. 5. The voice of this girl. 6. The car of my parents. 7. The room of my friend. 8. The handbags of these women. 9. The flat of my sister is large. 10. The children of my brother are at home. 11. The room of the boys is large. 12. The poems of Lermontov.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.9.** *Вставьте слова в скобках, используя или ~'s, или предлог of.*

1. What is... ? (the name / this man)
2. What is ... ? (the address / Mike)
3. When is ... ? (birthday / your mother)
4. Do you like ... ? (the taste / this ice-cream)
5. Look at the number at... (the bottom /the page)
6. What is ... ? (this man / the profession)
7. For me summer is ... . (the best time / the year)
8. ... is near the market, (the house / my parents)
9. ... is very good, (the work / Mary)

10. ... is yellow, (the colour / wall)
11. ... very light, (the room / my sister)
12. The post-office is at ... . (the end / the street)
13. I need .... (the help / my friend)
14. ... is very tasty, (the filling / this pie)

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.10** *Переведите на английский язык, употребляя притяжательный падеж существительных.*

1. Чьи это письма? — Это письма моих друзей. 2. Мэри взяла книги своего брата. 3. Дайте мне работы учеников, пожалуйста. 4. Это офис нашего директора. 5. Это семья моего друга. Отец моего друга учитель. Мать моего друга врач. 6. Чья это книга? — Это книга Петра.

### Словообразование

В английском языке существуют следующие способы словообразования: **словосложение**, **словопроизводство** с помощью суффиксов и префиксов, и **конверсия** — переход слов из одной части речи в другую без изменения формы слова.

1. **Словосложение** — это соединение двух слов в одно с образованием нового слова.

Примеры сложных существительных: **schoolchildren** школьники **postman** почтальон **newspaper** газета

Примеры сложных прилагательных: **waterproof** водонепроницаемый **red-hot** накаленный докрасна **first-class** первоклассный

Примеры сложных местоимений: **something** что-нибудь **anywhere** везде **somehow** как-нибудь

2. **Словопроизводство** — это образование нового слова с помощью суффиксов и префиксов.



## Наиболее употребительные суффиксы и префиксы существительных

### Суффиксы

|                    |  |
|--------------------|--|
| <b>-er/or</b>      | teacher— преподаватель, writer — писатель,       |
| <b>-actor</b>      | актер, doctor — доктор                           |
| <b>-ist</b>        | scientist — ученый,                              |
| <b>-ment</b>       | movement — движение, development — развитие,     |
| <b>-ance</b>       | distance — расстояние, importance — важность,    |
| <b>-(t)ion</b>     | revolution — революция, translation — перевод,   |
| <b>-ity/-ty</b>    | popularity — популярность, honesty — честность,  |
| <b>-hood</b>       | childhood — детство, neighbourhood — окрестность |
| <b>-ship</b>       | friendship — дружба, leadership — лидерство      |
| <b>-age</b>        | passage — проход, breakage — поломка             |
| <b>-ence</b>       | conference — конференция, difference — различие  |
| <b>-dom</b>        | freedom — свобода, wisdom — мудрость             |
| <b>-sion/ssion</b> | revision — пересмотр, discussion — обсуждение    |
| <b>-ness</b>       | happiness — счастье, illness — болезнь           |

### Префиксы

|            |   |
|------------|---|
| <b>re-</b> | reconstruction — реконструкция,                             |
| <b>co-</b> | cooperation — сотрудничество, coexistence — сосуществование |

**dis-** dislike — нелюбовь, discomfort — дискомфорт  
**in-** inaccuracy — неточность, independence — независимость  
**mis-** misunderstanding — недоразумение, misinformation — дезинформация  
**im-** impossibility — невозможность, impatience — нетерпение  
**un-** unemployment — безработица, unreality — недействительность  
**il-** illegality — незаконность, illiteracy — неграмотность.

### Наиболее употребительные суффиксы и префиксы глаголов

#### Суффиксы

-en deepen — углубить, lighten — осветить, strengthen — усилить

-fy classify — классифицировать, electrify — электризовать, specify — определить

-ize organize — организовать, characterize — характеризовать

-ate indicate — указать, activate — активизировать

co- cooperate — сотрудничать,  
 de- decode — расшифровать, decompose — разложиться

dis- disappear — исчезнуть

in- input — вводить

inter- interact — взаимодействовать, interchange — взаимозаменять

over- overhear — перегреть, overhear —  
подслушивать

re- reconstruct — восстановить, rewrite — переписать

## Префиксы

### Наиболее употребительные суффиксы и префиксы прилагательных

#### Суффиксы

- ant distant — отдаленный, resistant — стойкий
- ent dependent — зависимый, different — различный
- ful careful — осторожный, useful — полезный
- ible possible — возможный, visible — видимый
- ic Atomic — атомный, historic — исторический
- ive inventive — изобретательный, effective —  
эффективный
- less hopeless — безнадежный, useless — бесполезный,  
homeless — бездомный
- ous famous — известный, dangerous — опасный
- y rainy — дождливый, sunny — солнечный

#### Префиксы

- un- unhappy — несчастный, unable — неспособный,  
uncomfortable — неудобный
- in- independent — независимый, indirect —

косвенный,

invisible — невидимый

im- impossible — невозможный, imperfect —  
несовершен

ный

ir- irregular — нерегулярный, irresponsible —  
безответ

ственный

il- illegal — незаконный, illiterate — неграмотный

non- non-alcoholic — безалкогольный

-able comfortable удобный

-al natural — естественный, cultural — культурный

### 1. Конверсия

Конверсией называется совпадение формы и произношения слов, относящихся к различным частям речи: **water** — вода (существительное) **to water** — поливать (глагол) **limit** — предел (существительное) **to limit** — ограничивать (глагол) **hand** — рука (существительное) **to hand** — вручать (глагол) и т.д.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.11.** Образуйте сложные существительные и переведите их.

Образец: English, a man — an Englishman — англичанин

- 1) a school, a girl
- 2) a week, an end
- 3) a bed, a room
- 4) a birth, a day
- 5) news, paper
- 6) a class, a room
- 7) a tape, a recorder
- 8) a chair, a man
- 9) an air, a craft
- 10) a text, a book
- 11) a house, a wife
- 12) rain, a coat
- 13) a rail, a way
- 14) a sea, a man
- 15) a post, a man
- 16) a class, a mate

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.12.** *Образуйте новые слова с помощью суффиксов и префиксов переведите их.*

**-er/or**

*to teach* обучать — *teacher* учитель

*to write* —

*to weld* —

**-sion/ssion/tion**

*to produce* производить — *production*

производство

*to discuss* —

*to include* —

**-ment**

*to move* двигать(ся) — *movement* движение

*to develop* —

*to replace* —

**-ing**

*to build* строить — *building* здание

*to meet* —

to write —

-ness      *happy* счастливый — *happiness* счастье

ill —

dark —

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.13.** Прочитайте следующие существительные, укажите, от каких слов они образованы, определите суффиксы:

pressure, construction, direction, concentration,  
collection, necessity, agreement, difference, drawing

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.14.** Используя известные вам суффиксы и префиксы, образуйте существительные от следующих слов и переведите их на русский язык.

1. to sail, to connect, to educate, to build, to create
2. friend, leader, child
3. dark, weak, cold, bright, free

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.15.** Образуйте прилагательные от следующих слов, используя суффиксы и префиксы, и переведите их на русский язык:

hope, truth, beauty, hope, truth, beauty,, power, joy, care,  
use

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.16.** Найдите определения следующих префиксов:

- 1) inter- 2) post- 3) bi- 4) pre- 5) multi- 6) ex-
- a) more than one; many
  - b) later than; after
  - c) before; in preparation
  - d) former and still living
  - e) between; among a group
  - f) two; twice; double

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.17.** *Образуйте новые слова.*

1) inter- 2) post- 3) bi- 4) pre- 5) multi- 6) ex-

- a) ... lingual
- b) ... date
- c) ... arranged
- d) ... national
- e) ... director
- f) ... graduate
- g) ... personal
- h) ... husband
- i) ... annual
- j) ... date

|   |
|---|
| <p style="text-align: center;"><b>Рецептивные виды речевой деятельности</b><br/><b>Аудирование и чтение</b></p> |
|---|

**‘The Humanistic Approach’**

Another slant on the role of mental events in psychology was offered in the early 1940s by Carl Rogers. Though trained in psychoanalysis, Rogers gradually rejected its assumptions that people are controlled by instincts, just as he rejected the notion that people are controlled mainly by biological forces or rewards and punishments. He advanced what has come to be called the humanistic approach (also known as the phenomenological approach). It holds that people control themselves and that each person is essentially good, with an innate tendency to grow toward his or her potential.

According to this approach, behavior is determined primarily by each person's capacity to choose how to think and act. These choices are dictated, say humanistic psychologists, by each individual's unique perception of the world. If you perceive the world as a friendly place, you are likely to feel happy and secure. If you view it as dangerous and hostile, you will probably be defensive and anxious.

Seen from the humanistic perspective, then, aggressive behavior stems from the perception that aggression is justified in a given situation. However, unlike the cognitive approach, the humanistic approach does not lead to a search for laws that govern the perceptions, judgments, decisions, and actions of people in general. The humanistic approach celebrates immediate, individual experience. Many of its proponents assert that behavior and mental processes can be understood not through universal laws but, rather, through appreciating perceptions and feelings that can be fully experienced only by the person involved.

The humanistic approach was endorsed and elaborated by Abraham Maslow, Viktor Frankl, and others who became prominent theorists; but its influence in psychology today is limited, mainly because many psychologists find humanistic concept and predictions too vague to be expressed and tested scientifically.

|   |
|---|
| <p style="text-align: center;"><b>Продуктивные виды речевой деятельности</b><br/><b>Говорение</b></p> |
|---|

Презентация - «**Что такое психология?**»

|  |
|--|
| <p style="text-align: center;"><b>Письмо</b></p> |
|--|

Электронное письмо личного характера – **переписка с другом по Интернету о значении психологии.**

## ***Unit 2. Отрасли психологии***

|   |
|---|
| <p style="text-align: center;"><b>Перевод</b></p> |
|---|

**A. What is social psychology?**



What is social psychology? There are as many definitions of social psychology as there are social psychologists. Instead of listing some of these definitions, it might be more informative to let the subject matter define the field. The examples presented are all illustrations of social psychological situations. As diverse as these situations may be, they do contain one common factor: social influence. The opinion of Sam's friends on the merits of the presidential candidate influenced Sam's judgment (or at least his public statement regarding that judgment). The rewards emanating from the teacher influenced the speed and vigor of Peggy's classroom responses. The four-year-old seemed to find his toy drum more attractive because of the inadvertent influence of his friend's interest. The Olympic athlete's influence on our Wheaties eating youngster, on the other hand, was far from inadvertent; rather, it was intentionally designed to make him convince his mother to buy Wheaties. That Charlie ignored the woman of his dreams almost certainly has something to do with his fear of rejection, the way he was feeling about himself, and his implicit assumption about the relative likelihood of being rejected by either of the two women. The Montana housewife was certainly not born with an unflattering stereotype of black people in her head — somebody, somehow, put it there. Exactly how the high-school teacher in Kent, Ohio, came to believe that innocent people deserved to die is a fascinating and frighteningly current question; for now, let us simply say that this belief was probably influenced by her own indirect complicity in the tragic events on the campus. It is conceivable, as Mary's father says, that "housewifery" is genetic, but it is far more likely that, from infancy onward, Mary was rewarded and encouraged every time she expressed an interest in such "feminine" things as cooking, sewing, and dolls — to a

greater extent than if she expressed an interest in football, boxing, and chemistry. It is also reasonable to assume that, if Mary's kid brother had shown an interest in "housewifery," he would not have received a Suzie Home maker set for his birthday. Also, as with young George Woods, who felt inferior to his playmates, Mary's self-image could have been shaped by the mass media, which tend to depict women in roles that the culture encourages them to play: housewife, secretary, nurse, school teacher — the mass media rarely depict women as biochemists, college professors, or business executives. If we compare the young George Woods with his children, we will see that the self-images of minority-group members can change, and these changes can influence and be influenced by changes in the mass media and changes in the attitudes of the general population. This, of course, is graphically illustrated by the opinions of Americans about the use of nuclear weapons in 1945.

The key phrase in the preceding paragraph is "social influence." And this becomes our working definition of social psychology: the influences that people have upon the beliefs or behavior of others. Using this as our definition, we will attempt to understand many of the phenomena described in the preceding illustrations. How is a person influenced? Why does he accept influence — or, put another way, what's in it for him? What are the variables that increase or decrease the effectiveness of social influence? Does such influence have a permanent effect, or is it merely transitory? What are the variables that increase or decrease the permanence of the effects of social influence? Can the same principles be applied equally to the attitudes of the high-school teacher in Kent, Ohio, and to the toy preferences of young children? How does one person come to like another person? Is it through these same processes

that he comes to like his new sports car or his box of Wheaties? How does a person develop prejudices against an ethnic or racial group? Is it akin to liking — but in reverse — or does it involve an entirely different set of psychological processes?

Most people are interested in questions of this sort; in a sense, therefore, most people are social psychologists. Because most of us spend a good deal of our time interacting with other people — being influenced by them, influencing them, being delighted, amused, and angered by them — it is natural that most of us develop hypotheses about social behavior. Although most amateur social psychologists test these hypotheses to their own satisfaction, these “tests” lack the rigor and impartiality of careful scientific investigation. Often, the results of scientific research are identical with what most people “know” to be true. This is not surprising; conventional wisdom is usually based upon shrewd observation that has stood the test of time. But it is important that social psychologists conduct research to test hypotheses — even those hypotheses that we all know are obviously true — because many things that we “know” to be true turn out to be false when carefully investigated. Although it seems reasonable, for example, to assume that people who are threatened with severe punishment for engaging in a certain behavior might eventually learn to despise that behavior, it turns out that when this question is studied scientifically, we find that just the reverse is true: people who are threatened with mild punishment develop a dislike for the forbidden behavior; people who are severely threatened show, if anything, a slight increase in liking for the forbidden behavior. Likewise, most of us, from our own experience, would guess that, if we overheard someone saying nice things about us (behind our backs), we would tend to like

that person — all other things being equal. This turns out to be true. But what is equally true is that we tend to like that person even more if some of the remarks we overhear him make about us are anything but nice.

In his attempt to understand human social behavior, the professional social psychologist has a great advantage over most amateur social psychologists. Although, like the amateur, he usually begins with careful observation, he can go far beyond that. He does not need to wait for things to happen so that he can observe how people respond; he can, in fact, make things happen. That is, he can conduct an experiment in which scores of people are subjected to particular conditions (for example, a severe threat or a mild threat; overhearing nice things or overhearing a combination of nice and nasty things). Moreover, he can do this in situation in which everything can be held constant except for the particular conditions being investigated. He can, therefore, draw conclusions based on data far more precise and numerous than those available to the amateur social psychologist, who must depend upon observations of events that occur randomly and under complex circumstances.

## **B. Consumer psychology**

*Consumer psychology is a branch of applied psychology concerned with questions about the optimal means for making goods and services available providing information about them, developing and testing methods for promoting interest in their acquisition, and investigating how they might be consume with maximum satisfaction and benefit to the customer.*

From the broadest point of view, consumer psychology is concerned with the individual's **behavioral expressions of value** - that is, the ways in which he or she spends his time and money. These range from candy and toothpaste to savings for college education from spending a few hours viewing television or reading the newspaper to the **philatelist's absorption** with old or **rare** stamps. Therefore, whatever the individual consumes - however he uses his time or spends his money - is an object for study by the consumer psychologist.

The consumer psychologist is concerned with the psychological determinants of the individual's behavior as a consumer. An important distinction is made between high and low involvement consumer decisions. When decisions have high personal importance or relevance, like the purchase of a clothing outfit **to be worn on a special occasion**, consumers typically engage in an extensive search for information that incorporates not only input from advertising sources but **careful appraisals of anticipated reactions** from others in their reference group. While high involvement choices activate extensive problem-solving behavior, low involvement choices, such as the purchase of an inexpensive ballpoint pen, are more impulsive, reflecting such factors as **brand recognition**. The shape and color of a package, or its position in a **display case**, will have a greater impact on low involvement decisions. Beyond marketing research, consumer psychologists have been called upon to study the **consumer's attitudes toward** and the **means for influencing his acceptance of devices or behaviors** that are generally considered to be in his best interest, particularly in the fields of health and safety. Among the many illustrations of this relatively new area of study are the individual's responses to seat belts in automobiles as well as his attitudes

concerning **air pollution**, smoking, and other **health hazards**.

The consumer psychologist may also be consulted for studies aimed at understanding how attitudes may be changed.

**Applications.** Since the techniques and procedures for conducting consumer research are very similar to those used in **opinion research** or **public opinion polling**, psychologists engaged in consumer research are often engaged in public opinion studies as well. Opinion research is supported by **foundations, government agencies**, universities, the mass media, political organizations, and individuals and organizations **hoping to shed light on social problems**, propaganda, and group behavior.

Rarely does the consumer psychologist operate alone. Because consumer behavior is **interdisciplinary**, it is common to find him working in the same office with advertising copywriters or account executives, public relations experts, statisticians specializing in **sampling and survey research**, **experts in marketing research**, economists, and sociologists.

The heaviest use of consumer psychology occurs in business and industry, principally by advertising agencies, the mass media, private consumer marketing and public opinion research firms, and **manufacturers** themselves. Of particular importance is **market segmentation research**, which seeks to identify the **needs, preferences, and perceptions of significant subgroups** - socioeconomic, racial, and ethnic identification groupings - **that collectively account for larger heterogeneous social systems**. The processes by which innovations, like new products, **diffuse and succeed**, or fail to attract consumer interest, are receiving increased attention.

On the more macroscopic level, the consumer psychologist may be invited **to assay** what has come to be known as the «image» that one public group or another may have of a business firm, an agency of the government, or even of an educational institution. Perhaps **a** nationally known manufacturer of appliances is interested in determining the effect a **large strike** had upon **its** «image.»

Consumer psychology is attracting students and developing its own literature. Consumer activities are becoming integrated into all phases of government. Manufacturers, advertising media, educational institutions, hospitals, and communities are all thinking in terms of their «public images,» seeking to improve the way they are being looked at.

## Грамматика Теория и практика

### Степени сравнения прилагательных и наречий

Прилагательные и наречия имеют три формы степеней сравнения:

положительную (*positive degree*);

сравнительную (*comparative degree*);

превосходную (*superlative degree*).

Например: The bag is small

### Сравнительная степень

Cheetahs run **faster than** hedgehogs.

Hedgehogs walk **more slowly than** cheetahs.

Snails crawl **more slowly than** hedgehogs.

### Превосходная степень

Cheetahs move **the fastest**.

Snails move **the slowest**.

### Образование сравнительной и превосходной степеней прилагательных

|                        | Сравнительная | Превосходная |
|------------------------|---------------|--------------|
|                        | Односложные   |              |
| <u>прилагательные:</u> | long          | longer than  |
|                        | the longest   |              |
| (добавляется -er)      | nice          | nicer than   |
|                        | the nicest    |              |

Два или более слога: famous, more famous than, the most famous

(добавляется interesting less interesting than the most interesting



more — более practical more practical than the most practical или less — менее)

Двусложные на -v: funny funnier than the funniest

(-y меняется на -ier  
easy easier than the  
easiest

и -est) happy happier  
than the happiest

**Исключения при  
образовании степеней  
сравнения  
прилагательных и  
наречий**

| Положительная Степень | Сравнительная Степень | Превосходная Степень       |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| Good(хороший)         | Better(лучше)         | The best(самый лучший)     |
| Bad(плохой)           | Worse(Хуже)           | The worst(самый плохой)    |
| Little(маленький)     | Less(меньше)          | The least(Самый маленький) |
| Many,                 | More(                 | Most(н                     |

|              |                        |                             |
|--------------|------------------------|-----------------------------|
| much(много)  | больше)                | айбольший)                  |
| Far(далекий) | Farther(более далекий) | The farthest(самый далекий) |
| Far(далеко)  | Further(дальше)        | The furthest(дальше всего)  |

**Примечание:**  
прилагательные, оканчивающиеся на согласную, удваивают ее: big — bigger — the biggest.

Прилагательные в сравнительной степени используются для сравнения предметов или людей друг с другом. Прилагательные в превосходной степени используются для сравнения одного члена группы со всей группой. Например:

*The Amazon river is longer **than** the Mississippi.*  
Амазонка длинней, чем Миссисипи.

*The Nile is the longest river in the world.* Нил — самая длинная река в мире.

Существительное, определяемое прилагательным в превосходной степени, всегда имеет определенный артикль **the**.

Некоторые двусложные прилагательные, оканчивающиеся на -y, -er, **-ow** образуют степени сравнения так же, как и односложные, с помощью суффиксов -er и -est.

**easy** легкий

**easier** более легкий, легче

**the easiest** самый легкий, легчайший

**clever** умный

**cleverer** более умный, умнее

**the cleverest** самый умный, умнейший

**narrow** узкий

**narrower** более узкий, уже

**the narrowest** самый узкий

В предложениях со степенями сравнения прилагательных и наречий используются следующие союзы и способы выражения сравнения:

as ... as такой же ... , как

not so ... as не такой ... , как

not such (a) ... as не такой, как

twice as much as в два раза больше

three times as long as в три раза длиннее, чем

three times as high as в три раза выше, чем

ten times as much as в десять раз больше

half as much/many вдвое меньше

half the size/the weight в два раза меньше по размеру/

по весу half the length в два раза меньше по длине

much better/worse намного лучше/хуже

much more/less гораздо больше/меньше  
the ... the чем ..., тем ...

