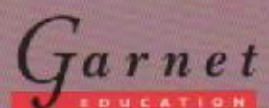


Series Editor: Terry Phillips  
Jane Short

English for  
**PSYCHOLOGY**  
in Higher Education Studies

Course Book



Jane Short

# English for **PSYCHOLOGY**

in Higher Education Studies

**Course Book**

Series editor: Terry Phillips

**esap**  
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# Introduction

*English for Psychology* is designed for students who plan to take a course in the field of psychology entirely or partly in English. The principal aim of *English for Psychology* is to teach students to cope with input texts, i.e., listening and reading, in the discipline. However, students will be expected to produce output texts in speech and writing throughout the course.

The syllabus focuses on key vocabulary for the discipline and on words and phrases commonly used in academic English. It covers key facts and concepts from the discipline, thereby giving students a flying start for when they meet the same points again in their faculty work. It also focuses on the skills that will enable students to get the most out of lectures and written texts. Finally, it presents the skills required to take part in seminars and tutorials and to produce essay assignments.

*English for Psychology* comprises:

- this student Course Book, including audio transcripts and wordlist
- the Teacher's Book, which provides detailed guidance on each lesson, full answer keys, audio transcripts and extra photocopiable resources
- audio CDs with lecture and seminar excerpts

*English for Psychology* has 12 units, each of which is based on a different aspect of psychology. Odd-numbered units are based on listening (lecture/seminar extracts). Even-numbered units are based on reading.

Each unit is divided into four lessons:

**Lesson 1:** vocabulary for the discipline; vocabulary skills such as word-building, use of affixes, use of synonyms for paraphrasing

**Lesson 2:** reading or listening text and skills development

**Lesson 3:** reading or listening skills extension. In addition, in later reading units, students are introduced to a writing assignment which is further developed in Lesson 4; in later listening units, students are introduced to a spoken language point (e.g., making an oral presentation at a seminar) which is further developed in Lesson 4

**Lesson 4:** a parallel listening or reading text to that presented in Lesson 2 which students have to use their new skills (Lesson 3) to decode; in addition, written or spoken work is further practised

The last two pages of each unit, *Vocabulary bank* and *Skills bank*, are a useful summary of the unit content.

Each unit provides between 4 and 6 hours of classroom activity with the possibility of a further 2–4 hours on the suggested extra activities. The course will be suitable, therefore, as the core component of a faculty-specific pre-sessional or foundation course of between 50 and 80 hours.

It is assumed that prior to using this book students will already have completed a general EAP (English for Academic Purposes) course such as *Skills in English* (Garnet Publishing) up to the end at least of Level 3, and will have achieved an IELTS level of at least 5.

For a list of other titles in this series, see [www.garneteducation.com/](http://www.garneteducation.com/)

# Book map

Unit	Topics
<b>1 What is psychology?</b> Listening · Speaking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• definition of psychology</li> <li>• introduction to branches of psychology</li> </ul>
<b>2 Branches of psychology</b> Reading · Writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• pure and applied science</li> <li>• process and person approaches</li> <li>• developmental/educational, occupational, biological, forensic</li> </ul>
<b>3 Psychology in practice</b> Listening · Speaking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• professional practice: occupational and clinical psychology</li> <li>• phobias</li> <li>• mental disorders</li> </ul>
<b>4 Psychology and computers</b> Reading · Writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• using computers for research</li> <li>• using computers to develop cognitive models</li> <li>• computers and diagnosis of mental illness</li> <li>• virtual reality</li> </ul>
<b>5 Dreams and personality</b> Listening · Speaking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• approaches to dreams</li> <li>• Freud</li> <li>• Jung</li> <li>• models of consciousness and personality</li> </ul>
<b>6 Vygotsky and Piaget: thought and language</b> Reading · Writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Vygotsky</li> <li>• development of thought and language across cultures</li> <li>• Piaget</li> <li>• cognitive development and education</li> </ul>
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<b>8 Mental disorders: popular myths</b> Reading · Writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• common myths about mental illness</li> <li>• the media and stereotypes of mental illness</li> </ul>
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<b>10 Modern addictions</b> Reading · Writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• internet addiction</li> <li>• body image and eating disorders</li> </ul>
<b>11 Parapsychology</b> Listening · Speaking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• parapsychology</li> <li>• mind over matter</li> <li>• altered states of mind</li> </ul>
<b>12 With the future in mind</b> Reading · Writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• virtual relationships</li> <li>• violence and video games</li> <li>• case study: cyberbullying</li> </ul>

Vocabulary focus	Skills focus	Unit
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>words from general English with a special meaning in psychology</li> <li>prefixes and suffixes</li> </ul>	<p><b>Listening</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>preparing for a lecture</li> <li>predicting lecture content from the introduction</li> <li>understanding lecture organization</li> <li>choosing an appropriate form of notes</li> <li>making lecture notes</li> </ul> <p><b>Speaking</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>speaking from notes</li> </ul>	<b>1</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>English-English dictionaries: headwords - definitions - parts of speech - phonemes - stress markers - countable/uncountable - transitive/intransitive</li> </ul>	<p><b>Reading</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>using research questions to focus on relevant information in a text</li> <li>using topic sentences to get an overview of the text</li> </ul> <p><b>Writing</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>writing topic sentences</li> <li>summarizing a text</li> </ul>	<b>2</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>stress patterns in multi-syllable words</li> <li>prefixes</li> </ul>	<p><b>Listening</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>preparing for a lecture</li> <li>predicting lecture content</li> <li>making lecture notes</li> <li>using different information sources</li> </ul> <p><b>Speaking</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>reporting research findings</li> <li>formulating questions</li> </ul>	<b>3</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>computer jargon</li> <li>abbreviations and acronyms</li> <li>discourse and stance markers</li> <li>verb and noun suffixes</li> </ul>	<p><b>Reading</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>identifying topic development within a paragraph</li> <li>using the Internet effectively</li> <li>evaluating Internet search results</li> </ul> <p><b>Writing</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>reporting research findings</li> </ul>	<b>4</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>word sets: synonyms, antonyms, etc.</li> <li>the language of trends</li> <li>common lecture language</li> </ul>	<p><b>Listening</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>understanding 'signpost language' in lectures</li> <li>using symbols and abbreviations in note-taking</li> </ul> <p><b>Speaking</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>making effective contributions to a seminar</li> </ul>	<b>5</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>synonyms, replacement subjects, etc., for sentence-level paraphrasing</li> </ul>	<p><b>Reading</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>locating key information in complex sentences</li> </ul> <p><b>Writing</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>reporting findings from other sources: paraphrasing</li> <li>writing complex sentences</li> </ul>	<b>6</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>compound nouns</li> <li>fixed phrases from psychology</li> <li>fixed phrases from academic English</li> <li>common lecture language</li> </ul>	<p><b>Listening</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>understanding speaker emphasis</li> </ul> <p><b>Speaking</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>asking for clarification</li> <li>responding to queries and requests for clarification</li> </ul>	<b>7</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>synonyms</li> <li>nouns from verbs</li> <li>definitions</li> <li>common 'direction' verbs in essay titles (<i>discuss, analyze, evaluate, etc.</i>)</li> </ul>	<p><b>Reading</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>understanding dependent clauses with passives</li> </ul> <p><b>Writing</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>paraphrasing</li> <li>expanding notes into complex sentences</li> <li>recognizing different essay types/structures: descriptive - analytical - comparison/evaluation - argument</li> <li>writing essay plans</li> <li>writing essays</li> </ul>	<b>8</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>fixed phrases from psychology</li> <li>fixed phrases from academic English</li> </ul>	<p><b>Listening</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>using the Cornell note-taking system</li> <li>recognizing digressions in lectures</li> </ul> <p><b>Speaking</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>making effective contributions to a seminar</li> <li>referring to other people's ideas in a seminar</li> </ul>	<b>9</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>neutral and marked words</li> <li>fixed phrases from psychology</li> <li>fixed phrases from academic English</li> </ul>	<p><b>Reading</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>recognizing the writer's stance and level of confidence or tentativeness</li> <li>inferring implicit ideas</li> </ul> <p><b>Writing</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>writing situation-problem-solution-evaluation essays</li> <li>using direct quotations</li> <li>compiling a bibliography/reference list</li> </ul>	<b>10</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>words/phrases used to link ideas (<i>moreover, as a result, etc.</i>)</li> <li>stress patterns in noun phrases and compounds</li> <li>fixed phrases from academic English</li> <li>words/phrases related to research into parapsychology</li> </ul>	<p><b>Listening</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>recognizing the speaker's stance</li> <li>writing up notes in full</li> </ul> <p><b>Speaking</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>building an argument in a seminar</li> <li>agreeing/disagreeing</li> </ul>	<b>11</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>verbs used to introduce ideas from other sources (<i>X contends/suggests/asserts that ...</i>)</li> <li>linking words/phrases conveying contrast (<i>whereas, result (consequently), reasons (due to), etc.</i>)</li> <li>words for quantities (<i>a significant minority</i>)</li> </ul>	<p><b>Reading</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>understanding how ideas in a text are linked</li> </ul> <p><b>Writing</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>deciding whether to use direct quotation or paraphrase</li> <li>incorporating quotations</li> <li>writing research reports</li> <li>writing effective introductions/conclusions</li> </ul>	<b>12</b>

# 1 WHAT IS PSYCHOLOGY?

## 1.1 Vocabulary

guessing words in context • prefixes and suffixes

- A** Read the text. The red words are probably familiar to you in general English. But can you think of a different meaning for each word in the field of psychology? Change the form if necessary (e.g., change a noun into a verb).

It takes both **vision** and **analysis** to **construct** a new building. On such a **project**, the architects will **stress** the way the structure **stimulates** the imagination, while the contractors will be more **conscious** of daily working **conditions**.

- B** Read these sentences from psychology texts. Complete each sentence with one of the red words from Exercise A. Change the form if necessary.

- 1 Freud's experiments in psycho\_\_\_\_\_ gave rise to his 'dream theory'.
- 2 In Pavlov's experiments with dogs, the conditioned \_\_\_\_\_ was a light.
- 3 Hallucinations, or \_\_\_\_\_, are a common symptom of mental disorder.
- 4 Overstimulation of the organism can lead to emotional tension or \_\_\_\_\_.
- 5 Kelly was an early proponent of Personal \_\_\_\_\_ Theory.
- 6 Skinner's experiments in operant \_\_\_\_\_ were based on behaviourism.
- 7 Attributing your feelings to another person is known as \_\_\_\_\_.
- 8 The \_\_\_\_\_ mind is the most accessible level of mental activity.

- C** Study the words in box a.

- 1 What is the connection between all the words?
- 2 What is the base word in each case?
- 3 What do we call the extra letters?
- 4 What is the meaning of each prefix?
- 5 Can you think of another word with each prefix?

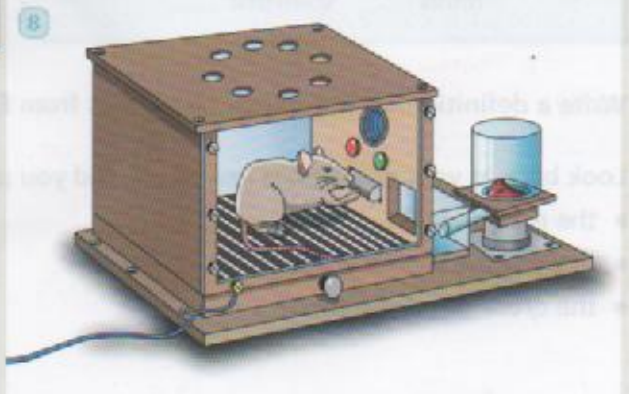
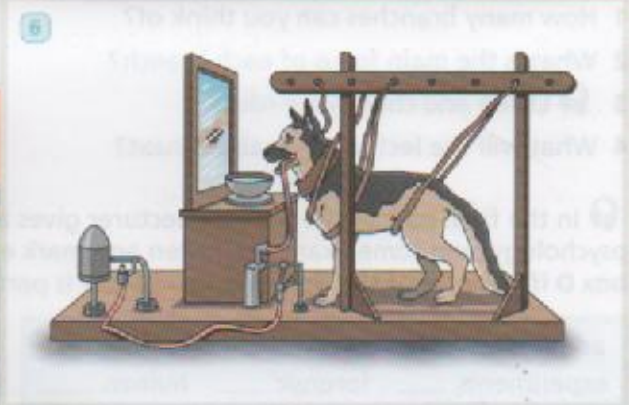
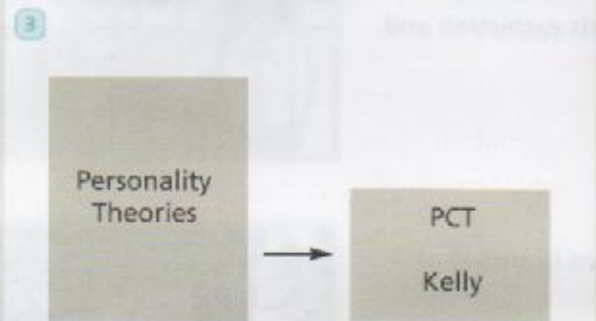
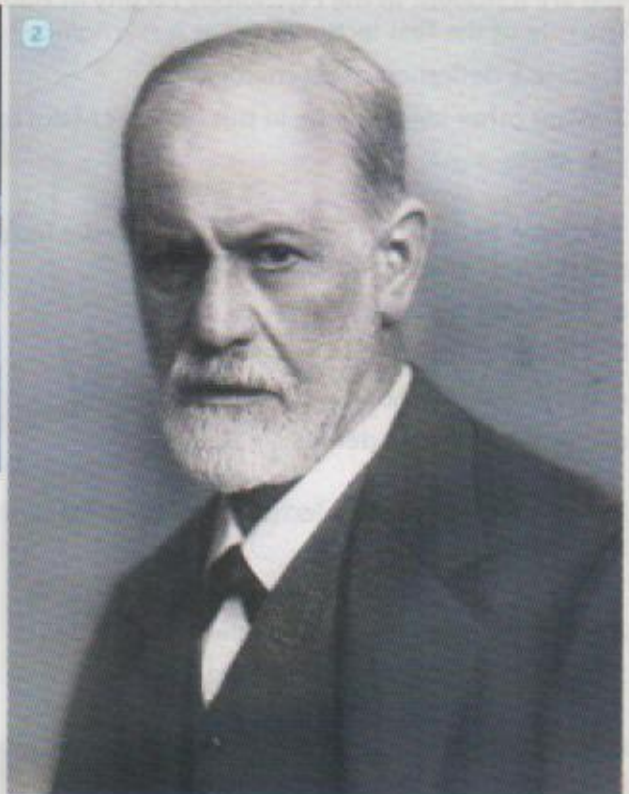
a  
biochemistry    extrasensory  
neurobiology    overstimulate  
parapsychology    psychoanalysis    recycle  
subconscious    transaction    unfeeling

- D** Study the words in box b.

- 1 What is the connection between all the words?
- 2 What is the base word in each case?
- 3 What do we call the extra letters?
- 4 What effect do the extra letters have on the base word?
- 5 Can you think of another word with each suffix?

b  
disordered    emotional  
identity    inhibition    narcissism  
neurosis    psychiatrist    regressive  
reinforcement    treatable

- E** Use words from this page to discuss the pictures on the opposite page.






## 1.2 Listening

preparing for a lecture • predicting lecture content • making notes

**A** You are a student in the Psychology Faculty at Hadford University. The title of the first lecture is *What is Psychology?*


- 1 Write a definition of psychology.
- 2 What other ideas will be in this lecture? Make some notes.

See *Skills bank*.


**B**  Listen to Part 1 of the talk. What does the lecturer say about psychology? Tick the best choice.


- a It is about the mind.
- b It is about behaviour.
- c It is about philosophy.
- d It is impossible to define.

**C** In Part 2 of the talk, the lecturer mentions the words *extinction* and *sympathetic*.

- 1 What do these words mean in general English?
- 2 What do they mean in psychology?
- 3  Listen and check your ideas.

**D** In Part 3 of the talk, the lecturer introduces different branches of psychology.

- 1 How many branches can you think of?
- 2 What is the main focus of each branch?
- 3  Listen and check your ideas.
- 4 What will the lecturer talk about next?

**E**  In the final part of the talk, the lecturer gives a definition of psychology, and some examples. Listen and mark each word in the box **D** if it is part of the definition and **E** if it is part of an example.

analysis  behaviour  establish   
experiments  forensic  human   
mind  scientific

**F** Write a definition of psychology. Use words from Exercise E.

**G** Look back at your notes from Exercise A. Did you predict:

- the main ideas?
- most of the special vocabulary?
- the order of information?



## 1.3 Extending skills

lecture organization • choosing the best form of notes

**A** Use the following prefixes and suffixes to form words used in psychology.

**Example:** ~ology → psychology, physiology, biology

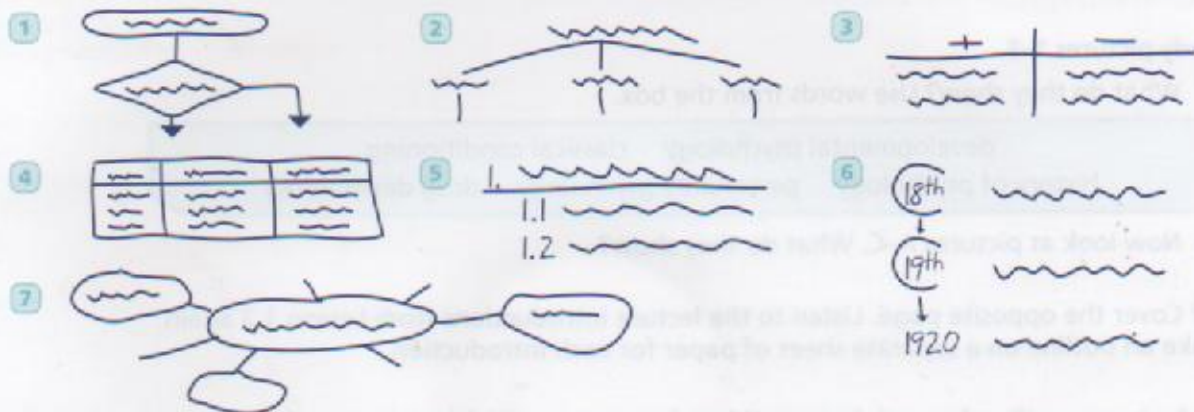
- |          |         |            |
|----------|---------|------------|
| 1 neur-  | 4 sub-  | 7 -phobia  |
| 2 psych- | 5 para- | 8 trans-   |
| 3 hypn-  | 6 dis-  | 9 -therapy |

**B** How can you organize information in a lecture? Match the beginnings and endings.

- |                             |                                     |                          |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1 question and              | <input type="checkbox"/>            | a contrast               |
| 2 problem and               | <input type="checkbox"/>            | b definition             |
| 3 classification and        | <input type="checkbox"/>            | c disadvantages          |
| 4 advantages and            | <input type="checkbox"/>            | d effect                 |
| 5 comparison and            | <input type="checkbox"/>            | e events                 |
| 6 cause and                 | <input type="checkbox"/>            | f supporting information |
| 7 sequence of               | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | g process                |
| 8 stages of a               | <input type="checkbox"/>            | h solution               |
| 9 theories or opinions then | <input type="checkbox"/>            | i answer                 |

**C** How can you record information during a lecture? Match the illustrations with the words and phrases in the box.

tree diagram   flow chart   headings and notes   spidergram   table   timeline   two columns



**D** Match each organization of information in Exercise B with a method of note-taking from Exercise C. You can use one method for different types of organization.

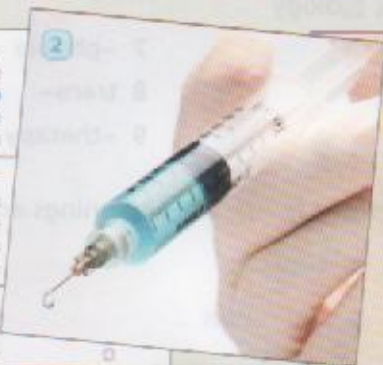
**E** Listen to five lecture introductions. Choose a possible way to take notes from Exercise C in each case.

**Example:**

You hear: *Today I am going to talk about the different branches of psychology. There are five main branches ...*

You choose: *tree diagram*

- 1
- A Has a wide circle of friends
  - B Enjoys organising people
  - C Releases easily
  - D Seeks variety
- 2
- A Helps people with their problems
  - B Develops new approaches
  - C Has lots of energy
  - D Enjoys social activities
- 3
- A Has lots of new ideas
  - B Feels calm



C

## Celebrity's drug shame

**A** Study pictures 1–5.

1 What do they show? Use words from the box.

developmental psychology   classical conditioning  
history of psychology   personality psychology   drug dependency

2 Now look at pictures A–C. What do they show?

**B** Cover the opposite page. Listen to the lecture introductions from Lesson 1.3 again. Make an outline on a separate sheet of paper for each introduction.

**C** Look at your outline for each lecture. What do you expect the lecturer to talk about in the lecture? In what order?

**D** Listen to the next part of each lecture. Complete your notes.

**E** Uncover the opposite page. Check your notes against the model notes. Are yours the same or different?

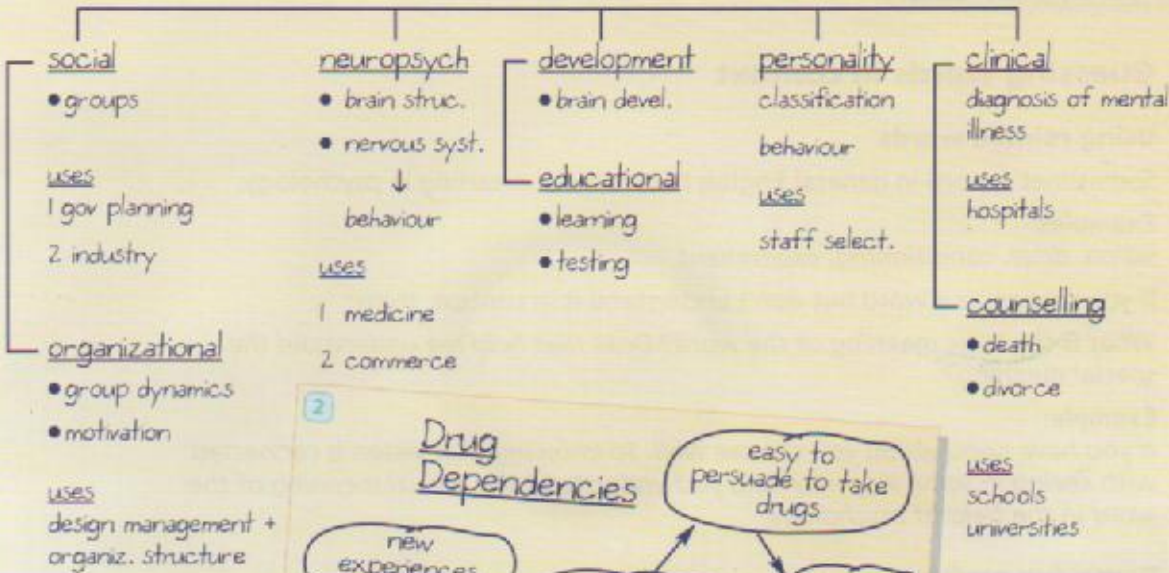
**F** Work in pairs.

1 Use the notes on the opposite page. Reconstruct one lecture.

2 Give the lecture to another pair.

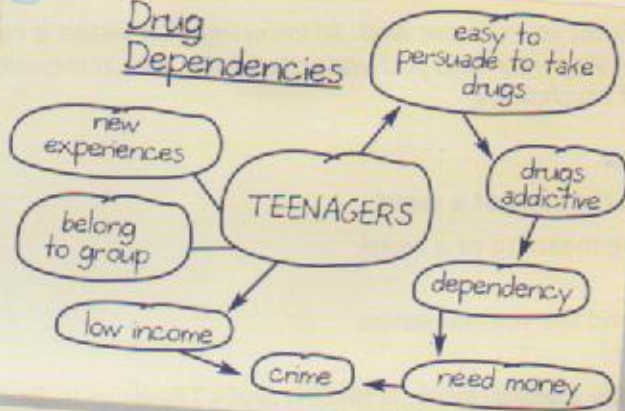
1

BRANCHES OF PSYCHOLOGY



2

Drug Dependencies



3

LANGUAGE ACQUISITION IN CHILDREN

prelinguistic

newborn - cry, vocalize  
 1 week - recog. mother's voice  
 2 months - disting. ba/pa (Eng)  
 3 months - sounds, respond  
 5-8 months - understand basic vocab

linguistic

10-20 mths - 1 word  
 24 mths - 2 words  
 2-3 years - sentences  
 5 years - vocab 10,000 to 15,000 words

cognitive development

2-7/8 yrs - preoperational  
 7-11 yrs - concrete ops  
 11/12 yrs - formal ops = abstract ideas

4

History of Psychology

435 BCE - Alcamaeon - optic nerve/brain → nervous system → body  
 129 AD - Galen - cerebro-spiral fluid (brain + nervous system)  
 1515-1564 - Vesalius - full anatomy  
 1690 - Locke - perception from sensory experiences  
 1758-1828 - Gall - neuropsychology  
 1879 - Wundt - lab research physical + reflection → psychotherapy

5

PAVLOV + SKINNER  
 classical + operant conditioning

Pavlov - 1849 Classical	Skinner - 1904 Operant
dogs	.rats
① natural → stimulus food → salivate	rat in glass box
② flashing light → food	hit lever by chance → food
③ flashing light (no food) → salivate	cause = hit lever effect = food
④ conditioned reflex	operant condit.
⑤ no control over behaviour	control over behaviour

## Guessing words in context

### Using related words

Sometimes a word in general English has a special meaning in psychology.

#### Examples:

*vision, drive, conditioning, experiment*

If you recognize a word but don't understand it in context, think:

*What is the basic meaning of the word? Does that help me understand the special meaning?*

#### Example:

*If you have good vision you can see well. So knowing that vision is connected with seeing in some way may help you understand the special meaning of the word in the field of psychology.*

### Removing prefixes

A **prefix** = letters at the **start** of a word.

A prefix changes the meaning of a word.

#### Examples:

*extrasensory* – beyond the normal senses

*antisocial* – not social

If you don't recognize a word, think: *Is there a prefix?* Remove it. Do you recognize the word now? What does that prefix mean? Add it to the meaning of the word.

### Removing suffixes

A **suffix** = letters at the **end** of a word.

A suffix sometimes changes the part of speech of the word.

#### Examples:

*physiology* → *physiological* = noun → adjective

*analysis* → *analyze* = noun → verb

A suffix sometimes changes the meaning in a **predictable way**.

#### Examples:

*horr* + *ific* – causing, making

*treat* + *ment* – showing the result of an action

*behaviour* + *al* – belonging to, relating to

If you don't recognize a word, think: *Is there a suffix?* Remove it. Do you recognize the word now? What does that suffix mean? Add it to the meaning of the word.

## Skills bank

**Making the most of lectures****Before a lecture ...****Plan**

- Find out the lecture topic.
- Research the topic.
- Check the pronunciation of names and key words in English.

**Prepare**

- Get to the lecture room early.
- Sit where you can see and hear clearly.
- Bring any equipment you may need.
- Write the date, topic and name of the lecturer at the top of a sheet of paper.

**During a lecture ...****Predict**

- Listen carefully to the introduction. Think: *What kind of lecture is this?*
- Write an outline. Leave space for notes.
- Think of possible answers/solutions/effects, etc., while the lecturer is speaking.

**Produce**

- Write notes/copy from the board.
- Record sources – books/website/names.
- At the end, ask the lecturer/other students for missing information.

**Making perfect lecture notes**

Choose the best way to record information from a lecture.

advantages and disadvantages	→ two-column table
cause and effect	→ spidergram
classification and definition	→ tree diagram/spidergram
comparison and contrast	→ two-column table
facts and figures	→ table
sequence of events	→ timeline
stages of a process	→ flow chart
question and answer	→ headings and notes

**Speaking from notes**

Sometimes you may have to give a short talk in a seminar on research you have done.

- Prepare the listeners with an introduction.
- Match the introduction to the type of information/notes.

# 2 BRANCHES OF PSYCHOLOGY

## 2.1 Vocabulary

using an English–English dictionary

**A** How can an English–English dictionary help you understand and produce spoken and written English?

**B** Study the dictionary extract on the opposite page.

- 1 Why are the two words (top left and top right) important?
- 2 How many meanings does *behaviour* have?
- 3 Why does the word *condition* appear twice in **bold**?
- 4 What do we call someone who supports the theory of *behaviourism*?
- 5 Where is the stress on *cognitive*? What about *cognition*?
- 6 What is the pronunciation of *t* in each bold word in this extract?
- 7 What is the pronunciation of *a* in each bold word in this extract?
- 8 What part of speech is *cognitivism*?
- 9 Which is correct? *Conditioning is/are based on behaviourist theories*. Explain your answer.
- 10 Can we write: *The patient is being behaved antisocially*. Why (not)?

**C** Look at the bold words in the dictionary extract on the opposite page.

- 1 What order are they in?
- 2 Write the words in the blue box in the same order.

theory process psychodynamic  
 approach perception motivational  
 constructivist  
 application developmental  
 psychoanalytical field forensic  
 biopsychology neurological subjective

**D** Look at the top of this double page from an English–English dictionary.

- 1 Which word from box a will appear on these pages?
- 2 Think of words before and after some of the other words in box a.

behave	conditional
behav·er (be·hāv·er) <i>n</i> 1 a person who behaves 2 a person who behaves in a particular way 3 a person who behaves in a particular way 4 a person who behaves in a particular way 5 a person who behaves in a particular way 6 a person who behaves in a particular way 7 a person who behaves in a particular way 8 a person who behaves in a particular way 9 a person who behaves in a particular way 10 a person who behaves in a particular way 11 a person who behaves in a particular way 12 a person who behaves in a particular way 13 a person who behaves in a particular way 14 a person who behaves in a particular way 15 a person who behaves in a particular way 16 a person who behaves in a particular way 17 a person who behaves in a particular way 18 a person who behaves in a particular way 19 a person who behaves in a particular way 20 a person who behaves in a particular way 21 a person who behaves in a particular way 22 a person who behaves in a particular way 23 a person who behaves in a 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**E** Look up the red words in box a.

- 1 How many meanings can you find for each word?
- 2 Which words are both a noun and a verb? What kind of verbs are they?
- 3 What kind of noun is each one?
- 4 How are the words used in psychology?

**F** Look up the green words in box a.

- 1 Where is the stress in each word?
- 2 What is the sound of the underlined letter(s) in each word?
- 3 How are the words used in psychology?

**G** Test each other on the words from box a. Give the dictionary definition of one of the words. Can your partner guess which word you are defining?

**H** Describe the levels of psychology in the chart on the opposite page.

**behave**

**behave** /br'herv/ v [I] 1. act in a specific way: *Some chemicals behave unpredictably when they are subjected to heat.* 2. act in a socially acceptable way: *The children usually behave when they visit their grandmother.*

**behaviour** /br'hervjə(r)/ n [U] 1. a way of acting: *The children were on their best behaviour.* 2. (Psych.) a response to a stimulus under controlled conditions: *The behaviour of Pavlov's dogs was conditioned in laboratory experiments.*

**behavioural** /br'hervjərəl/ adj relating to behaviour: *behavioural psychology*

**behaviourism** n [U] /br'hervjərizəm/ (Psych.) the theory that human behaviour is dictated by responses to external stimuli: *Behaviourism is a widely accepted theory in modern psychology.*

**behaviourist** /br'hervjərist/ n [C] someone who supports the theory of behaviourism: *B.F. Skinner was an influential 20<sup>th</sup>-century behaviourist.*

**conditional**

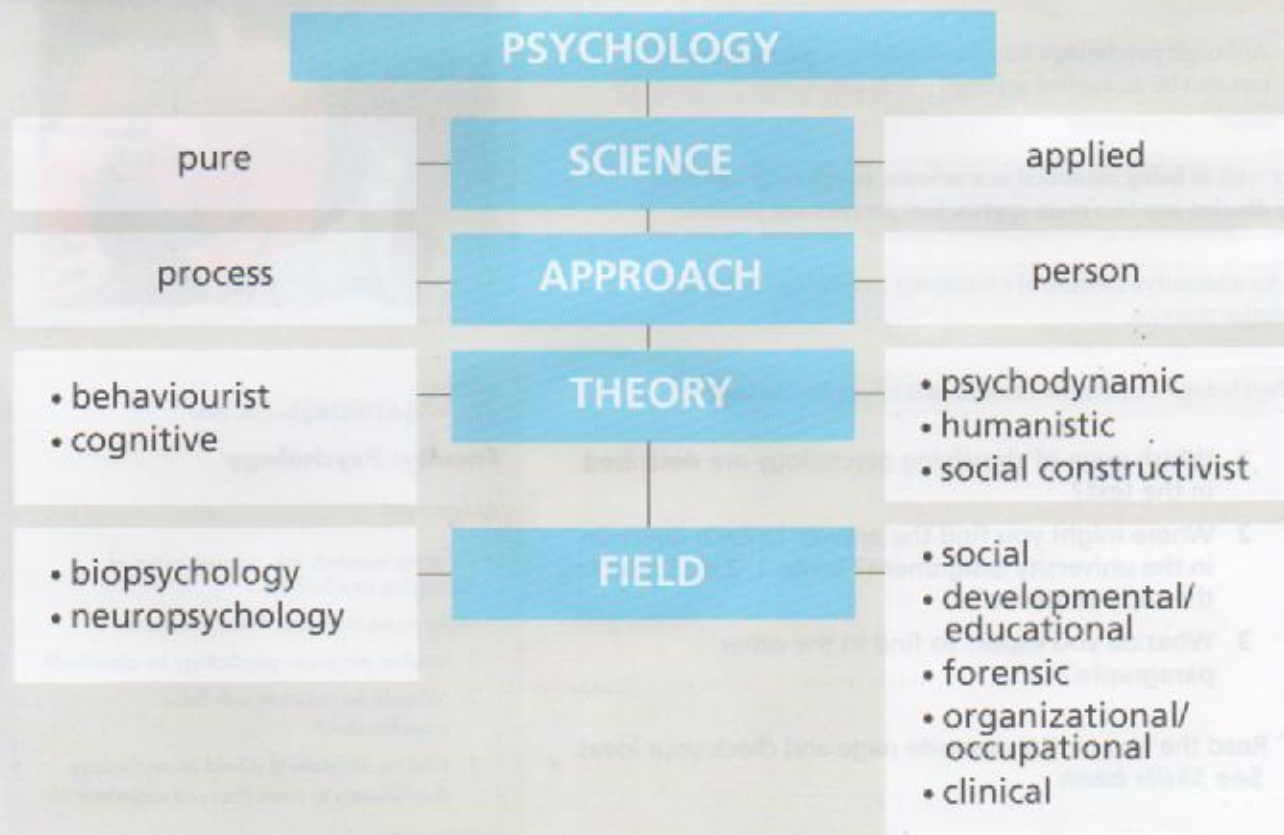
**cognition** /kɒg'nɪʃn/ n [U] 1. the process of thinking. 2. the result of cognition. – **cognitive** /'kɒgnətɪv/ adj relating to thought processes

**cognitivism** /'kɒgnɪtɪvɪzəm/ n [U] the theory that the brain acquires knowledge by processing information

**condition** /kən'dɪʃn/ n [C] 1. a state: *a mental condition* 2. (pl) specific circumstances: *Social conditions may affect motivation.* 3. a limitation on a situation: *He agreed to pay for the damage on the condition that he could see the completed work.* 4. (Psych.) a treatment in an experiment – **conditioning** /kən'dɪʃənɪŋ/ n [U] 1. the process of modifying behaviour by stimulus and reinforcement.