### **Наиболее употребительные наречия**

#### **Наречия места и направления:**

**here** — здесь, тут **there** — там **inside** — внутри  
**outside** — снаружи **down** — внизу **back** — сзади, назад  
**away** -- вдали, вон, прочь **downward** — вниз **upward** —  
вверх

#### **Наречия времени:**

**now** — сейчас, теперь  
**before** — до, перед, прежде  
**ever** — когда-либо  
**never** — никогда  
**always** — всегда  
**often** — часто  
**usually** — обычно  
**seldom** — редко  
**still** — все еще  
**already** — уже  
**just** — только что, только  
**yet** — еще, уже  
**sometimes** — иногда  
**today** — сегодня  
**tomorrow** — завтра  
**yesterday** — вчера  
**recently** — недавно  
**lately** — в последнее время  
**commonly** — обычно

#### **Наречия образа действия:**

**slowly** — медленно **quickly** — быстро **easily** — легко  
**calmly** — спокойно **brightly** — ярко **hardly** — с трудом,  
едва

### Наречия меры и степени:

**much** — много, сильно **little** — немного, мало **enough**  
— достаточно **too** — слишком **almost** — уже, почти  
**very** — очень

**ЗАДАНИЕ 2.1.** *Образуйте сравнительную и превосходную степени от следующих прилагательных и наречий.*

1. large, tall, long, easy, hot, big, cold, nice, bad, strong, short, wide, good, happy, high, low, busy, well, little, many, far.

2. wonderful, necessary, quickly, interesting, comfortably, popular, active, famous, pleasant, beautiful, slowly, clearly.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 2.2.** *Переведите предложения на русский язык.*

1. This book is not so interesting as that one. 2. The Baltic Sea is not so warm as the Black Sea. 3. The more you read, the more you know. 4. My brother is not as tall as you are. 5. The earlier you get up, the more you can do. 6. Today the wind is as strong as it was yesterday. 7. Your room is as light as mine. 8. John knows Russian as well as English. 9. Mary is not so lazy as her brother. 10. The longer the night is, the shorter the day.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 2.3.** *Раскройте скобки, употребив нужную степень сравнения прилагательного/наречия.*

1. Winter is (cold) season of the year. 2. Moscow is (large) than St.Petersburg. 3. Which is (long) day of the

year? 4. The Alps are (high) mountains in Europe. 5. Even (long) day has an end. 6. It is one of (important) questions of our conference. 7. Your English is (good) now. 8. Who knows him (well) than you? 9. We have (little) interest in this work than you. 10. Health is (good) than wealth. 11. He worked (well) of all. 12. Today he worked (slowly) than usually.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 2.4.** *Поставьте прилагательные в скобках в нужную форму.*

1. Winter is (cold) season.
2. Moscow is (old) than St. Petersburg.
3. What is (short) month in the year?
4. It was (bad) mistake I've ever made.
5. In summer the days are (long) than in winter.
6. It is (cold) today than it was yesterday.
7. The Russian grammar is (difficult) than the English one.
8. It was (good) film I've ever seen.
9. Steel is (strong) than wood.
10. Your house is not so (new) as mine.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 2.5.** *Переведите предложения на английский язык.*

1. Эта книга не так интересна, как та.
2. Балтийское море не такое теплое, как Черное море.
3. Чем больше вы читаете, тем больше вы знаете.
4. Этот дом в три раза выше, чем тот.
5. Чем раньше вы встаете, тем больше вы можете сделать.
6. Сегодня погода такая же хорошая, как вчера.
7. Ваша комната такая же светлая, как и моя.
8. Джон знает русский язык так же, как и английский язык.
9. Английская грамматика не такая трудная, как русская.
10. Чем длиннее ночь, тем короче день.
- 11.

Этот камень в два раза меньше по размеру, чем тот. 12.  
Они заплатили ему в два раза меньше, чем он ожидал.

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| <p style="text-align: center;"><b>Рецептивные виды речевой деятельности</b><br/><b>Аудирование и чтение</b></p> |
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**«Human Diversity and Psychology»**

The Soviet example is of more passing interest because it provides an analogy for another important aspect of the diversity inherent in psychology. Until the Soviet Union dissolved in 1991, most westerners, and certainly most Americans, tended to perceive it as a single and the Soviet people as a relatively homogenous group. Yet it was actually a political and economic association of dozens of diverse states, each with distinct traditions, alliances, and animosities.

Similarly, many psychologists once implicitly assumed that all people are essentially the same, and that whatever principles emerged from research local volunteer subjects would apply to people everywhere. Since about 90 percent of researchers in psychology work at universities in North America and Europe, they tended to study local college students, mostly white and middle class, and more often men than women (Crawford & Marecek, 1989; Graham, 1992). Most of the psychologists, too — including those traditionally identified as major figures in the history of psychology — tended to be white, middle class, and male (Walker, 1991).

From one perspective, studying a narrow sample of humankind need not threaten the generality of psychological

research, because in many ways, people are very much alike. For example, all people tend to live in groups, develop religious beliefs, and create rules, music, and games. Similarly, the principles governing nerve-cell activity or reactions to heat or a sour taste are the same in men and women the world over, as is their recognition of a smile.

But are the forces that motivate people to achieve, or the development of their moral thought, or their patterns of interpersonal communication universal as well? Do the principles derived from research on European-American males in the Midwest apply to African-American women in inner-city ghettos or to people in Greece; Argentina, or Egypt? Not always. What people experience and what people learn through that experience are shared by sociocultural variables, which are variations in social identity and background such as gender, ethnicity, social class, and culture. These variables create many significant differences in behavior and mental processes, especially from one culture to another (Lonner & Malpass, 1994).

A culture has been defined as the accumulation of values, rules of behavior, forms of expression, religious beliefs, occupational choices, and the like for a group of people who share a common language and environment (Triandis, Kurowski & Gelfand, 1993). As such, culture is an organizing and stabilizing influence. It not only encourages or discourages particular behaviors and mental processes but also allows people to understand and anticipate the behavior of others in that culture. It is a kind of group adaptation, passed by tradition and example rather than genes from one generation to the next. Culture determines, for example, whether children's education will focus on skill at hunting or reading, how close people stand while having a conversation, and whether or not they form lines in public place (Munroe & Munroe, 1994).

Psychologists as well as anthropologists have isolated many ways in which cultures differ. Table 1.3 outlines one interesting way of analyzing these differences; it shows that many cultures can be described as either individualistic or collectivist. Individualistic cultures tend to accept people who place personal goals ahead of the goals of the collective (such as the family or work group), whereas collectivist cultures tend to reject such people and to encourage subordination of personal goals to the goals of collectives. Cultures also vary in the degree to which they impose tight or loose rules for social behavior, emphasize achievement or self-awareness, seek dominion over nature or integration with it; and emphasize the importance of time (for example, Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Triandis, 1990).

Culture is often associated with a particular country, but in fact most countries are multicultural; in other words, they host many subcultures within their borders. Often, these subcultures are formed by people with different ethnic origins. In the United States, the population includes African-Americans, Hispanic-Americans, Asian-Americans, and Native Americans as well as European-Americans with Italian, German, English, Polish, Irish, and other origins. The individuals in these groups who identify with their cultural heritage tend to share behaviors, values, and beliefs based on their culture of origin and, hence, form a subculture.

Like fish unaware of the water in which they are immersed, people often fail to notice how their culture or subculture has shaped their patterns of thinking and behavior until they come in contact with people whose culture or subculture has shaped different patterns. In southcentral Los Angeles, for example, Korean storekeepers' culturally correct but inadvertently insulting practice of placing change on the counter instead of in the



customer's hand helped stir anger and resentment among customers from other cultural backgrounds.

That anger led some lawbreakers to target Korean-owned businesses for destruction during the riots that followed the Rodney King verdict in 1992. Even some of the misunderstandings that occur between men and women in the same culture are traceable to subtle, culturally influenced differences in their communication patterns (Tannen, 1990). In the United States, for example, women's efforts to connect with others by talking may be perceived by many men as «pointless» unless the discussion is aimed at solving a specific problem; thus women often feel frustrated and misunderstood by men who tend to offer in lieu of conversation well-intentioned, but unwanted, advice.

Psychologists interested in cross-cultural research have studied cultural differences for decades (Triandis, 1964), but the influence of sociocultural variables is now of growing interest to psychologists in general (Albert, 1988; Bronstein & Quina, 1988; Lonner & Malpass, 1994). As psychology strives to be the science of all behavior and mental processes, its research will increasingly take gender and other sociocultural variables into account (Riger, 1992; Tavis, 1992; Triandis, Kurowski & Gelfand, 1993). The trend in this direction will be evident in much of the research described in other publications.

Cultural factors do not act as cookie-cutters that make everyone in a given culture the same, but certain broad tendencies in behavior and mental processes have been associated with particular kinds of cultures. For example, many people in individualist cultures, such as those typical of North America and Western Europe, tend to focus on and value personal rather than group goals and achievement. Competitiveness to distinguish oneself from others is common, as is a sense of isolation. Many people in

collectivist cultures, such as Japan, tend to think of themselves mainly as part of family or work groups. Cooperative effort aimed at advancing the welfare of those groups is highly valued, and while loneliness is seldom a problem, fear of rejection by the group is common. Though we seldom think about it, many aspects of American culture — from self-reliant cowboy heroes and bonuses for «top» employees to the invitation to «help yourself» at a buffet table — reflect Americans' tendency toward an individualist orientation.

Psychology is the science of behavior and mental processor. The topics included in this field range from the study of nerve cells to the interaction of people in families and other groups.

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| <b>Продуктивные виды речевой деятельности</b><br><b>Говорение</b> |
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Диалог – расспрос о предпочтениях психологических подходов.

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| <b>Письмо</b> |
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Портфолио: 1 «О себе». 2 «Что для тебя иностранный язык в профессиональной сфере?»

### ***Unit 3. Основное течение в психологии.***

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| <b>Перевод</b> |
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#### **‘BEHAVIORISM’**

Behaviorism is the philosophical position that says that psychology, to be a science, must focus its attentions on

what is observable — the environment and behavior — rather than what is only available to the individual — perceptions, thoughts, images, feelings.... The latter are subjective and immune to measurement, and therefore can never lead to an objective science.

The first behaviorists were Russian. The very first was Ivan M. Sechenov (1829 to 1905). He was a physiologist who had studied at the University of Berlin with famous people like Midler, DuBois-Reymond, and Helm-holtz. Devoted to a rigorous blend of associationism and materialism, he concluded that all behavior is caused by stimulation.

In 1863, he wrote *Reflexes of the Brain*. In this landmark book, he introduced the idea that there are not only excitatory processes in the central nervous system, but inhibitory ones as well.

Vladimir M. Bekhterev (1857 to 1927) is another early Russian behaviorist. He graduated in 1878 from the Military Medical Academy in St. Petersburg, one year before Pavlov arrived there. He received his MD in 1881 at the tender age of 24, then went to study with the likes of DuBois-Reymond and Wundt in Berlin, and Charcot in France.

He established the first psychology lab in Russia at the university of Kazan in 1885, then returned to the

Military Medical Academy in 1893. In 1904, he published a paper entitled «Objective Psychology», which he later expanded into three volumes.

He called his field reflexology, and defined it as the objective study of stimulus-response connections. Only the environment and behavior were to be discussed. And he discovered what he called the association reflex — what Pavlov would call the conditioned reflex.

This brings us to the most famous of the Russian researchers, Ivan Petrovich Pavlov (1849-1936). After

studying for the priesthood, as had his father, he switched to medicine in 1870 at the Military Medical Academy in St. Petersburg. It should be noted that he walked from his home in Ryazan near Moscow hundreds of miles to St. Petersburg.

In 1879, he received his degree in natural science, and in 1883, his MD. He then went to study at the university of Leipzig in Germany. In 1890, he was offered a position as professor of physiology at his alma mater, the Military Medical Academy, which is where he spent the rest of his life. It was in 1900 that he began studying reflexes, especially the salivary response.

In 1904, he was awarded the Nobel Prize in physiology for his work on digestion, and in 1921, he received the Hero of the Revolution Award from Lenin himself.

Pavlovian (or classical) conditioning builds on reflexes: We begin with an unconditioned stimulus and an unconditioned response — a reflex. We then associate a neutral stimulus with the reflex by presenting it with the unconditioned stimulus. Over a number of repetitions, the neutral stimulus by itself will elicit the re-

sponse. At this point, the neutral stimulus is renamed the conditioned stimulus, and the response is called the conditioned response.

Or, to put it in the form that Pavlov observed in his dogs, some meat powder on the tongue makes a dog salivate. Ring a bell at the same time, and after a few repetitions, the dog will salivate upon hearing the bell alone — without being given the meat powder.

Pavlov agreed with Sekhenov that there was inhibition as well as excitation. When the bell is rung many times with no meat forthcoming, the dog eventually stops salivating at the sound of the bell. That's extinction. But, just give him a little meat powder once, and it is as if he had never had the behavior extinguished: He is right back to salivating to the

bell. This spontaneous recovery strongly suggests that the habit has been there all alone. The dog had simply learned to inhibit his response.

Pavlov, of course, could therefore condition not only excitation but inhibition. You can teach a dog that he is NOT getting meat just as easily as you can teach him that he IS. For example, one bell could mean dinner, and another could mean dinner is over. If the bells, however, were too similar, or were rung simultaneously, many dogs would have something akin to a nervous breakdown, which Pavlov called an experimental neurosis.

In fact, Pavlov classified his dogs into four different personalities, ala the ancient Greeks: Dogs that got angry were choleric, ones that fell asleep were phlegmatic, ones that whined were melancholy, and the few that kept their spirits up were sanguine. The relative strengths of the dogs' abilities to activate their nervous system and calm it back down (excitation and inhibition) were the explanations. These explanation would be used later by

Hans Eysenck to understand the differences between introverts and extraverts.

Another set of terms that comes from Pavlov are the first and second signal systems. The first signal system is where the conditioned stimulus (a bell) acts as a «signal» that an important event is to occur — i.e. the unconditioned stimulus (the meat). The second signal system is when arbitrary symbols come to stand for stimuli, as they do in human language.

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| <p style="text-align: center;"><b>Грамматика</b><br/><b>Теория и практика</b></p> |
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**ПОРЯДОК СЛОВ В АНГЛИЙСКОМ ПРЕДЛОЖЕНИИ**

В английском предложении каждый член предложения, как правило, имеет свое определенное место. В простом распространенном повествовательном предложении следующий порядок слов:

1. Подлежащее.
2. Сказуемое.
3. Дополнение (косвенное, прямое).
4. Обстоятельства (образа действия, места, времени).

Например: The waiter gives menus to the guests in the restaurant. **или** The waiter gives the guests menus in the restaurant.

- 1) The waiter — подлежащее
- 2) gives — сказуемое
- 3) menus — прямое дополнение, to the guests - косвенное дополнение
- 4) in the restaurant — обстоятельство места.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 3.1.** Составьте и напишите предложения, обращая внимание на порядок слов.

1. The best, Victor, waiter, is, at the restaurant.
2. Serves, different, the restaurant, dishes.
3. The, is, Russia, the, in, country, largest, world.
4. Is, the city, in, of, the center, the restaurant.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 3.2.** Поставьте косвенное дополнение после глагола и уберите предлог.

Образец: *She gave a letter to the postman.* — *She gave the postman a letter.*

1. Victor wrote a letter to his mother.
2. I'll send the books to you.
3. He brought the book to her this morning.
4. She wrote a letter to her brother.
5. My sister sent a letter to my daughter.

6. He showed the books to me.

7. They wrote a letter to us.

### **Повелительное наклонение.**

Повелительное наклонение выражает приказ, просьбу или запрет на совершение действия. Предложение обычно начинается глаголом-сказуемым в форме инфинитива без частицы **to**. Например:

*Take the menu, please.* Возьмите меню, пожалуйста.

*Pass me the salt, please.* Передайте мне соль, пожалуйста. *Have a cup of tea, please.* Выпейте, пожалуйста, чашку чая.

Для образования отрицательной формы употребляется вспомогательный глагол **to do** с отрицанием **not** (сокр. **don't** [dɒnt]).

*Don't be late for dinner.* Не опаздывайте к обеду.

*Do not smoke here!* Не курите здесь!

*Don't take this book.* Не берите эту книгу.

Для 1-го и 3-го лица единственного и множественного числа форма повелительного наклонения образуется при помощи глагола **let** — разрешать (**let us = let's**), личного местоимения в объектном падеже (**him, her, us, them**) или существительного в общем падеже и смыслового глагола. Например:

*Let me help you.* Позвольте мне помочь вам.

*Let them help us.* Пусть они помогут нам.

*Let us go to the cafe.* Пойдемте в кафе.

*Let's have supper in this restaurant.* Давайте поужинаем в этом ресторане.

*Let Tanya lay the (able).* Пусть Таня накроет стол.

Отрицательная форма повелительного наклонения

образуется так же, как и для 2-го лица, т.е. с помощью **do not**. Например:

*Do not let (Don't let) the children play with matches.* Не давайте детям играть со спичками

*Let's not take dessert today.* Давайте сегодня не будем брать десерт.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 3.3.** *Попросите по-английски:*

1. Дайте мне меню, пожалуйста. 2. Принесите нам чистые тарелки. 3. Передайте мне соль, пожалуйста. 4. На: кройте этот стол для обеда. 5. Возьмите меню, пожалуйста. 6. Говорите по-английски, пожалуйста. 7. Закройте книгу и принесите ее мне. 8. Не открывайте это окно, пожалуйста.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 3.4.** *Поставьте глаголы в скобках в форму повелительного наклонения и переведите предложения.*

1. Let's (*to go*) home. 2. Let me (*to help*) you to choose the dessert. 3. Let us (*not / to go*) home now because it is early. 4. (*not/to be*) so lazy! Please, (*to do*) this work now! 5. (*to cook*) this fish, Victor, and (*to serve*) it to the guests. 6. It's cold outside. Let's (*to put on*) our coats. 7. Let them (*to do*) this themselves. 8. (*to pass*) me the salt, please. 9. (*not/to let*) the boys play with matches. 10. Dear guests, let's (*to have*) supper now. 11. Let me (*to ask*) you a question.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 3.5.** *Переведите на английский язык.*

1. Пусть они помогут нам. 2. Давайте пойдём в ресторан сегодня. 3. Не курите здесь! 4. Давайте закажем ужин в этом кафе. 5. Позвольте мне познакомить вас с моим другом. 6. Позвольте мне помочь вам. 7. Давайте встретим наших гостей в аэропорту. 8. Пусть Виктор сделает эту работу. 9.



Пусть они приходят вечером. 10. Давайте пригласим наших друзей на обед в воскресенье 11. Дорогие гости, не опаздывайте к обеду.

**Рецептивные виды речевой деятельности**  
**Аудирование и чтение**

### **The Behavioral Approach**

In 1913, while Freud was pursuing his psychodynamic approach and gaining favor among American psychologists, a Harvard psychology professor named John B. Watson published a book called *Psychology as a behaviorist Views It*. In it, Watson urged psychologists to ignore mental events (conscious as well as unconscious) and study instead only what they could observe directly. By focusing on observable, or overt, action, said Watson, psychologists would not have to rely on people's potentially distorted reports about themselves. He also argued that environmental influences — the things that happen after birth — are paramount in shaping who people are and what they do.

Watson's views gave rise to the behavioral approach to psychology, which emphasizes the idea that behavior and mental processes are primarily the result of learning. From this perspective, biological genetic, and evolutionary factors provide the raw material on which rewards, punishments, and other experiences act, molding each person. Thus, behaviorists examine a person's learning history, the pattern of rewards and punishments, to explain aggressive, dependent, or confident behavior. They assert that people can change problematic behaviors such as violence by unlearning old habits and developing new ones. For example, researchers using this approach have created programs to reduce antisocial behavior in children and to

teach violent criminals the social skills they need to interact with other people.

Another Harvard psychologist, B.F. Skinner, spent decades perfecting methods for the functional analysis of behavior, mapping out the details of how rewards and punishments shape, maintain, and change behavior. His work helped explain, for example, how children's unruly behavior is sometimes inadvertently encouraged by the attention it attracts from parents and teachers, and how some people's virtual addiction to gambling can result from the occasional and unpredictable rewards it brings. Skinner's contributions helped behaviorism maintain in the 1950s and 1960s the dominant position in psychological research it had enjoyed in the United States since the 1920s. For some psychologists, however, behaviorism's near-exclusive focus on overt actions made it incomplete. They argued that we can never fully understand the nature of violence or altruism or any other behaviors, for that matter, without learning something about the thoughts that accompany them.

Since the 1970s, many behaviorists have come to endorse a cognitive-behavioral view, which adds the study of reportable mental processes to the traditional behavioral emphasis on overt behavior (Hawkins et al., 1992; Thayer, 1992). Thus, the cognitive-behavioral approach explores how learning affects the development of thoughts and beliefs and how, in turn, these learned cognitive patterns affect overt behavior.

B.F. Skinner was the most notable contemporary champion of the behavioral approach to psychology. In spite of his reputation for being interested only in overt behaviors, Skinner recognized that mental events took place, and could be important, but argued that they could not be studied directly.

**Продуктивные виды речевой деятельности**  
**Говорение**

- монолог «Представители бихевиоризма»
- презентация «Зарождение бихевиоризма»

**Письмо**

Эссе по теме “Поведение человека в незнакомой обстановке” (80-100 слов)

**Раздел 2 Внутренняя**  
**психологическая деятельность**  
*Unit 1. Закономерности внутренней*  
*психологической деятельности*

**Перевод**

**Brain**

The brain is the organ of the central nervous system responsible for the processing and coding of sensory and motor information, for the control of regulatory processes in the body, and for the mediation of complex processes, such as motivation, emotion, learning, and memory.

For anatomical convenience, the brain may be subdivided into three major divisions: the hindbrain, midbrain, and forebrain. The hindbrain contains the cerebellum, the pons, and the medulla oblongata. The midbrain stands as a separate portion of the brain responsible for the integration of eye movements and vestibular functions. The forebrain consists of the telencephalon, which is further subdivided into the neocortex, the basal ganglia, and the limbic system.

The forebrain also contains the diencephalon, which is further subdivided into the thalamus and hypothalamus.

Various hindbrain structures are quite similar in all vertebrates. Considerable changes occur in the relative size and development of forebrain structures as one ascends the phylogenetic scale. In higher animals, such as carnivores and primates, there is tremendous development of the neocortex relative to other brain systems.

One of the most important aspects of brain development is that as one ascends the phylogenetic scale one finds that less of the cortex, is concerned with purely

sensory and motor functions and more is concerned with complex integrative functions that seem to be the basis for complex learning. In the rat, most of the cortex is relegated to sensory and motor aspects of behavior whereas in the human, most of the cortex is relegated to associative and integrative functions, with only a small percentage involved directly in sensory and motor processes.

**Research Techniques.** The brain is studied primarily through three basic methods: ablation, stimulation, and recording. All three methods are used in conjunction with one another by brain researchers in order to obtain a picture of how various systems in the brain function dynamically in the mediation of specific behaviors.

Ablation, an experimental technique used for animals, involves selectively removing portions of the brain and trying to determine what the sum total of remaining parts can or cannot do. In this way it is possible, for example, to map out regions of the cortex responsible for auditory or visual functions or to determine which portions of the thalamus are involved in sensory or motor functions. The stimulation technique essentially involves placing small electrodes in specific portions of the brain and electrically activating them to observe the effect on some behavior or

performed task. An alternative method of stimulation is through the implantation of small tubes that can carry chemicals to specific regions of the brain. Stimulation in certain portions of the hypothalamus with cholinergic drugs will elicit drinking, whereas stimulation of the identical regions with an adrenergic substance (norepinephrine) will elicit eating. As is the case in ablation, stimulation also produces an alteration in the normal functioning of the brain.

A third method, recording, is passive and produces the least change in ongoing cerebral activity. Recording

involves placing recording electrodes in specific brain structures and observing the electrical activity of these regions as a function of different activities. It has been found, for example, that the electrical activity of the brain is markedly different during the various stages of sleep and certain aspects of learning and that it is related to attentional state.

Recent techniques for recording brain activity include computer axial tomography (CAT) and positron emission tomography (PET). These, coupled with EEC, are beginning to allow scientists to study the brain as it functions in normal activities.

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| <b>Грамматика</b><br><b>Теория и практика</b> |
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### **ОСНОВНЫЕ ТИПЫ ВОПРОСОВ В АНГЛИЙСКОМ ЯЗЫКЕ**

#### **1. Общий вопрос.**

Общий вопрос относится ко всему предложению в целом, и ответом на него будут слова *yes* или *no*: *Do you like ice-cream? — Yes, I do. Can you speak English? — Yes, I can.*

*Are you a schoolboy? — No, I am not. Have you bought a text book? — Yes, I have.*

Порядок слов в общем вопросе:

1) вспомогательный (модальный, глагол-связка) глагол;

2) подлежащее (существительное или местоимение);

3) смысловой глагол (или дополнение).

## **2. Специальный вопрос.**

Специальный вопрос относится к какому-нибудь члену предложения или их группе и требует конкретного ответа:

*What is your name? — My name is Peter.*

*Where do you live? — I live in Rostov.*

Специальный вопрос всегда начинается со специального вопросительного слова:

who (кто?)

where (где?)

whom (кого?)

why (почему? зачем?)

what (что?)

how (как?)

which (который?)

how many (сколько?)

whose (чей?)

how much (сколько?)

when (когда?)

how long (как долго?)

Порядок слов в специальном вопросе:

1) вопросительное слово (*what, where, who, when, how* и т.д.);

2) вспомогательный (модальный, глагол-связка) глагол;

3) подлежащее;

4) смысловой глагол;

5) дополнения;

6) обстоятельства (места, времени, образа действия и т.д.). В специальных вопросах, обращенных к подлежащему в

формах *Present* и *Past Indefinite*, не употребляется вспомогательный глагол *to do (did)* и сохраняется прямой порядок слов:

*Who wants to go to the cinema?*

*Whose pen is it?*

*Who lives here?*

Если вопрос начинается со слов *Do you know where ... ? / I don't know why ... / Could you tell me what... ?* и т.д., то порядок слов меняется.

Например, сравните два вопроса: *What time is it? Do you know what time it is?*

**Who are** those people? I don't know **who** those people **are**. Where **can** I **find** you? Can you tell me where **I can find** you? How much **will it** cost? Do you know how much **it will** cost?

**В вопросах с do/does/did:** *What time does the film begin? Do you know what time*

*the film begins? What do you mean? Please explain what you mean.*

*Why did she leave early? I wonder why she left early.*

### **3. Альтернативный вопрос.**

Альтернативный вопрос предполагает выбор из двух возможностей:

*Do you like coffee or tea ?* — Вы любите кофе или чай?

Альтернативный вопрос начинается как общий вопрос, за тем следует разделительный союз *or* и вторая часть вопроса.

### **4. Разделительный вопрос.**

Разделительный вопрос состоит из двух частей. Первая часть - это повествовательное предложение (утвердительное или отрицательное), вторая, отделенная запятой от первой, — краткий вопрос,

который на русский переводится *не правда ли?* *не так ли?*

*You are a student, aren't you?* — Вы студент, не правда ли?

*You aren't a student, are you?* - Вы не студент, не так ли?

В кратком вопросе повторяется вспомогательный, модальный или связочный глагол предложения, содержащего заявление. Если сказуемое предложения выражено глаголами *to be* или *to have*, то повторяются эти глаголы.

*He is reading, isn't he?* Он читает, не так ли? (Повторяется вспомогательный глагол.)

*He can read, can't he?* Он умеет читать, не так ли? (Повторяется модальный глагол *can*.)

*He is a good specialist, isn't he?* Он хороший специалист, не так ли? (Повторяется связочный глагол *to be*.)

*He has a book, hasn't he?* У него есть книга, не так ли? (Повторяется глагол *to have*, употребляемый как смысловой глагол.)

Если в повествовательной части разделительного вопроса содержится *утверждение*, то во второй — *отрицание*.

Если в повествовательной части — *отрицание*, то во второй части, как правило, — *утверждение*:

*He is there, isn't he?* Он там, не так ли?

*He isn't there, is he?* Он не там, не так ли?

### **5. Вопрос-отрицание.**

Вопрос-отрицание используется, когда хотят показать удивление, или ожидают, что слушатель согласится с высказыванием.

Например:



*Didn't you hear the doorbell? I rang it three times.* Разве ты не слышал дверной звонок? Я звонил три раза.

*Don't you want to go to the cinema? У язве ты не хочешь пойти в кино?*

Ответ *Yes* означает *Yes, I want to go.*

Ответ *No* означает *No, I don't want to go.*

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.1.** Составьте вопросы к следующим ответам. Начните со слов *who* или *what*.

Образец: *I'm worried about something.* — *What are you worried about?*

1. Somebody hit me.
2. I hit somebody.
3. Somebody paid the bill.
4. Something happened.
5. Diane said something.
6. This book belongs to somebody.
7. Somebody lives in that house.
8. I fell over something.
9. Something fell on the floor.
10. This word means something.
11. I borrowed the money from somebody.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.2.** Составьте вопросы из следующих слов.

1. when / was / built / this house
2. how / cheese / is / made
3. when / invented / the computer / was
4. why / Sue / working / isn't / today
5. what time / coming / your friends / are
6. why / was / cancelled / the concert
7. where / your mother / was / born
8. why / you / to the party / didn't / come
9. how / the accident / did / happen
10. why / this machine / doesn't / work

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.3.** *Поставьте общий вопрос к предложению и дайте краткие утвердительные и отрицательные ответы.*

А) Образец: *The guests are at the restaurant. Are the guests at the restaurant? Yes, they are.*

*Mary is a good cook. Is she a good cook? Yes, she is.*

1. The cooks are in the kitchen.
2. The waiters are in the dining hall.
3. The tables are set for dinner.
4. The watermelon is juicy.
5. The menu card is on the table.
6. He is a good waiter.
7. Our dinner was very good.
8. Our table is in the corner.

В) Образец: *The guests are not at the restaurant. Are the guests at the restaurant? No, they are not.*

*He is not a waiter. Is he a waiter? No, he is not.*

1. The dining hall is not small.
2. The waiters are not in the dining hall now.
3. The tablecloths are not on the tables now.
4. Menu-cards are not on the table.
5. Steak is not on the menu today.
6. Mary is not a headwaiter.
7. Cigarettes are not on sale.
8. There are no flowers on the table.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.4.** *Поставьте к каждому предложению раз делительный вопрос.*

1. She is a student.
2. He speaks English well.
3. They have many books.
4. The weather was fine yesterday.
5. We saw a new film yesterday.

6. You can read well.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.5.** Составьте вопросы-отрицания, раскрыв скобки.

1. A: We won't see Liz this evening.

B: Why not? (she / not / come / to the party?)

2. A: I hope we don't meet David tonight. B: Why? (you / not / like / him?)

3. A: Don't go and see that film. B: Why not? (it / not / good?)

4. A: I'll have to borrow some money. B: Why? (you / not / have / any?)

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.6.** Составьте письменно вопросы к следующим предложениям. 1. Общие. 2. Специальные. 3. Разделительные.

1. There is a picture on the wall.

2. The lecture begins at nine o'clock.

3. They will go to the University on Monday.

4. Our teacher knows several foreign languages.

5. He has already bought a ticket.

6. They visited many countries.

7. They are working in the kitchen.

8. Dinner is the largest meal during the day.

9. He likes oysters.

10. I heard about this film from my friend.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.7.** Сделайте новое предложение из вопросов в скобках.

Образец:

(Where has Tom gone?) — Do you know where Tom has gone?

(Did Liz get my letter?) — Do you know if Liz got my letter?

1. (Where is the post office?) Could you tell me where\_\_\_\_\_.
2. (What's the time?) I wonder\_\_\_\_\_.
3. (What does this word mean?) I want to know\_\_\_\_\_.
4. (What time did they leave?) Do you know\_\_\_\_\_.
5. (Is Sue going out tonight?) I don't know\_\_\_\_\_.
6. (Where does Caroline live?) Do you have any idea\_\_\_\_\_.
7. (Where did I park the car?) I can't remember\_\_\_\_\_.
8. (Is there a bank near here?) Can you tell me\_\_\_\_\_.
9. (What do you want?) Tell me\_\_\_\_\_.
10. (Why didn't Kate come to the party?) I don't know\_\_\_\_\_.
11. (How much does it cost to park here?) Do you know\_\_\_\_\_.
12. (Who is that woman?) I have no idea\_\_\_\_\_.
13. (How far is it to the airport?) Can you tell me\_\_\_\_\_.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.8.** *Переведите предложения на английский язык.*

3. Он живет в Ростове или в Москве?
4. Она врач или медсестра?
5. Вы уже сделали заказ или нет?
6. Вы хотите чай или кофе
7. Ваш друг работает в магазине или в кафе?

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| <p><b>Рецептивные виды речевой деятельности</b><br/> <b>Аудирование и чтение</b></p> |
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*Do the smartest people have the largest brains?*

The time is the early 1900s, and you are hired as an assistant to a gifted French psychologist named Alfred Binet. Unlike many of his predecessors, Binet does not believe intelligence can be assessed by measuring skull size, which in turn reflects the size of the brain. There is simply too much evidence that the size of the brain is not

closely related to powers of intellect. Instead, Binet suspects that intelligence can best be measured by assessing a person's ability to perform certain cognitive tasks, such as understanding the meaning of words or being able to follow directions.

### *The Beginnings of Modern Intelligence Testing*

The Paris public schools have commissioned Binet and a psychiatrist named Theodore Simon to develop a test that can differentiate children of normal intelligence from those who need special help. In 1905 they succeed in introducing the world's first standardized intelligence test.

Binet's test consists of items arranged in order of increasing difficulty, with different items designed to measure different cognitive abilities. For each item, Binet has determined whether an average child of a certain age can answer the question correctly. For example, at age 2 the average child can name certain parts of the body, while at age 10 the average youngster can define abstract words such as "quickly." Suppose a particular child passed all the items that can be answered by an average 3-year-old, but none of the items deemed appropriate for older children. That child would be said to have a *mental level* of 3. In Binet's view, the concept of mental level is a means of estimating a youngster's intellectual progress relative to the average child of his or her age. For example, if a child is 6 years old but has a mental level of only 3, that child would be considered retarded in intellectual development.

It is still the early 1900s, but now you are at Stanford University in California. Professor Lewis Terman and his associates are revising Binet's test and have devised a formula to calculate the now famous Intelligence Quotient, or IQ, score. What they have done is to change mental level to mental age. A child's mental age is determined by the number of test items passed. For example, if a 4-year-old girl passes the test items appropriate for a 5-year-old, she is said to have a mental age of 5. Terman's formula for *IQ* uses the terms MA, meaning mental age, and CA, meaning

chronological age or the child's age in months and years. The formula is:

$$MA/CA \times 100 = IQ$$

To figure out the IQ of the child in our example, substitute 5 for MA, 4 for CA, and multiply by 100. You would get:

$$5/4 = 1.25 \times 100 = 125$$

An IQ of 125 is relatively high. Only a little over 2 percent of the population have IQs above 130, and only about 1 percent have IQs above 145. Charlie, whom we described earlier, has an IQ of 180. Michael, the autistic young man who is a whiz at Rubik's cube, has an IQ well below 100, which is considered a sign of severe mental retardation.

Although Binet saw the benefits of identifying children in need of special educational classes, he realized that his intelligence tests were potentially dangerous. He warned that they did not measure innate abilities and that they should not be used to label people. History shows that neither of his warnings was heeded. In the early 1900s it became common practice to treat IQ scores as measures of inborn intelligence and to label people from moron to genius. Later we will consider whether IQ tests are still being misused.

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| <p style="text-align: center;"><b>Продуктивные виды речевой деятельности</b><br/><b>Говорение</b></p> |
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Монолог - описание «Строение и функции мозга»

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| <p style="text-align: center;"><b>Письмо</b></p> |
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Эссе по теме: «Парасимпатическая нервная система» (80-100 слов)

## *Unit 2. Сознание.*

|         |
|---------|
| Перевод |
|---------|

### THE STREAM OF CONSCIOUSNESS

The first and foremost concrete fact which every one will affirm to belong to his inner experience is the fact that consciousness of some sort goes on. «States of mind» succeed each other in him. If we could say in English «it thinks,» as we say «it rains» or «it blows,» we should be stating the fact most simply and with the minimum of assumption. As we cannot, we must simply say that thought goes on.

...How does it go on? We notice immediately four important characters in the process, of which it shall be the duty of the present chapter to treat in a general way:

1) Every «state» tends to be part of a personal consciousness. 2) Within each personal consciousness states are always changing. 3) Each personal consciousness is sensibly continuous. 4) It is interested in some parts of its object to the exclusion of others, and welcomes or rejects — chooses from among them, in a word — all the while.

In considering these four points successively, we shall have to plunge in medias res as regards our nomenclature and use psychological terms which can only be adequately defined in later chapters of the book. But every one knows what the terms mean in a rough way; and it is only in a rough way that we are now to take them. This chapter is like

a painter's first charcoal sketch upon his canvas, in which no niceties appear.

### **Personal Nature of Consciousness**

When I say every «state» or «thought» is part of a personal consciousness, «personal consciousness» is one of the terms in question. Its meaning we know so long as no one asks us to define it, but to give an accurate account of it is the most difficult of philosophic tasks. This task we must, confront in the next chapter; here a preliminary word will suffice.

In this room — this lecture-room, say — there are a multitude of thoughts, yours and mine, some of which cohere mutually, and some not. They are as little each-for-itself and reciprocally independent as they are all-belonging-together. They are neither: no one of them is separate, but each belongs with certain others and with none beside. My thought belongs with my other thoughts, and your thought with your other thoughts. Whether anywhere in the room there be a mere thought, which is nobody's thought, we have no means of ascertaining, for we have no experience of its like. The only states of consciousness that we naturally deal with are found in personal consciousness, minds, selves, concrete particular I's and you's.

Each of these minds keeps its own thoughts to itself. There is no giving or bartering between them. No thought even comes into direct sight of a thought in another personal consciousness than its own. Absolute insulation, irreducible pluralism, is the law. It seems as if the elementary psychic fact were not thought or this thought or that thought, but my thought, every thought being owned. Neither contemporaneity, nor proximity in space, nor similarity of quality and content are able to fuse thoughts together which are sundered by this barrier of belonging to different



personal minds. The breaches between such thoughts are the most absolute breaches in nature. Every one will recognize this to be true, so long as the existence of something corresponding to the term «personal mind» is all that is insisted on, without any particular view of its nature being implied. On these terms the personal self rather than the thought might be treated as the immediate datum in psychology. The universal conscious fact is not «feelings and thoughts exist,» but «I think» and «I feel.» No psychology, at any rate, can question the existence of personal selves. Thoughts connected as we feel them to be connected are what we mean by personal selves. The worst a psychology can do is so to interpret the nature of these selves as to rob them of their worth.

### **Consciousness in Constant Change**

Consciousness is in constant change. I do not mean by this to say that no one state of mind has any duration — even if true, that would be hard to establish. What I wish to lay stress on is this, that no state once gone can recur and be identical with what it was before. Now we are seeing, now hearing; now reasoning, now willing; now recollecting, now expecting; now loving, now hating; and in a hundred other ways we know our minds to be alternately engaged....

...The grass out of the window now looks to me of the same green in the sun as in the shade, and yet a painter would have to paint one part of it dark brown, another part bright yellow, to give its real sensational effect. We take no heed, as a rule, of the different way in which the same things look and sound and smell at different distances and under different circumstances. The sameness of the things is what we are concerned to ascertain; and any sensations that assure us of that will probably be considered in a rough way to be the same with each other...

Such a difference as this could never have been sensibly learned; it had to be inferred from a series of indirect considerations. These make us believe that our sensibility is altering all the time, so that the same object cannot easily give us the same sensation over again. We feel things differently accordingly as we are sleepy or awake, hungry or full, fresh or tired; differently at night and in the morning, differently in summer and in winter; and above all, differently in childhood, manhood, and old age. And yet we never doubt that our feelings reveal the same world, with the same sensible qualities and the same sensible things occupying it. The difference of the sensibility is shown best by the difference of our emotion about the things from one age to another, or when we are in different organic moods, What was bright and exciting becomes weary, flat, and unprofitable. The bird's song is tedious, the breeze is mournful, the sky is sad.

...From one year to another we see things in new lights. What was unreal has grown real, and what was exciting is insipid. The friends we used to care the world for are shrunken to shadows; the women once so divine, the stars, the woods, and the waters, how now so dull and common! — the young girls that brought an aura of infinity, at present hardly distinguishable existences; the pictures so empty; and as for the books, what was there to find so mysteriously significant in Goethe, or in John Mill so full of weight? Instead of all this, more zestful than ever is the work, the work; and fuller and deeper the import of common duties and of common goods.

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| <b>Грамматика</b>        |
| <b>Теория и практика</b> |

**PRESENT SIMPLE**

|                 |                 |              |
|-----------------|-----------------|--------------|
| Утвердит. форма | Вопросит. форма | Отриц. форма |
|-----------------|-----------------|--------------|

|                          |                                  |                               |
|--------------------------|----------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| I play<br>You play       | I do not play<br>You do not play | Do I play?<br>Do you play?    |
| He<br>She + plays<br>It  | He<br>She + does not<br>It       | he<br>Does + she + play<br>it |
| We<br>You + play<br>They | We<br>You + do not play<br>They  | we<br>Do + you + play<br>they |

*Present Simple* используется:

- Когда говорят об обычных повторяющихся действиях, например:

*John plays tennis once a week. We start work at 9 a.m. every day. Mary gets up 7 a.m. on weekdays. I go to school every day.*

- Когда говорят о вкусах, например: *Peter likes Chinese food.*

*Julie doesn't like fish. Children love chocolate.*

- Когда сообщают факты, например: *The sun rises in the east.*

*In Europe, the weather is cold in winter. Authors write books.*

Для указания на повторный характер действия часто употребляются слова

***every day / week, month, year*** (каждый день / каждую неделю, месяц, год),

***often*** (часто),

***seldom*** (редко),

***always*** (всегда),

***usually*** (обычно),

***never*** (никогда).

**Наречия** *often, seldom, always, never, usually* обычно ставятся перед глаголом. В предложениях с глаголом **to be** эти наречия обычно ставятся после глагола.