**condition** /kən'dɪʃn/ v [T] (Psych.) to modify behaviour by stimulus and reinforcement: *Pavlov conditioned his dogs to salivate when a light flashed.*

**conditional** /kən'dɪʃənəl/ adj depending on conditions – **conditionally** /kən'dɪʃənəli/ adv.





- A** Which fields of psychology are most commonly practised in everyday life?
- B** Look at the pictures on this page.
- 1 Which field of psychology is shown in each picture?
  - 2 What else do these psychologists do?
  - 3 Which field belongs strictly to the *process* approach?
- C** You are going to read a text. What should you do before you read a text in detail? *See Skills bank.*
- D** This text is about different ways of classifying psychology.
- 1 Think of some research questions before you read.
  - 2 Compare your questions with those in the Hadford University assignment on this page.

- E** Study these topic sentences from the text and answer the questions below.

As psychology is such a wide discipline, it can be classified in a variety of ways.

When its main function is to research basic principles, psychology is regarded as a pure science.

Although psychology may be classed as a pure science, it can also be an applied science.

As well as being classified as a science, psychology can also be divided into two main approaches: *process* and *person*.

An alternative method of classifying psychology is by its major theories.

Psychology can also be divided into its applied fields.

- 1 Which ways of classifying psychology are described in the text?
- 2 Where might you find the answer to each question in the university assignment? Write 1, 2 or 3 next to the topic sentence.
- 3 What do you expect to find in the other paragraphs?

- F** Read the text on the opposite page and check your ideas. *See Skills bank.*

### Fields of psychology



### Faculty: Psychology

#### Assignment

- Do some research into different ways of classifying psychology.
- Make notes to answer these questions:
  - 1 In what ways can psychology be classified?
  - 2 What is the problem with these classifications?
  - 3 Find an example of a field of psychology that belongs to more than one classification.

## Classifying psychology

As psychology is such a wide discipline, it can be classified in a variety of ways. For example, it can be viewed either as a pure science or as an applied science. It can also be classified according to approach: *process* or *person*. Alternatively, psychology can be classed under several major theoretical principles: behaviourist, cognitive, psychodynamic, humanistic and social constructivist. In addition to these categories, psychology can be divided into specialist fields; for example: biopsychology, social, developmental, forensic and clinical psychology.

When its main function is to research basic principles, psychology is regarded as a pure science. The academic psychologist researches into theory, expands knowledge and lays the foundations for further research. Theoretical research is usually carried out under controlled conditions and is particularly relevant to the fields of biopsychology and neuropsychology. However, pure science can have wider, practical applications.

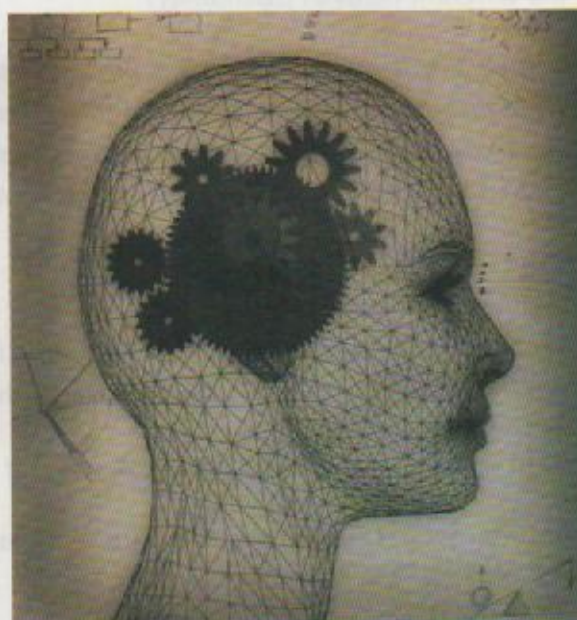
Although psychology may be classed as a pure science, it can also be an applied science. When research in psychology is used for practical purposes, to solve a social or organizational problem, for instance, it is called applied psychology. A psychologist working in this area either practises in a professional field, or carries out research into the practical applications of a theory. An example of this would be research into the effect of sleep deprivation on human behaviour.

As well as being classified as a science, psychology can also be divided into two main approaches: *process* and *person*. The *process* approach, as the name suggests, analyzes the processes, both biological and cognitive, that constitute human behaviour. This approach is closely connected with laboratory research and does not necessarily distinguish between human and animal behaviour. In contrast, the *person* approach focuses on the interaction between people and the ways in which they understand their experience.

An alternative method of classifying psychology is by its major theories. Behaviourists claim that human behaviour is almost exclusively determined by

environmental, or external influences, and reject the belief that subjective factors, such as feelings, are valid means of explaining it. Cognitive psychologists, on the other hand, recognize the validity of subjective reporting to explain behaviour but combine this with analyzing mental processes, such as reasoning and language. In contrast, Freud took the view that the unconscious drives human behaviour. According to Gross (2007), humanistic theory (popularized by Maslow during the 1960s) rejected determinism and asserted the importance of individual free will. In a further development, Gergen (1973) evolved a social-constructivist theory, claiming that individual behaviour is affected by its socio-historic context.

Psychology can also be divided into its applied fields. An example of this is the work of educational psychologists, whose professional role falls within the field of developmental psychology. Although this field is classed under the *person* approach, an educational psychologist may also apply techniques from the *process* approach. For instance, in the case of a child with learning difficulties, the psychologist may use cognitive tests to identify limitations in attention or perception. Alternatively, they may need to refer to the child's family background to investigate its affective development; the *person* approach. The fact is, that although research has provided the psychologist with a range of approaches and principles, the boundaries between them are neither fixed nor mutually exclusive.



## 2.3 Extending skills

topic sentences • summarizing

**A** Study the words in box a. They are all from the text in Lesson 2.2.

- 1 Look back at the text on page 17. Find the words which go together with the words in the box.
- 2 Do they make noun or verb phrases?
- 3 What is the meaning of each phrase? Look at the context and check with your dictionary if necessary.

a foundation socio-historic  
pure humanistic affective  
influences view principles  
discipline processes

**B** Study the words in box b. They are all from the text in Lesson 2.2.

- 1 What is the base word in each case? What part of speech is the base word?
- 2 Does the prefix/suffix change the part of speech?
- 3 How does the prefix/suffix change the meaning of the base word?

b classified practical  
deprivation subjective validity  
unconscious determinism

**C** Look back at the topic sentences from the text in Lesson 2.2 (Exercise E, page 16). Don't look at the text on page 17. What information comes after each topic sentence? Suggest possible content.

**Example:**

As psychology is such a wide discipline, it can be classified in a variety of ways.

*branches of psychology, ways of categorizing psychology*

**D** Write a summary of the text on page 17. Paraphrase the topic sentences. Add extra information and examples. *See Skills bank.*

## 2.4 Extending skills

using research questions • writing topic sentences • summarizing

**A** Can you remember:

- 1 all the main criteria for classifying psychology and the different divisions of each from Lesson 2.2?
- 2 the different fields of psychology?

**B** The lecturer has asked you to research *process* and *person* approaches to psychology.

- 1 What do you understand by each of these terms?
- 2 Think of good research questions before you read the text on the opposite page.
- 3 What is the best way to record information while you are reading?

**C** Study the text on the opposite page.

- 1 Highlight the topic sentences.
- 2 Read each topic sentence. What will you find in the rest of the paragraph?
- 3 Which paragraph(s) will probably answer each research question? Read those paragraphs and make notes.
- 4 Have you got all the information you need? If not, read other paragraphs.

**D** Use the Internet to research the relevance of the *person* approach to clinical psychology. Use the same research questions as in Lesson 2.2.

- 1 Make notes.
- 2 Write a series of topic sentences which summarize your findings.
- 3 Report back to the other students. Read out each topic sentence, then add extra details.

## Process or person?

Which approach to human behaviour is more relevant to current professional practice: *process* or *person*? Since the mid-19<sup>th</sup> century, two contrasting approaches to understanding the mind and behaviour have been a topic of discussion: the scientific, or *process* approach, and the introspective, or *person* approach. The debate is important because it affects research methods and professional practice and, in the long term, commercial, medical and social progress. A review of these approaches will allow us to reach our own conclusions.

The *process* approach to psychology focuses on the analysis of the internal mental mechanisms which, scientists claim, can only be accessed through observable behaviour. This view is largely supported by physiologists and behaviourists. The *process* approach is founded on Pavlov's well-known research into stimulus and response, and supported by Watson, when he formulated the principles of behaviourism in 1913 (Gross, 2007). These include: complete scientific objectivity; the predictability and controllability of behaviour; and similarities between human and animal behaviour. It has been argued, however, that this last principle fails to take into account the existence of consciousness or self-awareness in humans. Countering this criticism, Watson maintained that introspection was subjective, unreliable as a data source and, therefore, unscientific.

In the late 19<sup>th</sup> century, John Dewey highlighted another limitation of the stimulus-response theory (Benjafield, 1996). Dewey pointed out that, depending on their situation and intention, human beings will respond differently to a similar stimulus, unlike animals, which have a limited range of responses. For example, if we see a child crying and alone in public, we will probably assume that he or she is lost, and look for its mother. On the other hand, when we see a child crying and with its mother, we do nothing. Our responses are determined not only by the stimulus, but also by the social context. By relating behaviour to social context, Dewey foreshadowed social-constructivist theories which form part of the *person* approach.

The *person* approach emphasizes the importance of individual experience as a means of understanding mental processes, and of the effect of social interaction on behaviour. This approach is supported



by the psychodynamic, humanist and social-constructivist theories. For instance, Freud claimed that dreams were the gateway to our unconscious and that relating and interpreting them was a valid means of understanding our inner life. According to the humanist, Carl Rogers, self-awareness is at the centre of our human experience and each individual's unique interpretation of reality is valid. Social constructivism looks beyond individual experience and explains behaviour as a fluid interaction between the person and a continuously changing society. The main argument against the validity of all theories supporting the *person* approach is that any data based on reported experience is necessarily subjective and, therefore, unverifiable.

An examination of two cases will illustrate the relevance of each approach in practice. In the first case, a forensic psychologist planning a programme of rehabilitation for a prisoner may use techniques which include a scientifically standardized psychometric test, developed according to the *process* approach, and just as important, a direct interview – a technique belonging to the *person* approach. In another case, a biopsychologist taking the *process* approach to testing the effects of narcotics on behaviour may limit his or her observations to laboratory animals. However, during subsequent testing on humans, the researcher may take the *person* approach and obtain valuable additional information from individual feedback.

In conclusion, whilst the *process* approach is scientifically valid, the *person* approach provides a wealth of information not available from objective observation. Each of these approaches provides researchers and practitioners with data and techniques which are applicable not only in experimental contexts, but also in the field.

## Using your English-English dictionary

This kind of dictionary helps you actually learn English.

### Using headwords and parts of speech

1 Find the correct **headword**.

These **bold** words in a dictionary are in alphabetical order. Look at the words on the top left and top right of the double page. Find a word which comes just before and after your word.

2 Find the correct **meaning**.

If there are different meanings of the word, they appear in a numbered list. Look at all the meanings before you choose the correct one in context.

3 Find the correct **part of speech**.

Sometimes the same headword appears more than once, followed by a small number. This means the word has more than one part of speech, e.g., *n* and *v*. Work out the part of speech before you look up a word.

Clues:

- Nouns come after articles (*a/an/the*) or adjectives.
- Verbs come after nouns or pronouns.

### Learning to pronounce words

The symbols after the headword show you how to pronounce the word. Learn these symbols (the key is usually at the front or the back of the dictionary).

The little line in the symbols shows you how to stress the word.

Example:

/kɒg'nɪʃn/ but /'kɒgnɪtɪvɪzəm/

### Learning to use words correctly in context

Nouns can be **countable** or **uncountable**. This information is important for using articles and verb forms (e.g., *is/are*) correctly. Look for the symbol [C] or [U].

Some verbs need an object. They are **transitive**. Some verbs don't need an object. They are **intransitive**. This information is important for making good sentences. Look for the symbol [T] or [I].

Some words can be spelt in **British English** (e.g., *colour, centre*) or **American English** (e.g., *color, center*). Choose the correct spelling for the text you are working on.

## Skills bank

**Doing reading research****Before you start reading ...**

- Think of research questions. In other words, ask yourself: *What must I find out from my research?*
- Look at headings, sub-headings, illustrations. Look for patterns or variations in presentation, e.g., a series of dates; words in **bold** or *italic script*. Think: *What information do they give me?*
- Decide how to record information from your reading. Choose one or more methods of note-taking. See Unit 1 *Skills bank*.

**While you are reading ...**

- **Highlight** the topic sentences.
- Think: *Which paragraph(s) will probably give me the answer to my research questions?*
- Read these paragraph(s) first.
- Make notes.

**After reading ...**

- Think: *Did the text answer all my research questions?*
- If the answer is no, look at other paragraphs to see if the information is there.

**Using topic sentences to summarize**

The topic sentences of a text normally make a good basis for a summary. Follow this procedure:

- Locate the topic sentences.
- Paraphrase them – in other words, rewrite them in your own words so that the meaning is the same. Do not simply copy them. (This is a form of plagiarism.)
- Add supporting information – once again, in your own words.

Example:

<b>Topic sentence</b>	<i>An alternative method of classifying psychology is by its major theories.</i>
<b>Paraphrase of topic sentence</b>	<i>Psychology can be divided into several important theories.</i>
<b>Supporting information and examples (summarized)</b>	<i>Behaviourists and cognitivists explain behaviour by analyzing mental processes; whereas Freudians, humanists and social constructivists are more concerned with exploring behaviour through the personality.</i>

- Check your summary. Check that the ideas flow logically. Check spelling and grammar. If your summary is short, it may be just one paragraph. Divide a longer summary into paragraphs.

# 3 PSYCHOLOGY IN PRACTICE

## 3.1 Vocabulary

stress within words • prefixes

**A** Discuss these questions.

- 1 What does an occupational psychologist do?
- 2 What do you understand by *personality*?
- 3 How can personality be measured?

**B** Study the pictures on the opposite page.

- 1 What does each picture show? Talk about each picture using a word from box a. (You will not need all the words.)
- 2 How are the pictures related to occupational psychology?

a  
appraisal    attitude  
consistent    culture  
disadvantage    diversity  
equality    institutional  
occupational    organization  
personality    psychometric  
role    schedule    trait

**C** Look at the words in box a.

- 1 Underline the stressed syllable in each word.
- 2 Which word has the same stress pattern as *appraisal*?
- 3 Sort the other words into groups according to their stress patterns.

**D** Complete each sentence with a word from box a. Change the form if necessary.

- 1 An \_\_\_\_\_ is a process by which employees and their managers evaluate their performance and plan their future.
- 2 A psychometric test identifies personality \_\_\_\_\_.
- 3 An interview \_\_\_\_\_ is a framework of structured questions.
- 4 The accepted behaviour and customs of a group of people are known as its \_\_\_\_\_.
- 5 Traits are \_\_\_\_\_ patterns of behaviour and feeling.
- 6 Occupational psychologists have many \_\_\_\_\_, or functions, in their work.
- 7 In some institutions, the regulations \_\_\_\_\_ certain social groups.
- 8 An \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_ policy ensures fair treatment for everyone.

**E** Study the words in box b. Find the prefix and try to work out the meaning in each case.

b  
dissociation    dehumanize    independent    rehabilitation    interaction  
discrimination    deindividuation    individual    regression    interpretation  
displacement    deinstitutionalize    inductive    reaction    interpersonal

**F** Complete each sentence with a word from box b. Change the form if necessary.

- 1 Traumatic events can lead to a sense of unreality or \_\_\_\_\_.
- 2 When people gather in large groups, they may experience \_\_\_\_\_, losing their sense of individual identity.
- 3 \_\_\_\_\_ to an early stage of development can be a reaction to stress.
- 4 Constructivism is a theory that people build their knowledge through social \_\_\_\_\_.
- 5 It is illegal to \_\_\_\_\_ against individuals on the grounds that they are disabled.
- 6 People addicted to drugs or alcohol may need a period of \_\_\_\_\_ to recover.



3 I see myself as someone who ...

- |   | Strongly disagree  | Strongly agree |
|---|--|----------------|
| 1. ... is talkative                           | <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> |                |
| 2. ... tends to find fault with others        | <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> |                |
| 3. ... does a thorough job                    | <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> |                |
| 4. ... is depressed, blue                     | <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> |                |
| 5. ... is original, comes up with new ideas   | <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> |                |
| 6. ... is helpful and unselfish with others   | <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> |                |
| 7. ... can be somewhat careless               | <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> |                |
| 8. ... is relaxed, handles stress well        | <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> |                |
| 9. ... is curious about many different things | <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> |                |
| 10. ... is full of energy                     | <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> |                |
| 11. ... starts quarrels with others           | <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> |                |
| 12. ... is a reliable worker                  | <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> |                |

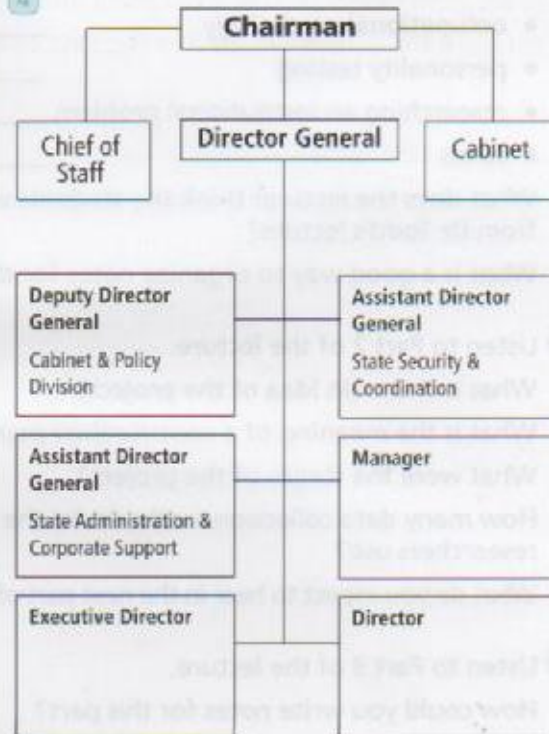
Source: Big Five Inventory © 2000 by UC Berkeley psychologist Oliver B. John, Ph.D.

5 Given below are a number of statements which characterize a variety of jobs. Indicate the extent to which each statement applies to your job by circling one of the answers given opposite each statement.

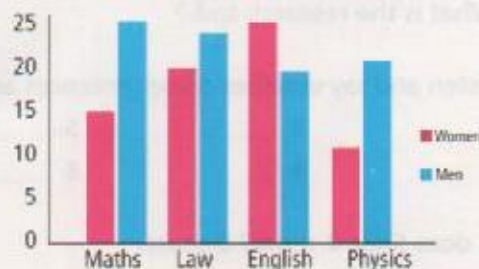
	Not at all true	Somewhat true	Completely true
1. I am satisfied with my job.	1	2	3
2. I have freedom to carry out the job the way I want to.	1	2	3
3. I get regular feedback on how well I am doing in the job.	1	2	3
4. My job is a significant or important one.	1	2	3
5. My workplace conditions (e.g. space, light and noise) are satisfactory.	1	2	3
6. I am quite clear about what I am required to do on the job.	1	2	3
7. I am overworked.	1	2	3
8. I am expected to do too much in too little time.	1	2	3
9. I have a secure job.	1	2	3
10. There are not enough promotion opportunities in the job.	1	2	3
11. I have achieved or I will achieve the level of position I had hoped to achieve.	1	2	3
12. Politics rather than performance determine who gets promoted or who gets ahead in my unit/department.	1	2	3
13. I have little chance or scope for contributing to decision making in my unit/department.	1	2	3
14. The head of my unit/department or my supervisor is unreasonable in her/his attitudes towards me.	1	2	3
15. People who work under me or with me are unreasonable in their attitude towards me.	1	2	3
16. I am unhappy with the way other people treat me on the job.	1	2	3
17. I get along well with my co-workers.	1	2	3
18. I have all the necessary equipment and/or infrastructure support at work.	1	2	3
19. I am not clear how the recent reorganization in the university will affect me.	1	2	3
20. I am a failure at my job.	1	2	3
21. Recent events in the university e.g. amalgamation have led to too many changes in too short a time.	1	2	3

Source: Dea, Judith K., *Journal of Educational Administration*, 22, 1, 59-78 © Emerald Group Publishing Limited all rights reserved.

4



6 Percentage of men and women in senior positions at Hadford University in 2009





## 3.2 Listening

preparing for a lecture • predicting lecture content • making notes

- A** Study the slides from a lecture about occupational psychology in practice.
- 1 What do you expect to learn in this lecture? Make a list of points.
  - 2 Check the pronunciation of the words in the diagrams with other students or with a dictionary.
  - 3 Write down other key words you expect to hear.
  - 4 How are you going to prepare for this lecture?

- B** Listen to Part 1 of the lecture.
- 1 What exactly is the lecturer going to talk about? Tick the topic(s) you heard.
    - occupational psychology \_\_\_\_\_
    - personality testing \_\_\_\_\_
    - researching an institutional problem \_\_\_\_\_
    - stress \_\_\_\_\_
  - 2 What does the lecturer think the students will gain from Dr Todd's lecture?
  - 3 What is a good way to organize notes for this lecture?

- C** Listen to Part 2 of the lecture.
- 1 What is the main idea of the project?
  - 2 What is the meaning of a *constructivist point of view*?
  - 3 What were the stages of the project?
  - 4 How many data collection methods did the researchers use?
  - 5 What do you expect to hear in the next part of the lecture?

- D** Listen to Part 3 of the lecture.
- 1 How could you write notes for this part?
  - 2 What are the key words and definitions?

- E** Listen to Part 4 of the lecture.
- 1 Check your definitions.
  - 2 What is the research task?

- F** Listen and say whether these sentences are true or false.
- |         |         |         |
|---------|---------|---------|
| 1 _____ | 3 _____ | 5 _____ |
| 2 _____ | 4 _____ | 6 _____ |

- G** What does Slide 2 show? Discuss:
- 1 the chart itself
  - 2 the differences between departments
  - 3 the reasons why you think this is the case

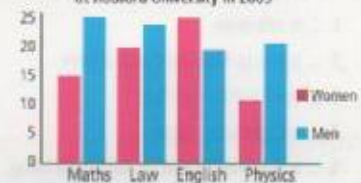


HADFORD University

### Faculty: Psychology

- 1**
- occupational psychology
  - professional roles
  - project – professional status of female staff at a university

**2** Percentage of men and women in senior positions at Hadford University in 2009



- 3**
- #### Psychometric Test
- Tick your responses in the box on the right of each statement.
- |  | Yes                      | No                       |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I work best in a group.                                     | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. My friends think I'm moody.                                 | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. I like my office to be tidy.                                | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. I enjoy making decisions.                                   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. When I meet new people, I usually trust them.               | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. I enjoy going on outings with large groups.                 | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 7. I welcome responsibility at work.                           | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 8. Making mistakes doesn't worry me. It's a good way to learn. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

- 4**
- #### Interview Schedule
- Questions about the candidate's personality
1. Tell me something about yourself.
  2. Tell me about your three greatest strengths.
  3. What do people most admire about you?
  4. What do you think is your greatest weakness?
  5. What do other people criticize about you?
  6. How would you describe your pace at work?
  7. Describe a situation when you have taken work home with you.
  8. Do you like working independently or in a team?
  9. Give some examples of when you have worked in a team.
  10. Describe a difficult situation at work and tell me how you dealt with it.
  11. What motivates you?
  12. Where do you see yourself in five years' time?

## 3.3 Extending skills

stress within words • using information sources • reporting research findings

**A** Listen to some stressed syllables. Identify the word below in each case. Number each word.

**Example:**

You hear: /prəʊ/ You write:

antidepressants	—	disorder	—	psychiatrist	—
anxiety	—	environmental	—	psychoanalyst	—
approach	/	medication	—	reinterpret	—
biomedical	—	multicausal	—	schizophrenia	—
depression	—	phobia	—	therapist	—
diagnosis	—	practitioner	—	treatment	—

**B** Where is the stress in each multi-syllable word in Exercise A?

- 1 Mark the main stress.
- 2 Practise saying each word.

**C** Work in pairs or groups. Define one of the words in Exercise A. The other student(s) must find and say the correct word.

**D** Look at pictures 1–6.

- 1 What is the situation or creature in each picture which frightens people?
- 2 Name the phobia associated with each picture.

Fear of	Phobia
spiders	arachnophobia

- 3 Now look at picture 7. What are the causes of depression?

**E** Before you attend a lecture you should do some research.

- 1 How could you research the lecture topics on the right?
- 2 What information should you record?
- 3 How could you record the information?

**F** You are going to do some research on a particular lecture topic. You must find:

- 1 a dictionary definition
- 2 an encyclopedia explanation
- 3 a useful Internet site



HADFORD University

### Faculty: Psychology

- 1 What are the most common phobias?
- 2 What are the causes of bipolar disorder?
- 3 How can depression be treated?
- 4 Is stress always bad?

**Student A**





- Do some research on **phobias**.
- Tell your partner about your findings.

**Student B**

- Do some research on **depression**.
- Tell your partner about your findings.

### 3.4 Extending skills

asking for information • reporting information

- A** You are going to listen to a continuation of the lecture in Lesson 3.2.
- 1 Make a list of points from that lecture.
  - 2 What is the lecturer going to talk about today? (Clue: Lesson 3.2 research task)
  - 3  Listen to the end of the last lecture again and check your ideas.
- B** Look at the slides for today's lecture on the opposite page.
- 1 What is shown in Slides 1 and 2?
  - 2 How are these two slides linked?
- C**  Listen to Part 1 of the lecture and check your ideas.
- 1 The lecturer will mention the four most common mental disorders she treats. What are they?
  - 2 What other mental illnesses does she mention?
  - 3 What is a good way to make notes for this lecture? Prepare a page in your notebook.
- D**  Listen to Part 2 of the lecture. Make notes and complete the chart in Slide 2.
- E** How will the lecturer finish the lecture?
- 1  Listen to the beginning of Part 3 and check your ideas.
  - 2 Now listen to the rest of the lecture. Make notes. If necessary, ask other students for information.
- F** Imagine you had to report this lecture to a student who was absent.
- 1 Study the transcripts on pages 118–119. Find and underline or highlight key sections of the lecture.
  - 2 Find and underline key sentences from the lecture.
  - 3 Make sure you can say the sentences with good pronunciation.
  - 4 Compare your ideas in groups.
- G** Match the words and definitions.
- |               |                                     |  |
|---------------|-------------------------------------|--|
| 1 reassess    | <input type="checkbox"/>            | a to give medical care to someone  |
| 2 adopt       | <input type="checkbox"/>            | b to understand in a different way   |
| 3 diagnose    | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | c to tell someone to take a particular medicine or have a particular treatment |
| 4 reinterpret | <input type="checkbox"/>            | d to consider something has a specific cause                                   |
| 5 attribute   | <input type="checkbox"/>            | e remember   |
| 6 recall      | <input type="checkbox"/>            | f identify the cause of an illness or problem                                  |
| 7 prescribe   | <input type="checkbox"/>            | g evaluate again   |
| 8 treat       | <input type="checkbox"/>            | h act according to (a plan or principle)                                       |
- H** You belong to a team of psychologists who want to study the effect of electronic games on the mental health of teenagers. To set up your study you need to:
- 1 identify the mental disorders that can result from the misuse of electronic games.
  - 2 identify the model(s) of the causes of mental disorders that would be relevant to this study.
  - 3 identify possible treatments for the disorders you have identified.

## MODELS OF THE CAUSES OF MENTAL DISORDERS

- biomedical
- psychodynamic
- socio-cognitive
- multicausal

Slide 1

Causal model	Description	Example	Treatment
	repressed childhood memories and emotions	• phobias	• psychoanalysis
	neurological malfunction genetically inherited	• schizophrenia • bipolar disorder • depression	• medication
	combination of neurological, genetic, cognitive and environmental factors		
	faulty beliefs about self, responses to life events and personal relationships	• low self-esteem • depression • stress	• cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT)

Slide 2

### Stress within words

Nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs are called **content words** because they carry the meaning.

#### One-syllable words

Some content words have **one syllable** or sound. This is always stressed.

Examples:

'stress, 'treat, 'mood, 'trait

#### Two-syllable words

Some content words have **two syllables**. Two-syllable nouns and adjectives are often stressed on the first syllable. Two-syllable verbs are often stressed on the second syllable.

Examples:

Nouns	'data, 'treatment, 'childhood
Adjectives	'faulty, 'causal, 'major
Verbs	re'call, re'act, pre'scribe

Exceptions:

Nouns	e'ffect, su'pport
Adjectives	de'pressed, dis'tressed
Verbs	'structure, 'focus

#### Multi-syllable words

Some content words have **three or more syllables**. Multi-syllable words are normally stressed three syllables from the end.

Examples:

Ooo oOoo ooOoo

This is true for most words ending in:

-ize/-ise	'organize, 'theorize
-sis	a'nalysis
-ate	'formulate, dis'criminate
-ify	'classify, 'qualify
-ical	psycho'logical, 'clinical
-ity	person'ality
-ular	par'ticular, 'regular
-al	in'dustrial, occu'pational
-ology	psy'chology
-cy	'policy

Exceptions:

Multi-syllable words ending in the following letters are normally stressed two syllables from the end.

-ic	dia'gnostic, psycho'metric
-tion	occu'pation, pro'motion, con'dition
-ent	re'present, e'fficient
-tial	po'tential, influ'ential

Stress sometimes moves to fit the patterns above when you add a suffix.

## Skills bank

**Getting information from other people****From the lecturer**

We can sometimes ask a lecturer questions at the end of a lecture. Introduce each question in a polite or tentative way.

Examples:

*Could you go over the bit about cognitive behavioural therapy again?*

*I didn't quite understand what you said about bipolar disorder.*

*I wonder if you could repeat the name of Freud's theory of personality.*

*Would you mind giving the source of that quotation again?*

**From other students**

It is a good idea to ask other students after a lecture for information to complete your notes.

Examples:

*What did the lecturer say about depression?*

*Why did he talk about equality and diversity?*

*I didn't get the bit about biomedical theories.*

**Be polite!**

In some situations, it can sound impolite to ask people a direct question. We may add a polite introduction.

Examples:

*Is bipolar disorder genetically inherited?*

→ *Do you know if bipolar disorder is genetically inherited?*

*What does 'psychodynamic' mean?*

→ *Can you remember what 'psychodynamic' means?*

*What is a causal model?*

→ *Could you tell me what a causal model is?*

**Reporting information to other people**

We often have to report research findings to a tutor or other students in a seminar.

Make sure you can give:

- sources – books, articles, writers, publication dates
- quotes – in the writer's own words
- summary findings – in your own words

# 4 PSYCHOLOGY AND COMPUTERS

## 4.1 Vocabulary

computer jargon • abbreviations and acronyms • verb and noun suffixes

**A** Study the words and phrases in box a.

- 1 Which words or phrases relate to computers and the Internet? Which relate to books and libraries? Find two groups of words.
- 2 Find pairs of words and phrases with similar meanings, one from each group.
- 3 Check your ideas with the first part of *The Computer Jargon Buster* on the opposite page.

**B** Complete the instructions for using the Learning Resource Centre with words or phrases from box a.

**C** Study the abbreviations and acronyms in box b.

- 1 How do you say each one?
- 2 Divide them into two groups:
  - abbreviations
  - acronyms

Explain your choices. See *Vocabulary bank*.

**b**  
CAL CT DVD HTML  
HTTP ISP LCD PDP PIN  
ROM URL USB  
WAN WWW

**D** Test each other on the items in Exercise C.

- 1 What do the letters stand for in each case?
- 2 What do they mean?
- 3 Check your ideas with the second part of *The Computer Jargon Buster* on the opposite page.

**E** Study the nouns in box c.

- 1 Make a verb from each noun.
- 2 Make another noun from the verb.

**a**  
books browse/search catalogue close  
cross-reference database electronic resources  
exit/log off hyperlink index library  
log in/log on look up menu open page  
search engine table of contents  
web page World Wide Web



HADFORD University

### Learning Resource Centre

Instructions for use:

If you want to access web pages on the \_\_\_\_\_, you must first \_\_\_\_\_ to the university

Intranet with your username and password. You can use any \_\_\_\_\_, but the default is Google. \_\_\_\_\_

for web pages by typing one or more keywords in the search box and clicking on *Search* or pressing *Enter*. When the results appear, click on a \_\_\_\_\_ (highlighted in blue) to go to the web page. Click on *Back* to return to the results listing.

You can also use the university \_\_\_\_\_ of learning resources. Click on *Psychological Resources* on the main \_\_\_\_\_.

**c**  
class computer digit  
identity machine

# The Computer Jargon Buster

There are many common words used about books and libraries which are translated into jargon words when we talk about using computers and the Internet for similar functions

books	electronic resources
index	search engine
cross-reference	hyperlink
catalogue	database
library	World Wide Web
table of contents	menu
look up	browse/search
page	web page
open	log in/log on
close	exit/log off

There are many abbreviations and acronyms in computing. Learn some useful ones.

Abbr./Acr.	What it stands for	What it means
<b>CAL</b>	<b>computer-assisted learning</b>	using computers to help you learn
<b>CT</b>	<b>computerized tomography</b>	a method of examining the human brain through a series of X-rays taken from different angles
<b>DVD</b>	<b>digital versatile disk</b>	a disk for storing data, including sound and pictures
<b>HTML</b>	<b>hypertext markup language</b>	a way to write documents so they can be displayed
<b>HTTP</b>	<b>hypertext transfer protocol</b>	a set of rules for transferring files on the WWW, usually included at the beginning of a website address (e.g., <a href="http://www">http://www</a> .)
<b>ISP</b>	<b>Internet service provider</b>	a company that enables access to the Internet
<b>LCD</b>	<b>liquid crystal display</b>	the kind of screen you get on many laptops
<b>PDP</b>	<b>parallel distributed processing</b>	a model of mental processing in which individual conceptual representations relate to the complete network rather than to each other individually
<b>PIN</b>	<b>personal identification number</b>	a collection of numbers or letters which are used like a password to identify someone
<b>ROM</b>	<b>read-only memory</b>	a type of permanent computer or disk memory that stores information that can be read or used but not changed
<b>URL</b>	<b>uniform resource locator</b>	a website address, e.g., <a href="http://www.garneteducation.com">http://www.garneteducation.com</a>
<b>USB</b>	<b>universal serial bus</b>	a standard way to connect things like printers and scanners to a computer
<b>WAN</b>	<b>wide area network</b>	a way of connecting computers in different places, often very far apart
<b>WWW</b>	<b>World Wide Web</b>	a huge collection of documents that are connected by hypertext links and can be accessed through the Internet



**A** Discuss these questions.

- 1 How are computers used in psychology today?
- 2 How has their use in psychology changed in the last 50 years?
- 3 How can computers help to diagnose and treat mental disorders?