*He is never late for his work.* — Он никогда не опаздывает на работу.

### Глаголы в **Present Simple**

в 3-ем лице единственного числа имеют окончание -s (-es).

**ЗАДАНИЕ 2.1.** Вставьте глаголы *start, take, eat, think, sleep, go, like, drink, write, live* в нужной форме.

1. The serial on TV\_\_\_every day at 8 p.m.
2. The children\_\_\_milk with their meals.
3. Cats usually\_\_\_a lot.
4. Julie\_\_\_a letter to her mother once a week.
5. Tom and Julie\_\_\_in a big city in the centre of the country.
6. Tourists\_\_\_to Egypt to see the pyramids.
7. Jimmy always\_\_\_the bus to go to school.
8. We all know that children\_\_\_sweets.
9. Anne\_\_\_it's a good idea to learn English.
10. If you want to be healthy, you must\_\_\_good food.

### **PRESENT CONTINUOUS (PROGRESSIVE)**

| Утверждение                           | Отрицание           | Отрицание         |
|---------------------------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
| Вопрос<br>(полная форма)              | (краткая форма)     |                   |
| I am playing<br>Am I playing?         | I am not playing    | I'm not playing   |
| You are playing<br>Are you playing?   | You are not playing | You're not        |
| He/she/it is<br>Is he/she/it playing? | He/she/it is not    | He/she/it's not   |
| We are playing<br>Are we playing?     | We are not playing  | We aren't playing |

You are playing      You are not playing      You're      not playing      Are you playing?

They are playing      They are not playing      They      aren't playing      Are they playing?

**Present Continuous** употребляется для выражения действия, длящегося в настоящий момент или в момент речи. Указание на время типа *now* (сейчас), *at the moment* (в данный момент) может быть либо выражено, либо подразумеваться.

**Present Continuous** может также употребляться для выражения планируемых в будущем действий. Например:

Next month I *am spending* my holidays in Moscow.

Our neighbours *are coming* to dinner tomorrow.

С глаголами, которые обозначают не действие, а состояние, **Present Continuous** обычно не употребляется:

to live (жить)

to stay (оставаться)

to hear (слышать)

to see (видеть)

to know (знать)

to realize (понимать, осознавать)

to suppose (предполагать)

to mean (означать)

to understand (понимать)

to believe (верить, считать)

to remember (помнить)

to think (думать)

to belong (принадлежать)

to contain (содержать)

to consist (состоять из чего-либо)

to seem (казаться)

to want (хотеть)

to like (любить, нравиться)

to love (любить)  
to hate (ненавидеть)  
to need (нуждаться)  
to prefer (предпочитать)

Глаголы *to feel* (чувствовать) и *to look* (выглядеть) могут употребляться и в форме **Present Simple** и в форме **Present Continuous**, чтобы сказать, как кто-то выглядит или чувствует себя сейчас. Например:

*You look well today. — You **are** looking well today.*

*How do you **feel** now ? — How **are** you **feeling** now ?*

**ЗАДАНИЕ 2.2.** *Поставьте глаголы в нужную форму, выбрав Present Simple или Present Continuous.*

1. Every day Julie (take) the bus to go to her office.
2. At the moment you (do) an English exercise.
3. Tom and Julie (learn) English this year.
4. This restaurant (open) at 9.30 every morning.
5. Our cousins (come) to see us next Sunday.
6. Tom (read) the newspaper every morning on the train.
7. Julie usually (clean) the house on Saturdays.
8. She (write) a letter to a client now.
9. Julie (speak) three languages: English, French and Spanish.
10. Today is Sunday. Tom and Julie (relax) in their garden.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 2.3.** *Поставьте глаголы в нужную форму, выбрав Present Simple или Present Continuous.*

1. Water (to boil) at 100 degrees Celsius.
2. The water (to boil). Can you turn it off?
3. Look! That man (to try) to open the door of your car.
4. Can you hear those people? What do they (to talk) about?
5. The moon (to go) round the earth in about 27 days.

- 6.1 usually (to go) to work by car.
7. "Hurry up! It's time to leave." — "OK, I (to come)."
8. Paul is never late. He always (to come) to work on time.
9. They don't get on well. They always (argue).
10. Let's go out. It (not / to rain) now.
11. Julia is very good at languages. She (to speak) four languages very well.
12. Hurry up! Everybody (to wait) for you.
13. The River Nile (to flow) into the Mediterranean Sea.
14. The river (to flow) very fast today — much faster than usual.
15. We usually (to grow) vegetables in our garden, but this year we (not / to grow) any.

### PRESENT PERFECT

Глаголы в формах **Perfect** выражают действие *завершенное*, которое привело к определенному *результату* (или к отсутствию результата). С помощью глагольных форм **Perfect** *под водится итог* действий. Время подведения итогов, либо на стоящий момент **Present Perfect**, либо момент в прошлом **Past Perfect**, либо в будущем **Future Perfect**.

**Present Perfect** образуется при помощи вспомогательного глагола **to have** в настоящем времени (**have, has**) и третьей формы смыслового глагола. В вопросительном предложении вспомогательный глагол ставится перед подлежащим. В отрицательном предложении после вспомогательного глагола ставится отрицание **not**.

| Утверждение | Отрицание<br>(полная<br>форма) | Отрицание<br>(краткая<br>форма) | Вопрос |
|-------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|--------|
|             |                                |                                 |        |

|                    |                        |                       |                     |
|--------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|
| I have done        | I have not done        | I haven't done        | Have I done?        |
| You have done      | You have not done      | You haven't done      | Have you done?      |
| He/she/it has done | He/she/it has not done | He/she/it hasn't done | Has he/she/it done? |
| We have done       | We have not done       | We haven't done       | Have we done?       |
| You have done      | You have not done      | You haven't done      | Have you done?      |
| They have done     | They have not done     | They haven't done     | Have they done?     |

### PRESENT PERFECT CONTINUOUS

| Утверждение              | Отрицание                    | Вопрос                   |
|--------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------|
| I have been sleeping.    | I have not been sleeping.    | Have I been sleeping?    |
| You have been sleeping.  | You have not been sleeping   | Have you been sleeping?  |
| We have been sleeping.   | We have not been sleeping.   | Have we been sleeping?   |
| They have been sleeping. | They have not been sleeping. | Have they been sleeping? |
| He has been sleeping.    | He has not been sleeping.    | Has he been sleeping?    |
| She has been sleeping.   | She has not been sleeping.   | Has she been sleeping?   |
| It has been sleeping.    | It has not been sleeping.    | Has it been sleeping?    |

*You **have been waiting** here for five minutes. You **have not been waiting** since Tuesday. **Have you been waiting** for two weeks?*

**Present Perfect Continuous** используется для того, чтобы показать, что действие, начатое в прошлом, продолжается вплоть до данного момента времени.



Слова *for five minutes*, в течение пяти минут, *for two weeks* в течение двух недель и *since Tuesday* со вторника указывают длительность действия в **Present Perfect Continuous**.

**Present Perfect Continuous** можно также использовать без указания длительности например *for two weeks*. Без указания длительности **Present Perfect Continuous** имеет более общее значение, а именно — *lately, recently* — в последнее время, за последнее время, недавно, на днях.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 2.4.** *Раскройте скобки и поставьте глаголы в Present Perfect Continuous.*

1. Recently, I (feel) really tired.
2. She (watch) too much television lately.
3. He (work) a lot lately.
4. Mary (feel) a little depressed.
5. Lisa (not/practice) her English.
6. What he (do) last month?
7. She (study) at that University for three years.
8. What you (do) for the last 30 days?
9. Peter (teach) at the University since June.
10. We (wait) here for over two hours!
11. Why she (not/attend) her lectures for the last two days?
12. They (talk) for the last hour.

### PAST SIMPLE

**Past Simple** используется, когда говорят о законченных действиях в законченный период времени. **Например:** *Yesterday evening, I played tennis with a friend. I went to school in 1990. When I was at school, I liked history. Five minutes ago, I finished the report for my boss. Last week I attended a meeting in a conference hall.*

## REGULAR AND IRREGULAR VERBS

По способу образования прошедшего времени все глаголы в английском языке можно разделить на две группы: правильные и неправильные. У правильных глаголов вторая и третья формы (Past Indefinite Tense и Past Participle — простое прошедшее время и причастие прошедшего времени) совпадают между собой и образуются путем прибавления к основе глагола окончания *-ed* (*-d*):

*to ask — asked*                      *to change — changed*  
*to receive — received*            *to work — worked*

При этом существует ряд особенностей:

а) если глагол оканчивается на *-y* с предшествующей со гласной, то буква *y* меняется на *i* и добавляется окончание *-ed*:

*to supply — supplied*              *to apply — applied*

Если глагол оканчивается на *-y* с предшествующей гласной, то буква *y* не меняется и добавляется окончание *-ed*.

*to stay — stayed*              *to play — played*

б) если глагол оканчивается на согласную с предшествующим кратким гласным звуком, то согласная на конце удваивается:

*to stop — stopped*

После звонких согласных и гласных звуков окончание *-ed* или *-d* произносится как [d] *loved, said*, а после глухих согласных как [t] *looked*.

После звуков [d] и [t] на конце слова окончание *-ed* (*-d*) произносится как [ɪd] *landed, started*.

Неправильные глаголы образуют вторую и третью формы различными способами, без четких правил. Это наиболее часто употребляемые глаголы. В конце книги приведен список часто встречающихся неправильных глаголов.

Отрицательная и вопросительная формы в Indefinite образуются при помощи вспомогательных глаголов *do, does, did* с частицей *not*, краткая форма: *don't, doesn't, didn't*. Вопросы тельные предложения образуются, как правило, простой перестановкой подлежащего и вспомогательного глагола. Вопросительные местоимения при этом стоят всегда впереди.

| Утверждение      | Отрицание              | Отрицание (полная форма) | Вопрос (краткая форма) |
|------------------|------------------------|--------------------------|------------------------|
| I played         | I did not play         | I didn't play            | Did I play?            |
| You played       | You did not play       | You didn't play          | Did you play?          |
| He/she/it played | He/she/it did not play | He/she/it didn't play    | Did he/she/it play?    |
| We played        | We did not play        | We didn't play           | Did we play?           |
| You played       | You did not play       | You didn't play          | Did you play?          |
| They played      | They did not play      | They didn't play         | Did they play?         |

**ЗАДАНИЕ 2.4.** *Раскройте скобки и поставьте глаголы в Past Simple.*

1. We (buy) a new car on Tuesday.
2. Mandy not (do) her homework yesterday.
3. When you (meet) Jane?
4. Why they (go) to London?
5. I not (be) ill last month.
6. Where your parents (live) when they (be) young?
7. Jill (be) in London last year.
8. When Fred (give) you this book?

9. We not (visit) them when they (be) ill. 10. I (read) much last year.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 2.5.** *Раскройте скобки и поставьте глаголы в Past Simple.*

1. Yesterday evening I (go) to the cinema with a friend.
2. From 1995 to 1998 he (work) in Minsk.
3. Last night the concert (finish) at midnight.
4. I (arrive) at the office this morning before my colleagues.
5. When he was young, Tom (ride) a bicycle to school.
6. The train was at 8 p.m. so I (leave) home at 7 p.m.
7. Last Sunday was my mother's birthday, so I (buy) a present for her.
8. I (start) to play tennis five years ago.
9. The great composer Mozart (die) at the age of 35.
10. Julie (do) a lot of English exercises last week.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 2.6.** *Прочитайте рассказ Джейн о своем типичном рабочем дне. Поставьте глаголы в Past Simple.*

*My name's Jane. I'll tell you about my typical working day.*

*I usually get up at 7 o'clock and have a big breakfast. I walk to work, which takes me about half an hour. I start work at 8.45. I never have lunch. I finish work at 5 o'clock. I'm always tired when get home. I usually cook a meal in the evening. I don't usually go out. I go to bed at about o'clock, and I always sleep well.*

1. She \_\_\_ at 7 o'clock.
2. She \_\_\_ a big breakfast.
3. She \_\_\_.
4. It \_\_\_ to get to work.
5. \_\_\_ at 8.45.

6. \_\_\_ lunch.
7. \_\_\_ at 5 o'clock.
8. \_\_\_ tired when \_\_\_ home.
9. \_\_\_ a meal yesterday evening.
10. \_\_\_ out yesterday evening.
11. \_\_\_ at 11 o'clock.
12. \_\_\_ well last night.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 2.7.** *Раскройте скобки, вставьте глаголы в форме Past Simple.*

*buy, catch, cost, fall, hurt, sell, spend, teach, throw, write*

1. Mozart \_\_\_ more than 600 pieces of music.
2. 'How did you learn to drive?' - 'My father \_\_\_ me.'
3. We couldn't afford to keep our car, so we \_\_\_ it.
4. Dave \_\_\_ down the stairs this morning and \_\_\_ his leg.
5. Jim \_\_\_ the ball to Sue, who \_\_\_ it.
6. Ann \_\_\_ a lot of money yesterday. She \_\_\_ a dress which \_\_\_ 100.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 2.8.** *Раскройте скобки.*

1. It was warm, so I (take) off my coat.
2. The film wasn't very good. I (not/enjoy) it very much.
3. I knew Sarah was very busy, so I (not/disturb) her.
4. I was very tired, so I (leave) the party early.
5. The bed was very uncomfortable. I (not/sleep) very well.
6. The window was open and a bird (fly) into the room.
7. The hotel wasn't very expensive. It (not/cost) very much.
8. I was in a hurry, so I (not/have) time to phone you.
9. It was hard carrying the bags. They (be) very heavy.

**PAST CONTINUOUS**

| Утверждение           | Отрицание<br>(полная форма) | Отрицание<br>(краткая форма) | Вопрос                 |
|-----------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------|
| I was playing         | I was not playing           | I wasn't playing             | Was I playing?         |
| You were playing      | You were not playing        | You weren't playing          | Were you playing?      |
| He/she/it was playing | He/she/it was not playing   | He/s he/it was n't playing   | Was he/she/it playing? |
| We were playing       | We were not playing         | We weren't playing           | Were we playing?       |
| You were playing      | You were not playing        | You weren't playing          | Were you playing?      |
| They were playing     | They were not playing       | They weren't playing         | Were they playing?     |

**Past Continuous** обычно употребляется для выражения конретного действия, длившегося в точно указанный момент или период в прошлом.

Например: *Yesterday evening, at 9 o'clock, I was watching television.*

**Past Continuous** также употребляется для выражения длительного действия, во время которого произошло другое, бо лее краткое действие.

Например: *Yesterday evening, while I was watching television, the phone rang.*

*When my husband arrived home yesterday evening, I was cooking dinner.*

## PAST PERFECT

**Past Perfect** употребляется:

а) для выражения действия, завершившегося до какого-либо момента или другого действия в прошлом: *He had read the book by 10 o'clock yesterday.* Он прочел книгу до десяти часов (к десяти часам) вечера.

*When we came to the airport the plane had already landed.* Когда мы приехали в аэропорт, самолет уже приземлился;

б) в предложениях, в которых одно действие завершилось до другого действия, происходящего в прошлом: *He had read the book and was watching TV when I came.* Когда я пришел, он уже прочитал книгу и смотрел телевизор.

| Утверждение          | Отрицание           | Отрицание          | Вопрос           |
|----------------------|---------------------|--------------------|------------------|
|                      | (полная форма)      | (краткая форма)    |                  |
| I had played         | I had not played    | I hadn't played    | Had I played?    |
| You had played       | You had not played  | You hadn't played  | Had you played?  |
| He/she/it had played | He had not played   | He hadn't played   | Had he played?   |
| We had played        | We had not played   | We hadn't played   | Had we played?   |
| You had played       | You had not played  | You hadn't played  | Had you played?  |
| They had played      | They had not played | They hadn't played | Had they played? |

## FUTURE SIMPLE

**Future Simple** употребляется когда говорят о прогнозируемых действиях в будущем: *You are going on*

*a long flight. You can say: "I will be tired after my long journey".*

| Утверждение  | Отрицание<br>(полная<br>форма)  | Отрицание<br>(краткая<br>форма)  | Вопрос  |
|--|---|--|---|
| I will go<br>You will go<br>He/she/it will<br>go We will go<br>You will go<br>They will go | I will not go<br>You will not<br>go He/she/it<br>will not go<br>We will not<br>go<br>You will not<br>go They will<br>not go | I won't go<br>You won't<br>go<br>He/she/it<br>won't go<br>We won't<br>go<br>You won't<br>go They<br>won't go | Will I go?<br>Will you go?<br>Will he/she/it<br>go?<br>Will we go?<br>Will you go?<br>Will they go? |

#### **FUTURE CONTINUOUS**

| Утверждение          | Отрицание<br>(полная<br>форма) | Отрицание<br>(краткая<br>форма) | Вопрос                |
|----------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------|
| I will be going      | I will not be<br>going         | I won't be<br>going             | Will I be<br>going?   |
| You will be<br>going | You will not be<br>going       | You won't be<br>going           | Will you be<br>going? |
| He will be<br>going  | He will not be<br>going        | He won't be<br>going            | Will he be<br>going?  |
| We will be<br>going  | We will not be<br>going        | We won't be<br>going            | Will we be<br>going?  |
| You will be<br>going | You will not be<br>going       | You won't be<br>going           | Will you be<br>going? |



|                    |                        |                     |                     |
|--------------------|------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| They will be going | They will not be going | They won't be going | Will they be going? |
|                    | going                  | going               |                     |

**Future Continuous** употребляется для выражения действия, которое будет длиться в точно указанный момент или период в будущем. Например: *We **are leaving** for Moscow in July.* — Мы уезжаем в Москву в июле.

Глаголы в **Present Continuous** также выражают действие, отнесенное в ближайшее будущее: *You are going on a long flight. You can say, for example: In two hours' time, I will be having lunch on the plane / I will be flying over London / I will be reading a newspaper / I will be sleeping / I will be watching a film, etc.*

#### FUTURE PERFECT

| Утверждение                 | Отрицание (полная форма)    | Отрицание (краткая форма)    | Вопрос                       |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|
| I shall have written        | I shall not have written    | I shan't have written        | Shall I have written?        |
| You will have written       | You will not have written   | You won't have written       | Will you have written?       |
| He/she/it will have written | He/she/it will have written | He/she/it won't have written | Will he/she/it have written? |
| We will have written        | We will not have written    | We won't have written        | Will we have written?        |
| You will have written       | You will not have written   | You won't have written       | Will you have written?       |
| They will have written      | They will not have written  | They won't have written      | Will they have written?      |

**Future Perfect** употребляется для выражения действия, которое будет происходить до определенного

момента или другого действия в будущем, и завершится или прекратится до него. Например:

*We **will have written** the test before the end of the lesson.*

*We **will have covered** the tables before the guests arrive.*

**ЗАДАНИЕ 2.9.** *Вставьте **to write** в нужной форме.*

1. We often \_\_\_ letters to our parents.
2. What \_\_\_ you \_\_\_ now?
3. Yesterday they \_\_\_\_\_ tests from 10 till 12 o'clock.
4. Who \_\_\_\_\_ this letter?
5. I \_\_\_\_\_ some letters last week.
6. What \_\_\_ you \_\_\_ tomorrow at 10?
7. When I came to her, she \_\_\_\_\_ a letter.
8. \_\_\_ you \_\_\_ letters tomorrow?
9. I \_\_\_ not \_\_\_ this letter now. I \_\_\_\_\_ it in some days.
10. \_\_\_ he \_\_\_ his home task now?
11. What \_\_\_ she \_\_\_ in the evening yesterday?
12. As a rule, he \_\_\_ tests well.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 2.10.** *Раскройте скобки, укажите время глагола.*

1. He (know) several foreign languages.
2. I (learn) English at school.
3. Usually the classes (begin) at 9 o'clock.
4. Our grandparents (live) now in Moscow.
5. He often (visit) them last year.
6. As a rule I (go) to my school by bus.
7. She (work) abroad next year.
8. He (not like) loud music.
9. Your children usually (ask) many questions.
10. At present he (not work) at school.
11. My brother (like) music.
12. What you (do) yesterday?

13. His sister (not go) to the seaside next July.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 2.11.** *Раскройте скобки. Поставьте глаголы в нужную форму.*

1. When I (came) the dinner already (begin).
2. What you (do) here?
3. Who (speak) now?
4. He already (come) here?
5. She said that she (not like) fish and (take) beefsteak.
6. Usually breakfast (begin) at 8 o'clock.
7. She (work) abroad next year.
8. She (not/like) loud music.
9. My brother (not/like) strawberry ice cream.
10. Who (work) yesterday?
11. We (leave) for Moscow on Friday.
12. At present he (work) as a taxi driver.
13. The waiters already (set) all the tables.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 2.12.** *Переведите предложения на английский язык, используя Perfect.*

1. Вы были за границей?
2. Он только что закончил работу?
3. Вы уже сделали заказ?
4. Вы заказали билеты на самолет по телефону?
5. Вы когда-нибудь видели этого человека?
6. Что вы выбрали на десерт?
7. Вы пробовали клубничное мороженое?
8. Вы были когда-нибудь в нашем ресторане раньше?
9. Вы уже закончили свой обед?
10. Официанты уже накрыли столы?

**ЗАДАНИЕ 2.13.** *Поставьте глаголы в нужную форму, выбрав Past Simple или Past Continuous.*

1. When her husband (come) home, Anne (watch) television.
2. I (prepare) dinner when the telephone (ring).
3. What (you do) when the postman arrive)?
4. Julie (learn) to drive when she (work) in London.
5. Where (you sit) when the show (begin)?
6. I (visit) Athens while I (tour) Greece.
7. It was when he (cross) the street that John (fall).
8. What (you see) while you (wait) for the bus?
9. Where (you go) when your car (break) down?
10. Julie (meet) Peter when she (walk) in the park.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 2.14.** *Поставьте глаголы, данные в скобках, в нужную форму Present Perfect или Past Simple.*

1. Tom (go) to the cinema yesterday.
2. John is playing a game of tennis. He (play) for 2 hours.
3. I (buy) the tickets for this concert two weeks ago.
4. The teacher (speak) English since the beginning of this lesson.
5. In your life, how many countries you (visit)?
6. The Bank (open) a branch in the new shopping centre last month.
7. The bus is late and Julie is cold. She (wait) for the bus for 10 minutes.
8. Caroline (work) here between 1997 and 1999.
9. Before getting on the plane, John (buy) a book to read during the flight.
10. Since the beginning of this exercise, I (learn) several new words in English.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 2.15.** *Переделайте следующие предложения в вопросительно-отрицательные и дайте краткие ответы.*

Образец: *They are at home. — Aren't they at home? — Yes, they are. — No, they aren't.*

1. He has finished his work.
2. She will visit us on Sunday.
3. She has many relatives.
4. His father works here.
5. You know his address.
6. We shall go home together.
7. He can play chess.
8. His friends were playing football.
9. You have done the task.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 2.16.** *Раскройте скобки.*

1. When I (came) the lecture already (start). 2 They (go) to Moscow some days ago. 3. When I came he (leave), so we only had time for a few words. 4. When we (come) to the airport, the plane already (land). 5. He suddenly (understand) that he (travel) in the wrong direction. 6. Our teacher (speak) many foreign languages. 7. Who (speak) now? 8. Where is Johnny? He (play) tennis. 9. I (go) home when I met my friend. 10. Listen, my son (play) the piano. 11. They already (translate) this text last lesson. 12. You (do) this exercise next week. 13. We (discuss) your plan tomorrow at 10 o'clock. 14. It (rain) when I went for a walk. 15. What you (do) here? 16.1 (not/write) at the moment.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 2.17.** *Приведены способы образования утвердительных и отрицательных форм кратких ответов типа «Я тоже».*

*А. Прочтите и переведите предложения.*

3. She can swim well. — So, can I.
4. You like to read. — So do I.
5. He is lucky. — So am I.
6. I didn't see this film. — Neither did he.

7. They haven't had breakfast. — Neither have I.
8. I don't work at the office. — Neither does he.
9. He doesn't understand anything. — Neither do I.
- В. *Переведите предложения на английский язык.*
10. Я живу в большом городе. — Я тоже.
11. Она — первокурсница. — Он тоже.
12. Я уже сдал экзамен. — Я тоже.
13. Мне не понравился этот фильм. — Мне тоже.
14. Я пойду завтра в университет. — Я тоже.

|   |
|---|
| <b>Рецептивные виды речевой деятельности</b><br><b>Аудирование и чтение</b> |
|---|

### **GET OVER YOURSELF!**

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

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

The “Better” than Average Effect Perhaps the biggest bias in people’s perceptions of themselves involves their penchant for overestimating their own positive qualities.

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

Most people also tend to see themselves as less prejudiced than other people they know. People also think that they are more likely to go to heaven when they die than are other people. U.S. News and World Report survey asked 1,000 Americans to rate whether they and various celebrities were likely to go to heaven. Of the celebrities, Mother Teresa ranked highest on the list; 79% of the respondents thought she was likely to go to heaven. When asked about themselves, though, 87 percent of the respondents indicated that they were destined to go to heaven. Put simply, respondents thought that they were personally more likely to go to heaven than anybody else on the list, including Mother Teresa. People also think that they understand other people better than other people understand them, and people assume that they understand themselves better than other people do. Furthermore, people expect others to be less objective and fair than they themselves are. Not only do these assumptions lead us to think that we have an inside

track on accuracy and that other people's interpretations are wrong, but it leads us to underestimate that we might learn from other people and overestimate that they might learn from us. Perhaps this explains why most people offer advice much more willingly than they accept it from others.

### Your Name: Nothing Sounds so Sweet

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

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

The natural tendency to selfenhance affects our perception of other people as well. For example, merely sharing the same birthday with another person can influence our evaluation of him or her. In one study, participants read one of two essays about Rasputin, the “mad monk of Russia.” Rasputin was filthy and violent, drank heavily and sexually assaulted women. Yet participants who thought that they and Rasputin were born on the same day of the year



rated him significantly more favorably than participants who did not think he shared their birthday.

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| <p><b>Продуктивные виды речевой деятельности</b><br/><b>Говорение</b></p> |
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Монолог-описание «возникновения учения о сознании»

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| <p><b>Письмо</b></p> |
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Написание краткого эссе «Неосознаваемые психические процессы» (80-100 слов)

### *Unit 3. Сон*

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| <p><b>Перевод</b></p> |
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#### **Sleep**

Human beings spend about one-third of their lives in the altered state of consciousness known as sleep: a natural state of rest characterized by a reduction in voluntary body movement and decreased awareness of the surroundings. No one who has tried to stay awake longer than 20 hours at a time could doubt the necessity of sleep. Some people claim they never sleep, but when observed under laboratory conditions, they actually sleep soundly without being aware of it. When people are sleep-deprived, they crave sleep just as strongly as they would food or water after a period of deprivation. Sleep deprivation impairs cognitive skills to a greater extent than many people realize. When deprived of sleep we react more slowly, have more trouble focusing attention, and are more prone to making errors in judgment. Emergency room doctors often lose sleep because of the

unpredictable and demanding nature of their work. This can be a serious problem when they are called on to make critical decisions quickly. Merely resting doesn't satisfy us.

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

How long organisms sleep, where, in what positions, and other details vary from species to species. In general, large animals sleep less than small animals, perhaps because eating enough to support their size requires more time awake. Elephants get by on about 4 hours sleep, and giraffes on only 2 hours. In contrast, bats, armadillos, and opossums sleep more than 18 hours a day. Lions, who consume enough from a single kill to keep going for a day or two, sleep for 16 hours at a time. House cats have inherited this tendency, though they spend more time in light sleep (eyes closed but in a upright posture with ears alert) than in deep sleep (muscles relaxed, almost oblivious to their surroundings). Dolphins and other aquatic mammals actually sleep on the move. If they didn't keep one flipper paddling and periodically surface to breathe, they would drown. How do they accomplish this? By sleeping with only one hemisphere of their brain at a time. Birds are also half brain sleepers, but apparently for a different reason: to keep one eye open for predators. Other organisms, such as fish, usually find a protected place and rest for just minutes at a time by slowing their

metabolism down. Brightly colored reef fish can even “turn down” their colors when they rest to reduce the risk of being seen by predators. The parrot fish secretes a mucous layer to cover its body, thus cloaking its scent while napping.

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

### **Functions of sleep**

Assuming that you live to be 75, you will have spent up to 25 years asleep. Are you wasting one-third of your life, or does sleep serve important functions for you? Is sleep serves no function, why do we benefit from naps and why do we eventually succumb to sleep no matter how hard we try to stay awake? Among the many hypothesized functions of

sleep, three kinds are especially prominent: sleep as restorative, sleep as a state of adaptive inactivity, and sleep as an aid to memory.

### **Sleep as Restorative**

The most commonsense view of sleep holds that it restores the body and the mind after the wear and tear imposed by waking activities by eliminating waste materials, replenishing chemicals, and repairing tissues. One way of testing this view is to observe the effects of sleep deprivation. In the case of Peter Tripp, sleep deprivation caused hallucinations and delusional thinking, which disappeared after a single night's sleep. In a similar case, Randy Gardner, a 17-year-old San Diego high school student, stayed awake 264 hours to get his name in the Guinness Book of World Records (a record since broken). He experienced less severe disturbances than Tripp, including some fatigue, irritability, and perceptual distortions. Yet, on his eleventh day without sleep, Gardner beat William Dement, a noted sleep researcher, 100 consecutive times at a pinball game. After 15 hours of sleep, Gardner awoke restored both physically and mentally.

More formal research has provided evidence of the negative effects of sleep loss and the restorative effects of sleep. In one study, subjects who stayed awake for 60 hours experienced mood disturbances and difficulty performing cognitive tasks, including mental arithmetic. Even a loss of as little as 2 hours of sleep a night may impair waking performance, most notably in school and on the job. Chronic sleep deprivation is one of the major stressors of medical residents, who may be asked to make life and death decisions and perform delicate procedures after being awake for 24 hours or more. This is potentially dangerous because

the loss of sleep slows reaction time and impairs the ability to concentrate on tasks.

Even performance on everyday activities, such as driving, is adversely affected by sleep deprivation. In fact, one of the most common causes of automobile accidents is a lack of alertness caused by sleepiness. Sleepiness-induced accidents are especially common in shift workers. Fortunately, even if we fail to get our normal nightly quota of sleep during the week (a common problem with college students) we will regain our optimal level of alertness after a single night's normal sleep on the weekend.

Another source of evidence for the restorative function of sleep is research on the effects of vigorous physical activity on sleep. Sleep, especially deep sleep, increases in duration on the nights after vigorous exercise. A study of runners who participated in a 57-mile ultramarathon race found that they had a significant increase in sleep, particularly stage 3 and stage 4 sleep, on the two nights following the race. Despite the evidence that sleep has a restorative function, we still do not know exactly what sleep restores.

### **Sleep as Adaptive Inactivity**

An alternative view, put forth by sleep researcher Wilse Webb (1975), is that sleep evolved because it protected the sleeper from harm. Our prehistoric ancestors who slept at night would be less likely to gain the attention of hungry nocturnal predators. The limb paralysis accompanying REM sleep may have evolved because it prevented cave dwellers from acting out their dreams, when they might have bumped into trees, fallen off cliffs, or provided dinner for saber-toothed tigers. Evidence for this function of REM sleep comes from studies showing that destruction of a portion of

the pons that normally induces REM paralysis in cats produces stalking and attacking movements during sleep, as though they are acting out their dreams.

Another reason to believe that sleep may be a period of adaptive inactivity is because it conserves energy. Evidence supporting this view comes from studies of the food-finding habits of different species. Because of normal duration of sleep of a given species is negatively correlated with how long it takes members of that species to find their daily food, perhaps animals stay awake only long enough to eat sufficient food to meet their energy needs. Animals may have evolved sleep to conserve energy the remainder of the time. Thus, the typical adult's need for about seven and one-half hours of sleep might mean that our prehistoric ancestors needed about sixteen and one-half hours to find their daily food.

### **Sleep as an Aid to Memory**

Sleep, particularly REM sleep, may help to consolidate long-term memories. When subjects learn new material and are then deprived of REM sleep, their memory for the material is impaired relative to subjects who are not deprived. Moreover, the amount of REM sleep increases on nights following the learning of difficult material. And memory improves as the length of REM sleep increases. In one study, undergraduates learned Morse code just before bedtime on three consecutive nights. After awakening, their performance on a Morse code task was tested. The results showed a positive correlation between the length of REM sleep and their performance. In another study, competitors in a marathon 1466hour tennis match slept 4 or 5 hours a night less than normal. Physiological recordings indicated that they continued to get their normal NREM sleep, but at the cost of a reduction in their REM sleep. They also

showed a memory decline after the match, perhaps because of their decrease in REM sleep. Adaptive inactivity; to conserve energy; to meet one's energy needs; to consolidate long-term memory; a correlation; physiological recordings; memory decline after the match, perhaps because of their decrease in REM sleep.

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| <b>Грамматика</b><br><b>Теория и практика</b> |
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### P ASSIVE VOICE

Формы страдательного залога английских глаголов образуются с помощью вспомогательного глагола to be в соответствующем времени, лице и числе + Причастия II (Participle II) смыслового глагола:

|                |                            |
|----------------|----------------------------|
| Present Simple | The letter is written.     |
| Past Simple    | The letter was written.    |
| Future Simple  | The letter will be written |

|                    |                                   |
|--------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Present Continuous | The letter is being written.      |
| Past Continuous    | The letter was being written.     |
| Future Continuous  | The letter will be being written. |

|                    |                                    |
|--------------------|------------------------------------|
| Present Continuous | The letter has been written.       |
| Past Continuous    | The letter had been written.       |
| Future Continuous  | The letter will have been written. |

Страдательный залог часто используется в тех случаях, когда не важно или неизвестно, кто (или что) произвел, производит или будет производить действие. Например:

*A lot of money was stolen. (Somebody stole it, but we don't know who.)*

*Is this room cleaned every day? (Does somebody clean it? — it's not important who.)*

В страдательном залоге дополнение становится подлежащим.



*I bought a book.* Я купил книгу.

*The book was bought (by me).* Книга была куплена (мною).

Глагол-сказуемое в страдательном залоге показывает, что подлежащее предложения является объектом действия со стороны другого лица или предмета.

Сравните: *Somebody built this house in 2000 (active).*

*This house was built in 2000 (passive).*

Глаголы в страдательном залоге на русский язык переводятся:

1) глаголом быть + краткая форма причастия страдательного залога:

*The letter was sent yesterday.* Письмо было послано вчера;

2) глаголом с частицей -ся (-сь):

*This problem was discussed last week.* Эта проблема обсуждалась на прошлой неделе;

3) неопределенно-личным оборотом, т.е. глаголом в действительном залоге 3 лица множественного числа, типа «говорят», «сказали»:

*English is spoken in many countries.* На английском языке говорят во многих странах;

4) глаголом в действительном залоге (при наличии исполнителя действия):

*Pupils are taught at school by the teachers.* Учеников учат в школе учителя.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 3.1.** Раскройте скобки, поставьте глаголы в нужные формы страдательного залога.

1. Those books (return) to the library yesterday.
2. The paintings (exhibit) till the end of the month.
3. Why your home task (not / do)?
4. The patient (take) to the hospital today, and (operate) tomorrow morning.

5. This room (use) only on special occasions.
6. We (tell) about it already.
7. This newspaper (not read) because the pages (not / cut).
8. Dictionaries may not (use) at the examination.
9. Usually the experiments (carry out) every day, but they (not / carry out) yesterday.
10. The book (return) to the library yesterday.
11. Thousands of new houses (build) every year.
12. This room (not use) for a long time.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 3.2.** Перепишите предложения в страдательном залоге, сделав выделенное слово подлежащим.

1. They offered **William** a promotion.
2. They are testing **the new system**.
3. The authorities reported **that the economic situation** was under control.
4. They may see **the film**.
5. We haven't used **the car** for ages.
6. Employers must pay **all travel expenses** for this training course.
7. All visitors must wear **identity badges**.
8. The news about the exam results distressed **Sidney**.
9. Nobody informed **the college** that there had been a mistake.
10. The company has cut **all salaries**.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 3.3.** Закончите предложения. Вставьте глаголы в нужной форме (present or past).

invite, cause, damage, hold, make, overtake, show, surround, translate, write

1. You can't see the house from the road. It \_\_\_\_ by trees.
2. Cheese \_\_\_\_ from milk.
3. The roof of the building \_\_\_\_ in a storm a few days ago.
4. You \_\_\_\_ to the wedding. Why didn't you go?
5. A cinema is a place where films \_\_\_\_.
6. In the United States elections for president \_\_\_\_ every four years.
7. Originally the book \_\_\_\_ in Russian, and a few years ago it into English.
8. Although we were driving quite fast, we \_\_\_\_ by a lot of other cars.
9. Many accidents by dangerous driving.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 3.4.** Раскройте скобки (present simple or past simple, active or passive).

1. It's a big factory. Five hundred people (employ) there.
2. Somebody (clean) this room yesterday?
3. Water (cover) most of the earth's surface.
4. How much of the earth's surface (cover) by water?
5. The shop (close) at 9.30 p.m. every evening.
6. The letter (post) a week ago and it (arrive) yesterday.
7. The boat hit a rock and (sink) quickly. Fortunately everybody (rescue).
8. I was bom in Moscow, but I (grow up) in Rostov.
9. While I was on holiday, my camera (steal) from my hotel room.
10. While I was on holiday, my camera (disappear) from my hotel room.
11. Why Sue (resign) from her job? Didn't she enjoy it?
12. Why Bill (sack) from his job? What did he do wrong?

13. Where these photographs (take)? In London? You (take) them, or somebody else?

14. Nobody (injure) in the road accident last night so the ambulance (not / need).

**ЗАДАНИЕ 3.5.** Перепишите предложения в страдательном залоге.

Образец: Somebody **cleans** the room every day. — The room **is cleaned** every day.

1. They **cancelled** all flights because of fog.
2. People didn't **use** this road much.
3. She **has sent** me an e-mail yesterday.
4. How do people **learn** languages?
5. Somebody **warned** us not to go out alone.
6. Somebody **will clean** the room later.
7. They **are selling** fresh fruit here.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 3.6.** Раскройте скобки, поставьте глаголы в нужные формы страдательного залога.

1. The situation is serious. Something must (do) before it's too late.

2. The music was very loud and could (hear) from a long way away.

3. A new supermarket is going (build) next year.

4. The room should (clean).

5. I haven't received the letter yet. It might (send) to the wrong address.

6. There were some problems at first, but they seem (solve).

7. "Are you going to the party?" — "No, I (not/invite)."

8. The car was three years old but (not/ use) very much.

9. The room (clean) at the moment.

10. The room (clean) when I arrived.

11. Many guests (be) invited to my birthday-party next Sunday.
12. These flowers (water) every day.
13. The children (take) to the milk bar tomorrow.
14. Many new restaurants (open) in Moscow every year.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 3.7.** Перепишите предложения в страдательном залоге, сделав выделенные слова подлежащими.

Образец: Somebody has cleaned the **room**. — The **room** has been cleaned.

1. They have postponed the **meeting**.
2. Somebody is using the **computer** at the moment.
3. I didn't realise that somebody was recording **our conversation**.
4. When we got to the stadium, we found that they had cancelled the **game**.
5. They are building a new ring **road** round the city.
6. They have built a new **hospital** near the airport.
7. Somebody gave the **information** to the police.
8. They offered me the **job**, but I refused it.
9. We knew **very little** about him.
10. They asked me some difficult **questions** at the interview.
11. Nobody told **me** about the meeting.
12. They didn't give me the **information** I needed.
13. Has anybody shown **you** what to do?

**ЗАДАНИЕ 3.8.** Закончите предложения. Вставьте **being** + глаголы (в нужной форме).

**give, invite, keep, knock down, stick, treat**

1. Steve hates \_\_\_\_ waiting.
2. We went to the party without \_\_\_\_.
3. I like giving presents and I also like \_\_\_\_ hem.

4. It's a busy road and I don't like crossing it. I'm afraid of \_\_\_\_\_.
5. I'm an adult. I don't like \_\_\_\_\_ like a child.
6. You can't do anything about \_\_\_\_\_ in a traffic jam.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 3.9.** Закончите предложения. Вставьте *get/got + глаголы* (в нужной форме).

**asky damage, hurt, pay, steal, sting, stopy, use**

1. There was a road accident, but nobody \_\_\_\_\_.
2. Alex \_\_\_\_\_ by a bee while he was sitting in the garden.
3. These tennis courts don't \_\_\_\_\_ very often. Not many people want to play.
4. I used to have a bicycle, but it \_\_\_\_\_ a few months ago.
5. Rachel works hard but doesn't \_\_\_\_\_ very much.
6. Last night I \_\_\_\_\_ by the police as I was driving home.
7. Please pack these things very carefully. I don't want them to \_\_\_\_\_.
8. People often want to know what my job is. I often \_\_\_\_\_ that question.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 3.10.** Переведите предложения на английский язык.

1. Эта книга была прочитана всеми.
2. Письмо будет отправлено завтра.
3. Ее часто спрашивают?
4. На ваш вопрос ответят завтра.
5. Текст переводился вчера с двух до трех.
6. Работа только что закончена нами.
7. Эти книги будут использоваться до конца года.
8. Телеграмма уже получена?
9. Мне предложили очень интересную работу.
10. В нашем городе сейчас строится много новых зданий.
11. Ключи были утеряны вчера.
12. Делегацию нужно встретить завтра в 9 часов утра в аэропорту.
13. Вам сказани об этом?
14. Сотни новых

домов будут построены к концу этого года. 15. Этот текст будет переведен к 10 часам завтра.

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| <p style="text-align: center;"><b>Рецептивные виды речевой деятельности</b><br/><b>Аудирование и чтение</b></p> |
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### THE WORLD OF DREAMS

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

painter Salvador Dali characterized his work as "dream photographs," and how legendary filmmakers Ingmar Bergman, Orson Welles, and Federico Fellini all drew on their dreams in making their films. Thus, Van de Castle concludes that "dreams have had a dramatic influence on almost every important aspect of our culture and history".