**B** Look at the title of the text on the opposite page.

- 1 What will the text be about?
- 2 How did psychology affect computer programming in the 20<sup>th</sup> century?
- 3 Write some questions that you would like the text to answer.

**C** Work in pairs. Look at Figures 1 and 2. What do they show?**D** One student wrote some ideas about psychology and computers before reading the text on the opposite page. Write **A** (I agree), **D** (I disagree) or **?** (I'm not sure) next to the ideas about computers and psychology in the 20<sup>th</sup> and 21<sup>st</sup> centuries on the right.**E** Look carefully at the topic sentences in the text on the opposite page.

- 1 What is the structure of this text? Choose Structure A or B on the right.
- 2 What do you think each paragraph will be about?

**F** Read the text carefully. Were your questions from Exercise B answered?**G** Answer these questions.

- 1 What are Gestalt principles?
- 2 How can virtual reality be used to treat anxiety?
- 3 What are the advantages and disadvantages of video games?

**H** Topics sometimes develop inside a paragraph.

- 1 Does the topic develop in each paragraph in the text? If so, underline the word or words which introduce the change.
- 2 What is the effect of the word or words on the development of the topics.

See **Skills bank**.

Computer programs originally developed from research into psychology. —

The problem-solving process is the same for people as for computers. —

Computers are useful in the diagnosis of most mental disorders. —

Computers can also be useful for treating some mental disorders. —

Virtual environments are dangerous because they encourage people to experiment with new personalities. —

Video games are addictive. —

Online counselling is not as effective as face-to-face sessions. —

Computers will be used in psychology to a greater extent in the future. —

**Structure A**

Para 1	Introduction
Para 2	Cognitive models
Para 3	CT, PET for diagnosis and treatment of mental disorders
Para 4	Virtual reality, CMC and psychology
Para 5	Conclusion

**Structure B**

Para 1	Computers in psychology in the 20 <sup>th</sup> century
Para 2	Computers in psychology in the 21 <sup>st</sup> century
Para 3	PET scans
Para 4	Social networks
Para 5	Future of virtual reality

## Computers and psychology in the 20<sup>th</sup> and 21<sup>st</sup> centuries

Computers and psychology are related in many different ways. For example, they are related when it comes to the development of cognitive models of thought processes, the use of computers in the diagnosis and treatment of mental disorders, and the evolution of virtual reality.

One area in which psychology and computing are linked is through the development of cognitive models of mental processes. As far back as 1935, the Gestalt psychologist, Koffka, established the principle that the brain will solve perceptual problems by reorganizing original data and restructuring it to produce a new understanding or 'insight' (Gross, 2007). Since then, Gestalt principles have laid the foundations for information processing models for thought processes, now used in problem-solving computer programs. Since the cognitive revolution in the 1950s – when researchers in the field of linguistics and psychology began to adopt the analytical approaches suggested by recent developments in computer science – psychology has been linked directly to computing through the 'computer analogy' which draws a parallel between logical reasoning in humans and digital programming in computers. More recently, research into how the human memory works has produced network models, such as 'parallel distributed processing' (PDP), which are also applicable to computer programming design.



Figure 1

Increasingly, with computer imaging programs and computer-generated virtual environments, computers are used both to diagnose and treat mental disorders. Early studies of the brain tended to be invasive, but, fortunately, developments in computer programming have increased the use of non-invasive methods. Computerized tomography (CT), or computerized axial tomography (CAT), is used to diagnose brain damage and disease. It works by taking a series of X-rays of the brain from different angles. The computer then converts these images into a 'picture' of the brain. Since the 1990s, a more accurate way of diagnosing brain injury has been available. Positron emission tomography (PET) uses radiation instead of X-rays to supply information about the brain. A more sophisticated version of PET is SPECT (single-photon/positron emission computerized tomography), which allows the clinical psychologist to focus on abnormalities in very small areas of the brain. An interesting development in the use of computers for the treatment of mental disorders is in cognitive behavioural therapy. During treatment for anxiety,

patients are exposed to virtual reality scenarios, which represent anxiety-producing situations that gradually help patients overcome their fears.

Less scientific applications of virtual reality, such as online games and computer-generated artificial worlds, have expanded the boundaries of social interaction and concepts of personality. At the same time, computer-mediated communication (CMC) in the form of instant messaging has added a new dimension to traditional counselling methods. The creation of virtual environments has encouraged computer users to experiment with alternative aspects of their personalities and interact with other virtual characters in often atypical ways. That is to say, people who would be shy and uncommunicative in their everyday life feel that they can try out new personalities and ways of relating to others online. On the positive side, online games can develop problem-solving skills, hand-eye coordination, creativity and novel ways of relating to others. On the other hand, it must be said that there is a danger that excessive online gaming can lead to addiction, losing touch with reality and violent behaviour. More widely used forms of online communication, such as chat rooms, discussion forums and social networking communities, however, are being effectively used for counselling and therapy, particularly in cases where face-to-face sessions are impractical for reasons of time or location.

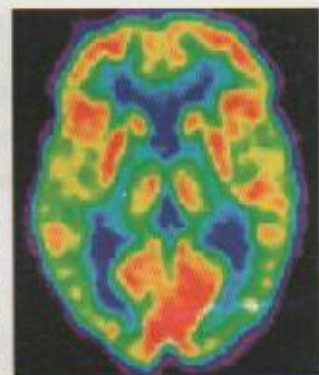


Figure 2

Psychology and computers have been highly important to each other since the late 1950s. These days, computers are often used in the diagnosis of brain damage and mental illness, while online communities offer alternative ways of communicating and relating. In the future, the two sciences are likely to be increasingly interconnected, as technological advances enhance our understanding of the brain and generate new treatments for mental disorders.

### 4.3 Extending skills

using the Internet effectively

**A** Discuss these questions.

- 1 You want to find out about virtual reality in psychology now. Where would you look for the information? Why?
- 2 What keywords would you use to make this search? Why?

**B** Your search produces 50 results. How can you select the most useful ones without reading all of them? Look at the list of criteria on the right and put a tick or 'x'.

**C** You want to research the following. Choose up to three keywords or phrases for each search.

- 1 What are the advantages of online counselling?
- 2 How does computerized tomography produce images?
- 3 Which are the most popular social networking sites?

**D** Go to a computer and try out your chosen keywords.

#### Criteria for choosing to read a result

- It contains all of my keywords. \_\_\_\_\_
- The document comes from a journal. \_\_\_\_\_
- It is in the first ten. \_\_\_\_\_
- It has this year's date. \_\_\_\_\_
- It is a large document. \_\_\_\_\_
- The website address ends in .org \_\_\_\_\_
- The website address ends in .edu \_\_\_\_\_
- The website address contains .ac \_\_\_\_\_
- It is a PDF file. \_\_\_\_\_
- It refers to psychology. \_\_\_\_\_
- It refers to a person I don't know. \_\_\_\_\_
- It refers to an organization I know (of). \_\_\_\_\_

### 4.4 Extending skills

analyzing Internet search results • reporting research findings

**A** What information is contained in the results listings of a search engine?

- 1 Make a list.
- 2 Check with the results listings on the opposite page.

**B** Scan the results listings. Answer these questions.

- 1 What keywords were entered?
- 2 Why was *journal* used as a keyword? Why is it not in inverted commas?

**C** Answer these questions.

- 1 Which results contain abbreviations or acronyms?
- 2 Where is each website address?
- 3 Where is the size of each document?
- 4 Which documents have dates?
- 5 Why are the words in different colours?
- 6 Which results have all the keywords?
- 7 Which results refer to journals?
- 8 Which results come from educational sites?
- 9 Which results come from commercial sites?
- 10 What does *cached* mean?

**D** Continue your research on virtual reality in psychology by entering the keywords into a search engine and accessing three of the results.

- 1 Make notes.
- 2 Compare your findings with other students.

**E** Choose the most interesting result. Write a paragraph about the information you discovered. Develop the topic within the paragraph with discourse markers and stance markers.

Google [Web](#) [Images](#) [Groups](#) [News](#) [Froogle](#) [Maps](#) [more »](#) [Sign in](#)

"virtual reality" + journal + psychology   [Advanced Search](#)  
[Preferences](#)

Web Results 1 - 9 of about 314 for "virtual reality" journal psychology. (0.29 seconds)

- 1 [The Virtual Reality and Ambient Intelligence Reference Site for ...](#)  
**Virtual Reality** in Rehabilitation. **Virtual Reality** in **Psychology**. ... New Journal: Journal of Cybertherapy and Rehabilitation: Open Call for Papers ...  
[www.cybertherapy.info/](http://www.cybertherapy.info/) - 5k - [Cached](#) - [Similar pages](#) - [Note this](#)
- 2 [UEL Psychology - Virtual Reality Research Team](#)  
School of **Psychology**. **Virtual Reality** Research Team. **Virtual reality** head ... International Journal of Therapy and Rehabilitation, 11 ...  
[www.uel.ac.uk/psychology/research/vr/index.htm](http://www.uel.ac.uk/psychology/research/vr/index.htm) - 22k - [Cached](#) - [Similar pages](#) - [Note this](#)
- 3 [Ed/ITLib Digital Library → Psychology student opinion of virtual ...](#)  
**Psychology** student opinion of **virtual reality** as a tool to educate about schizophrenia. International Journal on E-Learning. 3 (4), pp. 40-46 ...  
[www.editlib.org/index.cfm?fuseaction=Reader.ViewAbstract&paper\\_id=4555](http://www.editlib.org/index.cfm?fuseaction=Reader.ViewAbstract&paper_id=4555) - 25k - [Cached](#) - [Similar pages](#) - [Note this](#)  
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- 4 [A controlled study of virtual reality exposure the...\[J Consult ...](#)  
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[www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11142535](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11142535) - [Similar pages](#) - [Note this](#)  
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- 5 [Virtual reality study of paranoid thinking in the general ...](#)  
Department of **Psychology**, Institute of Psychiatry, King's College London ... **Virtual reality** and paranoia The British **Journal** of Psychiatry, July 1, 2008; ...  
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## Understanding abbreviations and acronyms

An **abbreviation** is a shorter version of something. For example, PC /pi:'si:/ is an abbreviation for *personal computer*.

An **acronym** is similar to an abbreviation, but it is pronounced as a word. For example, PET /pet/ is an acronym for *positron emission tomography*.

We normally write an abbreviation or acronym with **capital letters**, although the full words have lower case letters. However, there are exceptions, such as *www*, which is often written with lower case letters.

We **pronounce** the vowel letters in **abbreviations** in this way:

A	/eɪ/
E	/i:/
I	/ɒɪ/
O	/əʊ/
U	/ju:/

We normally **pronounce** the vowel letters in **acronyms** in this way:

A	/æ/
E	/e/
I	/ɪ/
O	/ɒ/
U	/ʌ/

## Common suffixes

### Suffixes for verbs

There are some common verb suffixes.

Examples:

Verb	
-ize*	<i>computerize, reorganize</i>
-(i)fy	<i>identify, modify,</i>
-ate	<i>communicate, generate, innovate</i>
-en	<i>threaten, widen</i>

When you learn a new noun or adjective, find out how you can make it into a verb.

### Suffixes for nouns

There are many suffixes for nouns. But verbs ending in *-ize*, *-ify* and *-ate* form nouns with *-ation*.

Examples:

Verb	Noun	
-ize*	-ization*	<i>computerization, reorganization</i>
-(i)fy	-ification	<i>identification, modification</i>
-ate	-ation	<i>communication, generation, innovation</i>

\* note that *-ise/isation* is also acceptable in British English.

## Developing ideas in a paragraph

### Introducing the topic

In a text, a **new paragraph** indicates the start of a **new topic**. The topic is given in the **topic sentence**, which is at or near the beginning of the paragraph. The topic sentence gives the **topic**, and also makes a **comment** about the topic.

#### Example:

*One area in which psychology and computing are linked is through the development of cognitive models of mental processes.*

The **topic** is *one area in which psychology and computing are linked*.

The **comment** is that *this is through the development of cognitive models*.

The sentences that follow then expand or explain the topic sentence.

#### Example:

*As far back as 1935, the Gestalt psychologist, Koffka, established the principle that the brain will solve perceptual problems by reorganizing original data and restructuring it to produce a new understanding or 'insight' (Gross, 2007).*

### Developing the topic

A paragraph is normally about the same basic topic (the 'unity' principle). However, within a paragraph, ideas often **develop** beyond the initial comment. This development is often shown by

- a **discourse marker**: *but, however, etc.*
- a **stance marker**: *unfortunately, etc.*

#### Examples:

*Since then, Gestalt principles have laid the foundations for information processing models for thought processes, now used in problem-solving computer programs.*

*An interesting development in the use of computers for the treatment of mental disorders is in cognitive behavioural therapy.*

**Discourse markers** generally make a connection between the previous information and what comes next. They mainly introduce **contrasts** or **additional information**.

**Stance markers** show the **attitude** of the writer to the information, i.e., whether he/she is surprised, pleased, unhappy, etc., about the information.

## Recording and reporting findings

When you do research, record information about the source. Refer to the source when you report your findings.

#### Examples:

Gross (2007) states that ...

As Triandis suggests in his 2002 article in the *Annual Review of Psychology*, ...

According to Kolb and Whishaw in their book *An Introduction to Brain and Behaviour* (2001), ...

As Lightbourn in the *Del Mar Village Voice* (January 5, 2007) comments, ...

You should give the full information about the source in your reference list or bibliography. For more information about this, see *Unit 10 Skills bank*.

# 5 DREAMS AND PERSONALITY

## 5.1 Vocabulary

word sets: synonyms, antonyms, etc. • describing trends

**A** Look at the photographs on the opposite page.

- 1 Who do they show?
- 2 What do you know about these people?

**B** Study the words in box a.

- 1 Find pairs of words with similar meanings.
- 2 What part of speech is each word?

a analyze approach aspect aware collective  
component compromise conscious drive interpret  
legend mediate method mysticism myth  
personality self spirituality universal urge

**C** Study the Hadford University handout on this page.

- 1 Find a word in box a to replace each blue word or phrase. Change the form if necessary.
- 2 Find another word in the handout for each of the red words.

**D** Look at pictures 1–6 on the opposite page.

- 1 What do they show?
- 2 Match each picture with a possible interpretation, using some words from the *Interpretation of dreams* box on the Hadford University handout.

**E** Read the following statements. Then rewrite them, replacing the underlined words with words and phrases from box b. Make any necessary changes.

b affect aware basic drive claim control  
folk tale interact with link significance  
unconscious universal urge

**Example:**

Many people do not understand the exact meaning of their dreams.

Many people are unaware of the significance of their dreams.

- 1 Both Freud and Jung believed that our conscious thoughts have less influence on our behaviour than our instincts.
- 2 According to Jung, we are not connected by our individual awareness.
- 3 The *id*, the *ego* and the *superego* do not act independently of each other.
- 4 The motives that drive our behaviour are not always conscious.
- 5 Many myth and legends are not limited to individual countries.



HADFORD University

### Faculty: Psychology

Lecture: Dreams and personality

Dreams are ...

- ... **interpreted** according to different theories of personality.

Freud and Jung ...

- ... agreed on the power of unconscious impulses.
- ... used different **approaches** to understanding personality structure.

Personality theories

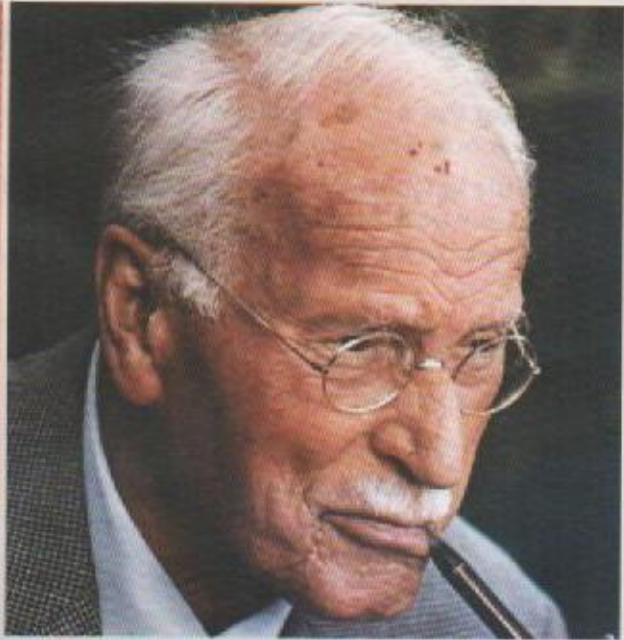
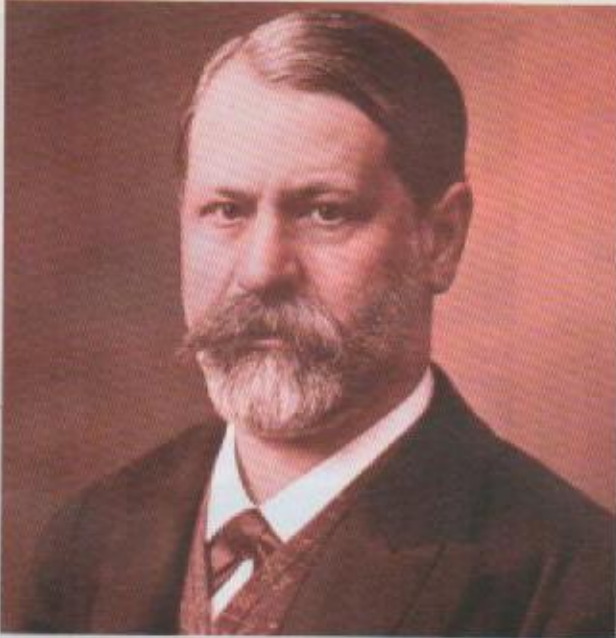
- Freud – psychodynamic interaction between three **aspects** of **personality**: *id*, *ego* and *superego*
- Jung – individual unconscious **connected to** **collective** unconscious
  - linked with **mysticism** and myths
  - universality of folk **legends**

Interpretation of dreams

- Freud – **interpretation** of dreams makes patients **aware** of unconscious **urges** from *id*
- *ego* **mediates** between *id* and social necessity
- Jung – analysis of dreams links the individual self with universal wisdom in collective unconscious

### Interpretation of dreams

aggression hatred anger  
hope anxiety loss of power  
fear love frustration optimism





## 5.2 Listening

lecture organization • 'signpost' language

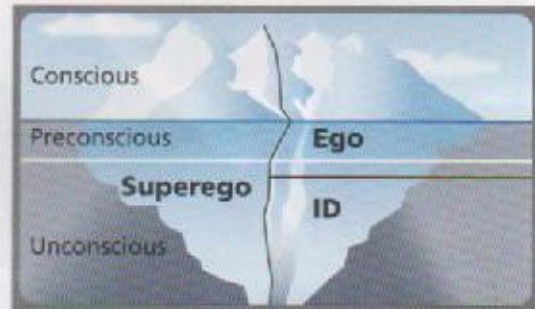
- A** You are going to hear a lecture about dreams and personality.
- 1 Look at the lecture slides. What will the lecturer talk about? Make a list of points.
  - 2 Use the language on the board to predict the structure of the lecture.  
Example: *To start with, the lecturer will introduce ...*



Slide 1

- B** Listen to Part 1 of the lecture. How will the lecture be organized? Number these topics.

- Freud's approach to dreams \_\_\_\_\_
- Jung's theory of personality \_\_\_\_\_
- role of Freudian and Jungian therapists \_\_\_\_\_
- Freud's theory of personality \_\_\_\_\_
- Jung's approach to dreams \_\_\_\_\_
- dreams and personality \_\_\_\_\_



Slide 2

- C** Study the topics in Exercise B.
- 1 Write some key words for each topic.
  - 2 Which topics can be matched with Slides 1–5?
  - 3 What is a good way to make notes?
  - 4 Make an outline for your notes.



Slide 3

- D** Listen to Part 2 of the lecture.
- 1 Add information to your outline notes.
  - 2 Which of the topics in Exercise B are discussed? In what order?
  - 3 What additional topic is mentioned?



Slide 4

- E** Listen to Part 3 of the lecture. Make notes.
- 1 Which topics in Exercise B are discussed?
  - 2 Which topic has not been mentioned?
  - 3 What is *free association*?
  - 4 What is a *mandala*?



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Slide 5

- F** The lecturer used these words and phrases. Match synonyms.

- |                 |                                     |                     |
|-----------------|-------------------------------------|---------------------|
| 1 talk about    | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | a underlying energy |
| 2 community     | <input type="checkbox"/>            | b claimed           |
| 3 ancient       | <input type="checkbox"/>            | c repressed         |
| 4 completeness  | <input type="checkbox"/>            | d primeval          |
| 5 driving force | <input type="checkbox"/>            | e society           |
| 6 maintained    | <input type="checkbox"/>            | f wholeness         |
| 7 unfulfilled   | <input type="checkbox"/>            | g discuss           |

## 5.3 Extending skills

note-taking symbols • stress within words • lecture language

**A** Look at the student notes on the right. They are from the lecture in Lesson 5.2.

- 1 What do the symbols and abbreviations mean?
- 2 The notes contain some mistakes. Find and correct them.
- 3 Make the corrected notes into a spidergram.

**B** Listen to the final part of the lecture.

- 1 Complete your notes.
- 2 Why does the lecture have to stop?
- 3 What is the research task?

**C** Listen to some stressed syllables. Identify the word below in each case. Number each word.

Example: You hear: / lu /lu:/

You write:

analyze	___	evolution	1	personality	___
assignment	___	mediate	___	primitive	___
behaviour	___	mysticism	___	psychodynamic	___
component	___	overview	___	seminar	___

**D** Study the extract from the lecture on the right.

- 1 Think of one word for each space.
- 2 Listen and check your ideas.
- 3 Match words or phrases from the blue box below with each word or phrase from the lecture.
- 4 Think of other words or phrases with similar meanings.

as I was saying about crucially especially  
in my opinion in other words  
it is my view that principally returning to  
significantly that is to say

**E** Discuss the research task set by the lecturer.

- 1 What kind of information should you find?
- 2 What do you already know?
- 3 Where can you find more information?

3) behv.  
(i) Frd. = uncon. = conflict ÷  
ego/superego  
(ii) Jng. = col.uncon. ↔ indiv.  
4) dreams  
(i) Frd. Cons. → uncon.  
(ii) ego & id → control

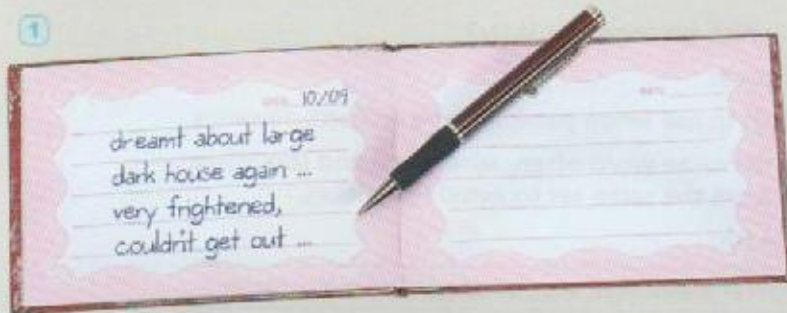
Erm ... where was I? Right, \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_ Jung. \_\_\_\_\_,  
Jung believed in the existence of a collective  
unconscious. \_\_\_\_\_,  
the unconscious accumulation of human  
experience throughout the evolution of the  
species. \_\_\_\_\_ his theory of the  
collective unconscious is really very  
interesting, \_\_\_\_\_ as it  
can branch out into myth and even mysticism.

## 5.4 Extending skills

making effective contributions to a seminar

- A** Study the images and the graph on the opposite page.
- 1 What do images 1–4 show?
  - 2 Where do you think the information in the graph has come from?
- B** Listen to some extracts from a seminar about research into dream content and interpretation.
- 1 What is wrong with the contribution of the last speaker in each case? Choose from the following:
    - It is irrelevant.
    - The student doesn't contribute anything to the discussion.
    - The student interrupts.
    - It is not polite.
    - The student doesn't explain the relevance.
  - 2 What exactly does the student say in each case?
  - 3 What should the student say or do in each case?
- C** Listen to some more extracts from the same seminar.
- 1 How does the second speaker make an effective contribution in each case? Choose from the following:  
He/she
    - brings the discussion back to the main point
    - brings in another speaker
    - asks for clarification
    - links when not sure the contribution is new
    - paraphrases to check understanding
    - gives specific examples to explain a point
    - links when not sure the contribution is relevant
    - disagrees politely with a previous speaker
    - links to a previous speaker
  - 2 What exactly does the student say in each case?
  - 3 What other ways do you know of saying the same things?
- D** Make a table of **Do's** (helpful ways) and **Don'ts** (unhelpful ways) of contributing to seminar discussions.
- | Do's                         | Don'ts                                 |
|------------------------------|--|
| ask politely for information | demand information from other students |
- E** Work in groups.
- 1 The teacher will ask you to look at the images and the graph on the opposite page.
  - 2 What kind of research do you think is represented in each of the images? What kind of research could be used to produce the graph? Explain why you think these methods were chosen.
  - 3 Conduct a seminar. One or two people should act as observers.
- F** Report to the class on your discussion and explain the strengths and weaknesses of each research method. Give reasons for your opinions.
- G** Work in groups of four. Each person should research and discuss one of the four main types of research. The teacher will give you a discussion task card with more instructions.
- Student A: find out about *secondary research* (information on page 103)
  - Student B: find out about *primary research* (information on page 103)
  - Student C: find out about *qualitative research* (information on page 104)
  - Student D: find out about *quantitative research* (information on page 104)

1



2



3



4



## Dream content by gender

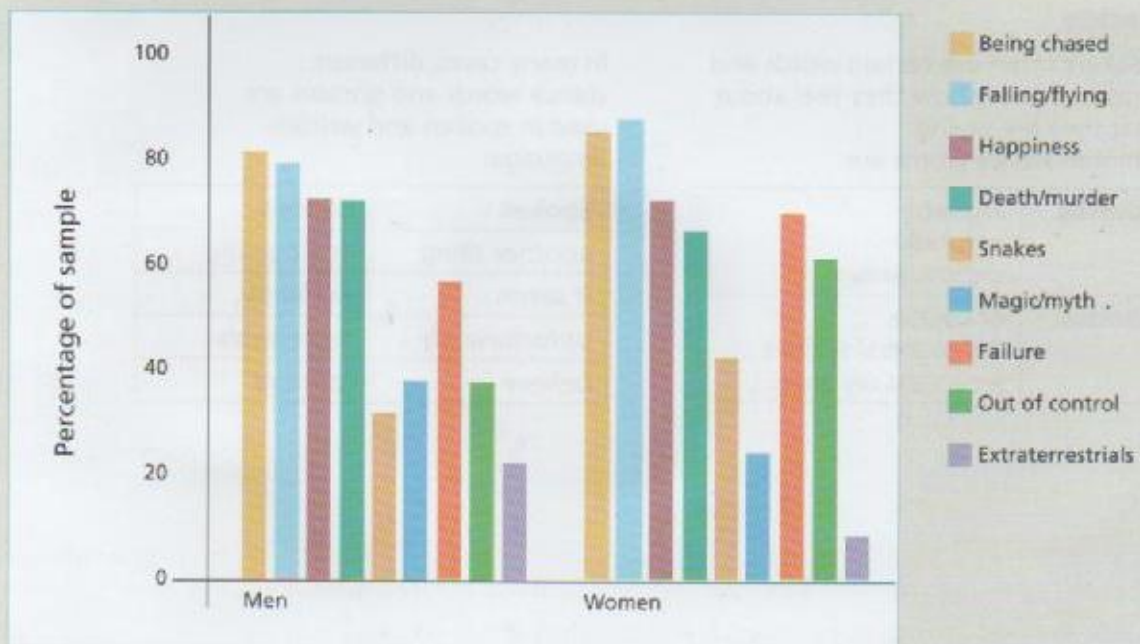


Figure 1: Dream content for young people aged 18–24, by gender

### Vocabulary sets

It is a good idea to learn words which go together. Why?

- It is easier to remember the words.
- You will have alternative words to use when paraphrasing research findings.
- It is not good style to repeat the same word often, so writers, and sometimes speakers, make use of words from the same set to avoid repetition.

You can create a vocabulary set with:

<b>synonyms</b>	words with similar meanings, e.g., <i>dreams/visions/fantasies</i>
<b>antonyms</b>	words with opposite meanings, e.g., <i>male/female</i>
<b>hypernyms</b>	a general word for a set of words, e.g., <i>doctor = physician, surgeon</i>
<b>linked words</b>	e.g., <i>young, teenage, in his/her 20s, middle-aged, old</i>

### Describing trends

You can use a variety of phrases to discuss trends and statistics.

Examples:

Go up	No change	Go down	Adverbs
<i>rise</i>	<i>stay the same</i>	<i>fall</i>	<i>slightly</i>
<i>increase</i>	<i>remain at ...</i>	<i>decrease</i>	<i>gradually</i>
<i>grow</i>	<i>doesn't change</i>	<i>decline</i>	<i>steadily</i>
<i>improve</i>	<i>is unchanged</i>	<i>worsen</i>	<i>significantly</i>
<i>soar</i>		<i>drop</i>	<i>sharply</i>
		<i>plunge</i>	<i>dramatically</i>
		<i>plummet</i>	

### Stance

Speakers often use certain words and phrases to show how they feel about what they are saying.

Common stance words are:

<b>adverbs</b>	<i>arguably</i> <i>naturally</i> <i>unfortunately</i>
<b>phrases</b>	<i>of course, ...</i> <i>it's essential to/that ...</i> <i>we might say that ...</i>

In many cases, different stance words and phrases are used in spoken and written language.

Spoken	Written
<i>another thing</i>	<i>additionally</i>
<i>it seems</i>	<i>evidently</i>
<i>unfortunately</i>	<i>regrettably</i>
<i>believe</i>	<i>contend</i>

## Skills bank

**Signpost language in a lecture**

At the beginning of a lecture, a speaker will usually outline the talk. To help listeners understand the order of topics, the speaker will use phrases such as:

*To start with, I'll talk about ...*

*Then I'll discuss ...*

*After that, we'll look at ...*

*I'll finish by giving a summary of ...*

During the lecture, the speaker may:

indicate a new topic	<i>Moving on (from this) ...</i>
say the same thing in a different way	<i>What I mean is, ... That is to say, ... To put it another way, ...</i>
return to the main point	<i>Where was I? Oh, yes. To return to the main point ... As I was saying ...</i>

**Seminar language**

The discussion leader may:

ask for information	<i>What did you learn about ...? Can you explain ...? Can you tell me a bit more about ...?</i>
ask for opinions	<i>What do you make of ...? This is interesting, isn't it?</i>
bring in other speakers	<i>What do you think, Majed? What's your opinion, Evie?</i>

Participants should:

be polite when disagreeing	<i>Actually, I don't quite agree ...</i>
make relevant contributions	<i>That reminds me ...</i>
give examples to explain a point	<i>I can give an example of that.</i>

Participants may:

agree with the previous speaker	<i>I agree, and that's why ... That's true, so I think ... You're absolutely right, which is why ...</i>
disagree with the previous speaker	<i>I don't think I agree with that. In my opinion, ... I'm not sure that's true. I think ...</i>
link to a previous speaker	<i>As Jack said earlier, ... Going back to what Leila said a while ago ...</i>
ask for clarification	<i>Could you say more about ...?</i>
paraphrase to check understanding	<i>So what you're saying is ...</i>
refer back to establish relevance	<i>Just going back to ...</i>

Participants may not be sure if a contribution is new or relevant:

*I'm sorry. Has anybody made the point that ...?*

*I don't know if this is relevant.*

# 6 VYGOTSKY AND PIAGET: THOUGHT AND LANGUAGE

## 6.1 Vocabulary

paraphrasing at sentence level

**A** Study the words in the blue box.

- 1 Copy and complete the table. Put the words in one or more boxes in each case.
- 2 Add affixes to make words for the empty boxes. (Some will not be possible.)
- 3 What is the special meaning of each word in psychology?
- 4 Find a synonym for each word.
- 5 Group the words in the blue box according to their stress pattern.

accommodate accumulate acquire  
cognitive construct cultural  
develop experiment mentor peer  
proximal schema stable zone

Noun	Verb	Adjective
accommodation	accommodate	

**B** Study the pictures on the opposite page. Discuss these questions using words from Exercise A.

- 1 Look at Picture 1 on the opposite page. What does the picture show? What do you know about cognitive development?
- 2 Look at Pictures 2 and 3. What concept does each diagram illustrate?
- 3 Look at Pictures 5 and 6. What do these learning situations have in common?

**C** Student A has written about the development of cognitive skills, but there are some mistakes. Change the blue words so that the sentences are true.

**D** Student B has also written about the development of cognitive skills. Match each sentence with a corrected sentence from Exercise C.

**E** Look at Pictures 1 and 4 on the opposite page.

- 1 Write a paragraph comparing the learning situations in these pictures.
- 2 Exchange your paragraph with your partner.
- 3 Rewrite your partner's sentences in your own words.

**F** Think about the advantages and disadvantages of learning in a group.

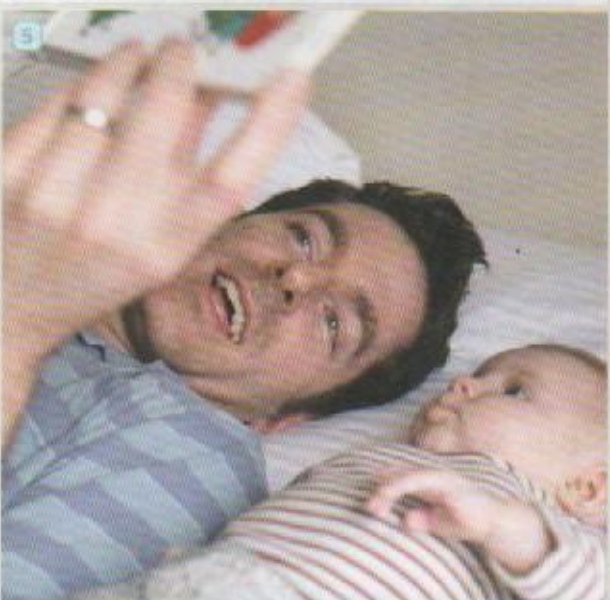
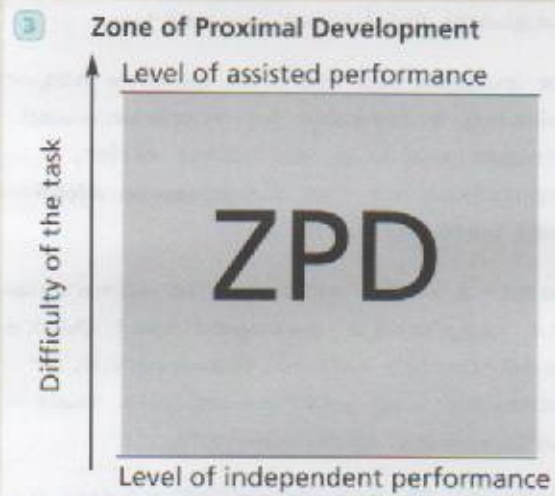
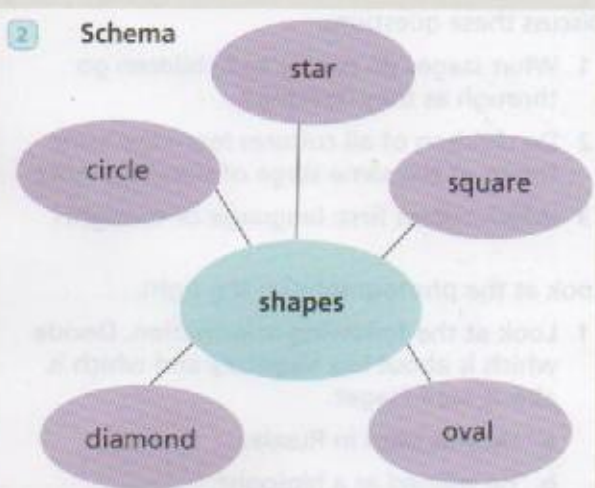
- 1 Make a list of the advantages and disadvantages of learning in a group. Write a short paragraph about them.
- 2 Write your paragraph again, using different words.

Student A

- 1 Cognitive skills are developed through imitation.
- 2 No social information is necessary for the development of linguistic skills.
- 3 Children need an apprentice to help them understand new ideas.
- 4 The human brain cannot make space for new information.
- 5 Children disperse knowledge by interacting with their environment.

Student B

- a Fresh knowledge causes the brain to adjust its cognitive structures.
- b By testing different theories, children gain a new understanding of their surroundings.
- c Trial and error is a means of evolving new thought processes.
- d Language is acquired in the context of a community.
- e A guide is an important part of children's learning processes.





**A** Discuss these questions.

- 1 What stages do babies and children go through as they develop?
- 2 Do children of all cultures learn the same things at the same stage of development?
- 3 Which comes first: language or thought?

**B** Look at the photographs on the right.

- 1 Look at the following information. Decide which is about Lev Vygotsky and which is about Jean Piaget.
  - a He was born in Russia.
  - b He trained as a biologist.
  - c He was born in Switzerland.
  - d He was a psychologist.
  - e He investigated the relationship between language and thought.
  - f He is famous for his research into cognitive development.
- 2 Exchange information with your partner.

**C** Look at the illustration, the title, the introduction and the first sentence of each paragraph on the opposite page. What will the text be about?**D** Using your ideas from Exercises A, B and C1, write some research questions.**E** Read the text. Does it answer your questions?**F** Study the highlighted sentences in the text. Find and underline the subject, verb and object or complement in each sentence. *See Skills bank.***G** Two students paraphrased part of the text.

- 1 Which part of the text are these paraphrases of?
- 2 Which paraphrase is better? Why?

**H** Work in groups. Write a paraphrase of a different part of the text. *See Vocabulary bank.*

## Student A

However, Piaget's model is based on an imaginary child living in isolation.

He suggested that all children acquired thinking processes at predetermined stages and in a particular order, regardless of the situation in which they were learning.

Piaget's model of cognitive maturation, like Vygotsky's, assumed that children would develop mental frameworks, or 'schemata', by interacting with their surroundings experimentally.

Basically, Piaget described children as 'scientists', always testing ideas and learning from the results.

## Student B

On the other hand, Piaget's model did not take the child's social context into consideration.

According to Piaget, children in all societies will master the same skills at fixed stages of development.

Both Piaget and Vygotsky believed that 'schemata' were created through a process of active engagement with the environment.

Children were viewed by Piaget as 'scientists', participating in a constant process of experimentation.

# Vygotsky and Piaget: thought and language



Both Vygotsky and Piaget made significant contributions to research into the development of thought and language. Although their models differed in several ways, their effect on teaching methods has been, in some respects, similar. This article will outline their approaches to cognitive development, highlight the main differences between their theories, and illustrate their influence on modern classroom practice.

Vygotsky's theory of cognitive development is based on the social constructivist approach, which proposes that both cognitive and linguistic skills are developed through social interaction. Language is an interface between people, allowing them to construct and negotiate meaning. Importantly, Vygotsky describes language as a *cultural tool*, a means of passing on the accumulated knowledge of a society from generation to generation.

According to Vygotsky, cognitive development is culturally determined, which means that children in some cultures will develop certain cognitive skills to a higher level than in others, depending on the importance of that particular skill to the culture. For example, children who are brought up in a society that values technology will learn to interpret icons on electronic equipment at a comparatively young age. In contrast, children in societies or domains such as the indigenous people of Australia, that value the ability to navigate a landscape by its geographical features, will develop the cognitive skills crucial to this particular ability. In other words, learning is *domain dependent*.

Vygotsky also suggested that cognitive development was dependent on the social interaction of the child with an experienced 'mentor', who would lead it from its actual stage of development to the next. Vygotsky used the term '*zone of proximal development*' to describe a situation in which a child receives support and guidance, known as '*scaffolding*', to master a new skill. Vygotsky considered language to be an essential element in this process.

In contrast to this approach, Piaget's model is based on an idealized child living in a social vacuum. He proposed that all children acquire cognitive skills at predetermined stages and in a specific order,

regardless of the context in which they are learning. Piaget's model of cognitive development, like Vygotsky's, assumes that children will develop mental structures, or schemata, by interacting experimentally with their physical environment. To put it simply, Piaget saw the child as a 'scientist', continually testing theories and learning from the results. According to Piaget, when actual knowledge, a current *schema*, is contradicted by new information, a state of 'disequilibrium' is created, and the enquiring mind tries to restore the balance by adapting the *schema* to accommodate the new information. Unlike Vygotsky, however, Piaget's paradigm largely ignores the importance of social interaction on the cognitive development of the child and, consequently, the role of language in this process.

It is important to recognize that both Piaget and Vygotsky have made major contributions to modern teaching methods. For instance, Piaget's focus on the stages of cognitive development, and Vygotsky's concept of *scaffolding* in the *zone of proximal development* have resulted in carefully structured curricula for pre-school and primary education, ensuring that children are given realistic learning goals and adequate support. Just as significantly, Vygotsky's emphasis on the importance of social interaction in language acquisition has had a profound effect on language teaching methods for both children and adults. A final example of the influence of both scientists on teaching approaches is the relatively recent development of peer teaching and collaborative learning methods. Piaget's theory suggests that listening to the opinions of other learners increases instances of *disequilibrium* and, consequently, learning. Vygotsky's model, on the other hand, encourages more advanced learners to teach less experienced learners through social interaction and language.

### 6.3 Extending skills

understanding complex sentences

**A** Study the words in box a from the text in Lesson 6.2.

- 1 What part of speech are they in the text?
- 2 Find one or more words in the text with a similar meaning to each word.

**B** Complete the summary on the right with words from Exercise A.

**C** Study the words in box b.

- 1 What is each base word and its meaning in psychology?
- 2 How does the affix change the part of speech?
- 3 What is the meaning in the text in Lesson 6.2?

**D** Study sentences A–E on the opposite page.

- 1 Copy and complete Table 1. Put the parts of each sentence in the correct box.
- 2 Rewrite the main part of each sentence, changing the verb from active to passive or vice versa.

**E** Look at the 'Other verbs' column in Table 1.

- 1 How are the clauses linked to the main part of the sentence?
- 2 In sentences A–D, what does each relative pronoun refer to?
- 3 Make the clauses into complete sentences.

a language model tool domain  
support structure major focus

Vygotsky's \_\_\_\_\_ of cognitive development suggests that \_\_\_\_\_ is a \_\_\_\_\_ for passing the traditions of a culture from one generation to the next. He saw cognition as \_\_\_\_\_ dependent. There is a \_\_\_\_\_ difference between Vygotsky and Piaget, whose \_\_\_\_\_ was more on the ability of the child to create a mental \_\_\_\_\_ through experimentation and without \_\_\_\_\_.

b social linguistic importantly  
generation scaffolding idealized  
predetermined scientist

### 6.4 Extending skills

writing complex sentences

**A** Make one sentence for each box on the right, using the method given in red. Include the words in blue. Write all the sentences as one paragraph.

**B** Study the notes on the opposite page, which a student made about a case study. Write up the case study. Include the ideas from Exercise A.

- 1 Divide the notes into sections to make suitable paragraphs. Where should the paragraph in Exercise A go?
- 2 Decide which ideas are suitable topic sentences for the paragraphs. Which idea can you use as a topic sentence for the paragraph in Exercise A?
- 3 Make full sentences from the notes, joining ideas where possible, to make one continuous text.

The labelling of colours across cultures has been investigated by research into linguistic relativity.

active For example

All cultures refer to a total of eleven 'focal' colours. These colours include black, white, red, green and yellow.

passive, participle It has established that

A 1995 study discovered that sometimes a language identifies only two colours by name. The colours are black and white.

Subject replacement, passive carried out in 1995

**A** Children may develop schemata through a process of experimentation, which continuously tests their theories about their environment.

**B** Language, which is a cultural tool, is used to transmit traditional values from the older members of society to the younger.

**C** School curricula have been influenced by Vygotsky and Piaget, whose theories of cognitive development led to collaborative learning methods.

**D** A learner, having already mastered a skill, can mentor another who is less advanced.

**E** New information, challenging our current concepts, creates a state of disequilibrium, which results in learning.

Table 1: Breaking a complex sentence into constituent parts

	Main S	Main V	Main O/C	Other V + S/O/C	Adv. phrases
A	children	may develop	schemata	which continuously test their theories about their environment	through a process of experimentation
B					

Language and thought

- Sapir & Whorf - 1929-1956 - linguistic relativity hypothesis (LRH) = theory = language defines thinking
- strong version = language controls mental categories + organizes experience → cannot understand concepts w/out lang.
- diff. cultures and languages = diff. words + diff. categories - lang. affect ways people perceive concepts
- BUT weak version of theory = language influences perception of objects → we can understand unknown concepts
- e.g. research into LRH looked at labelling colours across cultures
- // focal colours across cultures: incl. black, white, red, green + yellow
- 1995 research = some cultures hv. words for ONLY 2 colrs. = black and white
- Brown and Lennerberg (1954): experiment to test ability of 3 groups to differentiate btwn. colrs.
- Group A: monolingual (Lang. A) (1 word for yellow + orange)
- Group B: monolingual (Lang. B) (2 words, 1 for yellow, 1 for orange)
- Group C: bilingual (Lang. A + B)
- Group A - not differentiate / Group B - differentiate / Group C - sometimes differentiate
- conclusion: lang. affects ability to label concepts
- recent research wth. brain scans = easy-to-name colours produce stronger stimulus in areas of brain assoc. wth. lang.
- conclusion: colours with label in a lang. = easier to recognize
- ∴ language influences colour perception

### Reporting findings

You cannot use another writer's words unless you directly quote. Instead, you must restate or **paraphrase**.

There are several useful ways to do this:

use a synonym of a word or phrase	<i>model</i> → <i>paradigm</i> <i>have resulted in</i> → <i>have led to</i>
change negative to positive and vice versa	<i>their models differ</i> → <i>their models are not similar</i>
use a replacement subject	<i>cognitive development depends on the child's culture</i> → <i>the child's culture affects its cognitive development</i>
change from active to passive or vice versa	<i>Vygotsky believed that learning was domain dependent</i> → <i>learning was believed to be domain dependent</i>
change the order of information	<i>language acts as an interface between individuals</i> → <i>people use language to communicate</i>

When reporting findings from one source, you should use all the methods above.

**Example:**

<b>Original text</b>	<i>Vygotsky's model, on the other hand, encourages more advanced learners to teach less experienced learners through social interaction and language.</i>
<b>Report</b>	<i>However, according to Vygotsky's paradigm, novices can be taught through discussion by more skilled students.</i>

### Important

When paraphrasing, you should aim to make sure that 90% of the words you use are different from the original. It is not enough to change only a few vocabulary items: this will result in plagiarism. A paraphrase should only be used in conjunction with a clear acknowledgement of the source.

**Example:**

<b>Original text</b>	<i>A final example of the influence of both scientists on teaching approaches is the relatively recent development of peer teaching and collaborative learning methods.</i>
<b>Plagiarism</b>	<i>A final example of the effect of both scientists on teaching methods is the relatively new development of peer teaching and collaborative learning.</i>

## Skills bank

**Finding the main information**

Sentences in academic and technical texts are often very long.

**Example:**

According to Vygotsky, *cognitive development is culturally determined*, which means that *children in some cultures will develop certain cognitive skills to a higher level than in others, depending on the importance of that particular skill to the culture.*

You often don't have to understand every word, but you must **identify the subject, the verb and the object**, if there is one.

For example, in the sentence above, we find:

<b>subject</b> = <i>cognitive development</i>	<b>subject</b> = <i>children</i>
<b>verb</b> = <i>is determined</i>	<b>verb</b> = <i>will develop</i>
<b>object</b> = <i>none</i>	<b>object</b> = <i>cognitive skills</i>

**Remember!**

You can remove any leading prepositional phrases at this point to help you find the subject, e.g., *According to Vygotsky, ...*

You must then find **the main words which modify** the subject, the verb and the object or complement.

In the sentence above, we find:

**Which cognitive development?** = determined

**How determined?** = culturally

**What children?** = in some cultures

**How develop?** = to a higher level than in others

**Which cognitive skills?** = certain

**Ellipsis**

Sometimes, if the meaning is clear, words are implied rather than actually given in the text.

**Examples:**

*... will develop the cognitive skills (which are) crucial to this ability.*

*He proposed that all children acquired cognitive skills at predetermined stages and (acquired them) in a specific order.*

# 7 MEMORY

## 7.1 Vocabulary

compound nouns • fixed phrases

**A** Study the words in box a.

- Match nouns in column 1 with nouns in column 2 to make compound nouns.
- Which word in each phrase has the strongest stress?

1	2
brain information	association bank
learning	capacity disability
maintenance	memory rehearsal
memory storage	retrieval tissue
word working	

**B** Study the phrases in box b.

- Complete each phrase with one word.
- Is each phrase normally followed by:
  - a noun (including gerund)?
  - subject + verb?
  - an infinitive?
- What is each phrase used for?

as shown ...	as well ...	in addition ...
in order ...	in such a way ...	in the case ...
known ...	the end ...	the use ...

**C** Look at the pictures on the opposite page showing the process of transferring experience into long-term memory. What happens at each stage?

**D** Read extracts A–F on the right. They are from a leaflet about memory.

- Match each extract with a picture on the opposite page.
- Complete each sentence with one or more phrases from box b.

**E** Look at the flow chart on the opposite page. What process does it show?

**F** Read the text under the flow chart.

- Complete the description using phrases from box c.
- Which sentence describes each part of the chart?
- Which part of the chart isn't mentioned?

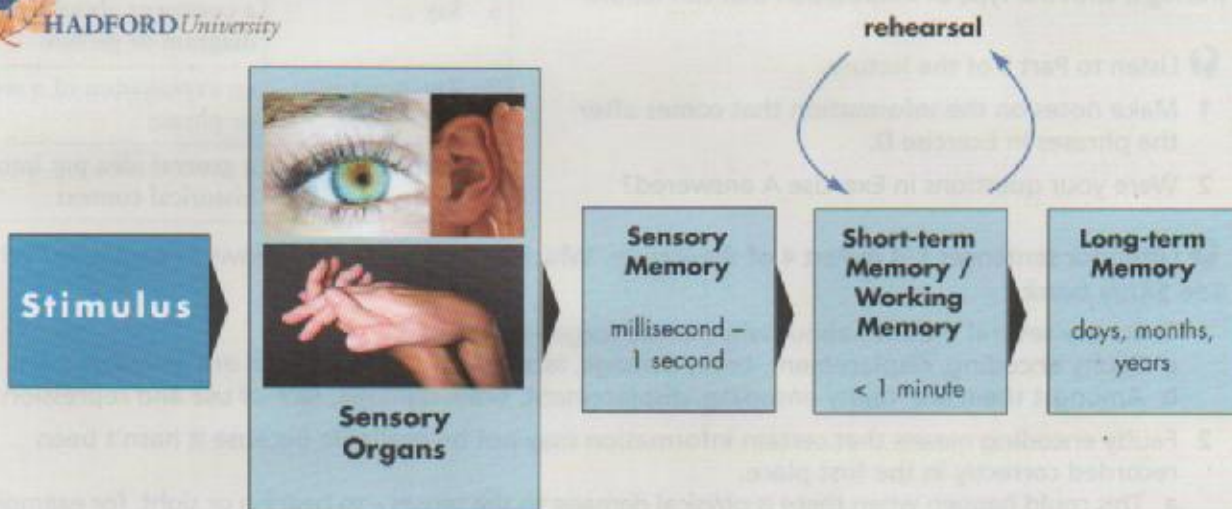
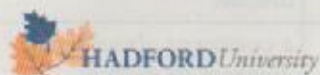
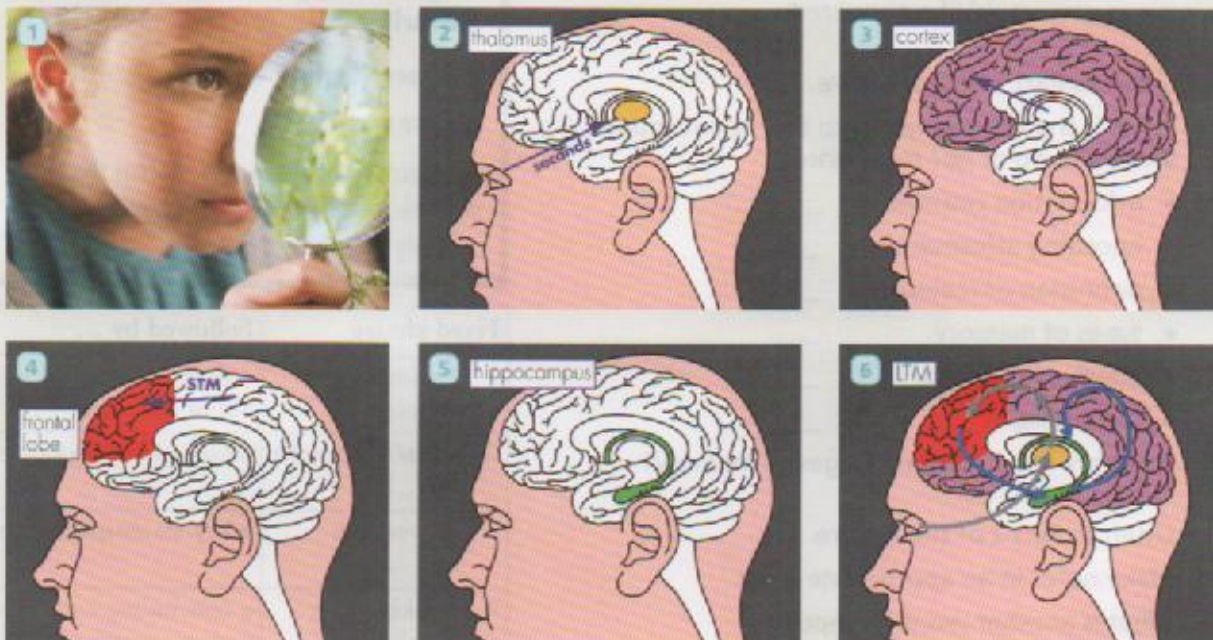
**c** temporarily retaining sensory process  
immediate recycled retrieve network

**G** Match the phrases in box d with the highlighted phrases in the text.

- A** Information in the short-term memory is recycled through the hippocampus \_\_\_\_\_ it can be stored as long-term memory (LTM).
- B** \_\_\_\_\_ short-term memory (STM), the information is stored in the frontal lobe of the brain.
- C** \_\_\_\_\_ the thalamus, the hippocampus plays an important role in creating memory.
- D** \_\_\_\_\_ the picture, the thalamus sends the information to the cortex for processing and storage.
- E** \_\_\_\_\_ be processed by the brain, information must first be registered by the sensory organs.
- F** The sensory system retains information for fractions of a second before transferring it to the part of the brain \_\_\_\_\_ the thalamus.

**d** serve the function of \_\_\_\_\_ in the initial phase  
in contrast \_\_\_\_\_ in the following phase  
in the final stage \_\_\_\_\_ a number of  
the development of \_\_\_\_\_ for instance

## Long- and short-term memory



A flow chart is a useful tool for illustrating the relationship between the different stages in a \_\_\_\_\_. For example, this chart shows the stages involved in creating short- and long-term memory. Short-term memory is a way of storing information for \_\_\_\_\_ use. On the other hand, long-term memory is a system for \_\_\_\_\_ information we need to \_\_\_\_\_ over extended periods of time. In the first stage of the process, the brain receives information through \_\_\_\_\_ stimuli. Then this information is stored \_\_\_\_\_ in a \_\_\_\_\_ of neural connections which constitute short-term memory. Before it can be transferred to the long-term memory, the information must be 'rehearsed' or \_\_\_\_\_ in the short-term memory system. At the end of the process, it is stored in the long-term memory.



## 7.2 Listening

fixed phrases • sequencing information in sentences

**A** You are going to hear this lecture. Write four questions you would like answered.

**B** Listen to Part 1 of the lecture.

1 What is the lecturer going to talk about today?  
Write *yes, no* or *not mentioned*.

- information retrieval \_\_\_\_\_
- encoding information \_\_\_\_\_
- definition of memory \_\_\_\_\_
- types of memory \_\_\_\_\_
- creation of memory \_\_\_\_\_
- forgetting \_\_\_\_\_

2 What are the four main stages of memory?

**C** Listen to Part 2 of the lecture.

- 1 Make notes in an appropriate form.
- 2 What is another word for *input*?
- 3 What does *encoding* mean in the context of memory?
- 4 Were your questions in Exercise A answered?

**D** Match each phrase in the first column of the table on the right with the type of information that can follow.

**E** Listen to Part 3 of the lecture.

- 1 Make notes on the information that comes after the phrases in Exercise D.
- 2 Were your questions in Exercise A answered?

**F** Listen for sentences 1–4 in Part 4 of the lecture. Which sentence (a or b) follows in each case? Why?  
See *Skills bank*.

- 1 There are several theories about why people forget events.
  - a Faulty encoding, displacement, brain damage, lack of use and repression are amongst them.
  - b Amongst them are: faulty encoding, displacement, brain damage, lack of use and repression.
- 2 Faulty encoding means that certain information may not be available because it hasn't been recorded correctly in the first place.
  - a This could happen when there is physical damage to the senses – to hearing or sight, for example.
  - b Physical damage to the senses of hearing or sight may make certain information unavailable.
- 3 Another reason why information may not be available is if it has been replaced by new information.
  - a This particularly applies to short-term memory.
  - b Short-term memory is often affected in this way.
- 4 In some cases, information may not be transferred from short-term to long-term memory as a result of damage to the hippocampus.
  - a There are several important parts of the brain, as you will remember, including the hippocampus.
  - b As you'll remember, this is the part of the brain that recycles information and converts it into long-term memory.

**G** This lecturer is not very well organized. What problems are there in the lecture?

### Psychology Faculty



#### Memory (Lecture 1)

##### Lecture overview

- Memory process
- Types of memory
- Early theories
- Recent theories
- Forgetting

Fixed phrase	Followed by ...
1 An important concept (is) ...	a different way to think about the topic
2 What do I mean by ...?	an imaginary example
3 As you can see, ...	a key statement or idea
4 Looking at it another way, ...	a concluding comment giving a result of something
5 In historical terms, ...	a new idea or topic that the lecturer wants to discuss
6 Say ...	a comment about a diagram or picture
7 The point is ...	an explanation of a word or phrase
8 In this way ...	a general idea put into a historical context

## 7.3 Extending skills

stress within words • fixed phrases • giving sentences a special focus

**A** Listen to some stressed syllables. Identify the word below in each case. Number each word.

**Example:**

You hear: *I mat /mæt/*

You write:

- |                |     |               |     |              |          |
|----------------|-----|---------------|-----|--------------|----------|
| 1 cortex       | ___ | 5 hippocampus | ___ | 9 retrieval  | ___      |
| 2 decay        | ___ | 6 maintenance | ___ | 10 sensory   | ___      |
| 3 displacement | ___ | 7 rehearsal   | ___ | 11 thalamus  | ___      |
| 4 encoding     | ___ | 8 repression  | ___ | 12 traumatic | <u>1</u> |

**B** Listen to the final part of the lecture from Lesson 7.2.

- Complete the notes on the right by adding a symbol in each space.
- What research task(s) are you asked to do?

**C** Study the phrases from the lecture in the blue box. For which of the following purposes did the lecturer use each phrase?

- to introduce a new topic
- to emphasize a major point
- to add points
- to finish a list
- to give an example
- to restate

**D** Rewrite these sentences to give a special focus. Begin with the words in brackets.

- Freud claimed that hypnosis was an effective method for accessing repressed memories. (*It*)
- Hypnosis can help eyewitnesses return to the moment of a traumatic event. (*What*)
- A full understanding of the disadvantages of hypnosis is very important. (*What*)
- The memory can very easily be confused because it depends on so many factors. (*Two sentences. First = 'It'; second = 'The reason'*)
- Hypnosis can remind people of the feelings they had at the time they witnessed an event. (*The advantage*)

See Skills bank.

**E** Choose one section of the lecture. Refer to your notes and give a spoken summary. Use the fixed phrases and ways of giving special focus that you have looked at. See Vocabulary bank and Skills bank.

**F** Work with a partner.

- Explain what kind of problems people experience when recalling the details of an event they have witnessed.
- Present your account to another pair. Practise using fixed phrases and ways of giving special focus.

Memory \_\_\_ easy to confuse \_\_\_

1. some factors \_\_\_ unconscious, \_\_\_  
preconceived ideas \_\_\_ think we see what we expect to see

2. strong emotions \_\_\_ affect recall \_\_\_  
children remember parents differently

Hypnosis \_\_\_ helps witnesses remember details of crimes

\_\_\_ hypnosis \_\_\_ emotion \_\_\_ remember past

BUT not always reliable

et cetera

In other words, ...

Let's take ...

Let me put it another way.

Not to mention the fact that ...

Plus there's the fact that ...

The fact of the matter is, ...

You've probably heard of ...

**A** Look at the article and drawings on the opposite page.

- 1 What do they show?
- 2 How are they related to each other?

**B** Listen to the first extract from a seminar about hypnosis and memory.

- 1 What question will the students discuss?
- 2 Name two factors that affect memory recall under hypnosis.

**C** Listen to Extract 2 of the seminar. Are these sentences true or false?

- 1 People are more suggestible under hypnosis. \_\_\_\_\_
- 2 The hypnotist's questions have no effect on the recovered memory. \_\_\_\_\_
- 3 Eyewitness evidence is not reliable. \_\_\_\_\_
- 4 People under hypnosis deliberately create false memories. \_\_\_\_\_
- 5 Recovered memories can become false memories. \_\_\_\_\_

**D** Study tasks a–d below and the phrases in the blue box.

- 1 Write **a**, **b**, **c** or **d** next to each phrase to show its use.
  - a introducing
  - b asking for clarification
  - c agreeing/disagreeing
  - d clarifying
- 2 Listen to Extract 2 again to check your answers.

**E** Work in groups of four to research four areas of memory. Each person should choose a different area.

- Student A: Read about *repression* on page 103.
- Student B: Read about *schema theory* on page 103.
- Student C: Read about *amnesia* on page 104.
- Student D: Read about *episodic memory* on page 104.

After reading the notes, report back orally to your group. Use fixed phrases to ask for and give clarification.

**F** Work in groups of four.

- 1 Three group members should look at the CCTV images on this page for 10 seconds and then cover them up.
- 2 The fourth person should interview the other members of the group and decide what the CCTV images show.
- 3 As a group, discuss possible interpretations.
- 4 Report to the class on your discussion, giving reasons for your decisions.

I'd like to make two points. \_\_\_\_\_  
 First, ... \_\_\_\_\_  
 Can you expand on that? \_\_\_\_\_  
 The point is ... \_\_\_\_\_  
 What's your second point? \_\_\_\_\_  
 My second point is that ... \_\_\_\_\_  
 Yes, but ... \_\_\_\_\_  
 I don't agree with that \_\_\_\_\_  
 because ... \_\_\_\_\_  
 Sorry, but who are we talking \_\_\_\_\_  
 about exactly? \_\_\_\_\_  
 We need to be clear here. \_\_\_\_\_  
 I'd just like to say that ... \_\_\_\_\_  
 In what way? \_\_\_\_\_  
 What I'm trying to say is, ... \_\_\_\_\_  
 Can you give me an example? \_\_\_\_\_  
 Look at it this way. \_\_\_\_\_  
 Absolutely. \_\_\_\_\_



# THE NEWS

## Podium: How hypnosis plays tricks on police witnesses

MARK KEBBELL Tuesday, 28 September

From a speech by the lecturer in psychology at Liverpool University to the British Association Festival of Science.

AN EYEWITNESS who says, "That is the man who attacked me! I'm absolutely sure of it!" provides convincing evidence. Consequently, it is not surprising that eyewitnesses are a crucial part of many police investigations, although they rarely remember as much as

the police would like. Unfortunately, eyewitnesses are also usually implicated in false convictions.

This is illustrated by the recent case of Kenneth Adams, who was convicted of two counts of murder and one of rape, based on witness identification. He served 16 years in prison before being exonerated by DNA evidence.

Because of the role of eyewitness evidence in the criminal justice system,

forensic psychologists have devoted a great deal of time and energy to devising ways of improving eyewitness performance. One method that seems to have the potential to enhance witness memory is hypnosis, and in real police investigations it has apparently met with considerable success. Furthermore, most members of the public and practitioners of hypnosis believe it can improve memory, and many hypnotists are willing to offer their services to the police.

Source: Mark Kebell © 1999, The Independent.

This is an extract of the article. The complete views of the author have not been fully expressed.



Child, aged 6.



Adult, regressed under hypnosis to age 6.

### Recognizing fixed phrases from psychology (1)

There are many fixed phrases in the field of psychology.

Examples:

Phrase	Meaning in the discipline
<i>neural network</i>	a group of neurons connected to each other
<i>repressed memories</i>	memories that have been ignored by the conscious mind
<i>post-traumatic stress disorder</i>	a mental condition caused by a traumatic experience; symptoms include nightmares, flashbacks, panic attacks
<i>sensory system</i>	a network of physical senses, including sight, hearing, touch, taste and smell.

Keep a list of fixed phrases used in psychology and remind yourself regularly of the meaning.

### Recognizing fixed phrases from academic English (1)

There are also a large number of fixed phrases which are commonly used in academic and technical English in general.

Examples:

Phrase	What comes next?
<i>As we have seen ...</i>	a reminder of previous information
<i>An important concept is ...</i>	one of the basic points underlying the topic
<i>As you can see, ...</i>	a reference to an illustration OR a logical conclusion from previous information
<i>As shown in ...</i>	a reference to a diagram or table
<i>... in such a way that ...</i>	a result of something
<i>In addition to (X, Y)</i>	X = reminder of last point, Y = new point
<i>As well as (X, Y)</i>	
<i>In the case of ...</i>	a reference to a particular topic or, more often, sub-topic
<i>At the same time, ...</i>	an action or idea which must be considered alongside another action or idea
<i>... based on ...</i>	a piece of research, a theory, an idea
<i>Bear in mind (that) ...</i>	key information which helps to explain (or limit in some way) previous information
<i>The point is ...</i>	the basic information underlying an explanation
<i>in order to (do X, Y)</i>	X = objective, Y = necessary actions/conditions
<i>In historical terms, ...</i>	the history of something previously mentioned
<i>In other words, ...</i>	the same information put in a different way
<i>Looking at it another way, ...</i>	
<i>In this way ...</i>	a result from previous information
<i>Say ...</i>	an example
<i>What do I mean by (X)?</i>	an explanation of X

Make sure you know what kind of information comes next.

## Skills bank

**'Given' and 'new' information in sentences**

In English, we can put important information at the beginning or at the end of a sentence. There are two types of important information.

- 1 Information which the listener or reader already knows, from general knowledge or from previous information in the text. This can be called 'given' information. It normally goes at the beginning of the sentence.
- 2 Information which is new in this text. This can be called 'new' information. It normally goes at the end of a sentence.

**Examples:**

In Lesson 7.2, the lecturer is talking about theory, so theory in general = given information.

Given	New
<i>There are several theories</i>	<i>about why people forget events.</i>
<i>Amongst them are: lack of use and repression.</i>	<i>faulty encoding, displacement, brain damage</i>

**Giving sentences a special focus**

We sometimes change the normal word order to emphasize a particular point, e.g., a person, an object, a time.

**Examples:**

<b>Normal sentence</b>	<i>In 1884, William James distinguished between 'short-term' and 'long-term' memory.</i>
<b>Focusing on person</b>	<i>It was William James who distinguished ...</i>
<b>Focusing on object</b>	<i>It was the difference between 'short-term' and 'long-term' memory that William James distinguished ...</i>
<b>Focusing on time</b>	<i>It was as far back as 1884 that William James ...</i>

**Introducing new information**

We can use special structures to introduce a new topic.

**Examples:**

*Memory is my subject today.*

→ *What I am going to talk about today is memory.*

*Long-term memory is very important.*

→ *What is very important is long-term memory.*

*Many factors cause confusion*

→ *The reason for the confusion is that there are many factors.*

*Different questions result in different memories.*

→ *The result of different questions is different memories.*

**Clarifying points**

When we are speaking, we often have to clarify points. There are many expressions which we can use.

**Examples:**

*Let me put it another way ...*

*Look at it this way ...*

*What I'm trying to say is ...*

*The point/thing is ...*

# 8 MENTAL DISORDERS: POPULAR MYTHS

## 8.1 Vocabulary

synonyms • nouns from verbs • paraphrasing

**A** Discuss the following questions.

- 1 What does the word *insanity* mean to you?
- 2 Which words in box a are correct psychological terms and which words are colloquial? What do they mean?

**a**  
autistic crazy deranged  
insane lunatic  
psychotic retarded mad

**B** What stereotypes are depicted in headlines A–D on the textbook page opposite?

**b**  
abuse delusion  
dissociation episode frenzy  
imbalance mood pact  
psychosis suicide syndrome

**C** Look up each noun in box b in a dictionary.

- 1 Is it countable, uncountable or both?
- 2 What is its psychological meaning?
- 3 What is a good synonym?
- 4 What useful grammatical information can you find?