### **The Nature and Contents of Dreams**

What exactly is a dream? This question is more complex and controversial than you might guess. The conventional view is that dreams are mental experiences during REM sleep that have a storylike quality, include vivid visual imagery, are often bizarre, and are regarded as perceptually

real by the dreamer. However, theorists have begun to question virtually every aspect of this characterization. Decades of research on the contents of dreams have shown that dreams are not as bizarre as widely assumed. In recent years, there has been renewed interest in the fact that dreams are not the exclusive property of REM sleep. Moreover, studies that have focused on dream reports from non-REM stages of sleep have found that dreams appear to be less vivid and storylike than REM dreams. And work on reflective awareness in dreams suggests that dreamers realize they are dreaming more often than previously thought. Thus, the concept of dreaming is undergoing some revision in scientific circles.

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

Though dreams seem to belong in a world of their own, what people dream about is affected by what is going on in their lives. If you're struggling with financial problems, worried about an upcoming exam, or sexually attracted to a



classmate, these themes may very well show up in your dreams. Freud noticed long ago that the contents of waking life tend to spill into dreams. He labeled this spillover the day residue. The connection between a person's real world and his or her dream world probably explains why thematic continuity can be found among successive dreams occurring in different REM periods on a given night. On occasion, the contents of dreams can also be affected by external stimuli experienced while one is dreaming. For example, William Dement sprayed water on one hand of sleeping subjects while they were

in the REM stage. Subjects who weren't awakened by the water were awakened by the experimenter a short time later and asked what they had been dreaming about. Dement found that 42% of the subjects had incorporated the water into their dreams. They said that they had dreamt that they were in rainfalls, floods, baths, swimming pools, and the like. Some people report that they occasionally experience the same phenomenon at home when the sound of their alarm clock falls to awaken them. The alarm is incorporated into their dream as a loud engine or a siren, for instance.

### **Culture and Dreams**

Striking crosscultural variations occur in beliefs about the nature of dreams and the importance attributed to them. In modern Western society, we typically make a distinction between the "real" world we experience while awake and the "imaginary" world we experience while dreaming. Some people realize that events in the real world can affect their dreams, but few believe that events in their dreams hold any significance for their waking life. Although a small minority of indivii duals take their dreams seriously, in Western cultures dreams are largely written off as insignificant, meaningless meanderings of the unconscious. In many

nonnWestern cultures, however, dreams are viewed as important sources of information about oneself, about the future, or about the spiritual world. Although no culture confuses dreams with waking reality, many view events in dreams as another type of reality that may be just as important as, or perhaps even more important than, events experienced while awake. In some instances, people are even held responsible for their dream actions. Among the New Guinea Arapesh, for example, an erotic dream about someone may be viewed as the equivalent of an adulterous act. In many cultures, dreams are seen as a window into the spiritual world, permitting communication with ancestors or supernatural beings. People in some cultures believe that dreams provide information about the future — good or bad omens about upcoming battles, hunts, births, and so forth.

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

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

Many theories have been proposed to explain the purposes of dreaming. Sigmund Freud (1900), who analyzed clients' dreams in therapy, believed that the principle purpose of dreams is wish fulfillment. He thought that people fulfill ungratified needs from waking hours through wishful thinking in dreams. For example, someone who is sexually frustrated would tend to have highly erotic dreams, while an unsuccessful person would dream about great accomplishments. Other theorists, such as Rosalind Cartwright, have proposed that dreams provide an opportunity to work through everyday problems. According to her cognitive, problem-solving view, there is considerable continuity between waking and sleeping thought. Proponents of this view believe that dreams allow people to engage in creative thinking about problems because dreams are not restrained by logic or realism. J. Allan Hobson and Robert McCarley have argued that dreams are simply the byproduct of bursts of activity emanating from subcortical areas in the brain. Their activation-synthesis model proposes that dreams are side effects of the neural activation that produces "wide awake" brain waves during REM sleep. According to this model, neurons firing periodically in lower brain centers send random signals to the cortex. The cortex supposedly constructs a dream to make sense out of these signals. In contrast to the theories of Freud and Cartwright, this theory obviously downplays the role of emotional factors as determinants of dreams.

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

**Продуктивные виды речевой деятельности**  
**Говорение**

Монолог-описание «Расшифровка снов»

**Письмо**

Электронные письма личного характера «Переписка с другом по интернету о проблеме нехватке сна»

**Раздел 3. Основные познавательные процессы и мыслительные операции**  
*Unit 1. Познавательные психические процессы*

**Перевод**

**THREE KINDS OF MEMORY**

Norman, in his mid forties, is an impressive six feet one inch tall and weighs 240 pounds. Although you spent two hours visiting with him yesterday, Norman remembers neither your visit nor your name. If you ask him what he did yesterday, he will remember almost nothing. If you ask him about events before his accident, however, he can remember them quite well. Norman is very friendly and can carry on a simple conversation. But if he has to answer the phone in the middle of a conversation, when he returns he will not remember what you were talking about. He doesn't watch television too often because the commercial interruptions cause him to forget what the show is about. Although he has attended an outpatient treatment center for many years, he does not remember the names of the other patients. He can

only carry out those routines that he has learned through years of constant practice. For example, after four years of travelling the same route, Norman can drive to the hospital, although he doesn't remember the names of any of the streets. Norman lives with his mother, who notices that he is constantly misplacing things and losing money. Norman's mother does all the cooking because if Norman puts something on the stove to cook, he usually forgets about it. Norman's memory deficit has caused problems in almost every area of his life.

In 1960, at age 22, Norman had a one in a million accident. A fencing sword entered his nose, penetrated his brain, and destroyed an important area involved in memory. Since that day, Norman has lost much of his ability to store permanent memories — that is, to remember events from day to day. If you carried on a conversation with Norman, you might not notice his problem. He can register sensory information and remember immediate events well enough to do simple chores and talk with others. He can also remember events that happened over twenty years ago, before his accident. Why, then, will he not remember your conversation tomorrow? To answer this question, you must understand the difference between three kinds of memory: sensory memory, short-term memory, and long-term memory.

#### Sensory memory

To demonstrate sensory memory to yourself, have someone make a rapid circular motion with a lighted cigarette in a totally dark room. As the glowing tip moves, you will have the sensation of seeing a continuous circle of light. This sensation occurs because the image of the tip in each of its various positions is being held briefly in sensory memory, the momentary lingering of sensory information after a stimulus has been removed. In this case, new images

are being registered before the old ones fade, and so you see the outline of a circle.

Researchers have established the existence of sensory memory for vision and hearing, and they assume that it exists for the other senses as well. You have no voluntary control over the information that enters sensory memory, and its capacity seems unlimited. Any stimulation processed by your senses is held briefly in sensory memory. Why, then, aren't you overwhelmed by incoming data? The answer is that you do not attend to everything that enters sensory memory. If you fail to attend to the information, it simply fades away in a matter of a second or so.

Despite its very brief duration, sensory memory allows you to do several things. For example, sensory memory makes your visual world seem smooth and continuous despite frequent blinks of your eyes. Whenever you blink, your vision is momentarily interrupted. Sensory memory maintains the visual images so that you are not aware of these interruptions.

Sensory memory also gives you the moment or two that you need to determine if incoming data should be processed further. Have you ever been engrossed in reading a book or watching a movie when a friend suddenly asks you a question? Just as you are about to ask, "What did you say?" you realize that you did hear after all. In this case your friend's speech sounds were held in sensory memory long enough for you to shift your attention to them. In addition, by momentarily holding the string of speech sounds in sensory memory, you are able to group related ones together and recognize them as words. This is an example of how you use sensory memory to recognize complex patterns. Similarly, you can group facial features into the complex pattern of a face. Without sensory memory, the world would be a jumble of unrelated elements.

Returning to the case of Norman, you can clearly see that nothing is wrong with his sensory memory. Since he can recognize words, we know he is able to retain information in sensory memory and recognize patterns. In fact, Norman must be able to retain information for longer than just the fleeting duration of sensory memory, or he would not be able to carry on a conversation. When Norman attends to the words that are spoken during a conversation, he is processing them into what is called short-term memory.

#### Short-term memory

Norman lives in Southern California, an area inhabited by thousands of runners. It is not unusual for five or six runners to go by his home on any given day. What is unusual is for a naked runner to jog past Norman's house. But that is exactly what happened one warm summer night. As Norman looked out of his window he saw a runner approaching, and just for a moment the visual image was stored in his sensory memory. This brief sensory storage allowed Norman to notice something strange about the runner: the man was wearing nothing except his running shoes and socks. Ordinarily, Norman would not pay much attention to a jogger, and the image would fade quickly from his sensory memory. In this case, however, Norman paid attention, and the image was processed into short-term memory. Short-term memory refers to the process of attending to information in sensory memory or attending to your conscious thoughts and perceptions at any given moment. Like everyone else, Norman has some conscious control over what he holds in short-term memory: he can to some extent ignore the information, or he can selectively attend to it and think about it. In this case, Norman might have wondered about the runner's motivation.

#### Characteristics of Short-Term Memory

Researchers have found that short-term memory has two characteristics. First, information that enters it is available for only a very limited time unless it is actively processed. This processing can take the form of maintenance rehearsal, as when you repeat a telephone number over and over to yourself. It can also take the form, as in Norman's case, of manipulating information—of wondering about the subject and its implications. Without some kind of active mental effort, however, information that enters short-term memory will fade in about 20 to 30 seconds.

Short-term memory also has a limited capacity. Most people can hold only about seven bits in it at any one time. For instance, if you were given a string of random numbers to remember and you came to the seventh one, you would be approaching the limits of your short-term memory. Given a short-term memory this limited in size, you may well be asking how we manage to process as much information as we do. For example, how can you remember the phrase "Do not chew bubble gum during examinations," which contains thirty-six individual letters, far more separate items than working memory can possibly hold?

The answer is through a process called chunking. By chunking individual letters into seven meaningful words, you can easily keep this information active. In fact you may actually store the "idea" of this phrase as a single chunk, leaving room for still more information in short-term memory.

#### Forgetting from Short-Term Memory

Just before Norman saw the naked runner, he was searching for a pencil in a desk drawer. When the runner jogged past the window, his attention was diverted, and soon he had completely forgotten about the pencil. This experience of losing something from short-term memory because other information interferes is not unique to



Norman. You have the same experience when something distracts you before you can write down a phone number or before you learn the definition you just read. Some researchers believe that interference is the primary reason why information is forgotten from short-term memory.

Although we often forget things from short-term memory, we very seldom have the experience that Norman repeatedly has. He loses all trace of what just happened before a brief distraction occurred. For instance, you may forget a phone number if the doorbell suddenly diverts your attention, but you usually do not lose all recollection that you wanted to make a call. This, however, is what happens to Norman. After the naked runner passed and captured Norman's attention, the prior search for a pencil was entirely lost from his memory. Even if Norman later noticed that the desk drawer was open, he would not remember how it got that way. In fact, if tomorrow you reminded Norman of the naked runner, he would not know what you were talking about. This is because Norman is totally unable to transfer new information to what is called long-term memory.

#### Long-term memory

Norman's case demonstrates the existence of a long-term memory separate from short-term memory. In contrast to short-term memory, long-term memory stores information with relative permanence and has an almost unlimited capacity. Norman clearly has long-term memory stores, as evidenced by his recall of events from before his accident. He also has short-term memory, as shown by his ability to carry on simple conversations. What Norman lacks is the ability to enter new information into long-term storage.

Information is normally transferred into long-term memory through an attention-related process. One such process is rehearsal, which itself can take several forms. In maintenance rehearsal, you repeat information silently over

and over, without giving it any real thought. Maintenance rehearsal is usually not enough to transfer information into long-term storage. If you are planning to use a number only once, and so merely say it to yourself as you are reaching for the phone, the number probably will not be stored in your long-term memory. This mechanical sort of repetition will retain the number in short-term memory long enough for you to place the call, but very soon thereafter the number will be lost. Much more effective at getting information into long-term memory are attention-related processes that involve making associations between aspects of the new information and things you already know. For instance, if you can associate a phone number with someone's date of birth, or with a year in which some famous event happened, you are much more apt to enter the number into long-term storage. We will say more about this later.

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| <p style="text-align: center;"><b>Грамматика</b><br/><b>Теория и практика</b></p> |
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**МОДАЛЬНЫЕ ГЛАГОЛЫ И ИХ ЗАМЕНИТЕЛИ**

Модальные глаголы показывают отношение говорящего к действию, выраженному инфинитивом. Например, сравните:

*You can speak English.* Вы можете (умеете) говорить по-английски.

*You must speak English.* Вы должны говорить по-английски.

*You may speak English.* Вы можете говорить по-английски. (Вас поймут.)

Как видим, в одном и том же предложении изменение модального глагола меняет смысл всего предложения, т.е. меняется отношение к действию, выраженному инфинитивом.

Модальные глаголы не имеют форм во всех временах, для этого употребляются их эквиваленты (заменители).

Вопросительные и отрицательные предложения с модальными глаголами строятся без вспомогательных глаголов: *Can you help me? — Yes, I can. — No, I can't.* Вы можете помочь мне? — Да. — Нет.

К основным модальным глаголам относятся следующие.

### **Модальный глагол *can***

*can* — мочь, быть в состоянии, *could* — прошедшее время

Предполагает наличие физической, умственной и прочих возможностей, позволяющих сделать что-либо:

*/ can swim.* — Я могу (я умею) плавать.

*/ could translate this text.* (Я мог, был в состоянии) перевести этот текст.

Вежливую просьбу можно начинать с модального глагола *could*:

*Could you help me, please! He* могли бы вы помочь мне, пожалуйста!

В будущем времени у глагола *can* есть заменитель — конструкция *to be able to* (быть в состоянии что-либо сделать): *I shall be able to help you when I am free.* — Я смогу помочь тебе, когда освобожусь.

### **Модальный глагол *may***

*may* — иметь возможность, получить разрешение (делать что-либо),

*May I help you ?* Можно вам помочь? — *Yes, you may.* Да, можно.

Форма прошедшего времени *might* употребляется для выражения предположения:

*He might know about it.* — Он, вероятно, знал об этом.

В будущем времени у модального глагола *may* есть заменитель — конструкция *to be allowed to* (получить разрешение сделать что-либо).

*He will be allowed to take the book.* Ему разрешат взять книгу.

### **Модальный глагол *must***

Модальный глагол *must* означает «должен, обязан».

*You must write it down now.* Вы должны написать это сейчас.

Заменителями глагола *must* являются глаголы *to have to* и *to be to*, которые имеют некоторые дополнительные оттенки значения. Глагол *have to* означает долженствование, вызванное обстоятельствами, вынужденную необходимость, в то время как глагол *to be to* — долженствование, связанное с расписанием, планом или заранее сделанной договоренностью.

*She had to stay at home.* — Она вынуждена была (ей пришлось) остаться дома.

*The train was to arrive at 8 in the evening.* Поезд должен был прибыть в 8 вечера. (По расписанию).

После модальных глаголов и некоторых их эквивалентов инфинитив употребляется без частицы *to*.

Заменителями модального глагола *must* являются также модальные глаголы *ought to*, *should* (в значении совета, рекомендации, упрека).

*Children ought to obey their parents.* Дети должны слушать своих родителей.

*You should consult the doctor.* Вам следует посоветоваться с врачом.

В сочетании с перфектным инфинитивом глагол *should*<sup>^</sup> выражает сожаление о невыполненном действии и переводится

«следовало бы». *You should have helped them.* Вам следовало бы помочь им. (Но вы не сделали этого).

### Модальный глагол *should*

Модальный глагол ***should*** в сочетании с перфектным инфинитивом ***should have done*** выражает действия, которые должны были произойти в прошлом, но по каким-то причинам не произошли, переводится на русский язык «следовало», «нужно было».

*You should have helped them.* Вам следовало помочь им.

*You should have done this.* Вам следовало это сделать (упрек).

*This work should have been done yesterday.* Эту работу нужно было сделать вчера.

### Модальный глагол *would*

**Модальный глагол *would* может иметь следующие значения:**

1. Вежливая просьба. *Would you help me?* Не можете ли вы мне?

2. Повторяемость действия в прошлом. *He would often help me.* Он, бывало, часто помогал мне.

3. Стойкое нежелание совершать какие-либо действия. *He wouldn't listen to me.* Он никак не хотел слушать меня.

### Модальный глагол *need*

Модальный глагол *need* - «нужно, надо» употребляется, в основном, в отрицательных предложениях. *You needn't do it now.* Вам не нужно делать это сейчас.

### Модальный глагол *shall*

Модальный глагол *shall* употребляется в тех случаях, когда испрашивается разрешение на совершение какого-либо действия, и иногда является заменителем модального глагола *must*.

*Shall I help you ?* Вам помочь?

*Shall I bring you the dessert? Мне, принести вам десерт?*

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.1.** *Вставьте подходящие модальные глаголы.*

1. Who \_\_\_ answer my question?
2. Nobody \_\_\_ translate this text.
3. He \_\_\_ this task at once.
4. \_\_\_ I attend this meeting? - No, you needn't.
5. You \_\_\_ have shown your notes to the teacher.
6. I asked him, but he \_\_\_ listen to me.
7. They \_\_\_ have visited her, she was in the hospital.
8. Last summer we \_\_\_ often go to the country.
9. Your son could do this work himself.
10. \_\_\_ you tell me the way to the station?
11. Your friend \_\_\_ have informed us.
12. \_\_\_ I leave for a while? — Yes, you \_\_\_.
13. She \_\_\_ be more attentive to her parents.
14. You \_\_\_ come so early.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.2.** *Завершите диалоги. Дайте утвердительный или отрицательный ответ.*

Образец: — *Can you help me?* — *Yes, I can. / No, I can't.*

1. May I take that chair? - ...
2. Can I have a dinner here? — ...
3. Can you bring me a drink? — ...
4. May I have the menu card? — ...
5. Shall I bring you the dessert right now? — ...
6. May I have my bill? — ...

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.3.** *Переведите предложения. Заполните пропуски подходящими по смыслу модальными*

глаголами *must, should, would, ought to, needn't, can, could, may*.

1. \_\_\_ you tell me your name?
2. They \_\_\_ not do this work themselves. They needed help.
3. \_\_\_ I go with you? No, you \_\_\_.
4. Payment \_\_\_ be made by check.
5. This work \_\_\_ be done today.
6. \_\_\_ I have the menu card?
7. He \_\_\_ to help them. They need his help.
8. You don't look well, you \_\_\_ consult the doctor.
9. Why \_\_\_ I give you my money?
10. You \_\_\_ work hard at your English.
11. She \_\_\_ get up early tomorrow. She doesn't work on Sundays.
12. She \_\_\_ not speak any foreign language. She speaks Russian only.
13. We \_\_\_ go to the theatre so early because the performance begins at seven o'clock.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.4.** *Замените модальные глаголы соответствующими эквивалентами.*

1. We *must* meet at 7 o'clock as we planned before.
2. That waiter *cannot* speak English.
3. Mary *can* cook well.
4. You *must* come in time.
5. We *must* receive and serve our guests very well.
6. You *must not* smoke here.
7. *Must* they come early every day?
8. *Must* I serve the dinner for you now?
9. He *couldn't* explain anything.
10. Сол you swim?

11. You *may* take these books.
12. The train *must* arrive at 10 according to the timetable.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.5.** *Переведите предложения на английский язык, используя модальные глаголы или их заменители.*

1. Вчера мне пришлось работать до позднего вечера.
2. Можно мне курить здесь? — Нет, нельзя.
3. Вам следует помочь вашему другу. Он не может делать работу сам.
4. Вам пришлось остаться дома, потому что была плохая погода?
5. Вам следовало бы заказать билеты заранее.
6. Я рад, что мне не пришлось заканчивать эту работу вчера.
7. Я не люблю рано вставать, но иногда мне приходится.
8. Ты должен перевести этот текст на английский язык.
9. Вам не нужно идти в библиотеку. У меня есть книги, которые вам нужны.
10. Я не мог пойти домой, я должен был закончить работу.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.6.** *Вставьте **can** или (**be**) **able to**.*

1. Gary has travelled a lot. He \_\_\_ speak five languages.
2. I haven't \_\_\_ sleep very well recently.
3. Nicole \_\_\_ drive, but she hasn't got a car.
4. I used to \_\_\_ stand on my head, but I can't do it now.
5. I can't understand Martin. I've never \_\_\_ understand him.
6. I can't see you on Friday, but I \_\_\_ meet you on Saturday



morning.

7. Ask Catherine about your problem. She might \_\_\_ help you.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 1.7.** *Прочитайте. Вставьте can, can't, could, couldn't + слова come, eat, hear, run, sleep, wait.*

1. I'm afraid I \_\_\_ to your party next week.
2. When Tim was 16, he \_\_\_ 100 metres in 11 seconds.
3. "Are you in a hurry?" - "No, I've got plenty of time. I \_\_\_".
4. I was feeling sick yesterday. I \_\_\_ anything.
5. Can you speak a little louder? I \_\_\_ you very well.
6. "You look tired." - "Yes, I \_\_\_ last night."

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| <p style="text-align: center;"><b>Рецептивные виды речевой деятельности</b><br/><b>Аудирование и чтение</b></p> |
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### **You Are the Thief of Memory**

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

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

likely to remember what the person who immediately preceded them said because that was when they were most self-absorbed.