<b>c</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>
	characterize	spread
	expel	connect
	exploit	eliminate
	link	display
	lose touch (with)	continue
	manifest	be detached (from)
	perpetuate	differ
	propagate	define
	vary	take advantage of

**D** Study the two lists of verbs in box c.

- 1 Match the verbs with similar meanings.
- 2 Make nouns from the verbs if possible.

**E** Look at the Hadford University handout.

- 1 How does the writer restate each section heading within the paragraph?
- 2 Find synonyms for the blue words and phrases. Use a dictionary if necessary.
- 3 Rewrite each sentence to make paraphrases of the texts. Use:
  - synonyms you have found yourself
  - synonyms from Exercise C
  - the nouns you made in Exercise D
  - passives where possible
  - any other words that are necessary

**Example:**

Melodramatic headlines in the press can affect sales considerably.

→ *Newspapers sell far more when they have sensational headlines.*

**F** Study the chart on the page opposite.

- 1 Look up the definitions of the types of crime represented in the chart.
- 2 What crime is most commonly committed by people with mental disorders? Why do you think this is?



### Stereotypes of mental illness

#### A Sensationalism in the press

Melodramatic headlines in the newspapers improve sales. With this in mind, the press exploits primitive emotions, such as fear and aggression, by representing mentally ill people as dangerous and antisocial. This is achieved in two main ways: by linking mental illness to violent crime, and by using specific language to perpetuate misconceptions of mental disorder.

#### B Mental health and violence

There is a popular belief that people who suffer from mental disorders are violent. This is not supported by research, which has found that intimidating behaviour characterizes only a small number of patients suffering from acute psychotic episodes.

## STEREOTYPES AND THE MEDIA

Sensational newspaper headlines perpetuate negative stereotypes of mental illness by linking it with violence, aggression, crime and death.

Look at the newspaper headlines on this page and identify the negative stereotypes they evoke.

**A** **Crazies set fire to primary school!!**

**B** **Schizophrenic kills mother in stabbing frenzy**

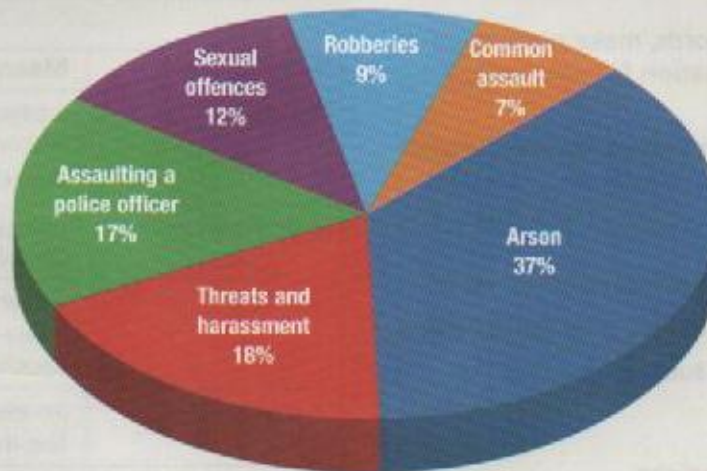
**C** **Autistic genius in computer scam**

**D** **DEPRESSED TEENAGERS IN SUICIDE PACT**

## MENTAL HEALTH AND VIOLENT CRIME

Research has found that only 5.2% of violent crimes are committed by people suffering from severe mental disorders. The chart below shows a breakdown of the types of violent crime included in this 5.2%.

Types of crime as a percentage of total violent crimes committed by patients with severe mental illness: 1988–2000



Source: Fazal, S. & Grann, M. (2006). The Population Impact of Severe Mental Illness on Violent Crime. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 163, 8.



**A** Link the causes of mental illness in this list with the items in the blue box:

- a chemical imbalance in the brain
- b traumatic experience
- c poverty
- d genetics
- e abuse in childhood
- f drug abuse

- 1 Which are stereotypically associated with violence?
- 2 Give an example of a common belief related to mental illness.

schizophrenia    hysteria  
dissociative identity disorder    anxiety  
phobias    depression



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**There are five main essay types in psychology:**

- descriptive
- analytical
- comparison/evaluation
- argument
- practical report

**B** Look at the five essay types on the right.

- 1 What should the writer do in each type?
- 2 Match each essay type with one of the questions below the slide (A–E).
- 3 What topics should be covered in each essay question?

**A** 'Violent crimes are often committed by those who are mentally ill.' To what extent do you agree with this statement? Give examples to support your points.

**B** Describe four stereotypes of mental illness. How do they relate to the symptoms of real illnesses?

**C** Explain the methods used by the media to influence popular images of mental illness.

**D** Describe Asch's conformity experiments. How do they explain the influence of the media on individual attitudes to mental illness?

**E** Outline the differences and similarities between schizophrenia and dissociative identity disorder.

**C** Read the title of the text on the opposite page and the first sentence of each paragraph.

- 1 What will the text be about?
- 2 Choose one of the essay questions in Exercise B. Write four research questions which will help you to find information for your essay.

**D** Read the text.

- 1 Using your own words, make notes from the text on information for your essay question.
- 2 Work with another person who has chosen the same essay question as you. Compare your notes.

**E** Study the **highlighted** sentences in the text.

- 1 Underline all the subjects and their verbs.
- 2 Which is the main subject and verb for each sentence?

**F** Study the table on the right.

- 1 Match each word or phrase with its meaning.
- 2 Underline the words or phrases in the text which the writer uses to give the definitions. See *Vocabulary bank*.

Word/phrase	Meaning
1 illusion	a psychiatric disorder which disconnects different aspects of the personality
2 depression	unreasonable or illogical beliefs
3 mood	a mental disorder characterized by losing touch with reality
4 psychosis	an event that only occurs in the mind of an individual
5 delusions	an emotional state
6 multiple personality	a mood disorder that makes a person feel very sad and unable to live an active life

# 'You must be crazy!'

## (popular misconceptions about mental illness)

Attitudes to mental illness have varied significantly throughout history and across cultures. For instance, to this day, some preliterate societies (having no written language) believe that individuals who behave abnormally are gifted with supernatural healing powers and clairvoyance; that is, the ability to see into the future. In other words, the mentally ill are highly respected in some communities. In contrast to this, people suffering from mental illness in Europe in the Middle Ages (AD 500–1500) were accused of being possessed, that is to say, controlled, by demons or evil spirits. Attempts to expel these evil spirits involved cruel physical punishments, and isolating or imprisoning the 'possessed'. These traditional beliefs are probably responsible for the fear with which mental illness is approached. For, even in a modern scientific society, where the physiological causes of mental disorder are far better understood than in the past, prejudices and misconceptions about mental illness still persist.

One of the most common myths about mental illness is that it is an illusion; that it is 'all in the mind', depression being a case in point. Because depression is associated with tiredness and lack of motivation which are, to some degree, normal in everyday life, it is not always easy to distinguish between natural reactions to life's challenges and the symptoms of clinical depression, a mood disorder. As a result, people suffering from depression are often seen as 'weak', and are expected to exercise self-control to stop feeling depressed. Research has found, however, that depression is the result of chemical imbalances in the brain which affect mood, or emotional state, and is, therefore, a 'real' illness with physiological causes.

A second widespread myth about people who suffer from mental illness is that they are dangerous and violent. In reality, violence related to mental disturbance is usually only seen during rare episodes of severe psychosis, when an individual loses touch with reality. According to Pescosolido<sup>1</sup>, the most common causes of violence are alcohol and drug abuse, followed a long way behind by schizophrenia and depression.

Another misconception about people afflicted with mental illness is that they are out of touch with reality. It is true that some disorders, such as schizophrenia, may result in delusions – unreasonable beliefs, and hallucinations. However, the majority of people with mental illnesses, including depression, anxiety, phobias and bipolar disorder, are completely in touch with reality.

Schizophrenia is a widely misunderstood disorder which is characterized by the creation of an irrational internal world. The Greek roots of the word *schizo*, meaning *split*, and *phrene*, meaning *mind*, have led to the popular belief that schizophrenics suffer from split minds or dual personalities. As a result, schizophrenia is often confused with multiple personality disorder (another name for dissociative identity disorder), which is, in fact, the result of traumatic events, whereas schizophrenia is largely inherited.

It is interesting to ask how these popular myths are perpetuated in modern society. Asch's experiments in conformity<sup>2</sup> explain how the attitudes of individuals are influenced by group opinions. One example of this is the media, including film, which has a powerful influence on popular views and is often responsible for propagating negative stereotypes of those who are mentally ill.

Looking at films first, it is easy to find examples of melodramatic misrepresentations of mental illness. A film such as *The Three Faces of Eve* (1957), which is based on the true story of Eve White's multiple personality disorder, dramatizes her illness. *One Flew over the Cuckoo's Nest* (1975) is another film in which the more alarming face of mental illness is represented. What is particularly powerful about this film, however, is the emphasis placed on the oppression and maltreatment of the patients by the medical staff at the psychiatric hospital.

The press is another field of the media which encourages the public to continue believing in stereotypes of mental disorders. Newspaper reports routinely link violent crime with mental illness, and more specifically, use terminology related to mental illness to reinforce negative images.

In conclusion, it can be seen that, in spite of advances in psychiatric diagnosis and treatment, mental illness is still widely misunderstood. Negative stereotypes, encouraged by the media, persist in modern society, and mentally ill people are commonly perceived as weak, dangerous, violent, delusional, criminal and frighteningly unpredictable.

### References:

- <sup>1</sup> Pescosolido, B.A., Monahan, J., Link, B.G., et al. (1999). The public's view of the competence, dangerousness, and need for legal coercion of persons with mental health problems. *American Journal of Public Health*, 89, 1339–1345.
- <sup>2</sup> Ferrin, S. and Spencer, C.P. (1981). Independence or conformity in the Asch experiment as a reflection of cultural and situational factors. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 20(3), 205–210.

### 8.3 Extending skills

passives in dependent clauses • essay plans

**A** Find the words in the box in the text in Lesson 8.2.

- 1 What part of speech is each word?
- 2 Think of another word which could be used in place of the word in the text. Use your dictionary if necessary.

misconception attitude  
culture prejudice delusion  
inherited split melodramatic  
alarming terminology

**B** Study sentences A–D from the text in Lesson 8.2.

- 1 Identify the dependent clause.
- 2 Copy the table under the sentences and write the parts of each dependent clause in the table.
- 3 Rewrite the sentence using an active construction.

**Example:**

**A** *People often approach mental illness with fear, probably as a result of traditional beliefs.*

**C** Read the essay plans and extracts on the opposite page.

- 1 Match each plan with an essay title in Lesson 8.2.
- 2 Which essay is each extract from?
- 3 Which part of the plan is each extract from?

**D** Work with a partner.

- 1 Write another paragraph for one of the plans.
- 2 Exchange paragraphs with another pair. Can they identify where it comes from?

**A** These traditional beliefs are probably responsible for the fear with which mental illness is approached.

**B** A film such as *The Three Faces of Eve* (1957), which is based on the true story of Eve White's multiple personality disorder, dramatizes her illness.

**C** Schizophrenia is a widely misunderstood disorder which is characterized by the creation of an irrational internal world.

**D** *One Flew over the Cuckoo's Nest* (1975) is another film in which the more alarming face of mental illness is represented.

Subject	Verb	By whom/what
Mental illness	is approached	by people

### 8.4 Extending skills

writing complex sentences • writing essay plans • writing essays

**A** Make complete sentences from these notes. Add words as necessary.

**A** in conclusion - limited number - severe mental illness - violent crimes - but - more likely - victims

**B** Studies - crime - psychiatric disorders - show - patients - be - more likely - victims - crime - perpetrators

**C** however - majority - mental illnesses - not linked - violent crime

**D** research - demonstrated - although - mental illness - may - linked - small number - violent crimes - drug - alcohol abuse - responsible - higher percentage

**E** first - identify - different types - mental disorder - be - commonly - associated - aggression

**F** for many years - it - popular belief - people with - mental disorders - violent and dangerous

**B** The sentences in Exercise A are topic sentences for paragraphs in essay A in Lesson 8.2. Put them in the best order for the essay. What is the main topic for each paragraph?

**C** Look at the essay question on the opposite page.

- 1 What kind of essay is this?
- 2 Do some research and make a plan.
- 3 Write the essay. *See Skills bank.*

## Essay plans

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| <p><b>A</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1 Introduction: two disorders commonly confused; different symptoms and causes; aims of essay</li> <li>2 Describe symptoms of disorders 1 and 2</li> <li>3 Describe causes of disorders 1 and 2</li> <li>4 Illustrate similarities between disorders; behaviour, causes, treatments</li> <li>5 Illustrate differences between disorders; behaviour, causes, treatments</li> <li>6 Conclusion: disorders 1 and 2 are similar; delusions, detachment from reality; but different causes and treatment</li> </ol> | <p><b>B</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1 Introduction: social importance of conformity; definition of conformity; give essay aims</li> <li>2 Asch's hypothesis; majority can influence individuals even when majority is wrong</li> <li>3 Describe experiment; methodology</li> <li>4 Describe results; individuals conformed to the majority opinion</li> <li>5 Link results to effect of mass media on individual thinking</li> <li>6 Discuss criticisms of Asch's experiments; other variables; history and social context and relate to media influence on individual opinion</li> <li>7 Conclusion: Asch's experiments demonstrated tendency to conformity; social context and history not fully accounted for; relate to effect of media on independent opinion.</li> </ol> |
|---|---|

## Essay extracts

- To summarize, it is clear that schizophrenia and dissociative identity disorder are similar in the sense that patients with both disorders may lose touch with the outer world as they construct an independent inner reality. In the case of schizophrenia, this inner world is disorganized and incoherent. In contrast, the patient with dissociative identity disorder may have distinct boundaries between their different personalities and experience very little confusion. The causes of schizophrenia are thought to be physiological and genetically influenced, whereas dissociative identity disorder is the result of traumatic or stressful events. Schizophrenia is usually treated with medication and hospitalization. In contrast, medication is not commonly recommended as a treatment for dissociative identity disorder, which is generally treated with psychotherapy.
- Successful social groups require a high degree of cooperation between individuals, which can be achieved in various ways. One of these is the exercise of social pressure by the majority on the individual to behave in a certain way or adopt a particular belief. Conformity is the act of changing individual behaviour in response to group pressure. It is important to understand the effects of conformity because it is a powerful social phenomenon affecting most sectors of society, including education, politics and commerce. This essay will outline Asch's hypothesis of conformity, describe the methodology and results of his experiments and discuss them in the light of other research.

## Essay question

In 1999, thirteen young people were killed in a violent attack by two pupils of Columbine High School, Colorado. The attackers also died. Since then, a number of high school and college massacres have been carried out by adolescent males in the United States and Europe. To what extent do you think mental illness is the cause of this extreme violence?

### Understanding new words: using definitions

You will often find new words in academic texts. Sometimes you will not be able to understand the text unless you look the word up in a dictionary, but often a technical term will be defined or explained immediately or later in the text.

Look for these indicators:

<i>is or are</i>	<i>... it is an illusion</i>
brackets	<i>... (another name for dissociative identity disorder)</i>
<i>or</i>	<i>mood, or emotional state</i>
<i>which</i>	<i>Schizophrenia ..., which is characterized by the creation of an irrational internal world.</i>
a comma or a dash (–) immediately after the word or phrase	<i>... depression, a mood disorder</i> <i>... delusions – unreasonable beliefs</i>
phrases such as <i>that is, in other words</i>	<i>... clairvoyance, that is, the ability to see into the future.</i> <i>In other words, the mentally ill ...</i>

#### Remember!

When you write assignments, you may want to define words yourself. Learn to use the methods above to give variety to your written work.

### Understanding direction verbs in essay titles

Special verbs called **direction verbs** are used in essay titles. Each direction verb indicates a type of essay. You must understand the meaning of these words so you can choose the correct writing plan.

Kind of essay	Direction verbs
<b>Descriptive</b>	<i>State ... Say ... Outline ... Describe ... Summarize ...</i> <i>What is/are ...?</i>
<b>Analytical</b>	<i>Analyze ... Explain ... Comment on ... Examine ...</i> <i>Give reasons for ... Why ...? How ...?</i>
<b>Comparison/evaluation</b>	<i>Compare (and contrast) ... Distinguish between ...</i> <i>Evaluate ... What are the advantages and/or disadvantages of ...?</i>
<b>Argument</b>	<i>Discuss ... Consider ... (Critically) evaluate ...</i> <i>To what extent ...? How far ...?</i>
<b>Practical reports</b>	<i>Outline ... Explain ... State ... Describe ...</i> <i>Summarize ... Discuss ...</i>

## Skills bank

### Choosing the correct writing plan

When you are given a written assignment, you must decide on the best writing plan before you begin to write the outline. Use key words in the essay title to help you choose – see *Vocabulary bank*.

Type of essay – content	Possible structure
<p><b>Descriptive writing</b> List the <b>most important points</b> of something: e.g., in a narrative, a list of key events in chronological order; a description of key ideas in a theory or from an article you have read. Summarize points in a logical order. <b>Example:</b> <i>Describe four stereotypes of mental illness. How do they relate to the symptoms of real illnesses?</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● introduction</li> <li>● point/event 1</li> <li>● point/event 2</li> <li>● point/event 3</li> <li>● conclusion</li> </ul>
<p><b>Analytical writing</b> List the <b>important points</b> which in your opinion explain the situation. Justify your opinion in each case. Look behind the facts at the <b>how</b> and <b>why</b>, not just <b>what/who/when</b>. Look for and question accepted ideas and assumptions. <b>Example:</b> <i>Explain the methods used by the media to influence popular images of mental illness.</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● introduction</li> <li>● definitions</li> <li>● <b>most important point:</b> example/evidence/reason 1 example/evidence/reason 2, etc.</li> <li>● <b>next point:</b> example/evidence/reason 3 example/evidence/reason 4, etc.</li> <li>● conclusion</li> </ul>
<p><b>Comparison/evaluation</b> Decide on and define the <b>aspects</b> to compare two subjects. You may use these aspects as the basis for paragraphing. Evaluate which aspect(s) is/are better or preferable and give reasons/criteria for your judgment. <b>Example:</b> <i>What are the differences between schizophrenia and dissociative identity disorder?</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● introduction</li> <li>● <b>state and define aspects</b> <i>Either:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● <b>aspect 1:</b> subject A v. B</li> <li>● <b>aspect 2:</b> subject A v. B</li> </ul> <i>Or:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● <b>subject A:</b> aspect 1, 2, etc.</li> <li>● <b>subject B:</b> aspect 1, 2, etc.</li> </ul> </li> <li>● conclusion/evaluation</li> </ul>
<p><b>Argument writing</b> <b>Analyze</b> and/or <b>evaluate</b>, then give your <b>opinion</b> in a <b>thesis statement</b> at the beginning or the end. Show awareness of difficulties and disagreements by mentioning counter-arguments. <b>Support</b> your opinion with evidence. <b>Example:</b> <i>'Violent crimes are often committed by those who are mentally ill.' To what extent do you agree with this statement? Give examples to support your points.</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● introduction: statement of issue</li> <li>● <b>thesis statement giving opinion</b></li> <li>● <b>define terms</b></li> <li>● <b>point 1:</b> explain + evidence</li> <li>● <b>point 2:</b> explain + evidence, etc.</li> <li>● <b>conclusion:</b> implications, etc.</li> <li><i>Alternatively:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● <b>introduction:</b> statement of issue</li> <li>● <b>define terms</b></li> <li>● <b>for:</b> point 1, 2, etc.</li> <li>● <b>against:</b> point 1, 2, etc.</li> <li>● <b>conclusion:</b> statement of opinion</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
<p><b>Practical reports</b> of experiments and studies <b>Outline</b> the problem and previous experiments. <b>Explain</b> why you carried out the experiment (<b>rationale</b>). <b>State</b> your hypothesis. <b>Describe</b> the experiment. <b>Summarize</b> and discuss results. <b>Example:</b> <i>How do Asch's conformity experiments explain the influence of the media on individual attitudes to mental illness?</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● <b>introduction:</b> background to problem, literature review, hypothesis</li> <li>● <b>methodology:</b> participants, methodology, tasks, measurements</li> <li>● <b>results:</b> summary of findings, graphs</li> <li>● <b>discussion:</b> assess findings in relation to hypothesis, suggest future research</li> </ul>

# 9

# PERSONALITY

## 9.1 Vocabulary

fixed phrases • psychological terms

### A Match the words to make fixed phrases.

- |               |                          |                 |
|---------------|--------------------------|-----------------|
| 1 personality | <input type="checkbox"/> | a inheritance   |
| 2 identical   | <input type="checkbox"/> | b analysis      |
| 3 genetic     | <input type="checkbox"/> | c theory        |
| 4 self        | <input type="checkbox"/> | d stability     |
| 5 factor      | <input type="checkbox"/> | e twins         |
| 6 trait       | <input type="checkbox"/> | f cognition     |
| 7 social      | <input type="checkbox"/> | g traits        |
| 8 emotional   | <input type="checkbox"/> | h actualization |

### B Study the words and phrases in the blue box.

- Complete each phrase in column 2 with a word from column 1.
- Which phrase can you use to:
  - agree only partly with a point?
  - begin talking about several points?
  - talk about a particular example?
  - introduce the first of two ideas?
  - introduce the second of two ideas?
  - focus on the most important point?
  - give a reason for a point?
  - mention an idea?
  - talk about certain circumstances?

### C Look at the pictures on the opposite page.

- Match the following personality theories with each psychologist: self-efficacy, trait theory, humanism, self-actualization, situationism.
- Which of these psychologists supported social construction?
- Match each person with the correct quote (A–E).
- Replace the words in *italics* with a phrase from Exercise B.

### D Read the extract from the Hadford University handout about personality theories on this page.

- Match the blue words in this extract with the definitions on the opposite page.
- Use your dictionary to check words you do not know.

### E Complete the table on the right.

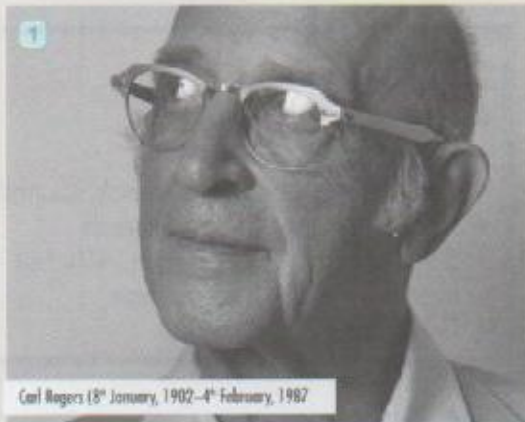
1	2
a	... start with
to	... people think
the	on ... other hand
some	to ... extent
many	on ... one hand
this	... real question is
that	on ... grounds that
	in ... case like this
	in ... sort of situation



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- Important research into the **genetic** origins of personality **traits** has been based on **twin studies**.
- Bandura claimed that **self-efficacy** is increased by autonomy.
- Cattell used a **multivariate** research method, whereas Eysenck's model was **microanalytical**.
- The five-factor model of personality includes the elements of **extroversion** and neuroticism.
- According to Mischel's theory of **situationism**, the personality varies in different contexts.
- Nomothetic approaches, which focus on common traits, are not incompatible with **idiographic** approaches to personality.

Base form	Other related forms	
actualize	actualization	actualized
arouse		
conceptualize		
consist		
explain		
inherit		
resemble		
specify		
typify		



1 Carl Rogers (8<sup>th</sup> January, 1902–4<sup>th</sup> February, 1987)



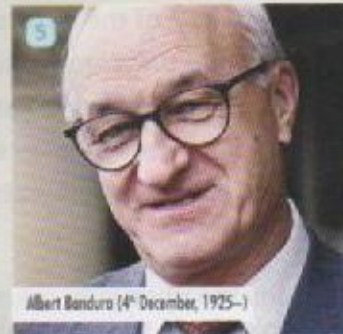
2 Hans Jürgen Eysenck (4<sup>th</sup> March, 1916–4<sup>th</sup> September, 1997)



3 Abraham Harold Maslow (1<sup>st</sup> April, 1908–8<sup>th</sup> June, 1970)



4 Walter Mischel (1930–)



5 Albert Bandura (4<sup>th</sup> December, 1925–)

A 'It is important for individuals to have control over their personal circumstances. *When this happens* they function more effectively.'


B 'All human beings have a hierarchy of needs. *Firstly*, we must fulfil our physiological need for food and water.'

C '*They say* the personality is comprised of thousands of traits. *I don't agree completely*. I think there are only two main traits: introversion and extroversion.'

D 'Researchers claim that people's behaviour is consistent with their personality traits. But I think *the important thing* is how each situation influences their actions.'

E 'We are the only experts on ourselves. This is *because* the way each of us perceives the world is unique.'

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**Definitions**

A the detailed analysis of specific elements of a personality	E the approach to personality that focuses on individual characteristics
B the study of the interaction of several aspects of personality	F research that compares the responses of monozygotic (identical) or dizygotic (fraternal) siblings
C an individual's view of their ability to realistically achieve their aims	G personal qualities that make people unique, but which are also shared with others
D through the inheritance of a chromosome pattern which determines a characteristic	H the quality of being sociable and open to others
	I the theory that personality is not fixed, but determined by circumstances



## 9.2 Listening

using the Cornell note-taking system

**A** Study the slide on the right. What questions do you think the lecturer will answer?

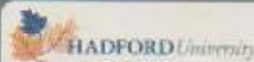
**B** Listen to Part 1 of the lecture.

- 1 Complete the *Notes* section below.
- 2 What is the lecturer's story about? Why is it not given in the notes?
- 3 Complete the *Summary* section.
- 4 Answer the *Review* questions.

**C** Create a blank Cornell diagram. Listen to Part 2 of the lecture.

- 1 Complete the *Notes* section.
- 2 Write some *Review* questions.
- 3 Complete the *Summary* section.
- 4 Were your questions in Exercise A answered?

**D** Study the phrases in column 1 of the blue box. Listen to some sentences from the lecture. Which type of information in column 2 follows each phrase?



### Personality (Lecture 1)

- What is personality?
- Trait theory: Allport, Eysenck, Cattell
- How is personality measured?
- Social cognition: Bandura, Mischel
- Humanism: Maslow, Rogers
- Genes and environment

1	2
1 As we shall see, ...	a developing trend
2 It could be argued that ...	information about a point the speaker will make later
3 It's true to say that ...	an aspect of a topic the speaker wants to focus on
4 In terms of ...	a statement the speaker agrees with
5 From the point of view of ...	a conclusion
6 Increasingly, we find	an idea the speaker may not agree with
7 Research has shown that ...	
8 So it should be clear that ...	

<u>Review</u>	<u>Notes</u>
Personality theories are ...?	Trait theory, social cognition, humanism - differences/genes and culture
Traits are ...?	A trait is a _____ of behaviour → consistent = people have a _____ to act in a certain way. • e.g., _____
Allport's approach ...?	• Allport → uniqueness = _____ approach.
Eysenck/Cattell's approach ...?	• Eysenck & Cattell → nomothetic approach = _____ traits.
Factor analysis is ...?	• Factor analysis is a _____ method for identifying patterns.
Number of traits is ...?	• Cattell = multivariate method ∴ personality is complex. Eysenck: 2 = _____ & _____
Personality measured by ...?	Cattell = 16 Big Five: extroversion/neuroticism/_____/conscientiousness/openness to _____
Practical because ...?	• questionnaires • practical for companies ∴ can _____ people and _____ their behaviour.
Used for ...?	• job applications, career advice, _____ tests
Other methods ...?	1. past behaviour, 2. direct _____
<u>Summary</u>	

9.3 Extending skills

recognizing digressions • understanding source references

- A** Study the words and phrases in box a.
- 1 Mark the stressed syllables.
  - 2 Listen and check your answers.
  - 3 Which word or phrase in each group has a different stress pattern?

- a**
- 1 behaviour, cognition, consistent, tendency, uniqueness
  - 2 observation, self-reporting, two-dimensional, personality, trait theory
  - 3 extroversion, nomothetic, psychometric, cognitivist
  - 4 actually, generally, usually, entirely, neatly

- B** Study the phrases in box b.
- 1 Do you think the phrases show a digression (start or end) or a relevant point? Write **D** or **R**.
  - 2 Look at the **D** phrases. Do they start or end the digression?

- b**
- Now, where was I?
- It's the first of these points that I'm going to focus on now ...
- By the way, ...
- So to get back to the main topic ...
- I have a little story to tell you ...
- If we move on now to ...
- You don't need to take notes on this ...
- The point of that story is ...
- If we turn now to ...
- When we look at factor analysis, we'll find ...

- C** Listen to the final part of the lecture from Lesson 9.2.
- 1 Take notes using the Cornell system. Leave spaces if you miss information.
  - 2 What topic does the lecturer mention that is different from the main subject?
  - 3 Why does the lecturer mention this topic?
  - 4 What is the research task?
  - 5 Compare your notes in pairs. Fill in any blank spaces.
  - 6 Complete the *Review* and *Summary* sections.

- D** What information does the lecturer provide about sources? Listen to the extracts and complete the table below.

	Extract 1	Extract 2	Extract 3	Extract 4
Name of writer				
Title and date of source				
Location				
Type of reference				
Relevant to ...?				
Introducing phrase				

- E** Use your notes to write 75–100 words about personality.

- F** Work in groups. Study the Big Five traits in box c. Choose one trait you would like to find out more about and then discuss these questions.
- 1 What kind of information will you need to find?
  - 2 What ideas do you have already?
  - 3 Where can you go to find more information?

- c**
- extroversion
  - introversion
  - agreeableness
  - conscientiousness
  - openness to experience

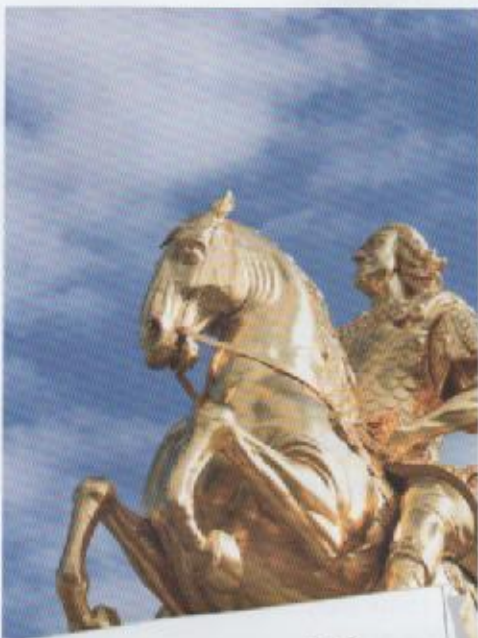
- A** Look at the words in the blue box. Identify their stress patterns.
- B** Work in pairs.  
 Student A: Think of good ways to take part in a seminar.  
 Student B: Think of bad ways to take part in a seminar.
- C** You are going to hear some students in a seminar. They have been asked to discuss the question: 'How can the environment affect the development of different traits?'
- Listen to the four seminar extracts. Decide whether each contribution is good or poor.
  - Give reasons for your opinion.
  - Think of some more information to add to the good contributions.
- D** Work in a group of three or four.
- Discuss your information for the topics in Lesson 9.3, Exercise F. Agree on the best definition.
  - Discuss how best to present this information.
  - Present a definition and description of your topic to the whole class.
- E** Study Figure 1 on this page. What do the pictures show?
- F** Study the information in Figure 2 on the opposite page. In pairs or groups, discuss the following:
- What does the information show about famous world leaders?
  - Do these leaders have anything in common? Do you know of other leaders who have similar traits?
  - Do you think world leaders are born or made?

leadership    charisma    oratory  
 obedience    assertive    predispose  
 eloquence    pragmatic    consensus



Figure 1 The first part of an oral presentation

## ■ Born leaders



Washington, 28 August, 1963

### Martin Luther King: I have a dream

The charismatic African-American leader Martin Luther King inspired and moved thousands of civil rights marchers with his dazzling oratory in Washington today. Yet again, his extraordinary eloquence united both black and white in their common battle for dignity and equality.

### Margaret Thatcher: 'The lady's not for turning'

Thatcher's colleagues and biographers found a tendency toward black-and-white thinking to be one of the foremost characteristics of her leadership. Anthony King (1985: 132) notes "a disposition to see the political world as divided into friends and enemies, goodies and baddies", while Francis Pym,

Dyson, S.B., (2009) *Cognitive Style and Foreign Policy: Margaret Thatcher's Black-and-White Thinking*, (30:1), p. 75, copyright © 2010 by Sage Publications. Reprinted by permission of Sage.

There are leaders in all walks of life: in families, children's playgrounds, schools, industry, the military and, inevitably, in politics. Throughout history, political leaders have decided the future of nations; their security, independence, social policies and economies.

This study addresses two questions: 'What makes a leader?' and 'Are leaders born or made?'

The answer to the first question depends on the kind of leader we want to define. There are many types of leader: those who lead by example, those whose leadership depends on their *charisma* (personal charm), and others who command complete obedience. Although the personal qualities of each type of leader may be different, research has shown that leaders tend to share certain traits. They are usually more extroverted and assertive than others and their thinking tends to be original and practical (Riggio & Murphy, 2002).

There is no simple answer to the second question, 'Are leaders born or made?' Supporters of the traditional great person theory believe that leaders are born with personalities that predispose them to leadership. However, the same studies that identify 'leadership' qualities accept that circumstances play an essential part in a leader's rise to power. As a result, although an individual may have leadership qualities, they will not actually become a leader unless the situation allows.

### Nelson Mandela on leadership

Nelson Mandela's model of leadership comes from his experiences as a boy in Mqhekezweni in South Africa. It is a very democratic style of leadership that allows every member of the group to have their say in decision making. The leader only speaks at the end of the discussion, often to summarize the opinions of the rest. Mandela clearly believes in 'leading from behind': encouraging everyone to reach their own potential while he steers them in the right direction. His own account of how he learnt about leadership is in his autobiography, 'Long Walk to Freedom'. Extracts can be found online at:

<http://archives.obs-us.com/obs/english/books/Mandela/Mandela.html#top>

the former foreign secretary, found that "she likes everything to be clear-cut: absolutely in favour of one thing, absolutely against another" (Pym, 1984). Thatcher described herself in an interview before taking office as not "a consensus politician or a pragmatic politician, but a conviction politician".

Figure 2: Leader profiles

### Recognizing fixed phrases from psychology (2)

Make sure you understand these phrases from psychology.

*charismatic personality*

*chromosome pattern*

*dizygotic twins*

*dynamic model*

*frontal lobe*

*functional magnetic resonance imaging*

*great person theory*

*hierarchy of needs*

*interactionist approach*

*microanalytical research*

*monozygotic twins*

*multivariate method*

*peer reporting*

*self-efficacy*

*subjective observation*

*trait theory*

*two-dimensional*

### Recognizing fixed phrases from academic English (2)

Make sure you understand these fixed phrases from general spoken academic English.

*As we shall see, ...*

*But the real question is ...*

*From the point of view of ...*

*In a case like this, ...*

*In terms of ...*

*In the sense that ...*

*In this sort of situation, ...*

*That's the reason why ...*

*Increasingly, we find that ...*

*It could be argued that ...*

*It's true to say that ...*

*Many people think that ...*

*On the grounds that ...*

*On the one hand, ...*

*On the other hand, ...*

*Research has shown that ...*

*So it should be clear that ...*

*To some extent ...*

*To start with, ...*

## Skills bank

**Using the Cornell note-taking system**

There are many ways to take notes from a lecture. One method was developed by Walter Pauk at Cornell University, USA.

The system involves **Five Rs**.

- record** Take notes during the lecture.
- reduce** After the lecture, turn the notes into one- or two-word questions which will help you remember the key information.
- recite** Say the questions and answers aloud.
- reflect** Decide on the best way to summarize the key information in the lecture.
- review** Look again at the key words and the summary (and do this regularly).

**Recognizing digressions**

Lecturers sometimes move away from the main point in a lecture to tell a story or an anecdote. This is called a **digression**. You must be able to recognize the start and end of digressions in a lecture.

Sometimes a digression is directly relevant to the content of the lecture, sometimes it has some relevance and sometimes, with a poor lecturer, it may be completely irrelevant. Sometimes the lecturer points out the relevance.

Don't worry if you get lost in a digression. Just leave a space in your notes and ask people afterwards.

Recognizing the start	<i>That reminds me ...</i>
	<i>I remember once ...</i>
	<i>By the way ...</i>
Recognizing the end	<i>Anyway, where was I?</i>
	<i>Back to the point.</i>
	<i>So, as I was saying ...</i>

Understanding the relevance	<i>Of course, the point of that story is ...</i>
	<i>I'm sure you can all see that the story shows ...</i>
	<i>Why did I tell that story? Well, ...</i>

Asking about digressions	<i>What was the point of the story about the fraternal twins?</i>
	<i>Why did the lecturer start talking about note-taking?</i>
	<i>I didn't get the bit about ...</i>

**Referring to other people's ideas**

We often need to talk about the ideas of other people in a lecture or a tutorial. We normally give the name of the writer and the name of the source. We usually introduce the reference with a phrase; we may quote directly, or we may paraphrase an idea.

Name and introducing phrase	<i>As Gleitman points out ...</i>
	<i>To quote Gleitman ...</i>
Where	<i>in Psychology ...</i>
What	<i>psychopathology is ...</i>

# 10 MODERN ADDICTIONS

## 10.1 Vocabulary

'neutral' and 'marked' words • expressing confidence/tentativeness

### A Study the words in box a.

- 1 Use your dictionary to find out the meanings.
- 2 What part of speech is each word?

### B Read the Hadford University handout.

- 1 Use your dictionary or another source to check the meanings of the highlighted phrases.
- 2 Which are the stressed syllables in each phrase? Which two phrases have the same stress pattern?

### C Look at the pictures on the opposite page.

- 1 What do you think is happening in each picture?
- 2 What addiction or compulsion does each one represent?

### D Study the words in box b.

- 1 Check the meanings, parts of speech and stress patterns.
- 2 Put the words into the correct box in the table below, as in the example.

Neutral	Marked
rise, increase	rocket, soar
fall, decrease	
big, large, high	
good	
small	

### E Read the extract from the newspaper article.

- 1 Use a marked word in place of each of the blue (neutral) words.
- 2 Look at the red phrases. How strong or confident are they?

a addiction bulimia compulsion  
dependency kleptomania obsession  
relapse repetitious salience  
substance withdrawal



HADFORD University

### Abuse and dependency

According to the fourth edition of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-IV-TR), four criteria define substance abuse: **repetitious use**, neglect of social responsibilities, use in dangerous situations and continued use even when users experience **harmful effects**. Dependency is defined by the addition of two more criteria: **tolerance symptoms** (the need for increased consumption of the substance to achieve satisfaction) and **withdrawal symptoms** (negative reactions when the substance is not used). Some specialists assert that these criteria can also be applied to **behavioural disorders**. For instance, excessive Internet use could be considered a dependency when users meet all six criteria.

b brilliant collapse enormous  
extraordinary fantastic huge  
insignificant least massive minimal  
outstanding plummet rocket  
significant soar superb tumble  
tremendous

It's generally accepted that Internet use has risen recently because of the large expansion of networks across the world. Undoubtedly, this is the cause of a big increase in the number of Internet addicts.

We probably all know someone at work, or amongst our friends, who can't resist the urge to spend all night playing games or chatting on the Internet, even when it's clear that they'll be too tired in the morning to

carry out the smallest of their daily tasks. We can also be fairly sure that their performance levels at work or school will decrease.

In psychological journals, it has been suggested that Internet addictions may fall into the category of impulse control disorders, which could also include other behavioural disorders, such as kleptomania.





- A** Study the sentence on the right. Each phrase in box a could go in the space. What effect would each one have on the base meaning? Mark from \*\*\* = very confident to \* = very tentative.
- B** Survey the text on the opposite page.
- 1 What will the text be about?
  - 2 Write three research questions.
- C** Read the text. Does it answer your questions?
- D** Answer these questions.
- 1 What is the connection between peyote and enlightenment?
  - 2 Why did some of the Romantic poets take opium?
  - 3 Which addictions are the result of modern technology and lifestyles?
  - 4 How do substance dependencies differ from behavioural addictions?
  - 5 Does Griffiths accept that Internet addiction exists?
  - 6 How do the results of the South Korean research differ from those of China?
- E** Find the phrases in box b in the text. Is the writer *confident* (C) or *tentative* (T) about the information which follows?
- F** Look at the writer's description of Internet addiction in China (paragraph 5).
- 1 Underline the marked words.
  - 2 What does the choice of these words tell you about the writer's opinion of the levels of Internet addiction in China?
  - 3 Find neutral words to use in their place.
- G** Study the example sentence on the right, and then sentences A and B.
- 1 Divide sentences A and B into small parts, as in the example sentence.
  - 2 Underline any joining words (e.g., conjunctions).
  - 3 Find the subjects, verbs, objects/complements and adverbial phrases which go together.
  - 4 Make several short simple sentences which show the meaning.

The expansion of Internet accessibility \_\_\_\_\_ an increase in online addictions.

- a**
- probably caused \_\_\_\_\_
  - may have contributed to \_\_\_\_\_
  - was possibly one of the factors which contributed to \_\_\_\_\_
  - could have been a factor which led to \_\_\_\_\_
  - caused \_\_\_\_\_
  - seems to have caused \_\_\_\_\_
- b**
- Without doubt ... \_\_\_\_\_
  - It is important to recognize ... \_\_\_\_\_
  - Many writers seem to agree ... \_\_\_\_\_
  - may be considered similar ... \_\_\_\_\_
  - it could be claimed that ... \_\_\_\_\_
  - it can be argued that ... \_\_\_\_\_
  - this analysis is largely supported ... \_\_\_\_\_
  - research has identified ... \_\_\_\_\_

**Example:**

Although | drug dependency | and | impulse control disorders, | such as obsessive texting, | may be considered similar, | it could be claimed that | there is | a major difference.

**A**

Whereas drug abuse involves ingesting substances that have a direct effect on brain function and cause physiological as well as psychological harm, behavioural addictions have only psychological and social consequences.

**B**

However, it must be noted that a decidedly different view has been adopted in China, where research has identified massive levels of Internet addiction.

## Addictions

According to Walters (1999), addiction can be defined as, 'the persistent and repetitious enactment of a behaviour pattern' (Gross, 2005, p. 125). Without doubt, drug addiction is not a modern phenomenon. Throughout history, people have used chemical substances to induce altered states of mind and to reach enlightenment or spiritual understanding. For example, the Aztecs in Mexico took *peyote*, an edible cactus with hallucinogenic properties, for religious reasons, and to protect themselves against evil spirits. However, although peyote was taken ritualistically, its use still probably led to addiction. During the 19<sup>th</sup> century in Europe, more than one Romantic poet experimented with, and became dependent on, opium.

It is important to recognize that although addictive behaviour is often associated with the abuse of chemical substances like drugs and alcohol, it is not necessarily confined to these. Many writers seem to agree that it can include compulsive shopping, eating, playing video games and chatting on online social networks. Although drug dependency and impulse control disorders, such as obsessive texting, may be considered similar, it could be claimed that there is a major difference. Whereas drug abuse involves ingesting substances that have a direct effect on brain function and cause physiological as well as psychological harm, behavioural addictions have only psychological and social consequences.

A fuller definition of addiction than Walters' can be found in *Internet addiction: fact or fiction?* by Griffiths (1999), who considers the extent to which the six main dimensions of addiction can be applied to modern compulsions. He defines these elements as:

- salience – the central importance of the activity to an individual's life;
- mood modification – the pleasure derived from the activity;
- tolerance – the need to dedicate increasingly more time to the activity to gain any satisfaction from it;
- withdrawal symptoms – negative emotions which result from having the activity denied;
- conflict – the extent to which the addictive behaviour interferes with other social activities; and
- relapse – the tendency to return repeatedly to the compulsive behaviour pattern.

Griffiths (1999) questions whether excessive use of the Internet is truly an addiction to the medium, or a means of achieving other satisfactions.

Taking all the case study and survey evidence together, it can be argued that excessive usage in a majority of cases appears to be purely symptomatic (i.e., the Internet is being used as a tool to engage in other types of rewarding behaviour, like being in a relationship). (op. cit., p. 249)

As reported by Block (2008), this analysis is largely supported by recent research carried out in South Korea, in which it was found that 86% of Internet addicts are afflicted by other psychiatric disorders.

However, it must be noted that a decidedly different view has been adopted in China, where research has identified massive levels of Internet addiction. At a recent conference, Tao Ran, Ph.D., Director of Addiction Medicine at Beijing Military Region Central Hospital, revealed that '13.7% of Chinese adolescent Internet users meet Internet addiction diagnostic criteria – about 10 million teenagers' (Block, 2008, p. 306). These extraordinary figures have led the Chinese government to introduce innovative ways to control online gaming for young people, details of which were published in an article in the *People's Daily* (2007).

### 10.3 Extending skills

essay types • situation–problem–solution–evaluation essays

- A** Read the three essay questions. What types of essay are they?
- B** Look at text A on the opposite page. Copy and complete Table 1.
- C** Look at text B on the opposite page. Copy and complete Table 2. How do Koran's criteria for addiction match those described by Griffiths?
- D** Look again at the methods described in Exercise B (Table 1). What are their possible advantages and disadvantages?
- E** Read the title of essay 3 again.
- 1 Make a plan for this essay.
  - 2 Write a topic sentence for each paragraph in the body of the essay.
  - 3 Write a concluding paragraph.

- 1 Describe possible research methods for identifying the six dimensions of addiction.
- 2 Explain how a behavioural addiction can be evaluated from a cultural point of view.
- 3 Compare and contrast two studies of compulsive behaviour, using real examples. In what ways do the conclusions of the studies differ?

Table 1

Situation	
Research method 1	
Research method 2	
Comparison of 1 & 2	

Table 2

Proposition	
Supporting point 1	
Supporting point 2	

### 10.4 Extending skills

writing complex sentences • references • quotations

- A** Expand these simple sentences. Add extra information. Use the ideas in Lesson 10.3.
- 1 Eating disorders include binge eating.
  - 2 Young women are most commonly affected.
  - 3 Research has been carried out to trace changes in eating patterns.
  - 4 The study by Rizvi et al. produced inconsistent results.
  - 5 The study by Heatherton et al. produced clearer results.

- B** Look at text C on the opposite page. Copy and complete Tables 1–3.

Table 1: Referencing books

Author(s)	Place	Date	Publisher

- C** Look at text D on the opposite page.

- 1 Complete a further row of Table 1.
- 2 How could you write this as a reference?

Table 2: Referencing journals

Name of journal	Volume	Pages

- D** What do the abbreviations in the blue box mean?

Table 3: Referencing websites

Retrieval date	URL

- E** Look back at the text on page 81 (Lesson 10.2) and at text B on the opposite page.

- 1 Find all the research sources (e.g., Gross, 2005, p. 125).
- 2 Mark the page numbers for the books next to the correct reference in the list (C) on the opposite page.

& © cf. edn. ed(s). et al.  
ibid. n.d. op. cit. p. pp. vol.

- 3 What punctuation and formatting is used before and within each direct quote? Why?

- 82**
  - 4 What words are used to introduce each direct quote? Why does the writer choose each word?

A

### Studies of Eating Disorders

Two studies carried out between 1997 and 1998 into the progression of eating disorders from adolescence into adulthood produced slightly different results.

Rizvi, Stice, & Agras (1998) studied the eating patterns and attitudes to body image of a group of adult women who had recently given birth. Data was collected from several sources: the Body Mass Index, the Eating Disorder Inventory and two questionnaires. This was followed up six years later. The results showed that, although there was a

decrease over time in abnormal eating behaviour such as binge eating, fasting and strict dieting, negative attitudes towards body image increased.

The results of this study contrasted with those of Heatherton, Mahamedi, Striepe, Field & Keel (1997), who studied a sample of college students aged 20–22, with a 10-year follow-up. Heatherton et al. found that abnormal eating patterns decreased between adolescence and adulthood in women.

(Source: Keel, 2007)

B

It is clear that 21<sup>st</sup>-century lifestyles have created new addictions and increased the possibility of becoming dependent on compulsive behaviours. Huge shopping malls and cheap goods make it easier for a vulnerable person to become obsessed with spending money.

Koran (2006) claimed that compulsive buying fulfilled the criteria to be considered a psychiatric disorder. His criteria for defining compulsive buyers included, 'being frequently preoccupied with buying or subject to irresistible, intrusive, and/or senseless impulses to buy; frequently buying unneeded items or more than can be afforded; shopping for periods longer than intended' (p. 1806). Koran (ibid.) also outlined the negative effects of compulsive buying as, 'marked distress, impaired social or occupational functioning, and/or financial problems' (p. 1806).

C

### References

- Block, J.J., (2008). Issues for DSM-V: Internet addiction. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 165(3), 306–307.
- Griffiths, M. (1999). Internet Addiction: Truth or Fiction? *The Psychologist*, 12(5), 246–251.
- Gross, R. (2005). *Psychology: The science of mind and behaviour*. Oxford. Hodder Arnold.
- Koran, L.M., Faber, Ronald J., Aboujaoude, Elias, Large, Michael D. & Serpe, Richard T. (2006). Estimated Prevalence of Compulsive Buying Behavior in the United States. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 163(10), 1806.
- People's Daily. (2007). *The more they play, the more they lose*. Retrieved September 17, 2009, from [http://english.people-daily.com.cn/200704/10/eng20070410\\_364977.html](http://english.people-daily.com.cn/200704/10/eng20070410_364977.html)

D

### Case Studies in Behavioural Addictions

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Wentworth & Bourne

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### Recognizing fixed phrases from psychology (3)

Make sure you understand these key phrases from psychology.

<i>addictive behaviour</i>	<i>impulse-control disorder</i>	<i>repetitious enactment</i>
<i>altered states of mind</i>	<i>mood modification</i>	<i>rewarding behaviour</i>
<i>behavioural addictions</i>	<i>negative repercussions</i>	<i>self-reporting</i>
<i>compulsive behaviour</i>	<i>obsessive-compulsive disorder</i>	<i>substance dependency</i>
<i>diagnostic criteria</i>	<i>psychiatric disorder</i>	<i>withdrawal symptoms</i>

### Recognizing fixed phrases from academic English (3)

Make sure you understand these key phrases from general academic English.

<i>One of the ...</i>	<i>In this sort of situation ...</i>
<i>In some circumstances, ...</i>	<i>It is obvious/clear that ...</i>
<i>Even so, ...</i>	<i>It appears to be the case that ...</i>
<i>..., as follows: ...</i>	<i>Research has shown ...</i>
<i>The writers assert/maintain that ...</i>	<i>The evidence does not support this idea.</i>

### Recognizing levels of confidence in research or information

In an academic context, writers will usually indicate the level of confidence in information they are giving. There is a strong tendency also for writers to be tentative when stating facts.

**Examples:**

*It appears to be the case that ... / This suggests that ... (tentative)*

*The evidence shows that ... / It is clear that ... (definite/confident)*

When you read a 'fact' in a text, look for qualifying words before it, which show the level of confidence.

### Recognizing 'marked' words

Many common words in English are 'neutral', i.e., they do not imply any view on the part of the writer or speaker. However, there are often apparent synonyms which are 'marked'. They show attitude, or stance.

**Examples:**

Internet use rose by 15% last year. (neutral)

Internet use soared by 15% last year. (marked)

*Soared* implies that the writer thinks this is a particularly big or fast increase.

When you read a sentence, think: *Is this a neutral word, or is it a marked word? If it is marked, what does this tell me about the writer's attitude to the information?*

When you write a sentence, particularly in paraphrasing, think: *Have I used neutral words or marked words? If I have used marked words, do they show my real attitude/the attitude of the original writer?*

Extend your vocabulary by learning marked words and their exact effect.

**Examples:**

Neutral	Marked
go up, rise, increase	soar, rocket
go down, fall, decrease	sink, plummet, plunge
say, state	assert, maintain, claim, argue, allege
eat, drink	binge, gorge, indulge
habitual	compulsive, obsessive, uncontrollable

## Skills bank

**Identifying the parts of a long sentence**

Long sentences contain many separate parts. You must be able to recognize these parts to understand the sentence as a whole. Mark up a long sentence as follows:

- Locate the subjects, verbs and objects/complements and underline the relevant nouns, verbs and adjectives.
- Put a dividing line:
  - at the end of a phrase which begins a sentence
  - before a phrase at the end of the sentence
  - between clauses
- Put brackets round extra pieces of information.

**Example:**

*In recent years, young women have become increasingly preoccupied with their body image, in some cases even following life-threatening dietary regimes in order to match the size and shape of excessively thin fashion celebrities.*

In recent years, | young women have become (increasingly) preoccupied | with their body image, | in some cases | (even) following life-threatening dietary regimes | in order to | match the size and shape of (excessively) thin fashion celebrities.

**Constructing a long sentence**

Begin with a very simple SV(O)(C)(A) sentence and then add extra information.

**Example:**

	Drug dependency	and impulsive control disorders		are	similar.	
Although	drug dependency	and impulse control disorders	such as obsessive texting	are	similar,	there is a difference.

**Writing a bibliography/reference list**

The APA (American Psychological Association) system is probably the most common in the social sciences. Information should be given as shown in the following source references for a book, an Internet article and a journal article. The final list should be in alphabetical order according to the family name of the writer. See the reference list on page 83 for a model.

Author	Date	Title of book	Place of publication	Publisher
Gleitman, H., Fridlund, A.J. & Reisburg, D.	(2006).	<i>Psychology</i>	New York:	W.W. Norton & Company, Inc.

Writer or organization	Date (or 'n.d.')	Title of Internet article	Date of retrieval	Full URL
PsychNet.UK.	n.d.	<i>Kleptomania</i> .	Retrieved September 12, 2009, from	<a href="http://www.psychnet-uk.com/dsm_iv/kleptomania.htm">http://www.psychnet-uk.com/dsm_iv/kleptomania.htm</a>

Author	Date	Title of article	Title of journal	Volume and page numbers
Keel, P.K., Baxter, M.G., Heatherton, T.F. & Joiner, Jr., T.E	(2007).	A 20-Year Longitudinal Study of Body Weight, Dieting, and Eating Disorder Symptoms.	<i>Journal of Abnormal Psychology</i> ,	116(2), 422-432

More information on referencing (including other systems such as MLA) can be found on: <http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/560/10/>

# 11 PARAPSYCHOLOGY

## 11.1 Vocabulary

linking ideas

**A** Look at the diagram on the opposite page.

- 1 Complete the blank fields in the diagram.
- 2 Give more examples in each category.
- 3 Discuss which research methods would be suitable for each approach.

**B** Study the linking words and phrases in box a.

- 1 Put them into two groups for:
  - a discussing reasons and results
  - b building an argument
- 2 Is each linking word used to join ideas:
  - a within a sentence?
  - b between sentences?
- 3 Can you think of similar linking words?
- 4 Put the linking words in question 1b in a suitable order to list points in support of an argument.

**C** Study the words in box b.

- 1 Sort the words into two groups according to whether they are concerned with *research* or with the *paranormal*, or both.
- 2 In pairs, explain your decisions.
- 3 Are the words nouns, verbs or adjectives? What is their stress pattern?
- 4 What other words or phrases have the same meaning?

**D** Read the text on the right.

- 1 Complete each space with a word or phrase from box a or b. Change the form if necessary.
- 2 Can you think of other words or phrases with the same meaning as the blue words?
- 3 Find all the words and phrases in the text connected with *parapsychology* or *scientific research*.
- 4 Match the phrases below with a later phrase that refers back to them.

**Example:**

*science and psychology* – *these*

*science and psychology* *aspects of the mind*

*mesmerism* *anomalous events* *paranormal*

a another point is as a result, because  
finally firstly for example  
in addition moreover one result of this is  
secondly since so

b anomalous blind testing consciousness  
hypnosis investigators mainstream  
meticulous out-of-body parapsychology  
perception phenomena prove repeatability

According to Caroline Watt (2005), an *eminent* specialist, \_\_\_\_\_ has made a *significant* contribution to \_\_\_\_\_ science and psychology. Firstly, parapsychology has focused attention on aspects of the mind that have subsequently become the subject of conventional scientific research, such as \_\_\_\_\_, \_\_\_\_\_ and memory. \_\_\_\_\_

that the *boundaries* of psychology have been *consistently* expanded. For example, early experiments into *mesmerism*, now better known as \_\_\_\_\_, were carried out by psychical researchers. Nowadays, hypnosis is a *recognized* phenomenon. Watt *mentions*, moreover, that recent parapsychological research into *anomalous* events like \_\_\_\_\_ experiences has *led to* greater understanding of conventional psychology.

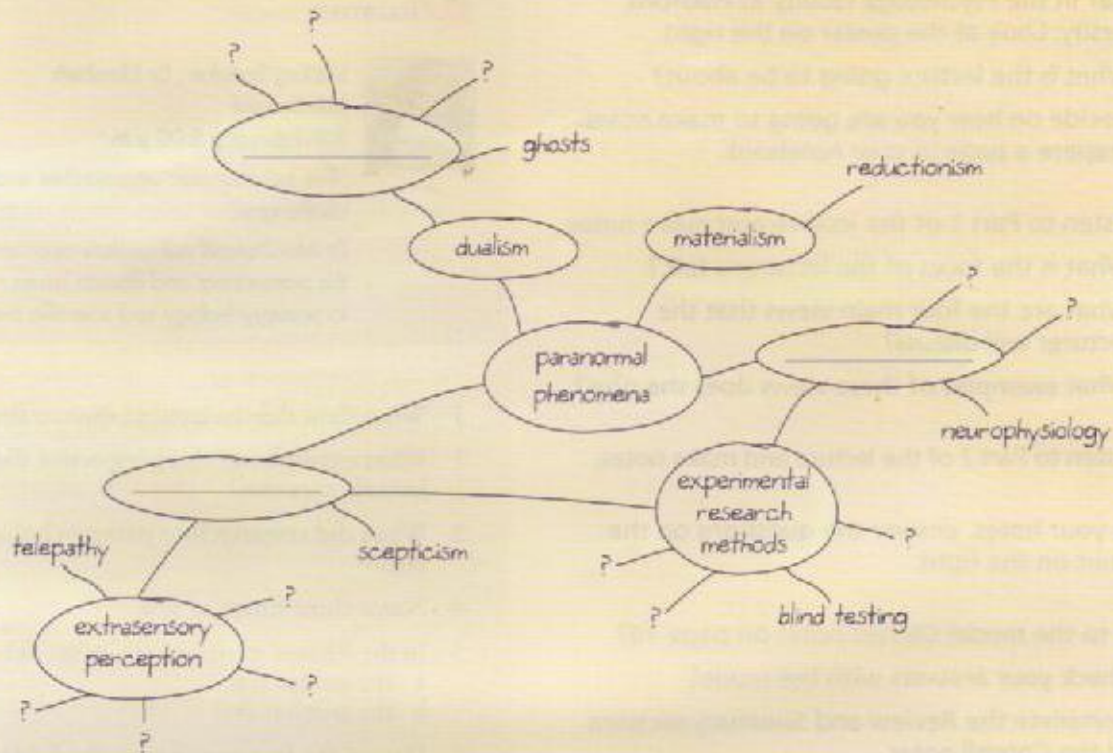
\_\_\_\_\_, since paranormal \_\_\_\_\_ are *notoriously* difficult to \_\_\_\_\_, \_\_\_\_\_ have developed *meticulous* methods of research into mental processes.

\_\_\_\_\_, mainstream psychology has been able to widen its range of experimental procedures. One example of this is the popularization of \_\_\_\_\_, to reduce *bias* in early experiments on psychic ability. However, issues related to \_\_\_\_\_ and methods of data analysis continue to *challenge* professionals in both parapsychology and mainstream psychology.

Source: Watt, C. (2005). Parapsychology's contribution to psychology: a view from the front line. *Journal of Parapsychology*, 69, 215–232.

**E** Do the quiz on the opposite page.

## The paranormal: approaches and challenges



**HADFORD** University

### General knowledge quiz

1. What do these letters stand for?

- a ESP
- b PP
- c REG
- d EE
- e RV
- f OBE
- g PK





2. Who or what are these?

- a ganzfeld
- b sixth sense
- c a seance
- d a medium
- e the supernatural
- f *Ghostbusters*
- g déjà vu



## 11.2 Listening

recognizing the speaker's point of view • making notes • writing up notes

- A** You are going to listen to a lecture by a guest speaker in the Psychology faculty at Hadford University. Look at the poster on the right.
- 1 What is the lecture going to be about?
  - 2 Decide on how you are going to make notes. Prepare a page in your notebook.
- B**  Listen to Part 1 of the lecture and make notes.
- 1 What is the focus of the lecturer's talk?
  - 2 What are the four main views that the lecturer will discuss?
  - 3 What examples of these views does she give?
- C**  Listen to Part 2 of the lecture and make notes.
- D** Using your notes, answer the questions on the handout on the right.
- E** Refer to the model Cornell notes on page 107.
- 1 Check your answers with the model.
  - 2 Complete the *Review* and *Summary* sections of the Cornell notes.
- F**  The lecturer talks about *déjà vu*. Listen again to part of the lecture. Which words tell us whether the information is fact or opinion?
- G**  Study the phrases in the blue box. Which type of information below follows each phrase in the blue box? Listen to some sentences from the lecture.
- restatement
  - definite point
  - summary of a source
  - example
  - statement of a topic
  - another point
  - tentative point
  - clarification
  - purpose for speaking
- H** Write out one section of your notes in complete sentences.  
*See Skills bank*



HADFORD University



Visiting Speaker: Dr Elizabeth MacDonald

15<sup>th</sup> February 5:00 p.m.

'The paranormal: approaches and challenges.'

Dr MacDonald will explore approaches to the paranormal and discuss issues related to parapsychology and scientific method.


- 1 What view did the lecturer discuss first?
- 2 What examples of this perspective did the lecturer mention?
- 3 When did research into parapsychology begin?
- 4 Name three forms of ESP.
- 5 In the Rhines' experiments, what did:
  - a the sender do?
  - b the receiver do?
- 6 How is the free response method different from the Rhines' experiment?
- 7 What is the purpose of a random event generator?
- 8 What type of experience motivated Susan Blackmore to study parapsychology?
- 9 Name three mainstream sciences that can often explain paranormal events.
- 10 According to the speaker, what two phenomena can be explained by science?

- 1 that is to say
- 2 Don't misunderstand me.
- 3 not only that, but
- 4 ... it's fair to say that ...
- 5 to some degree
- 6 in an attempt to ...
- 7 with respect to ...
- 8 ... gave a good description of ... in ...
- 9 ... to the extent that ...
- 10 A case in point is ...
- 11 ... which ... briefly defines as ...
- 12 (He) has no doubt that ...


## 11.3 Extending skills

stress in phrases • building an argument

**A** Study the phrases in box a.

- 1 Mark the stressed syllables in each phrase.
- 2  Listen and check your answers.
- 3 Which phrases have adjective + noun? Which word has the stronger stress in these phrases?


**B** Look at the topics below.

- moving things with your mind
  - healing yourself through concentration
  - curing people by thinking about them
- 1 What would you like to know about these topics?
  - 2 Prepare a page in your notebook to make some notes.
  - 3  Listen to the final part of the lecture (Part 3) and make notes. If there is information which you miss, leave a space.
  - 4 Compare your notes with someone else. Fill in any blank spaces.

**C** Answer the questions on the Hadford University handout, using your notes.**D** Study the stages of building an argument (a–f) in box b.

- 1 Put the stages in an appropriate order.
- 2 Match each stage (a–f) with a phrase from box c.

**E** Look at box b again.

- 1  Listen to a section from the lecture. Make notes on what the lecturer says for each stage of the argument (a–f).
- 2 Check your answers to Exercises D and E1.

**F** Use your notes to write 75–100 words about the main points in the final part of the lecture.**G** In groups, discuss the research task set by the lecturer. Talk about these questions:

- 1 What are the three mind-over-matter topics you need to consider?
- 2 Which one will you choose?
- 3 What ideas do you already have?
- 4 What kind of information will you need to find?
- 5 Where can you go to find more information?

Report back to the class on your discussion. In Lesson 11.4 you will take part in a seminar on this topic.

- 3 mental powers  
mind over matter  
living systems  
physical health  
naked eye  
special apparatus  
distant healing  
random intervals  
sleight of hand



HADFORD University

- 1 What is the difference between macro-PK and micro-PK?
- 2 What does DMILS mean?
- 3 What is the function of the electrodes in a remote staring experiment?
- 4 What two mental activities are involved in meditation?
- 5 What seem to be the most serious methodological issues, according to the lecturer?
- 6 What is your research task?

**b**

- a giving a counter-argument
- b giving your opinion
- c stating the issue
- d supporting the reason with evidence
- e rejecting a counter-argument
- f giving a reason for your opinion

**c**

- It's quite clear that ...  
The question is ...  
The research has concluded that ...  
I'm afraid that just isn't true.  
Some people claim ...  
The evidence lies in the fact that ...

## 11.4 Extending skills

stress in phrases • making effective contributions to a seminar

### A Study the terms in box a.

- 1 Explain the meaning of the terms.
- 2 Mark the main stress in each term.

### B Study the words in box b. Match the words in columns 1 and 2 to make phrases.

### C Study the FocusOnMatter web page on the opposite page.

- 1 What types of psychokinesis are shown in the pictures?
- 2 Which categories of mind over matter on the web page are best known to the general public? Why do you think this is?

### D Study the phrases in box c.

- 1 What purpose would you use these phrases for in a seminar?
- 2 Which phrases can you use for linking your new point to a contribution by another speaker?

### E Listen to some students taking part in a seminar. They have been asked to discuss psychokinesis, DMILS and distant healing. While you listen, make a note of:

- 1 the main topic of each extract
- 2 further details of each topic

### F Study the Distant Healing and Biofeedback web page and discuss these questions.

- 1 What is the main message from this page?
- 2 Look at the 'types of healing by PK' list.
  - a How can biofeedback be studied?
  - b Which categories of healing do you think are most difficult to investigate and why?
  - c Which research projects could apply to all types of healing by PK?
  - d Look at the whole FocusOnMatter website again. How can the general public participate in research through this website?

### G Discuss your research findings on psychokinesis, DMIL or distant healing with your group. One person from the group should report the conclusions of the discussion to the class.

a

- clear-cut proof
- double blind methods
- energy field treatment
- experimenter participant interaction
- high-speed photography
- radio micro-transmitters
- remote staring experiment

b	1	2
	anecdotal	blind
	blood	effect
	double	evidence
	energy	field
	experimenter	pressure
	healthy	participants
	immune	Reiki
	skin	system
	touch	temperature

c

I'd like to start by explaining ...

To carry on from this first point, I want secondly to look at ...

I don't think that is the main reason.

That seems like a very good point X is making.

I'm going to expand the topic by mentioning ...

On the other hand, you might want to say that ...

As well as this issue, we can also look at a very different issue.

So to sum up, we can say that ...

Does anybody have any opinions or anything they would like to add?

I think we need a different viewpoint.

OK, to continue then ...

Following on from what X has said ...

## FOCUSONMATTER.ORG

the organization that investigates the power of the mind over the body

Look here for the latest research and information on:

### Psychokinesis (PK)

- [Teleportation](#)
- [Telekinesis](#)
- [Direct Mental Interaction with Living Systems](#)
- [Levitation](#)
- [PK in the News](#)
- [Research Projects](#)
- [Start Your Own PK Research Group](#)



Join our blog and share your paranormal experiences.

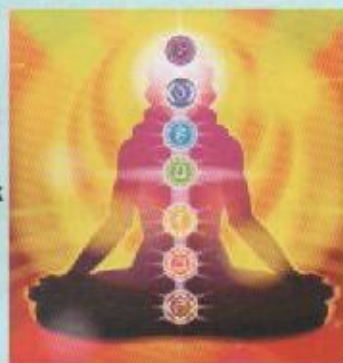
### Meditation

- [Join our online meditation group](#)
- [Get advice on meditation techniques](#)
- [Read about the latest research on mediation](#)



### Distant Healing and Biofeedback

- [What is distant healing?](#)
- [What is biofeedback?](#)
- [Journal articles](#)
- [Research funding](#)
- [Join our distant healing project](#)



## Distant Healing and Biofeedback

FocusOnMatter's distant healing and biofeedback project aims to research as many reports of healing as possible.

There are many claims that distant healing and biofeedback have been responsible for curing people of physical and psychological illnesses.

We want to test distant healing and biofeedback scientifically.

### Types of healing by PK

- 1 [Biofeedback](#)
- 2 [Energy field treatment](#)
- 3 [Prayer](#)
- 4 [Psychic healing](#)
- 5 [Therapeutic touch](#)

### Research projects

- 1 [Faith healing](#)
- 2 [Reiki](#)
- 3 [Biofeedback](#)
- 4 [Suggestibility](#)
- 5 [Coincidence](#)

### Linking words

We use linking words and phrases to join ideas together in a sequence, to show how the ideas are related.

Some linking words can be used to join independent and dependent clauses in a sentence.

**Examples:**

*Because paranormal phenomena are notoriously difficult to prove, over the years, investigators in this field have developed meticulous research methods.*

OR

*Over the years, investigators in this field have developed meticulous research methods because paranormal phenomena are notoriously difficult to prove.*

Other linking words join sentences in a text.

**Example:**

*Research in parapsychology has discovered that hypnosis is a psychological phenomenon. **As a result,** mainstream psychology has been able to expand its areas of investigation.*

When building an argument, it is a good idea to use linking words to add points.

**Examples:**

*Firstly, ...                      Another point is ...                      In addition, ...                      ... whereas ...  
For example, ...                      Secondly, ...                      Moreover, ...                      Finally, ...*

### Using words with similar meanings to refer back in a text

It is a good idea to learn several words with similar or related meanings. We often build cohesion in a text by using different words to refer back to something previously mentioned.