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| <b>Продуктивные виды речевой деятельности</b><br><b>Говорение</b> |
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Монолог-сообщение «Свойства памяти»

|               |
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| <b>Письмо</b> |
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Написание краткого эссе: «Нарушение памяти» (80-100 слов)

## *Unit 2. Мышление.*

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| <b>Перевод</b> |
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### **WHAT IS THINKING?**

Thinking about actions, beliefs, and personal goals can all be described in terms of a common framework, which asserts that thinking consists of search and inference. We search for certain objects and then we make inferences from and about them.

Let us take a simple example of a decision. Suppose you are a college student trying to decide which courses you will take next term. Most of the courses you have scheduled are required for your major, but you have room for one elective. The question that starts your thinking is simply this: Which course should I take?

You begin by saying to a friend, "I have a free course. Any ideas?" She says that she enjoyed Professor Smith's course in Soviet-American relations. You think that the subject sounds interesting, and you want to know more

about modern history. You ask her about the work, and she says that there is a lot of reading and a twenty-page paper. You think about all the computer-science assignments you are going to have this term, and, realizing that you were hoping for an easy course, you resolve to look for something else. After thinking about it yourself, you recall hearing about a course in American history since World War II. That has the same advantages as the first course — it sounds interesting and it is about modern history — but you think the work might not be so hard. You try to find someone who has taken the course.

Clearly, we could go on with this imaginary example, but it already shows that main characteristics of thinking. It begins with doubt. It involves a search directed at removing the doubt. Thinking is, in a way, like exploration. In the course of the search, you have discovered two possible courses, some good features of both courses, some bad feature of one course, and some goals you are trying to achieve. You have also made an inference: You rejected the first course because the work was too hard.

We search for three kinds of objects: possibilities, evidence, and goals.

Possibilities are possible answers to the original question, possible resolutions of the original doubt. (In the example just given, they are two possible courses.) Notice that possibilities can come from inside yourself or from outside. (This is also true of evidence and goals.) The first possibility in this example came from outside: It was suggested by someone else. The second came from inside: It came from your memory.

Goals are the criteria by which you evaluate the possibilities. Three goals have been mentioned in our example: your desire for an interesting course; your feeling

that you ought to know something about recent history; and your desire to keep your work load manageable. Some goals are usually present at the time when thinking begins. In this case, only the goal of finding a course is present, and it is an insufficient goal, because it does not help you to distinguish among the possibilities, the various courses you could take. Additional goals must be sought. I use the term “goal” throughout this book, but it is not entirely satisfactory. It evokes images of games like soccer and basketball, in which each team tries to get the ball into the “goal.” Such goals are all or none. You either get one or you don’t. Some of the goals I discuss here are of that type, but others are more like the rating scales used for scoring divers or gymnasts. This is, in a way, closer to the fundamental meaning, which is that the goals are criteria or standards of evaluation. Other words for the same idea are criteria, objectives, and values (in the sense of evaluation, not the more limited sense referring to morality). Because all these terms are misleading in different ways, I will stick with goals. At least this term conveys the sense that, for most of us, goals have motivational force. We try to achieve them.

Evidence consists of any belief or potential belief that helps you determine the extent to which a possibility achieves some goal. In this case, the evidence consists of your friend’s report that the course was interesting and her report that the work load was heavy. The example ended with your resolution to search for more evidence about the work load of the second possibility, the American history course. Such a search for evidence might initiate a whole other episode of thinking, the goal of which would be to determine where that evidence can be found.

In addition to these search processes, there is a process of inference, or use of evidence, in which each possibility is

strengthened or weakened as a choice on the basis of the evidence, in the light of the goals. Goals determine the way in which evidence is used. For example, the evidence about work load would be irrelevant if having a manageable work load were not a goal. The importance of that goal, which seems to be high, affects the importance of that evidence, which seems to be great. The objects of thinking are represented in our minds. We are conscious of them. If they are not in our intermediate consciousness, we can recall them when they are relevant, even after an episode of thinking resumes following an interruption. The process of thinking — the search for possibilities, evidence, and goals and the use of the evidence to evaluate possibilities — do not occur in any fixed order.

They overlap. The thinker alternates from one to another. Why just these phases: the search for possibilities, evidence, and goals, and the use of evidence? Thinking is, in its most general sense, a method of finding and choosing among the potential possibilities, that is, possible actions, beliefs, or personal goals. For any choice, there must be purposes or goals, and goals can be added to or removed from the list. I can search for (or be open to) new goals; therefore, search for goals is always possible. There must also be objects that can be brought to bear on the choice among possibilities. Hence, there must be evidence, and it can always be sought. Finally, the evidence must be used, or it might as well not have been gathered. These phases are “necessary” in this case.

The term judgment will be important in this book. By judgment, I mean the evaluation of one or more possibilities with respect to a specific set of evidence and goals. In decision making, we can judge whether to take an option or not, or we can judge its desirability relative to other options. In belief formation, we can judge whether to accept the

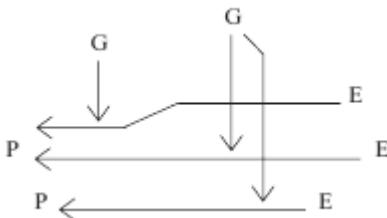
belief as a basis for action, or we can judge the probability that the belief is true. In thinking about personal goals, we can judge whether or not to adopt a goal, or we can judge how strong it should be relative to other goals. The term “judgment”, therefore, refers to the process of inference.

Let us review the main elements of thinking, using another example of decision making, the practical matter of looking for an apartment. “Possibilities” are possible answers to the question that inspired the thinking: Here, they are possible apartments. Possibilities (like goals and evidence) can be in mind before thinking begins. You may already have seen one apartment you like before you even think about moving. Or possibilities can be added, as a result of active search (through the newspaper) or suggestions from outside (tips from friends).

Goals are criteria for evaluating possibilities. In the apartment hunting example, goals include factors such as rent, distance from work or school, safety, and design quality. The goals determine what evidence is sought and how it is used. It is not until you think that safety might be relevant that you begin to inquire about building security or the safety of the neighborhood. When we search for goals, we ask, “What should I be trying to do?” or “What is my purpose in doing this?” Can you think of other criteria for apartments aside from those listed? In doing so, you are searching for goals. We often have a subgoal, a goal whose achievement will help us achieve some other goal. In this example, “good locks” would be a subgoal for “safety.” Each possibility has what I shall call its strength, which represents the extent to which it is judged by the thinker to satisfy the goals. In decision making, the strength of a possibility corresponds to its overall desirability as an act, taking into account all the goals that the decision maker has in mind.

Evidence is sought — or makes itself available. Evidence can consist of simple propositions such as “The rent is \$300 a month,” or it can consist of arguments, imagined scenarios, or examples. One possibility can serve as evidence against another, as when we challenge a scientific hypothesis by giving an alternative and incompatible explanation of the data. Briggs and Krantz found that subjects can judge the weight of each piece of evidence independently of other pieces. Each piece of evidence has what I call a weight with respect to a given possibility and set of goals. The weight of a given piece of evidence determines how much it should strengthen or weaken the possibility as a means of achieving the goals. The weight of the evidence by it self does not determine how much the strength of a possibility is revised as the possibility is evaluated; the thinker controls this revision. Therefore a thinker can err by revising the strength of a possibility too much or too little. The use of the evidence to revise (or not revise) strengths of possibilities is the end result of all of these search processes. This phase is also called inference. It is apparent that inference is not all of thinking, although it is a crucial part.

The relationship among the elements of thinking is illustrated in the following diagram



The evidence (E) affects the strengths of the possibilities (P), but the weight of the evidence is affected by the goals (G). Different goals can even reverse the weight of a piece

of evidence. For example, if I want to buy a car and am trying to decide between two different ones (possibilities), and one of the cars is big and heavy (evidence), my concern with safety (a goal) might make the size a virtue (positive weight), but my concern with mileage (another goal) might make the size a detriment (negative weight).

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| <p style="text-align: center;"><b>Грамматика</b><br/><b>Теория и практика</b></p> |
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**СОГЛАСОВАНИЕ ВРЕМЕН В ГЛАВНОМ И ПРИДАТОЧНОМ  
ПРЕДЛОЖЕНИЯХ**

В английском сложноподчиненном предложении с придаточным дополнительным (вопрос «что?», «кто?», «чего?» и т.д.) соблюдаются **правила согласования времен** в главном и придаточном предложениях. Эти правила сводятся к следующему:

1. Если глагол-сказуемое главного предложения стоит в **настоящем** или **будущем** времени, то глагол-сказуемое придаточного дополнительного предложения может стоять в **любой** временной форме, требуемой смыслом, например:

*He says you are right.* Он говорит, что ты прав. *He will tell why he was not at school yesterday.* Он скажет, почему он не был в школе вчера.

2. Если глагол-сказуемое главного предложения стоит в **прошедшем** времени (обычно — в **Past Indefinite**), то и глагол дополнительного придаточного предложения должен стоять в одном из прошедших времен, в том числе — в будущем с точки зрения прошедшего (**Future-in-the Past**).

*He said he would not go to school tomorrow.* Он сказал, что не пойдет в школу завтра. При этом для обозначения действия, **одновременного с действием, выраженным сказуемым главного предложения,**



употребляется *Past Continuous* (в русском языке — настоящее время) или *Past Indefinite*.

*He told me he was preparing for his exam.* Он сказал мне, что готовится к экзамену.

Для обозначения действия, *предшествующего* действию, выраженному сказуемым главного предложения, обычно употребляется *Past Perfect*. На русский язык глагол-сказуемое придаточного в данном случае переводится глаголом в прошедшем времени:

*I didn't know he had left for Moscow.* Я не знал, что он уехал в Москву.

При указании определенного времени (in 1980, yesterday) предшествующее время выражается при помощи **Past Indefinite**. Например: *I thought you were born in 1980.*

Для выражения будущего времени с точки зрения прошедшего времени употребляется форма **Future-in-the Past**, где вспомогательный глагол *will* меняется на *would*, который на русский язык переводится будущим временем:

*He told me that he would meet me at the Institute.* Он сказал мне, что встретит меня в институте.

**Согласование времен при переводе прямой речи в косвенную**

**Повелительное наклонение в косвенной речи**

tell + to + infinitive

При переводе прямой речи в косвенную необходимо знать следующие правила:

1. После глаголов **ask**, **request** и некоторых других глаголов, обозначающих просьбу, перед придаточным предложением ставятся союзы **whether** или **if** (в значении «ли»):

*He asked if everyone was ready.* Он спросил, все ли готовы.

2. Глагол **tell (told)** употребляется вместо глагола **say (said)**: *He told me that...*, но: *He said that...*

Глаголы **talk, speak** в косвенной речи в значении «Он сказал, что...» не употребляются.

3. Если прямая речь содержит приказание или просьбу, то значение «велел, приказал» передается сочетанием глаголов **tell, order, ask, demand** с инфинитивом, причем отрицательная форма инфинитива употребляется в последовательности: ... **told ... not to do smth.:**

При переводе предложений в повелительном наклонении (команд, просьб или приказаний) в косвенную речь изменяются лицо, время глагола и слова и выражения, обозначающие время

*Father: "Do your homework. "Father **told** me to do my homework.*

*Teacher: "Don't talk to your neighbour. " The teacher **told** me **not to talk** to my neighbour.*

Если предложение начинается с глагола в настоящем времени, то время не изменяется. Например:

*Susan: "**I work** in an office. "Susan **tells** me that she **works** in an office.*

Если предложение начинается с глагола в прошедшем времени, то вступает в действие правило согласования времен и время меняется на одно из прошедших. Например:

*Susan: "**I work** in an office." Susan **told** me that she **worked** in an office.*

**Как изменяются времена при переводе прямой речи в косвенную?**

**Simple Present** меняется на **Simple Past** **Simple Past** меняется на **Past Perfect Present Perfect** меняется на **Past Perfect**

Происходит замена вспомогательных глаголов:

**am/are/is** меняется на **was/were**

**was/were** меняется на **had been**

**has been** меняется на **had been**

**will** в будущем времени меняется на **would**

При переводе прямой речи в косвенную происходят и другие замены: вместо местоимений **I**, **we** употребляются **he**, **she**, **they**; вместо указательного местоимения **this (these)** употребляется **that (those)**:

*Yeter: "I work in the garden." Peter said that he worked in the*

*garden. Peter: "I worked in the garden. "*

14. We thought that she not (be able) to make his work in time and therefore (offer) to help her.

15. When I came they (tell) me that he (leave) half an hour before.

16. It was soon clear to the teacher that the control work (be) a difficult one.

17. I decided that next year I (go) to see my old friend again. I not (o see) him since he (go) to Moscow.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 2.1.** *Переведите предложения в косвенную речь.*

**Образец:** *Jack: "I don't like ice cream. "- Jack said (that) he didn't like ice cream."*

1. Father: "Don't forget to write a letter."

2. Nick: "You may ride my bike."

3. Mary: "The weather is beautiful today."

4. Mr Ford: "You will have much work tomorrow."

5. Jane: "I lost my keys and I don't know what to do."

6. Mrs Hillary: "I'd like to tell you one interesting thing."
7. Postman: "There are no letters for you today."
8. Teacher: "Who is on duty today?"
9. Salesgirl: "I would recommend you these fresh cakes."
10. Taxi driver: "Your hotel is not far from here."
11. Teacher: "Stop talking."
12. Policeman: "Don't move."
13. Friend: "Help me, please."
14. Ann: "Don't go there!"

**ЗАДАНИЕ 2.2.** *Переведите из прямой речи в косвенную.*

**Образец:** *He asked David, "Are you interested in business?"— He asked David if he was interested in business.*

1. Mary said, "I like apples better than oranges."
2. They said, "We will live here."
3. Ann said, "I don't like modern music."
4. He asked, "Is it still raining?"
5. He ordered, "Don't be late"
6. He promised, "Everything will have been done by Monday."
7. I informed, "The concert will be on Sunday."
8. Director told his secretary, "Get the documents ready for the conference".
9. "I ask you to come to my office tomorrow", he added.
10. "Do you know English well?" he asked me.
11. "I am not sure I know him well", the boy replied.
12. "I am not well", he says every time before the examination.

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| <b>Рецептивные виды речевой деятельности</b> |
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### **Convergent and Divergent Thinking**

How many unusual uses can you think of for a brick? It's easy to think of a few good uses but quite another task to come up with 50 or 60 distinct ones. Psychologists sometimes refer to this type of thinking as divergent thinking, in contrast to convergent thinking. A problem requiring convergent thinking has only one solution or a very few — for a example, a math problem. In such a case, the best approach is to examine the available facts, decide which are relevant, and look for a single, logical solution. By contrast, problems that have no single correct solution and that require a flexible, inventive approach call for divergent thinking — looking at the facts and expanding on them, imaging where different pieces of information might lead, and producing a number of possible solutions. Imagine, for example, that three hikers are lost in the woods. One argues that the only solution is to find their way back to the trail and uses a stick to begin sketching a rough map in the dirt. The second argues that the only solution is to find their way to the lake, which lies to the west, and begins fiddling with his compass. The third hiker — a divergent thinker — quietly gazes around, “letting his mind go.” Looking at the position of the sun, he decides they would not be able to make it to the lake before nightfall. He considers camping by the nearest stream, wonders if rangers conduct patrols, thinks about how they might send up a signal, and then finds himself staring at a tree. Suddenly he realizes that if he climbs the tree, he might find out where they are.

### **Продуктивные виды речевой деятельности**

#### **Говорение**

1. Использование методик для работы с группой.
2. Изучение уровня логического мышления с помощью «теста Липпмана»
3. Изучение индивидуальных особенностей мышления с помощью методики «Кораблекрушение»
4. Определение особенностей понятийного мышления, с помощью методики «Исключение лишнего»

### Письмо

Написание эссе «Мыслительная операция» (80-100 слов)

## *Unit 3. Агрессия*

### Перевод

#### **Aggression**

We live in a culture that has come to accept that aggression and violence can occur in almost all aspects of life. Therefore? The study of aggression in one of the concerns for modern psychology.

Aggression remains one of the most challenging areas of study because of the elusiveness of an adequate definition of the term. Some researchers have applied it to any act that inflicts pain or suffering on another individual; others feel that a proper definition must include some notion of intent to do harm. Still others use a situational definition, so that what might be described as aggression in one context might not be considered such in others. There is also controversy over whether aggression should be regarded as an interspecies behavior or whether it includes interspecies

behavior. This conflict over how aggression should be conceptualized has been partly responsible for the development of a number of competing notions of its origins and nature.

**Animal Aggression.** One of the most important **contributions** to the study of aggression has been made by the ethologists. The subject has been of particular interest to them because aggression occurs frequently in natural settings and **seems to appear** in almost all species, from insects to primates.

Konrad Lorenz, perhaps the best-known of the ecologists concerned with aggression, particularly within species, has proposed that aggressive behavior is largely instinctual in all social species, including man. His view is **put forth** in his **controversial** book *On Aggression*, 1966. One of the most interesting aspects of Lorenz's position is the suggestion that **as a way of coping with** powerful aggressive instincts, most species have developed highly symbolic or **ritualized behaviors to avoid or terminate aggression**. Most animals can **evade** attack **or** stop a battle before any serious harm is done **by signaling submission**. Lorenz has suggested that man may be unique in the **ferociousness** of his aggressive behavior because he alone among all of the aggressive species does not have **any built-in signals for limiting or preventing aggression**. Although the smile may have developed for this purpose originally, **it has apparently lost much of its symbolic meaning**.

Another ecologist, Robert Ardrey, has contributed a second instinctual view of aggression in man and other animals. His book *The Territorial Imperative*, 1966, argued that aggression is the natural result of **territorial invasion**. Ardrey noted that most wars are fought **over** territorial rights and that the defender of a territory is usually more

successful than the invader, **regardless** of the size and experience of the combatants.

**Psychoanalytic Theory.** The psychoanalytic movement has also largely accepted the **view** that aggression is instinctual. Freud postulated that there are two instincts: eros, the life instinct, the atos, **the** death instinct. The atos represents the **universal drive** to return to the earth; suicide is the ultimate expression of the atos, but its usual expression is only indirect.

When the **death wish** is directed toward other individuals, it is called displacement. This concept is often used to explain various social phenomena, such as scapegoating and the behavior of the Nazis before and during World War II. Displacement refers to the direct channeling of aggressive energies toward a specific group of persons or objects.

When aggressive impulses are not directly channeled, the result is described as **catharsis**. This indirect expression of the aggressive instinct is said to explain why people engage in athletics, watch aggressive movies and television, and kick doors and car tires rather than other people or themselves. Catharsis provides a safe, **socially acceptable**, and *tension-reducing* means of dealing with the atos.

**Frustration-Aggression Theory.** Closely allied with the psychoanalytic concept of aggression is the hypothesis proposed by John Dollard, Neal Miller, and their colleagues in the late 1930s. This view suggests that aggression is more than mere instinct; it is the instinctual response to frustration, and **the presence of aggression inevitably indicates the presence of frustration somewhere in the individual's environment**. Dollard and Miller conducted a number of experiments demonstrating aggression as an unlearned response to a wide variety of frustrating situations.



The frustration-aggression hypothesis was modified in the 1960s by Leonard Berkowitz, who found that aggression occurs even in the absence of observable frustration and that the form it takes depends upon

previous experience. While this hypothesis still states that frustration is a primary determinant of aggression, frustration is no longer considered a necessary or sufficient precursor for aggression.

The data generated from the research on the frustration-aggression hypothesis eventually led to the view that aggression need not be regarded as entirely instinctual. Because some cultures have succeeded in remaining virtually free from violence, and because some individuals seem to be able to lead relatively nonaggressive lives, it would appear that if aggression is instinctual, man is capable of keeping that instinct under relatively tight control.

Social Learning Theory. In response to these challenges to the instinctual view, social learning theory, particularly as propounded by Richard Walters and Albert Bandura, has concentrated on how aggressive behaviors are learned and under what conditions aggression is exhibited and inhibited. The main point here is that no single set of variables, such as territoriality, thymatos, or frustration, can adequately explain all aggressive behavior. Bandura and Walters have maintained that it is more instructive to study an individual's learning history than it is to speculate on the nature of instinctive drives. They pose such questions as: Has the individual been rewarded for aggressive behavior in the past? Has a parent used primarily physically aggressive punishments in training a child? Does aggression attract attention from a child's parents or teachers?

The basic contribution of social learning theory to the study of aggression has been its focus on noninstinctual environmental factors. By concentrating

on the differences between the learning and the performance of aggressive acts, experiments found that while performance usually occurs in the presence of frustration, learning of aggressive behavior usually does not involve any frustration. Perhaps more importantly, however, the social

learning theorists have shown how important is to both the acquisition and the performance of aggressive behaviour.

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| <b>Грамматика</b><br><b>Теория и практика</b> |
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### **УСЛОВНЫЕ ПРЕДЛОЖЕНИЯ**

Условные предложения могут быть следующими:

- 1) предложения реального условия;
- 2) предложения нереального условия.

Употребление глагольных форм в этих предложениях зависит от степени реальности и времени действия, выраженного глаголом.

#### **1. Придаточные предложения реального условия и времени, действие которых отнесено к будущему.**

В придаточных предложениях условия и времени с союзами

- if** (если),
- when** (когда),
- after** (после),
- before** (перед тем, как),
- as soon as** (как только),
- unless** (если не),

**until** (до тех пор, пока не)

будущее время заменяется формой настоящего времени, но на русский язык переводится будущим. Например:

*If you **help** me* (придаточное предложение условия), *I shall do this work on time* (главное предложение). — Если ты поможешь мне, я сделаю эту работу вовремя.