**Examples:**

First mention	Second mention	Third mention	Fourth mention
<i>mainstream science and psychology</i>	<i>conventional scientific research</i>	<i>conventional psychology</i>	<i>mainstream psychology</i>
<i>aspects of the mind</i>	<i>consciousness, perception and memory</i>	<i>mental phenomena</i>	<i>mental processes</i>
<i>scientific research</i>	<i>research methods</i>	<i>experimental procedures</i>	<i>experiments</i>

### Recognizing fixed phrases from academic English (4)

In Units 7, 9 and 10, we learnt some key fixed phrases from general academic English. Here are some more to use when speaking.

<i>Don't misunderstand me.</i>	<i>the history of ...</i>
<i>I'm afraid that just isn't true.</i>	<i>the presence of ...</i>
<i>in an attempt to ...</i>	<i>there is a correlation between ... and ...</i>
<i>... is a case in point</i>	<i>to some degree ...</i>
<i>not only that, but ...</i>	<i>to the extent that ...</i>
<i>Some people say ...</i>	<i>What's more ...</i>
<i>the effect of ...</i>	<i>with respect to ...</i>

## Skills bank

**Writing out notes in full**

When making notes we use as few words as possible. This means that when we come to write up the notes, we need to pay attention to:

- the use of numbers and symbols for words and ideas, e.g.,  
Notes: spiritualists = supernatural exists, e.g., ghosts + spirits  
*Spiritualists believe that the supernatural exists, as proved by the appearance of ghosts and spirits ...*
- making sure the grammatical words are put back in, e.g.,  
Notes: → phenomena with no scientific explanation  
*These are phenomena which have no scientific explanation.*
- making the implied meanings clear, e.g.,  
Notes: dualism (mind and body separate) v. materialism (only physical is real)  
*Dualism is the belief that the mind and body are separate, in contrast with materialism, which maintains that only the physical world is real.*

**Building an argument**

A common way to build an argument is:

- 1 First, state the issue:  
*The question is how reliable is the evidence?*
- 2 Next, give a counter-argument:  
*It's quite clear that anecdotal evidence of PK is not sufficient to prove its existence.*
- 3 Then give your opinion:  
*So, although some people claim that they have seen objects move as a result of PK, I'm afraid this just can't be true.*
- 4 Then give evidence for your opinion:  
*The evidence lies in the fact that very few, if any, successful demonstrations have taken place under controlled conditions to eliminate the possibility of fraud or sleight of hand.*

**Linking to a previous point**

When you want to move the discussion in a new direction, introduce your comments with phrases such as:

*Following on from what X said, I'd like to talk about ...*

*I'm going to expand the topic by mentioning ...*

*As well as (distant healing), we can also look at a very different sort of issue.*

**Summarizing a source**

When we talk about the ideas of other people in a lecture or a seminar, we often give a summary of the source in a sentence or two.

**Examples:**

*A book by (name of writer) called (name of book) published in (year) gives an explanation of how ...*

*Briefly, (name of writer) explains how ...*

*An introduction to (topic) can be found in (name of writer).*

# 12 WITH THE FUTURE IN MIND

## 12.1 Vocabulary

referring back • introducing quotations/paraphrases

### A Study the words and phrases in box a.

- 1 Does each item belong to the field of *communication and multimedia technology* or *psychology*? Make two groups.
- 2 Check the stress and pronunciation.
- 3 Make smaller subgroups. Explain your decisions.

avatar    blackmail    bully  
chat room    chatter    cyberbullying  
face-to-face    gamer    harassment  
instant messaging    mobile technology  
offline    online    peers    predator  
real-life    teasing    texting  
unmoderated    virtual    victimization

### B Read text A on the opposite page.

- 1 What problem is discussed in this article?
- 2 Look at the highlighted words. Connect each word to the noun or phrase it refers to.  
**Example:** *they* refers to previously mentioned noun (*people*)

accept    agree    argue    assert  
cite    claim    concede  
consider    contend    describe  
disagree    dispute    emphasize  
illustrate    indicate    insist    note  
observe    point out  
report    show    state    suggest

### C Study the verbs in box b. They can be used to introduce quotations or paraphrases/summaries.

- 1 Check the meanings of any words you don't know.
- 2 Which verbs have similar meanings?
- 3 Which verbs are **not** followed by *that*?
- 4 When can you use each verb?  
**Example:** *accept* = the writer (reluctantly) thinks this idea from someone else is true

### D Read text B on the opposite page. Look at the highlighted sentences.

- 1 What is the purpose of each sentence?  
**Example:** *There is still considerable debate as to whether playing violent video games increases aggressive behaviour.* = fact
- 2 In an assignment, should you refer to the highlighted sentences by **quoting directly** or **paraphrasing**?
- 3 Choose an appropriate introductory verb and write out each sentence as a direct quotation or a paraphrase. Add the source references.

### E Look at headlines 1–5 on the opposite page.

- 1 Which words from Exercise A apply to the headlines about *communication and multimedia technology*?
- 2 What issues are raised in each headline?

### F In what ways are young people influenced by violent media?

- 1 Discuss in pairs.
- 2 Write a paragraph giving your recommendations. Include one of your sentences from Exercise D, question 3.



## A Virtual relationships

Recent advances in information technology have raised new issues in the field of psychology. Communications and multimedia software have expanded the boundaries of communities by making it possible for people to form relationships with individuals they have never met face-to-face. But for some, these online friendships are as real as personal contact. We see this when virtual relationships spill over into the real world, where they sometimes result in long-term partnerships, sometimes in friendships, and

sometimes, unfortunately, in violence. Research into the influence of online relationships on the emotional development of youths has shown that adolescents who are isolated in their real lives are more likely to be dependent on their online connections. This makes them extremely vulnerable to victimization and deception. As mobile technology makes virtual interaction more accessible, this may become an increasingly acute problem.

from McDonald, E. (2009). *Psychology of the future*. Hadford: Hadford University Press

## B Violence, music and video games

<sup>a</sup>There is still considerable debate as to whether playing violent video games increases aggressive behaviour. <sup>b</sup>However, it is very likely that video games make players feel and behave aggressively at a later stage, even when the stimulus is no longer present. In their study, Anderson and Dill (2000) <sup>c</sup>claimed that interactive violent video games could 'prime' aggressive thought. <sup>d</sup>There can be no doubt that this is also the case for video songs with provocative lyrics. In 2004, despite research findings to the contrary, <sup>e</sup>Fiske (as cited in Gross, 2005) supported Anderson's view, and insisted that 'Research unequivocally demonstrates that media

violence facilitates aggression' (p. 506). In addition, Bushman and Anderson (2007, p. 253) <sup>f</sup>have since argued that, although there may be other important factors affecting aggressive behaviour, violence in the media is '... not a trivial factor.' (2007, p. 253)

<sup>a</sup>Anderson, C. A. & Dill, K.E. (2000). Video games and aggressive thoughts, feelings, and behavior in the laboratory and in life. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 78(4), 772-790

<sup>b</sup>Bushman, B.J. & Anderson, C.A. (2007). Measuring the strength of the effect of violent media on aggression. *American Psychologist*, 62(3)

<sup>c</sup>Gross, R. (2005). *Psychology. The science of mind and behaviour*. Hodder Arnold

214

from McDonald, E. (2009). *Psychology of the future*. Hadford: Hadford University Press.

## C

### 1 TEENAGER RESCUED FROM ONLINE PREDATOR

2 **My violent life: diary of a young avatar**

4 **Cyberbullying: who's to blame?**

3 **Online gamer stalks virtual opponent in real life**

5 **Are your children talking to strangers?**



- A** Discuss the following questions.
- 1 Who do you think is most likely to be affected by cyberbullying?
  - 2 What do you think are the differences between cyberbullying and traditional bullying?
- B** Survey the text on the opposite page. What will the text be about? Write three questions to which you would like answers.
- C** Read the text. Does it answer your questions?
- D** Number the sentences on the right 1–13 to show the order in which they happened.
- E** For each paragraph:
- 1 Identify the topic sentence.
  - 2 Think of a suitable title.
- F** Look at the underlined words in the text. What do they refer back to?
- G** Study the highlighted words and phrases.
- 1 What do they have in common?
  - 2 What linking words or phrases can you use to show:
    - addition?
    - contrast?
    - concession?
    - result?
    - reason?
  - 3 Write the sentences with the highlighted items again, using other linking words or phrases with similar meanings.
- H** Read the text on the right. A student has written about some of the factors that contributed to Nathalie's problems. The quotations and paraphrases aren't correct. Can you spot the mistakes and correct them?
- I** Write a paragraph for a university lecturer, summarizing the psychological effects of cyberbullying. Decide whether you should quote or paraphrase the material from the text.

	Nathalie joined the girls' social networking website.
	She was referred to a psychologist.
	The group texted malicious gossip about Nathalie.
	Nathalie visited unmoderated chat rooms.
	The girls started to bully Nathalie.
	A group of girls started to tease her.
1	Nathalie arrived at Hadford High School.
	The school improved its bullying policies.
	Nathalie got anonymous threatening text messages.
	Nathalie began to miss school.
	She adopted false identities and bullied other people online.
	The girls excluded her from their online conversations.
	The other students seemed to accept Nathalie.

As Coastman (2009) explains that Nathalie was introverted and shy and had difficulty making new friends. This was even harder because her mother had become very protective, encouraging Nathalie to stay at home in the evenings. Some girls started teasing Nathalie, but this 'escalated into *outright bullying*.' (p. 36). According to Coastman (p. 36), she says that Nathalie was excluded from the online chats, blocking her from their conversations.

# Hadford High School

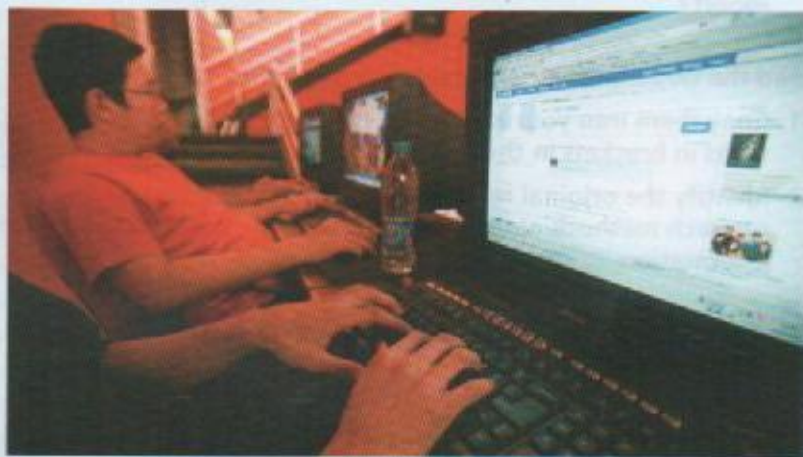
## A case study in 'cyberbullying'

By Phoebe Coastman

Nathalie was a 14-year-old pupil at Hadford High School. Because she arrived at the school three years after the other students had settled in and made friends, she was faced with the challenge of trying to integrate with an established social group. Naturally quiet and introverted, she found it difficult to make new friends. Added to this, her mother had become very protective since they moved house, encouraging Nathalie to stay at home in the evenings, while she went out to work. As a consequence, it was almost impossible for the teenager to build an independent social life, and she compensated for this by spending her evenings chatting online.

Although the other students seemed to accept Nathalie at first, and she joined the girls' social networking website, a small group of girls began to tease her and make cruel remarks about her appearance a few weeks after she arrived. This behaviour quickly escalated into outright bullying, when the group began to spread lies about Nathalie and subject her to threats and blackmail.

To make matters worse, the bullying continued online. The group began to exclude Nathalie from their online chats, at times blocking her from conversations, and at others, posting malicious gossip about her and her relationships with boys. After this, the girls spread the slander even wider by texting it to other students, and eventually Nathalie began to receive abusive text



messages from strangers. In spite of this, in an effort to remain part of the group, she continued to log on to the social networking site.

One of the consequences of this continuous online harassment was that Nathalie began to visit unmoderated chat rooms, where she fell victim to even worse verbal aggression. She also experimented with alternative online identities and intimidated other young people in chat rooms from the safety of her anonymity. Like her own aggressors, she spread lies and engaged in socially manipulative chat, threatening and blackmailing other chatters. This gave her a temporary sense of power and control over others that she lacked in her real-life relationships.

Nevertheless, being excluded from her immediate social circle was affecting Nathalie's self-esteem, and she became convinced that she was widely unpopular, both on and offline. Over the weeks, she isolated herself even more, becoming so dependent on her virtual relationships that they

started to replace her real life contacts. It became obvious that Nathalie had a serious problem when she began to truant from school in order to spend the day chatting online. During an interview with her personal tutor, Nathalie admitted that she had been victimized online and at school and that she was spending all day in chat rooms. She was referred to a psychologist for counselling to help her overcome her lack of confidence and sense of isolation.

Realizing that Nathalie's experience was unlikely to be unique, the school authorities decided to introduce a programme to increase student, staff and parent awareness of online bullying and its potential consequences; in addition, the school improved its system for reporting harassment, and gave staff supplementary training in detecting possible cases of cyberbullying.

## 12.3 Extending skills

research reports: introduction, method, conclusion

- A** Study the words in the box.
- 1 Check the pronunciation and grammar.
  - 2 What are their meanings in a research report?
- B** Read the two *Method* paragraphs on the right.
- 1 Copy them into your notebook. Put the verbs in brackets in the correct form.
  - 2 Identify the original research questions, the research methods and other important information.
- C** What are the sections of a research report? What order should they go in?
- D** Read the *Introduction* and *Conclusion* to the report on the opposite page.
- 1 Why was the report undertaken?
  - 2 What action(s) does the report recommend?
  - 3 What are the elements of a good introduction and conclusion?

conduct data discussion findings  
implication interview interviewee  
interviewer limitation method  
questionnaire random  
recommendation research question  
respondent results sample  
survey undertake

### Report A: Method

A written questionnaire (*design*) to investigate the frequency of harassment online and by text, and to discover what percentage of young people (*threaten*) online. Two thousand questionnaires (*send*) to a random sample of students at Hadford University, of which 150 (*return*). In addition, 130 people (*interview*) at a conference on 'Social networks and online safety'.

### Report B: Method

In order to find out which safety features were included in social networking sites, a survey of their websites (*undertake*) during the first week of June. The websites which (*investigate*) were Face-to-Face, ChatOnline and RealFriends.

## 12.4 Extending skills

research reports: questionnaires, findings, discussion

- A** Describe the data in Figures 1 and 2.
- B** Look at the first paragraph from the *Findings* section of Report A.
- 1 Complete the spaces with quantity phrases. Put the verbs in the correct tense.
  - 2 Write another paragraph, using Figures 1 and 2.
- C** Look at the notes for the *Discussion* part of the report on the opposite page. Write the discussion paragraph.
- D** Cover the *Conclusion* section on the opposite page.
- 1 What should the report writer say in the *Conclusion*? Make some notes.
  - 2 Read the *Conclusion* again and compare.

### Report A: Findings

Firstly, on the positive side \_\_\_\_\_ (90%) of the young people interviewed (*say*) that they were never threatened online. Only \_\_\_\_\_ (5%) (*report*) being intimidated in chat rooms and 85% of the respondents (*claim*) they were never teased or excluded from chats. In addition, \_\_\_\_\_ (70%) (*report*) that they never received anonymous text messages, and a \_\_\_\_\_ majority (80%) (*state*) that they were never harassed or insulted by other chatters. Moreover, a \_\_\_\_\_ number (80%) (*indicate*) that they were never slandered online. Finally, the website survey revealed some positive aspects. Firstly, \_\_\_\_\_ the websites surveyed featured registration, and \_\_\_\_\_ required a date of birth. Only \_\_\_\_\_ website, however, included all the security features.

### Report A: Introduction

In recent years, as Internet use has spread, it has become more common for young people to meet their friends online after school and at the weekend. One of the consequences of this is that bullying is no longer restricted to the playground or the classroom. Additionally, chat rooms and instant messaging (IM) have made it easier for vulnerable young people to become victims of gossip, slander and threats. This report will describe a survey that was carried out to identify young peoples' experiences of online bullying and intimidation through IM. It will also describe safety features on the three most popular social networking websites. Finally, the report will suggest ways in which minors can be prevented from engaging in risky online activities.

### Report A: Conclusion

To conclude, it is clear that the vast majority of young Internet users have little or no experience of bullying or intimidation online, with only a very small percentage being threatened on a daily or weekly basis. However, a significant number of young people are insulted and harassed online more than once a month, a figure that may suggest that, to some extent, virtual communities encourage bullying. Although the majority of service providers have implemented safety features on their websites to reduce the risks of cyberbullying, it must be remembered that the Internet is a dynamic environment. New technologies generate new risks, and the review and revision of safety systems on an international scale must be an ongoing project. Unless measures are taken to ensure that online security technologies are constantly up-to-date, many vulnerable young people may be at risk of Internet bullying.

### Report A: Findings

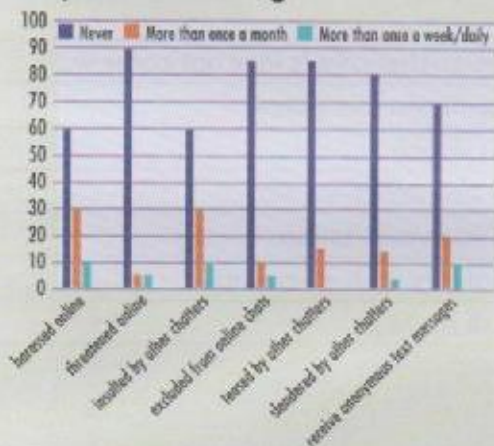


Figure 1: Frequency and type of online harassment

Website	Registration required	Date of birth required	Blocking option	Text scanning software
Face-to-Face	✓	✓	✓	✓
ChatOnline	✓	✗	✗	✓
RealFriends	✓	✓	✓	✗

Figure 2: Child protection features of social networking websites

### Discussion

Overall: majority of young people = no problem online

Threats = very rare ∴ Internet not as risky as we think

Teasing = not very frequent ∴ young people use websites for support and friendship?

### BUT

Insults common: why? Are they just banter? Survey doesn't distinguish type of insult

Harassment common: why? Safer online?

### AND

Not all websites give users control over interaction with others or check age of users → possible abuse

NB: Research limitation: 150 respondents from 2,000 quest. = 7.5%

### Introductory verbs

Choosing the right introductory verb is important. Your choice of introductory verb shows what kind of statement the writer is making.

**Example:**

*Coastman (2009) observed that Nathalie had difficulty adapting to her new school.*

Your choice of introductory verb also shows what you think of another writer's ideas. This is an important part of academic work.

**Example:**

*McDonald (2009) claims that online relationships are more important for teenagers who have emotional problems in their real lives.*

Verb	The writer ...
<i>agree</i>	thinks this idea from someone else is true
<i>accept, concede</i>	reluctantly thinks this idea from someone else is true
<i>consider, emphasize, note, observe, point out, state, suggest*</i>	is giving his/her opinion
<i>argue, assert, claim, contend, insist</i>	is giving an opinion that others may not agree with
<i>cite</i>	is referring to someone else's ideas
<i>disagree, dispute</i>	thinks an idea is wrong
<i>suggest*</i>	is giving his/her recommendation
<i>describe</i>	is giving a definition/description
<i>illustrate, indicate, show</i>	is explaining, possibly with an example
<i>report</i>	is giving research findings

\**suggest* can have two meanings

### Linking ideas in a text

Linking words, which join ideas within a sentence or between sentences, convey different meanings.

	Within sentences	Between sentences
<b>Contrast</b>	<i>but, whereas, while</i>	<i>However, In/By contrast, On the other hand</i>
<b>Concession</b>	<i>although, despite/in spite of the fact that</i>	<i>However, At the same time, Nevertheless, Despite/In spite of + noun, Yet</i>
<b>Result</b>	<i>so, so that</i>	<i>So, As a result, Consequently, Therefore</i>
<b>Reason</b>	<i>because, since, as</i>	<i>Because of + noun, Owing to + noun, Due to + noun</i>

### Referring to quantities and group sizes in a report

<i>A/An</i>	<i>overwhelming/large/significant slight/small/insignificant/tiny</i>	<i>majority</i>	<i>(of + noun)</i>
		<i>minority</i>	
		<i>number</i>	
<i>Over</i>	<i>half</i>		
<i>More</i>	<i>than</i>	<i>a quarter</i>	
<i>Less</i>		<i>a third</i>	
		<i>x%</i>	

## Skills bank

**Structuring a research report**

A research report is an account of some research which has been undertaken to find out about a situation or a phenomenon, e.g., *How widespread is cyberbullying?*

- Introduction      introduce topic; background information; reasons for research
- Methods          research questions; how research was carried out
- Findings/results    answers to research questions
- Discussion        issues arising from findings; limitations of research
- Conclusion        summary of main findings; implications; recommendations; possibilities for further research

**Writing introductions and conclusions****Introduction**

- Introduce the topic of the report.
- Say why the topic is important.
- Give background information.
- Give an outline of the report plan.

Note: No substantial information; this belongs in the body of the report.

**Conclusion**

- Summarize the main points in the report without repeating unnecessarily.
- Make some concluding comments such as likely implications or recommendations.

Note: No new information; all the main points should be in the body of the report.

**Deciding when to quote and when to paraphrase**

When referring to sources, you will need to decide whether to quote directly or to paraphrase/summarize.

- **Quote** when the writer's words are special or show a particularly clever use of language. This is often the case with strongly stated *definitions* or *opinions*.
- **Paraphrase/summarize** descriptions and factual information.

**Incorporating quotations**

- Use an introductory verb.
- Don't forget the quotation marks.
- Make the quote fit the grammar of the sentence.
- Show any missing words with '....'.
- Copy the original words exactly.
- Add emphasis with italics and write [emphasis added].
- Add words which are not in the original but are necessary to fully understand the quotation out of context. Put the extra word(s) in brackets.

Do not quote more than one sentence **within the body** of a paragraph. If you want to quote two or three sentences, put a colon and write the quote as indented text, so that it clearly stands out from the body of your essay.

However, think very carefully before you include a long quote. It is usually better to paraphrase in this case.

## Additional material

### 5.3 Symbols and abbreviations for notes

#### Symbols

&, +	and, plus
-	less, minus
±	plus or minus
=	is, equals, is the same as
≈	is approximately equivalent to
≠	is not, is not the same as, doesn't mean, does not equal, is different from
>	is greater than, is more than, is over
<	is less than
→	gives, produces, leads to, results in
←	is given by, is produced by, results from, comes from
↑	rises, increases, grows
↓	falls, decreases, declines
"	ditto (repeats text immediately above)
∴	therefore, so
∵	because, as, since
@	at
C	century, as in 20 <sup>th</sup> C
§	paragraph
#	number, as in #1
?	this is doubtful

#### Abbreviations

e.g.	for example
c.	approximately, as in c.1900
cf.	compare
Ch.	chapter
ed./eds.	editor(s)
et al.	and the other people (used when referring to a book with more than two authors)
etc.	and all the rest
ff.	and the following, as in p. 10ff.
fig.	figure (used when giving a title to a drawing or table)
i.e.	that is, that means, in other words
ibid.	in the same place in the source already mentioned
NB	important
n.d.	no date given
No., no.	number
op. cit	in the source already mentioned
p.	page
pp.	pages, as in pp. 1-10
re.	concerning
ref.	with reference to
viz.	namely
vol.	volume

## 7.4

Student A

### Memory recall and loss 1: Repression

Freud's theory that memory loss is motivated by trauma. Repressed memory is an experience that has been completely blocked.

Alternative theory - repressed memory is a part of our consciousness but we avoid thinking about it.

Post-traumatic stress disorder: initially no reaction, then flashbacks, nightmares, anxiety. Memories not repressed in this case.

Why are some traumas remembered and some forgotten? Research suggests some people are more genetically disposed to recall traumatic events than others.

## 7.4

Student B

### **Memory recall and loss 2: Schema**

Schema theory claims that memories depend on the culture and previous experience of each individual, e.g., a person from a country where the police are always armed may imagine they've seen all the police in Britain with guns.

People imagine incorrect 'facts' to fill in gaps in memory, e.g., remembering a young man wearing jeans because it's fashionable, not because he really was.

A person's recollection of an incident may be affected by racial prejudice or influenced by what other people have said about it.



## 7.4

### Student C

#### Memory recall and loss 3: Amnesia

Amnesia often caused by brain damage, through illness, accident or surgery.

Different types of amnesia: childhood, anterograde and retrograde.

Childhood amnesia – it is normal not to remember events before 3–4 years of age because of neurological immaturity and lack of schemas to build memories on.

Anterograde amnesia: person remembers what happened before the accident or surgery, but cannot retain information presented afterwards.

Retrograde amnesia: person forgets everything that happened before brain damage. Sometimes accompanied by anterograde amnesia. Person lives from minute to minute with no recollection of even very recent events.

## 7.4

### Student D

#### Memory recall and loss 4: Episodic memory

Episodic memory is concerned with personal memories of events in an individual's life. Also called autobiographical memory by some experts.

Episodic memory is based on particular places and times in a person's life, e.g., where they were born or went to school.

Brain damage may leave episodic memory intact, but affect the ability to remember the names of everyday objects (semantic memory), e.g., a person remembers details of childhood holidays, but forgets the names of common fruit and vegetables.

## 9.3 Definitions of the Big Five Traits

### Extroversion

Extroversion is one of the two fundamental traits identified by Jung. It is an aspect of the *temperament*, and has been shown to be hereditary. Individuals who score high on extroversion scales are usually talkative, sociable and outgoing. Extroverted students prefer to study in groups, and in places where they can be surrounded by other people. They also have a shorter concentration span than introverts. Given their sociable personalities, it is not surprising that they also tend to be leaders. Extroverts enjoy excitement and novelty and are adventurous risk takers. They are likely to take up extreme sports like car racing and bungee jumping and tend not to worry about life too much. However, they are more susceptible to outside influences; that is to say, they are more suggestible. Extroverts are easy to find in cultures where strangers talk to each other in public places and people sing at parties; where hospitality is open and people show their feelings easily.

### Introversion

Introversion is one of the two fundamental traits identified by Jung and is also known as neuroticism. It is an aspect of the *temperament*, and has been shown to be hereditary. Introverts tend to be quiet and cautious. They prefer silence to music and tend to laugh less than extroverts. Introverts are more inclined to work in professions that do not require high levels of social interaction. They talk about their feelings very little and, on a daily basis, experience fewer positive emotions than extroverts. As regards studying, introverts have a longer concentration span than extroverts and like to study alone. They work more slowly than extroverts, but pay more attention to detail and generally perform better academically. Not surprisingly, students who withdraw from their studies for psychological reasons tend to be introverts. Demonstrations of emotion are discouraged in certain cultures, where strangers do not greet each other in the street and where it is very unusual for a visitor to be invited to someone's home.

### Agreeableness

This is the trait that defines how important it is for an individual to get on well with others. People who score high on agreeableness are easy-going and friendly. They prefer to cooperate with others and try to avoid conflict. So when there is a disagreement, they will look for ways to negotiate an amicable solution. If they feel upset, they're not likely to show it because they enjoy a harmonious atmosphere. They tend to be good-tempered, that is they don't have bad moods, and are usually cheerful. Agreeable people are generally trusting and tend to think the best of others. They also have an optimistic outlook on life. Typical statements for agreeable people are: *I'm interested in others; I like other people to feel relaxed; I understand other people's feelings.* Although agreeable people and extroverts are both sociable, agreeable people are more focused on the comfort and happiness of others than extroverts are. Agreeableness is a highly valued social quality in some cultures, where disagreeing openly with other people is thought to be bad manners and is strongly discouraged.

## Conscientiousness

Conscientiousness is the trait dimension that describes a person's sense of responsibility. Conscientious people are very reliable, like to plan their lives and enjoy routine rather than spontaneous activities. They also pay a lot of attention to detail and are very tidy. On the negative side, they may be rather inflexible and perfectionist in their approach to life. In the professional field, conscientious people are very self-disciplined and show this by completing tasks and persevering in spite of difficulties. They are often high achievers who enjoy challenges and look for difficult tasks to prove their abilities. However, they are not attracted to risky or dangerous professions. They are usually very independent and self-motivated and tend to work as businesspeople and entrepreneurs.

## Openness to experience

The trait of *openness to experience* is sometimes understood as a type of intelligence. High scorers on *openness to experience* scales tend to have flexible minds, are intellectually curious and enjoy solving problems. They are willing to adapt to new circumstances, enjoy variety and like to explore new places and try novel experiences. People who are open to experience are also artistically inclined and have a creative imagination. They also have a tendency to reflect on their feelings and life experiences. In contrast, people who score low on 'openness to experience', tend to be more practical and less reflective.

## 11.2 Model Cornell notes

Review

Notes

phenomena with no scientific explanation

dualism (mind and body separate) v. materialism (only physical is real)

- 1 spiritualists = supernatural exists, e.g., ghosts + spirits
- 2 parapsychologists = psi may exist - only recognized by some people
- 3 sceptics = impossible to prove or disprove
- 4 scientists = don't exist - scientific explanations

supernatural events ↔ communication with physical world by sensitive people, e.g.,

- mediums + psychic power → seances → ectoplasm = slimy = evidence of spirits
- poltergeist = invisible power → moves objects

subjective ∴ difficult to prove

ectoplasm = no scientific proof

scientific study of paranormal experiences, e.g., ESP = extrasensory perception

- a) telepathy = mind reading + transmit info. at distance
- b) clairvoyance = seeing at a distance, e.g., remote viewing
- c) precognition = predicting future

in '30s → Rhines' experiments to prove ESP:

- 2 people - separate rooms
- sender looks at cards + symbols
- receiver guesses cards

Rhines thought tests proved ESP - but not scientific

recent experiments

- free response method = target not known
- ganzfeld = receiver → eyes and ears covered + white noise in headphones
- random event generator = machine → eliminate bias

Scientists = have experimented with paranormal → doesn't exist

only physical things exist

reductionism = more radical



physics + chemistry explain psychological events

physics + biology advance → unexplained phenomena → explained, e.g.,

- i. out-of-body exp. (OBE) = sensation of seeing own body from outside - cause = electrical stimulation of right temporal lobe
- ii. déjà vu = remembering current moment from before - explanations → cognitive theories, e.g., recognition memory

Summary

# Wordlist

Note: Where a word has more than one part of speech, this is indicated in brackets. The part of speech given is that of the word as it is used in the unit. So, for example, *post* is listed as *post (v)*, although it can also be a noun.

	Unit		Unit		Unit
<b>A</b>		bias	9	consciousness	7
abuse (n and v)	8, 10	biofeedback	11	consistent	3, 9
access (n and v)	4	biomedical	3	constant	9
accommodate	6	biopsychology	2	construct	1
accumulate	6	bipolar	3	constructivist	2
accumulation	5	blackmail (n and v)	12	consumption	10
acquire	6	blind testing	11	context	2
addiction	10	body image	10	correlation	9
adopt	10	browse	4	cortex	7
aggressive	12	bulimia	10	counsellor	3
agreeableness	9	bully (n and v)	12	criteria (n.pl)	10
altered states	10			crucial	6
analysis	5	<b>C</b>		culture	3, 6
analyze	1	characteristic	3	curricula (sing. curriculum)	6
ancestors	5	characterize	8	cyberbullying	12
ancient	5	charismatic	9		
anecdotal	11	chat room	12	<b>D</b>	
anomalous	11	chatter (n)	12	data	3, 4
anonymity	12	chromosome	9	database	4
anorexia	10	clairvoyance	11	defence mechanism	5
anxiety	5	clinical	1	degree	6
applied	2	cluster	9	déjà vu	11
appraisal	3	cognitive	1	delusion	8
apprentice	6	cognitivism	2	dependency	10
approach	2	collective	5	dependent	6
attention	2	compatible	4	depression	3
attitude	3	completeness	5	deprivation	2
authenticity	11	compromise	5	deranged	8
autistic	8	compulsion	10	detachment	8
avatar	12	compulsive buying	10	determined (adj)	6
aware	5	computerize	4	determinism	2
awareness	2	conditioning	1	developmental	2
		conformity	8	device	11
<b>B</b>		conscience	1	diagnostic criteria	10
behaviour	1	conscientiousness	9	dieting	10
behavioural addictions	10	conscious	1, 5	dimension	9

	<b>Unit</b>		<b>Unit</b>		<b>Unit</b>
disadvantage (v)	3	<b>F</b>		<b>I</b>	
disequilibrium	6	face-to-face	12	icon	6
disguised	5	factor analysis	9	idealized (adj)	6
disorder	3, 7, 8	fasting	10	identity	1, 12
disperse	6	field	2	idiographic	9
displacement	7	forensic	1	image	1, 5
dissociation	8	forget	7	imbalance	8
distress	10	framework	1, 3	imitation	6
disturbance	8	fraud	11	immediate	7
diversity	3	free association	5	impaired functioning	10
dizygotic	9	free-response	11	impulse (n)	10
document (n)	4	frenzy	8	indigenous	6
domain	6	frontal	7	induce	10
drive	5	frontal lobe	9	inexplicable	11
driven	2	functional magnetic resonance imaging	9	ingest	10
dualism	11			inhibition	1
dynamic	7			input (n and v)	4
		<b>G</b>		insane	8
<b>E</b>		gamer	12	institutional	3
eating disorder	10	ganzfeld (whole field)	11	integral	4
ectoplasm	11	generation	6	integrate	4
emotional	1	genes (n.pl)	9	interactionist	9
empirical	10	genetic	9	interface (n)	4
enactment	5	gossip (n and v)	12	interlink (v)	4
encoding	7			interpret	5
energy	5	<b>H</b>		interpretation	2
enlightenment	10	habitual	3	introspection	2
environment	9	hallucination	1, 8	intrusive	10
episode	8	hallucinogenic	10	intuition	11
episodic	7	harassment	12		
equality	3	hardware	4	<b>K</b>	
event	7	heredity	9	keyword	4
experiment	1	hierarchy	9	kleptomania	10
exploit	8	hippocampus	7		
extrasensory	1	humanist	2	<b>L</b>	
extrasensory perception	11	hyperlink	4	largely	6
extroversion	9	hypnosis	7	legend	5
		hypnotic	1	levitation	11
				lifestyle	10
				linguistic	6

link	8	<b>N</b>		physiological	1, 8
lobe	7	narcissism	1	physiology	9
log in/on	4	near-death experience	11	poltergeist	11
log out/off	4	networking	12	post (v)	12
long-term	7	neural	7	potential	9
lose touch (with)	8	neurobiology	1	practitioner	2
lunatic	8	neuropsychology	11	precognition	11
		neurosis	1, 5	predator	12
<b>M</b>		neuroticism	9	pre-determined (adj)	6
mainstream	11	nomothetic	9	predict	9
maintain	6			predisposition	9
malicious	12	<b>O</b>		prejudice	8
manifest	8	objective	2	premonition	11
manifestation	11	occupational	3	preoccupation	10
manipulative	12	offline	12	prescription	3
master (n and v)	6	online	12	primary	7
materialism	11	online gaming	10	prime (n)	12
mediate	5	openness	9	process (n and v)	2, 7
mediator	3	operant	1	profile	3
meditation	11	optimism	9	project	1
medium (n)	11	organism	1	propose	6
memory	7	organization	3	proximal	6
mentor (n and v)	6	out-of-body experience	11	psi	11
menu	4	output (n and v)	4	psyche	5
microanalytical	9	overlap (n and v)	9	psychiatrist	1
mind	1	overstimulate	1	psychic	11
mnemonics	7			psychoanalysis	1
mobile technology	12	<b>P</b>		psychodynamic	2, 5
monozygotic	9	paradigm	6	psychokinesis	11
mood	8	paranormal	11	psychometric	2, 3, 9
mood modification obsession	10	parapsychology	1	psychosis	8
motivation	5	password	4	psychotic	1
multimedia	12	pattern	3, 9	pure	2
multiple personality	8	peer (n)	6, 9, 12		
multivariate	9	perception	2	<b>Q</b>	
mysticism	5	perpetuate	8	quantum theory	11
myth	5	personality	2, 3		
		pessimism	9		
		phenomenon (pl. a)	11		
		phobia	1		

	Unit		Unit		Unit
<b>R</b>		self	5	threaten (v)	12
randomization	11	self-actualization	9	tolerance	10
real-life	12	self-efficacy	9	trait	3, 9
recall (n and v)	5, 7	self-esteem	12	transmit	7
reckless	9	self-reporting	9	trauma	7
recollect	7	sensational	8	truant (n and v)	12
reconstruction	7	sensory	1, 7	twin	9
recycle	7	short-term	7	<b>U</b>	
reductionism	11	situationist	9	unconscious	1, 5
regardless	6	slander	12	unipolar	3
rehearsal	7	software	4	unique	2
Reiki	11	specification	4	uniqueness	9
reinforce	1	spiritualism	11	universal	5
relapse (n and v)	10	stable	6	unmoderated (adj)	12
remember	7	stage	7	unpredictability	8
remind	7	stalk (v)	12	upbringing	9
remote viewing	11	standardize	2	urge (n and v)	5, 10
repeatability	11	stereotype	1, 8	username/ID	4
repercussions	10	stimulus	1	<b>V</b>	
repetition	7	storage	7	vacuum	6
repetitious	10	stress	7	valid	2
repressed	5	subconscious	1	verifiable	2
retarded	8	subjective	2, 9	victimisation	12
retention	7	substance	10	violent	12
retrieval	7	suicide pact	8	virtual	12
role	3	supernatural	11	<b>W</b>	
<b>S</b>		symbol	5	white noise	11
saliency	10	symptoms	10	wholeness	5
scaffolding	6	syndrome	8	will (n and v)	11
scepticism	11	<b>T</b>		willpower	11
schedule	3	teasing (n)	12	wisdom	5
schema	6, 7	telepathy	11	withdrawal	10
schizophrenia	8	tend	3	<b>Y</b>	
scientific	1	tendency	9	yoga	11
seance	11	text (v)	12	yogi	11
search (n and v)	4	thalamus	7	zone	6
search engine	4	theory	2		
search results	4	therapy	1		
secondary	7	threat (n)	12		



# Transcripts

## Unit 1, Lesson 1.2, Exercise B 🎧 1.1

### Part 1

Hello and welcome to the Psychology faculty. I'd like to start by asking a basic question: 'What is psychology?'. If we look carefully, we can find clues to the definition in the origin of the word itself. So let's have a look at the two main parts; 'psych' and 'ology'. Some of you may already know that 'psyche' is a Greek word, but does anyone know what it means? Yes, 'psyche' means 'spirit' or 'soul' or 'mind'. And 'ology' comes from the Greek 'logos' meaning 'speech or theory'. So 'psychology' literally means 'theory of the mind'. As a matter of interest, the word *mind* has several forms which aren't particularly associated with psychology; for example: *mindless*, *mindful*, *minder*. But in psychology, the adjective we use to refer to the mind is 'mental', which comes from the Latin word 'mens', meaning *mind*.