*As soon as I am free, I'll come to you.* — Как только я освобожусь, я приду к тебе.

*We shall not begin until you come.* — Мы не начнем, пока ты не придешь.

## **2. Придаточные предложения нереального условия: (Сослагательное наклонение)**

Сослагательное наклонение выражает возможность, нереальность, предположительность действия:

а) действие относится к настоящему или будущему:

*If I knew his address I would write to him.* — Если бы я знал его адрес (сейчас), я написал бы ему (сейчас или в ближайшем будущем). *If the weather were fine he would go to the country.* — Если бы погода (сейчас) была хорошей, он бы поехал за город.

Глагол в придаточном предложении — в форме **Past Indefinite**, в главном — в форме **Future in the Past**;

б) действие относится к прошлому:

*If the weather had been fine yesterday he would have gone to the country.* — Если бы погода была вчера хорошей, он бы поехал за город.

В случае, если действие, описываемое сослагательным наклонением, относится к прошедшему времени, в главном предложении используется форма будущего совершенного с точки зрения прошедшего **Future Perfect in the Past**, а в придаточном — прошедшее совершенное **Past Perfect**.

*If I had known his address I would have written to him.*  
— Если бы я знал его адрес (в прошлом), я написал бы ему (в прошлом же).

*I wish I lived not far from here,* (настоящее время) —  
Жаль, что я не живу поблизости.

*I wish I had lived not far from here,* (прошедшее время) —  
Жаль, что я не жил поблизости.

## **Рецептивные виды речевой деятельности**

### **Аудирование и чтение**

#### ***Why do you easily remember terrifying events?***

The motorcycle driver who walked away with minor cuts and bruises from the spectacular accident will probably remember every detail. He will be able to recall the sensation as he started to lose control and the feeling of flying through the air and hitting the dirt.

The very vivid recollections we sometimes form of dramatic incidents are often called *flashbulb memories*. Flashbulb memories usually deal with events that are extremely surprising, emotionally arousing, or very important in their consequences. You may have experienced something similar to a flashbulb memory yourself. For example, when people were questioned about what they were doing when they heard President Reagan had been shot, 94 percent could recall the exact details even seven months later. Events involving deaths, accidents, sports, and sex are among those people say they remember most vividly. These are all very emotional experiences that people are apt to dwell on long after the actual occurrence.

What happens in your body when a flashbulb memory is formed? The answer comes partly from research on animals. When rats are placed on elevated, well-lighted platform, their natural response is to step down and go to a dark

corner. However, if the rats receive a shock to their feet whenever they step down, they learn within one or two trials to remain on the platform. Since this experience involves being shocked, it produces physiological arousal, which in turn triggers the release of several hormones (epinephrine, ACTH, and vasopressin). Apparently, these hormones are important for rapid learning. When the hormones are eliminated by removal of the glands that produce them, the rats require significantly more trials to learn to remain on the platform. This finding suggests that secretion of the hormones somehow facilitates memory formation. Like rats, humans also secrete hormones when physiological arousal occurs, and these hormones may contribute to the formation of flashback memories.

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| <p style="text-align: center;"><b>Продуктивные виды речевой деятельности</b><br/><b>Говорение</b></p> |
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Кейс-стади «Случай агрессивного поведения»

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| <p style="text-align: center;"><b>Письмо</b></p> |
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Электронные письма личного характера «Переписка с другом по Интернету о проблеме одиночества»

## *Unit 4. Стресс*

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| <p style="text-align: center;"><b>Перевод</b></p> |
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### THE NATURE OF STRESS

The term stress has been used in different ways by different theorists. We'll define stress as any circumstances that threaten or are perceived to threaten one's well-being and that thereby tax one's coping abilities. The threat may be to immediate physical safety, long-range security,

self-esteem, peace of mind, or many other things that one values. This is a complex concept.

### **Stress as an Everyday Event**

The word stress tends to spark images of overwhelming, traumatic crises. People may think of hijackings, hurricanes, military combat, and nuclear accidents. Undeniably, major disasters of this sort are extremely stressful events. However, these unusual events are only a small part of what stress is. Many everyday events such as waiting in line, having car trouble, shopping for Christmas presents, misplacing your checkbook, and staring at bills you can't pay are also stressful. Of course, major and minor stressors are not entirely independent. A major stressful event, such as going through a divorce, can trigger a cascade of minor stressors, such as looking for an attorney, moving, taking on new household responsibilities and so forth. You might guess that minor stresses would produce minor effects, but that isn't necessarily true. Research indicates that routine hassles may have significant harmful effects on mental and physical health. **Appraisal: Stress Lies in the Eye of the Beholder** The experience of feeling stressed depends on what events one notices and how one appraises them. Events that are stressful for one person may be routine for another. For example, many people find flying in an airplane somewhat stressful, but frequent fliers may not be bothered at all. Some people enjoy the excitement of going out on a date with someone new; others find the uncertainty terrifying.

Often, people aren't very objective in their appraisals of potentially stressful events. A study of hospitalized patients awaiting surgery showed only a slight correlation between the objective seriousness of a person's upcoming surgery and the amount of fear experienced by the patient. Clearly,

some people are more prone than others to feel threatened by life's difficulties. A number of studies have shown that anxious, neurotic people report more stress than others, as do people who are relatively unhappy. Thus, stress lies in the eye (actually in the mind) of the bee holder. People's appraisals of stressful events are highly subjective.

### **Frustration**

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

### **Conflict**

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

internal conflict experienced by subjects. They found that higher levels of conflict were associated with higher levels of anxiety, depression, and physical symptoms.

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

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

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

avoidance/avoidance conflicts are most unpleasant and lightly stressful. In an approach/avoidance conflict a choice must be made about whether to pursue a single goal that has both attractive and unattractive aspects. For instance, imagine that you are offered a promotion that will mean a



large increase in pay, but you'll have to move to a city that you hate. Approachh avoidance conflicts are common and can be quite stressful. Any time you have to take a risk to pursue some desirable outcome, you're likely to find yourself in an approachhavoidance conflict. Should you risk rejection by approaching that attractive person in class? Should you risk your savings by investing in a new business that could fail? Approachh avoidance conflicts often produce vacillation. That is, you go back and forth, beset by indecision. You decide to go ahead, then you decide not to, and then you decide to go ahead again.

### **Change**

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

be more vulnerable to many kinds of physical illness and to many types of psychological problems as well. These results have attracted a great deal of attention, and the SRRS has been reprinted in many popular newspapers and magazines. The attendant publicity has led to the widespread conclusion that life change is inherently stressful. However, experts have criticized this research, citing problems with the methods used and problems in interpreting the findings. At this point, it's a key interpretive issue that concerns us. A variety of critics have collected evidence showing that the SRRS does not measure change exclusively. In reality, it assesses a wide range of different kinds of stressful experiences. Thus, we have little reason to believe that change is inherently or inevitably stressful. Undoubtedly, some life changes may be quite challenging, but others may be quite benign. Table. Social Readjustment Rating Scale

### **Life event Mean value**

At one time or another, most people have remarked that they're "under pressure." What does this mean? Pressure involves expectations or demands that one behave in a certain way. You are under pressure to perform when you are expected to execute tasks and responsibilities quickly, efficiently, and successfully. For example, sales people are usually under pressure to move merchandise. Professors at research institutions are often under pressure to publish in prestigious journals. Stand-up comedians are under intense pressure to make people laugh. Pressures to conform to others' expectations are also common in our lives. Businessmen are expected to wear suits and ties. Suburban homeowners are expected to keep their lawns well manicured. Teenagers are expected to adhere to their parents' values and rules.

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

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| <b>Грамматика</b><br><b>Теория и практика</b> |
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### Причастие настоящего времени (Participle I)

Причастие I (причастие настоящего времени), образованное при помощи окончания *-ing*, имеет активную и пассивную (страдательную,) формы:

|                            | несовершенный вид  | совершенный вид          |
|----------------------------|--------------------|--------------------------|
| Active<br>(активная)       | <i>asking</i>      | <i>having asked</i>      |
| Passive<br>(страдательная) | <i>being asked</i> | <i>having been asked</i> |

Причастие I употребляется в функции:

1. Определения:

*The man **sitting** at the table is our teacher.* — Человек, **сидящий** за столом — наш учитель.

*The houses **being built** in our town are not very high.* — Дома, **строящиеся** в нашем городе, невысоки.

2. Обстоятельства:

*Going home I met an old friend.* — **Идя** домой, я встретил старого друга.

*Having finished work I went home.*— **Закончив** работу, я пошел домой.

### Причастие прошедшего времени **Participle II**

Причастие II (причастие прошедшего времени) всегда *пассивно*. Образуется оно прибавлением суффикса *-ed* к основе правильного глагола или путем чередования звуков в корне неправильного глагола.

Причастие II употребляется в функции:

1. Определения.

*The book **translated** from English is very interesting.*  
Книга, **переведенная** с английского языка, интересная.

2. Обстоятельства (причины и времени):

***Given** the task he began to work.* — **Когда ему дали** задание, он начал работать.

Если перед причастием прошедшего времени в функции обстоятельства стоят союзы *if, when*, то оно переводится на русский язык обстоятельственным придаточным предложением.

*Steel hardens when **hammering**.* Сталь упрочняется, когда ее проковывают.

• Если причастия настоящего и прошедшего времени стоят *перед* определяемыми существительными, то они, утрачивая в значительной степени свое отглагольное значение, выражают качество и приближаются по значению к обычному прилагательному:

*alloyed stel* легированная сталь; *sold goods* проданный товар.

• Если причастия настоящего и прошедшего времени стоят *после* определяемого существительного,

то они не выражают качества, а имеют лишь глагольное значение. Такие причастия могут быть заменены определительным придаточным предложением:

*all letters written* все письма, которые были написаны *instructions received* полученные инструкции (инструкции, которые были получены)

**ЗАДАНИЕ 4.1.** *Переведите причастия на русский язык.*

buying — bought heating — heated connecting — connected eating — eaten reading — read

**ЗАДАНИЕ 4.2.** *Переведите предложения.*

1. There is a house **built** in our street.
2. The materials **used** were not of good quality.
3. The vegetables **bought** were fresh.
4. The letters **sent** yesterday by e-mail were not received.

### **Герундий Gerund**

Герундий — это неличная форма глагола, которая выражает действие как процесс, и образуется прибавлением окончания **-ing** к основе глагола. Герундий является промежуточной формой между глаголом и существительным и поэтому обладает свойствами и глагола, и существительного.

#### **Употребление герундия**

1. Герундий употребляется после следующих глаголов без предлогов:

a) **to begin, to start, to finish, to stop, to continue, to keep** (продолжать) и др.

*Please keep sending us letters at this address.*  
Пожалуйста, продолжайте посылать нам письма по этому адресу;

b) **to like, to enjoy, to prefer, to mind, to excuse, to remember, to forget, to suggest, to avoid, to need, to want, to require** и др.

*The results need **being checked**.* Результаты необходимо проверить.

2. После глагола с предлогами:

**to apologize for, to thank for, to look forward to, to congratulate on, to insist on, to depend on, to object to, to be interested in, to be responsible for** и др.

*We insisted on **continuing** the experiment.* Мы настаивали на продолжении эксперимента.

3. После существительного с предлогом: **way of, programme of, reason for, process of** и др.

*The way of **using** is indicated in the instructions.* Способ использования указан в инструкциях.

4. После составных предлогов и словосочетаний: **on account of** ввиду, из-за

**because of** из-за

**due to** благодаря, из-за

**with a view to** с целью (для того чтобы)

**despite** несмотря на

*We could not continue the work **because of** no raw materials **being supplied**.* Мы не смогли продолжать работу из-за отсутствия поставки сырья.

### Свойства глагола у герундия

Герундий имеет следующие формы времени и залога:

|            | Active                | Passive                    |
|------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| Indefinite | <b>writing</b>        | <b>being written</b>       |
| Perfect    | <b>having written</b> | <b>having been written</b> |

**Indefinite Gerund** выражает процесс в наиболее общем виде и действие, одновременное с действием глагола в личной форме.

*We prefer **using** new methods of work.* Мы предпочитаем использовать новые методы работы.

*We prefer new methods of work **being used**.* Мы предпочитаем, чтобы использовались новые методы работы.

**Perfect Gerund** выражает действие, которое обычно предшествует действию, выраженному глаголом в личной форме.

*I remember **having given** this instruction.* Я помню, что дал (давал) это указание.

*I remember **having been** given this instruction.* Я помню, что мне давали это указание.

Чаще всего формы пассивного герундия на русский язык переводятся придаточными предложениями.

### **Свойства существительного у герундия**

1. Герундий может определяться притяжательным местоимением или существительным в притяжательном падеже:

*I insist on his (the inspector's) **coming** as soon as possible.* Я настаиваю на том, чтобы он (инспектор) приехал как можно скорее.

2. Перед герундием может стоять предлог:

***On receiving a letter we shall immediately take action.***

**По получении письма мы немедленно примем меры. Герундий употребляется: 1) в качестве подлежащего: Reading is useful. Чтение полезно;**

2) как часть сказуемого после глаголов *to finish, to start, to continue, to go on, to keep* и др.

*He started **reading the book**.* Он начал читать книгу;

3) как предложное дополнение: *I am fond of **reading**.* Я люблю читать;

4) как прямое дополнение:

*Do you mind my reading here?* Вы не против моего чтения здесь?;

5) как обстоятельство времени:

*After reading he closed the book.* После чтения он закрыл книгу;

6) как обстоятельство образа действия:

*Instead of reading he went to the movies.* Вместо чтения он пошел в кино.

### **Перевод герундия на русский язык**

Герундий может переводиться на русский язык:

1) существительным

*We are interested in buying these goods* Мы заинтересованы в **покупке** этих товаров;

2) инфинитивом

*Everybody went on working.* Все продолжали **работать**;

3) деепричастием

*On coming to the laboratory he got down to work.*

**Придя** в лабораторию, он принялся за работу.

4) придаточным предложением

*We regretted having done it.* Мы сожалели о том, **что сделали** это.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 4.3.** Найдите в предложениях герундий и определите его время, залог и функцию. Переведите предложения.

1. Smoking costs a lot of money.
2. I will call you after arriving at the office.
3. Please have a drink before leaving.
4. I am looking forward to meeting you.
5. Do you object to working late?
6. Mary always dreams about going on holiday.
7. Please, excuse us for waiting too long.



8. My favourite occupation is reading.
9. We are interested in buying these goods.
10. I have three shirts that need washing.
11. They insisted on being sent the results of tests.
12. What is the purpose of his going there?
13. This letter requires signing.
14. I am grateful for his helping me. I am grateful for his having helped me.
15. We thank you for sending us your letter.
16. The house wants repainting.

**ЗАДАНИЕ 4.4.** Заполните пропуски подходящими по смыслу герундиями.

1. I dislike to the movies by myself.
2. We started dinner without you.
3. I can't imagine my own house.
4. I used that television show all of the time.
5. I always eat breakfast before to school.
6. When do you practise English?
7. My grandmother prefers science fiction books.
8. You need harder this year.
9. I am used to her in a bad mood.
10. Have you talked to the dentist about your teeth?

#### Герундий или инфинитив?

**Одной из трудностей английского языка является то, что после одних глаголов используется герундий, а после других — инфинитив.**

|                                      |                                       |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| Когда используется ГЕРУНДИЙ? (doing) | Когда используется ИНФИНИТИВ? (to do) |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|

|   |   |
|---|---|
| <p>После глаголов, которые выражают любовь / ненависть:</p> <p>like нравиться<br/>love любить<br/>enjoy наслаждаться<br/>dislike не любить<br/>hate ненавидеть</p>  | <p>После глаголов, которые относятся к будущим событиям:</p> <p>want хотеть hope надеяться<br/>intend намереваться</p>  |
| <p><b>После некоторых глаголов:</b></p> <p><b>admit</b> допускать<br/><b>imagine</b> вообразить<br/><b>involve</b> вызывать, приводить (к чему-л.)<br/><b>keep on</b> продолжать (делать что-л.)<br/><b>consider</b> думать, полагать, считать<br/><b>mention</b> упоминать<br/><b>delay</b> задерживать<br/><b>deny</b> отрицать<br/><b>postpone</b> откладывать<br/><b>finish</b> заканчивать</p> <p><b>После предлогов:</b><br/><b>interested in...</b><br/><b>instead of...</b><br/><b>good at...</b></p> | <p><b>После некоторых глаголов:</b></p> <p><b>afford</b> позволить себе<br/><b>help</b> помогать<br/><b>agree</b> соглашаться</p> <p><b>learn</b> учиться<br/><b>manage</b> управлять</p> <p><b>choose</b> отдавать предпочтение чему-л.</p> <p><b>offer</b> предлагать<br/><b>fail</b> не сделать что-л.<br/><b>refuse</b> отказываться<br/><b>happen</b> случаться</p> <p><b>После прилагательных:</b><br/><b>glad</b> (напр: to know...)<br/><b>pleased</b> (напр: to meet you)<br/><b>disappointed</b> (напр: to hear)</p> <p><b>После слов «too» и</b></p> |

|   |  |
|---|--|
| <p>before ...</p> <p>after ...</p> <p><b>После некоторых выражений:</b></p> <p><b>it's no use</b> ... бесполезно</p> <p><b>it's no good</b> ... не стоит</p> <p><b>there's no point in</b> ... нет смысла</p> | <p>«enough»:</p> <p><b>too difficult</b> слишком трудно</p> <p><b>easy enough</b> ... довольно легко</p> |
|---|--|

После глаголов **begin, start** — начинать, **continue** — продолжать, могут употребляться как герундий, так и инфинитив без ущерба для смысла.

После глаголов **stop** — прекращать, **try** — пытаться, стараться, **remember** — помнить, могут употребляться и герундий, и инфинитив, но смысл может меняться.

**Рецептивные виды речевой деятельности**  
**Аудирование и чтение**

**Does Psychotherapy Work?**

One of the first investigators to raise questions about the effective ness of psychotherapy was the British psychologist Hans Eysenck (1952). After surveying 19 published reports covering more than 7,000 cases, Eysenck concluded that therapy significantly helped about two out of every three people. However, he also concluded that “Roughly two thirds of a group of neurotic patients will recover or improve to a marked extent within about two years of the onset of their illness whether they are treated by means of

psychotherapy or not.” Eysenck’s conclusion that individual psychotherapy was no more effective in treating neurotic disorders than no therapy at all caused a storm of controversy in the psychological community and stimulated considerable research.

Ironically, an important but often overlooked aspect of the subsequent debate has little to do with the effectiveness of therapy but rather with the effectiveness of no therapy. Many researchers then and today agree with Eysenck that therapy helps about two-thirds of the people who undergo it. More controversial is the question of what happens to people with psychological problems who do not receive formal therapy — is it really true that two-thirds will improve anyway? Bergin and Lambert (1978) questioned the “spontaneous recovery” rate of the control subjects in the studies Eysenck surveyed. They concluded that only about one out of every three people improves without treatment (not the two out of three cited by Eysenck). Since twice as many people improve with formal therapy, therapy is indeed more effective than no treatment at all. Furthermore, these researchers noted that many people who do not receive formal therapy get real therapeutic help from friends, clergy, physicians, and teachers; thus, it is possible that the recovery rate for people who receive no therapeutic help at all is even less than one-third.

Other attempts to study the effectiveness of psychotherapy have averaged the results of a large number of individual studies. The general consensus among these studies is also that psychotherapy is effective, although its value appears to be related to a number of other factors. For instance, psychotherapy works best for relatively mild compared to more severe disorders and seems to provide the greatest benefits to people who really want to change. Finally, one very extensive study designed to evaluate the

effectiveness of psychotherapy was reported by Consumer Reports (1995). Largely under the direction of psychologist Martin E.P. Seligman, this investigation surveyed 180,000 Consumer Reports subscribers on everything from automobiles to mental health. Approximately 7,000 people from the total sample responded to the mental health section of the questionnaire that assessed satisfaction and improvement in people who had received psychotherapy.

In reviewing the results of this study, Seligman (1995) summarized a few of its most important findings. First, the vast majority of respondents reported significant overall improvement following therapy. Approximately 90 percent of the people who reported feeling very poor or fairly poor prior to therapy reported feeling very good, good, or so following therapy. Second, there was no difference in the overall improvement score for people who had received therapy alone and those who had combined psychotherapy with medication. Third, no differences were found between the various forms of psychotherapy. Fourth, no differences in effectiveness were indicated between psychologists, psychiatrists, and social workers, although marriage counselors were seen as less effective. And fifth, people who had received long-term therapy reported more improvement than those who had received short-term therapy. This last result, one of the most striking findings of the study, is illustrated in the Figure below.

The Consumer Reports study lacked the scientific rigor of more traditional investigations designed to assess psychotherapeutic efficacy. For example, it did not use a control group to assess change in people who did not receive therapy. Nevertheless, it provides broad support for the idea that psychotherapy does work.

**Продуктивные виды речевой деятельности**  
**Говорение**

Монолог-описание «Стресс в нашей жизни»  
Проведение теста «Определение тревоги»

**Письмо**

Написание эссе «Стресс в нашей жизни» (80-100  
слов)

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# **ПСИХОЛОГИЯ**

## **PSYCHOLOGY**

Учебное пособие  
по английскому языку  
(базовый уровень)

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