## Unit 1, Lesson 1.2, Exercise C 🎧 1.2

### Part 2

As we're looking at words, let's examine for a moment how they can change their meaning in different situations. It probably happens in your own language. Let me give you an example. In everyday English, when we say an animal is in danger of extinction, we mean that there are very few alive and they may all disappear forever. But when we refer to extinction in psychology, we mean that, in the process of conditioning, a response has disappeared because the stimulus has been removed. Is there any connection between these two meanings? Yes, there is. Both uses of the word refer to disappearing. But in the everyday sense, we are referring to the physical disappearance of a species. In psychology, though, extinction is the disappearance of a response because a stimulus has been removed.

Somehow, when we are learning our first language, we get a feeling for the basic meaning of words, which helps us to understand the same word in a new context. When we are learning another language, it is very important to find the basic meaning of a word because the direct translation in one context may not be the correct translation in another. For example, can you use the word for sympathetic in your language in the context of sympathetic nervous system, meaning the part of the nervous system that prepares the organism to face danger?

## Unit 1, Lesson 1.2, Exercise D 🎧 1.3

### Part 3

So, let's look at my original question in a little more detail. What is psychology? Well, there are several different branches of psychology. Social psychology is one. Social psychology studies the way people behave in groups. Then there's neuropsychology, which concentrates on the physiological processes that affect human behaviour ... Can you think of any others? There's developmental psychology, which studies how people's minds develop throughout their lives. Educational psychology is a sub-branch of developmental psychology. The branch that focuses on different types of individual is personality psychology. And last but not least, there's clinical psychology, which specializes in diagnosing and treating mental disorders. Although these specialist fields focus on various aspects of psychology, they all involve the study of the human mind. But psychology is not only about the mind, it's also about behaviour.

## Unit 1, Lesson 1.2, Exercise E 🎧 1.4

### Part 4

So far we've looked at the origin of the word psychology, the ways in which we use ordinary words in a special sense and some of the different fields of psychology. Above all, we've established that psychology is about the mind. But is that all it's about? No. It's also about behaviour. As I mentioned before, all the different specialist areas of psychology involve analysis. But how do we go about analyzing the mind? Well, we do this by analyzing behaviour. For example, a forensic psychologist will draw up the mental profile of a criminal by studying the traces they leave at a crime scene. A neuropsychologist will establish the effect of different stimuli on an individual by observing how they respond during laboratory experiments. Whenever a psychologist studies people's behaviour, there is always a scientific basis for their analysis. So to answer the question 'What is psychology?', we can say that it is 'the scientific analysis of human behaviour and the mind'.

## Unit 1, Lesson 1.3, Exercise E 🎧 1.5

### Introduction 1

Good morning. In this lecture, I'm going to talk about some of the different branches of psychology. Broadly speaking, there are five main

branches: social psychology, neuropsychology, developmental psychology, personality psychology and clinical psychology. Within these branches there are other more specialized fields. I'm going to describe each of these branches and some of their subfields.

### Introduction 2

If everybody's ready, I'll start. Right ... In today's lecture, we'll be looking at the problem of drug dependency amongst teenagers and young people. There are many causes of drug dependency and the effects are multiple. Today, I'm going to limit myself to tracing a chain of cause and effect that starts with teenage experimentation with drugs and ends with crime.

### Introduction 3

Good morning to you all. In the first part of today's lecture, I'm going to trace language acquisition from infancy (0–2 years) through to 5 years. In the second part, I'll be relating language acquisition to Piaget's three stages of cognitive development, ending with pre-adolescence (11–12 years).

### Introduction 4

Good morning. Everybody ready? Good. Now, today I'll be looking at the historical origins of psychology and some of the key developments that have led to its current scientific status. The *scientific* approach to the study of the mind is based on empiricism; the theory that we can only know things through physical and observable evidence, and you will see that a number of early theories have been validated by modern experimental research.

### Introduction 5

In this morning's lecture, I'm going to compare two types of *conditioning*, also known as *behaviour modification*; one was developed by Pavlov, and the other by Skinner. I've chosen Pavlov and Skinner because their research had an enormous influence on 20<sup>th</sup>-century learning theories, and affected generations of teachers and students.

## Unit 1, Lesson 1.4, Exercise E 🎧 1.6

### Lecture 1

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there are other more specialized fields. I'm going to describe each of these branches and some of their subfields.

The first branch I'm going to talk about is social psychology. This branch is concerned with how people relate to each other in groups. It includes analyzing ways individuals are affected by mass behaviour and the media. One of the applications of social psychology is in government planning. By analyzing patterns of social behaviour, government departments can draw up effective policies. Another area where social psychology is useful is industry. For example, in the advertising world, social psychologists carry out surveys to find out how effective an advertising campaign has been.

Now I'd like to go on to describe one subfield of social psychology, and that is organizational psychology. This field focuses particularly on group dynamics and how people are motivated at work. It's important because it has practical applications in all organizations. Its main function is to design effective systems to help people work productively together. For example, it can be used to design management structures, establish effective teams, select the best employees, and motivate them.

The second main branch of psychology I'd like to talk about is neuropsychology. This is the branch of psychology that studies the structure of the brain and the effect that stimuli may have on the nervous system and behaviour. Neuropsychology is especially useful in the field of medicine; for example, a neuropsychologist may analyze people's behaviour when they have taken specific drugs. But, neuropsychology can also have an application in the commercial world ... When you go to a restaurant or a supermarket, have you noticed how the lighting or the background music affects your mood? Yes? ... Well, the retail and catering industries use the research of neuropsychologists to decide which lighting and music will make customers feel like spending more.

Let's move on now to a third branch – developmental psychology. This branch focuses, as you might expect, on the way people's brains develop and mature during their lifetime. It is concerned with the ways in which children and young people form their understanding of the world and their relationship with it.

Next, I'd like to look at an important subfield of developmental psychology – educational psychology. This is the specialist field that deals with learning. It is closely linked to developmental psychology because it is concerned with the relationship between the evolution of the

cognitive functions and the process of learning. An example of a practical application of this field would be the case of an educational psychologist testing children to discover their preferred learning styles and deciding which educational approach will benefit them most.

Now, I'd like to turn to fourth branch of psychology, and that is personality psychology. This branch of psychology focuses on analyzing the behaviour of individuals and classifying them into personality types. It has practical applications in a variety of contexts: for selecting employees; in psychotherapy; and in police investigations, where forensic psychologists draw up personality 'profiles' of criminal suspects. This is called 'profiling'.

The fifth branch of psychology I'd like to look at is clinical psychology ... The main focus of this field is the diagnosis and treatment of individual behavioural problems and mental disorders. Clinical psychologists often work in hospitals, health centres and private clinics.

Finally, I'd like to mention counselling, which is a widely known subfield of clinical psychology. Counsellors help healthy people to manage unusually stressful situations such as divorce, the death of a family member or social isolation. At universities, and in schools in particular, counsellors help students to overcome problems like peer pressure, bullying or drug abuse.

## Unit 1, Lesson 1.4, Exercise E 🎧 1.7

### Lecture 2

If everybody's ready, I'll start. Right ... In today's lecture, we'll be looking at the problem of drug dependency amongst teenagers and young people. There are many causes of drug dependency and the effects are multiple. Today, I'm going to limit myself to tracing a chain of cause and effect that starts with teenage experimentation with drugs and ends with crime.

Firstly, let's look at teenagers ... Adolescence is typically a time when young people are looking for new experiences. It's also a period when having friends and belonging to a social group is very important. So, teenagers are more easily persuaded by their friends to try drugs than older people. In many cases, peer pressure to experiment with drugs is the first step towards drug dependency.

Now let's look at the next step in the chain. How does experimentation with drugs lead to dependency? Well, some drugs, like heroin and opium, for example, are physically addictive; others

are psychologically addictive. This means that people who take them become dependent on the way they feel when they use them. Sadly, many young people experimenting with stimulants, narcotics or hallucinogens simply don't recognize that drug taking can easily lead to dependency.

Finally, we'll look at an effect of dependency that leads directly to crime. When a person is addicted to drugs, physically or psychologically, they want to take it regularly. And this costs money ... As you probably know from your own experience, young people don't usually have well-paid jobs or a lot of money. So it's very common for young people to turn to crime to finance their drug habit. And what crimes do they commit? Many start by stealing from family and friends, and move on to shoplifting and pickpocketing. But many young people get their supplies of drugs by becoming drug dealers themselves, distributing narcotics amongst their friends and contacts over wider and wider networks and receiving drugs in payment.

## Unit 1, Lesson 1.4, Exercise E 🎧 1.8

### Lecture 3

Good morning to you all. In the first part of today's lecture, I'm going to trace language acquisition from infancy (0–2 years) through to 5 years. In the second part, I'll be relating language acquisition to Piaget's three stages of cognitive development, ending with pre-adolescence (11–12 years).

First, let's look at the *prelinguistic* stage. This is the period from birth until babies start to produce recognizable words. As soon as they're born, babies make their first sounds ... they cry. Crying is our first form of vocalization. We can't call it language; but babies have different cries to express different needs and emotions: hunger, frustration and tiredness. Now we'll examine the prelinguistic stage in more detail.

From as early as a week old, babies recognize their mother's voice; and experiments have demonstrated that at two months, babies in an English-speaking context can distinguish between sounds like 'ba' and 'pa'. Just a little later, at three months, babies will make sounds in response to adults speaking to them. Between five and eight months, infants show signs of understanding simple vocabulary by looking at objects when adults name them.

Now we'll move on to look at the *linguistic* stage of development. Infants don't usually begin to use words until they are between ten and twenty months. Their first utterances are usually only one

word long; for example, *Mama, Dada, milk, cat*. But by their second birthday, children are beginning to use two-word utterances. And between two and three years old, children are speaking in sentences. Children's vocabulary develops rapidly at this stage, and the average five-year-old will have a vocabulary of between 10,000 and 15,000 words. I'd like to remind you at this point that all the ages we've been looking at are approximate. Individual children develop at different speeds.

So far, we've been looking at the development of speaking and vocabulary. But we must remember that children's language development is restricted to the concepts they are capable of understanding. So now, I'd like to examine the connection between language acquisition and cognitive development.

The psychologist, Piaget ... that's P-I-A-G-E-T, identified three stages of cognitive development in children: *preoperational, concrete operations and formal operations*.

According to Piaget, children between two and seven or eight are at the *preoperational* stage – when they have difficulty grasping abstract concepts, like time, and the difference between fantasy and reality. Their language development reflects this.

However, between the ages of seven and eleven, children enter the period of *concrete operations* – when they learn how to understand and express abstract ideas based on concrete objects, for example, drawing maps and telling the time.

And, finally, at the age of about eleven or twelve, in the period of *formal operations*, children's language has developed to match their ability to argue logically using abstract ideas.

## Unit 1, Lesson 1.4, Exercise E 1.9

### Lecture 4

Good morning. Everybody ready? Good. Now, today I'll be looking at the historical origins of psychology and some of the key developments that have led to its current scientific status. The *scientific* approach to the study of the mind is based on empiricism; the theory that we can only know things through physical and observable evidence, and you will see that a number of early theories have been validated by modern experimental research.

Let's start in 435 BC, when Alcmaeon ... that's spelt, A-L-C-M-A-E-O-N, who was born in Croton, in Southern Italy, experimented with anatomical dissection and discovered the optic nerve.

Alcmaeon theorized that the brain was connected to the rest of the body through currents of energy. This is a surprisingly modern description of the nervous system.

Now moving on five hundred years to 129 AD, we come to Galen, who was a physician, born in Asia Minor (modern Turkey). Galen's studies of anatomy led him to identify the cranial nerves, in the brain, and the cerebro-spinal fluid, which irrigates the brain and the nervous system. This is another early discovery that's still valid today.

For well over a thousand years after Galen's discoveries, there was very little scientific investigation into the structure of the brain. However, in the 16<sup>th</sup> century, the Belgian anatomist, Andreas Vesalius (that's V-E-S-A-L-I-U-S), who lived between 1514 and 1564, continued Galen's work and wrote a complete textbook about human anatomy based on his dissections of the body.

A hundred and fifty years later, in 1690, the British empiricist, John Locke, argued that our perception of the world depends entirely on our sensory experiences; but he added that we also have a mental faculty that allows us to reflect on what we experience. This theory was supported later by the work of the psychologist, Wundt, as we'll see in a minute.

Let's continue now to look at the physical study of the brain. The German physiologist, Franz Joseph Gall, who lived from 1758–1828, believed that different parts of the brain were responsible for producing particular behaviours. His theory that the shape of the skull reflected the personality of an individual has been disproved; but his fundamental assumption that certain areas of the brain have specific functions is now supported by modern neuropsychology.

I'll conclude by mentioning Wilhelm Wundt, who founded the first laboratory dedicated to psychological research in 1879. Wundt is important in the history of psychology because, in addition to researching the physical effects of stimuli on behaviour, he asked the subjects of his experiments to reflect on and report their experiences. This combination of scientific experimentation and introspection was a forerunner to modern approaches to psychotherapy.

## Unit 1, Lesson 1.4, Exercise E 1.10

### Lecture 5

In this morning's lecture, I'm going to compare two types of *conditioning*, also known as

*behaviour modification*; one was developed by Pavlov, and the other by Skinner. I've chosen Pavlov and Skinner because their research had an enormous influence on 20<sup>th</sup>-century learning theories, and affected generations of teachers and students.

Pavlov, who was born in 1849, carried out experiments in a type of conditioning that we now call *classical conditioning*. Whereas Skinner, born in 1904, experimented with what he called *operant conditioning*. Now let's compare the two.

First, we'll look at *classical conditioning*, which is associated with Pavlov's research at the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Has anyone ever heard of Pavlov's dogs? ... Yes? Good. Well, his experiments are quite famous. Experimenting with dogs, Pavlov found that it was possible to train or *condition* them to produce a natural response to an artificial stimulus.

Let me explain. As we know, the natural response to the natural stimulus, food, is to salivate. Now, during his experiments, Pavlov flashed a light every time the dogs were given food. Gradually, they learnt to associate food with a flashing light. Eventually, the dogs would salivate when the light was turned on, even without the food. In this way, Pavlov replaced the natural stimulus of food with the artificial stimulus of light. Pavlov called this a *conditioned reflex*.

Now let's turn to the concept of *operant conditioning*. In Skinner's most famous experiment, a rat was placed in a glass box (which we now call a Skinner box) where there was a lever. When the rat, by chance, hit the lever it was rewarded with food. Little by little, the rat learned that by hitting the lever it would get food. You could say it learnt to associate cause with effect. Skinner called this type of behaviour modification *operant conditioning*, because the rat was active in producing the effect it wanted.

So, to sum up, both classical and operant conditioning, can train animals to behave in a certain way. However, in classical conditioning, they have no control over their behaviour, whereas in operant conditioning, they can learn to behave in a way that will earn them a reward.

### Unit 3, Lesson 3.2, Exercise B 1.11

#### Part 1

LECTURER: Good afternoon, everyone. I'm glad to see such a good turnout today, because we have a visiting speaker, Dr Michael Todd, who's going to talk about his work as an occupational psychologist.

As you probably already know, occupational psychologists are also known as work – or organizational – psychologists. They have many roles: counsellor, problem solver, organization designer, team builder and investigator. This afternoon, Michael is going to give us an example of some of the things he does in *his* job. So, by the end of the lecture, I hope you'll have a realistic picture of what's involved in practising occupational psychology and maybe even some thoughts on whether it would suit you as a profession. Now I'll hand over to Michael.

DR TODD: Good afternoon, and thank you for inviting me. As Dr Freeman said, occupational psychologists work in many different capacities. I work in the Human Resources department of a large university, where one of my responsibilities is to support the university's equality and diversity policy, which ensures that all employees are treated fairly. This afternoon, I'm going to describe a project I've been working on recently: investigating why there are so few women in senior posts at the university.

### Unit 3, Lesson 3.2, Exercise C 1.12

#### Part 2

The project I've been involved in over the last year started because there was a lot of concern that women were not fully represented in senior positions at our university. We wanted to find out if women were disadvantaged by organizational bias or affected by prejudice. We focused on women in this case, but our study could equally have looked at other social groups, such as the disabled or the over-50s. Our final aim was to see whether we needed to make institutional changes to improve women's promotion opportunities.

We approached the study from a constructivist point of view, which, as you probably already know, assumes that people's behaviour is shaped by their social interaction. In other words, we were assuming from the beginning that the institutional structure would be largely responsible for the degree to which women occupied senior positions. However, we also wanted to take into account the effects of personality and look at staff attitudes towards success and women's roles in the workplace.

The stages of the project included: formulating research questions, collecting, organizing and interpreting data, and presenting our results in terms of the university's organizational structure.

Before I go on, I want to say a word about data collection. I'm sure you'll have realized by now

that we had to use more than one data-collection method. In fact, we used three. We collected statistics from the database, devised a psychometric test and drew up an interview schedule, which is a series of structured questions that act as a framework for an interview.

### Unit 3, Lesson 3.2, Exercise D 🎧 1.13

#### Part 3

Now, going back to the project ... how did we go about it? Our first step was to brainstorm key questions. For example: what percentage of female staff reached senior positions at the university; were their qualifications the same as those of males in similar positions; how long did it take for women to reach these positions; were there departments where women were better represented than others; how were they different; did university promotion policies obviously disadvantage women? Most of these questions could quite easily be answered by analyzing the statistics from the database: numbers of female employees, their occupations and backgrounds. We also had information about the formal structures that form the university organization, such as rules and regulations, and institutional policies.

However, as I mentioned before, a second aspect we wanted to study was whether personality could account for particular types of women occupying specific organizational positions. I'd just like to be clear about what I mean by 'personality'. According to Pervin, 'Personality refers to those characteristics of the person that account for consistent patterns of feeling, thinking and behaving.' Those characteristics are also known as *traits*, which are habitual patterns of individual behaviour. So, we used the psychometric test to give us a profile of the personality traits of women in different roles across the institution.

The third factor we wanted to study was the institutional culture. Let me just explain briefly what I mean by 'culture' in this context. The culture of an organization isn't written in the rules. It's the result of daily human interaction; the unspoken expectations, if you like, which become institutionalized and accepted by everyone who belongs to the group. When we started our research, we didn't really expect to find written rules or regulations discriminating against women. That would be illegal, of course. Mind you, we did think there may be a few regulations that *unintentionally* put women at a disadvantage.

But what we really wanted to find out was whether or not women were being promoted less often than men, as a result of unconscious attitudes, or as an effect of the institutional culture. And that's the information we planned to gather from the interviews.

### Unit 3, Lesson 3.2, Exercise E 🎧 1.14

#### Part 4

DR TODD: So, to sum up, we discovered an institutional issue – the small number of women in senior positions at the university – and gathered data to help us find a solution to the problem. We collected statistical data from the university database. We designed a psychometric test to find out whether women with particular personality traits – that is, with certain patterns of behaviour – tended to reach senior posts. And we designed an interview schedule to discover whether the institutional culture – the generally accepted behaviour of everyone in the organization – discouraged women from taking up senior positions.

I have to stop now, as we're running out of time. But I hope this talk has given you an idea of how varied the work of an occupational psychologist can be. Thank you.

LECTURER: Thank you very much, Dr Todd, for such an interesting talk. Now, after a quick break, our lectures continue this afternoon with another visitor, Dr Ana Rogers, who will discuss the theoretical foundations of her work as a clinical psychologist. Your research into the influence of genetics, the unconscious and social interaction on behaviour should be useful during this lecture.

### Unit 3, Lesson 3.2, Exercise F 🎧 1.15

- 1 According to constructivists, each individual is born with a fixed personality.
- 2 Personality traits are the same for all women.
- 3 Culture is the institutionalized and accepted behaviour of a group of people.
- 4 Personality can be measured by psychotherapy.
- 5 Occupational psychologists are also known as industrial psychologists.
- 6 Statistics can give an accurate picture of individual attitudes.

### Unit 3, Lesson 3.3, Exercise A 🎧 1.16

- 1 ap'proach
- 2 'phobia
- 3 schizo'phrenia
- 4 de'pression
- 5 anx'xiety
- 6 dis'order
- 7 'treatment
- 8 bio'medical
- 9 prac'titioner
- 10 psy'chiatrist
- 11 psycho'analyst
- 12 'therapist
- 13 multi'causal
- 14 rein'terpret
- 15 diag'nosis
- 16 antide'pressants
- 17 medi'cation
- 18 environ'mental

### Unit 3, Lesson 3.4, Exercise A 🎧 1.17

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### Unit 3, Lesson 3.4, Exercise C 🎧 1.18

#### Part 1

LECTURER: OK? Everybody here? Right ... In this lecture, we're going to hear about another field of psychology – clinical psychology. Dr Ana Rogers is going to discuss her work with young people with psychological problems. She'll be telling us about the possible causes of mental illness and discussing different approaches to treatment. I'll let you take over, Ana. Thank you very much.

DR ROGERS: Thank you, and thank you for inviting me to talk to you today. To start with, I should tell you where I work and what I do. I work in a clinic for troubled teenagers in New York and my job is simply to diagnose their problems and find the most effective treatment for them. I say, 'simply', but, as you can imagine, it's not at all simple. The majority of the young people I see in my practice are suffering from fairly common disorders; phobias, stress, anxiety and depression are the most frequent. But a small minority are suffering from personality disorders, which are more serious and can be difficult to treat. In my talk today, I'll be discussing the main approaches to diagnosis and treatment, and commenting on my own approach.

### Unit 3, Lesson 3.4, Exercise D 🎧 1.19

#### Part 2

First of all, I'm going to explain the theories that support the diagnosis of mental problems, and show you how they affect the kinds of treatment psychologists can recommend.

If you look at Slide 1, you'll see the principal models of the causes of mental disorders; the *biomedical*, the *psychodynamic*, the *socio-cognitive* and the *multicausal*.

First of all, let's look at the *biomedical* model. This model assumes that all mental illness is the result of a biological malfunction, a chemical imbalance or a genetic defect. When they can, practitioners who follow this model will usually prescribe medication to correct the imbalances underlying the disorder. Incidentally, if you've ever wondered about the difference between a psychologist and a psychiatrist, it's that a psychiatrist is a qualified medical practitioner and is allowed to prescribe drugs. Most psychologists are not. So, in my case, this is not an option.

Now, going back to the slide ... Next on the list is the *psychodynamic* model, which developed from Freud's theories. As you know, Freud attributed

our mental states to the effect of our early childhood experiences on our unconscious mind. This model is usually followed by psychiatrists or specially trained psychotherapists, and focuses on discovering the repressed childhood emotions that lead to mental disorders. With this model, psychoanalysts help clients understand their present problems and change their behaviour by recalling childhood memories or reliving past emotions. Speaking personally, I think Freud's model is rather limited, so let's turn to the next model on the list, the *socio-cognitive*.

Psychologists who assume the *socio-cognitive* model of behaviour believe that mental disorders are caused by flawed thinking. Therapists argue that individuals with behavioural maladjustment have acquired faulty beliefs about themselves and how they should respond to different situations. One of the most widespread methods of treatment based on this model is cognitive-behavioural therapy (CBT). With CBT, clients are shown how to reinterpret daily events and relationships in their lives and see that they have the option to think and react differently. I use CBT a lot with clients who have phobias or who are suffering from stress or low self-esteem, and even depression.

The final model on our slide is the *multicausal*. I don't think I need to explain it in detail. As the name suggests, it's a combination of all the previous models and takes into account biological, psychological, cognitive and environmental factors. I think this model explains the causes of mental disorder most fully.

### Unit 3, Lesson 3.4, Exercise E 🎧 1.20

#### Part 3

DR ROGERS: However, before I finish, I'd like to give an example from my own practice of diagnosing and treating depression.

When a young person comes to the clinic complaining of feeling down and miserable, my first priority is to find out exactly what their mental condition is. If they are depressed, I also need to know whether they're suffering from bipolar disorder, whether they have mood swings ranging from euphoric to severely depressed, or whether their problem is major depression, or unipolar depression, which doesn't include euphoria. Although these disorders may have similar symptoms, they have different causes and need different treatments.

Some therapists treat major depression with antidepressants – drugs that make people feel

more positive about life. Other therapists believe that depression is better treated from a socio-cognitive point of view. We believe that by helping clients to reassess their attitudes to life events, we can show them a way out of their depression. I adopt this approach in my practice. However, it is important to mention that I do accept that there are many cases in both types of depression, when clients need extra support from medication.

So, to summarize ... We have looked at the main causal models of mental illness, which are: biomedical, psychodynamic, socio-cognitive and multicausal, and linked them with treatments that would be considered effective in each model. We've looked at one example of diagnosis and treatment, and I've explained that I use cognitive behavioural therapy most frequently. Finally, I suggested that if we accept that mental illness has multiple causes, we must take a broad approach, and consider treatments from a variety of models. Thank you.

LECTURER: Thank you very much indeed, Dr Rogers. Well, I hope this afternoon's lectures have given you all a picture of two very different fields of psychology and shown you how closely practice is related to theory.

### Unit 5, Lesson 5.2, Exercise B 🎧 1.21

#### Part 1

Good afternoon. Today, we're going to look at dreams ... a topic we all know something about. In this lecture, I'm going to talk about the relationship between personality theories and dream analysis. Later on, in your seminars, you'll be able to discuss this relationship in more detail. OK ... umm ... I'm going to discuss Freud and Jung and ... er ... how their theories of personality, or self, influenced the way they interpreted dreams. Now, although they shared many views, they did differ on key issues. And that's the focus of my lecture. First of all, I'll describe Freud's theory of personality, including the *ego*, the *id* and the *superego*. Then I'll outline Jung's theory, based on the concept of the *collective unconscious*. After that, I'll relate Freud's approach to dream analysis, using *free association* and Jung's method of relating dreams to universal myths. Finally, I'll ... er ... discuss the different roles of Freudian and Jungian therapists.



## Unit 5, Lesson 5.2, Exercise D 🎧 1.22

### Part 2

OK, first of all, let's look at Freud's psychodynamic theory of personality. Freud believed that the personality is comprised of three components: the *id*, the *ego* and the *superego*, and that the unconscious plays a major role in directing our daily behaviour. So, according to Freud, the *id* is a part of our psyche that represents our unconscious wishes. Basically, the *id* drives our aggression and our sexual desires. In contrast to the *id*, the *ego*, which is the conscious aspect of the personality, controls our primitive urges and allows us to live harmoniously in a community. To put it another way, the *ego* mediates between the *id* and our need to live in a society.

Now, I'm going to move on to talk about Jung's theory of personality. Actually, Jung agreed with Freud that the unconscious drives our behaviour, but Jung believed that the individual self is a part of the collective unconscious. Sorry ... speaking of Freud, I forgot to mention the third element of his personality theory, the *superego*. This is the part of the psyche that controls our moral decisions, and the mechanism for coordinating these three aspects is known as a *compromise*.

Erm ... where was I? Right, to get back to Jung. Essentially, Jung believed in the existence of a *collective unconscious*. By that, he meant the unconscious accumulation of human experience throughout the evolution of the species. I think his theory of the collective unconscious is really very interesting, particularly as it can branch out into myth and even mysticism.

## Unit 5, Lesson 5.2, Exercise E 🎧 1.23

### Part 3

Anyway, um ... now, moving on to approaches to dream analysis. Basically, as I mentioned before, Freud and Jung agreed that the unconscious is the driving force behind our behaviour. And ... um ... in fact ... they also agreed that dreams were the gateway to the unconscious, or, as Freud put it, 'the royal road to the unconscious'. However, because their views of the internal workings of the psyche were so different, they approached the interpretation of dreams from different angles too.

First, let's look at Freud. According to Freud, the underlying energy guiding our behaviour is both unconscious and motivated by unfulfilled sexual urges. Freud maintained that by recalling and

analyzing dreams, his patients could become aware of their unconscious instincts, controlled by the *id*, and make them conscious, bringing them under the control of the *ego*. Obviously, this isn't automatic. He believed that the psychotherapist has an important role to play by encouraging the patient to relate the images in their dreams with the first word that comes to mind, in a process called *free association*.

Right ... Now, I'd like to turn to Jung's approach to dream analysis. Jung, as I mentioned before, believed that our individual unconscious was part of a collective unconscious. In his book *Freud and the Post-Freudians*, Brown claimed that we can see evidence of this in the universal nature of myths, and images of completeness, such as the circle. For example, if you look at Slide 3, you can see a 'mandala', an ancient symbol of wholeness. So, actually, Jung didn't agree with Freud that dreams were just disguised enactments of repressed desires. Jung believed that dreams link us with the accumulated knowledge of our ancestors. So, for a Jungian, dream analysis is much more to do with connecting with this ancient wisdom.

## Unit 5, Lesson 5.3, Exercise B 🎧 1.24

### Part 4

So, how does a psychologist find out about the content and the meaning of dreams? Well, by research, naturally. But there are several ways of researching the internal workings of the mind. For example ... in the case of primary research, you collect your own data. Secondary research involves reading the results of other researchers' experiments. Once you've collected your information, you decide whether to analyze it qualitatively or quantitatively. However, ... oh dear ... sadly, I see we've run out of time. This means I'll have to ask you to do some research. I'd like you to find a number of different methods of carrying out research into common dream themes. We'll discuss what you've discovered the next time I see you.

## Unit 5, Lesson 5.3, Exercise C 🎧 1.25

- 1 evo'lution
- 2 'overview
- 3 perso'nality
- 4 'mysticism
- 5 'analyze
- 6 psychody'namic

- 7 'mediate
- 8 a'ssignment
- 9 be'haviour
- 10 'primitive
- 11 'seminar
- 12 com'ponent

### Unit 5, Lesson 5.3, Exercise D 🎧 1.26

Er ... where was I? Right, to get back to Jung.

Essentially, Jung believed in the existence of a *collective unconscious*.

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### Unit 5, Lesson 5.4, Exercise B 🎧 1.27

#### Extract 1

LECTURER: Right, Leila and Majed, what did you find out about common dream themes?

LEILA: Well, first of all, we looked on the Internet for references to dreams.

MAJED: I didn't dream about anything last night.

#### Extract 2

LECTURER: And what else did you do?

LEILA: We asked our classmates about their dreams. They were quite keen to tell us.

MAJED: That's rubbish. They obviously thought we were being nosy.

#### Extract 3

LECTURER: Leila, can you give us an explanation of the research method you were using?

LEILA: Well, yes, we were interviewing people with a questionnaire. So we were collecting original data, but we were relying on people's opinions.

LECTURER: What do the rest of you make of this? Evie, what about you?

EVIE: Well, erm ... I'm not sure really.

#### Extract 4

LECTURER: Majed, can you explain how you decided which questions to ask?

MAJED: Well, yes, we based them on the

information we got from the websites.

JACK: So it's secondary.

#### Extract 5

LECTURER: What do you mean by 'secondary', Jack?

JACK: I mean it's an example of secondary research. They did two things – they asked someone for information and ...

EVIE: Actually, that's primary.

### Unit 5, Lesson 5.4, Exercise C 🎧 1.28

#### Extract 6

LECTURER: Let's go back to this graph for the moment to see how it can help with classifying dreams by gender. First of all, tell us about the variables you chose.

LEILA: Well, first we wanted to find out what kind of dreams were most common in general and then whether men or women were more likely to have certain dreams than others. Didn't we, Majed?

MAJED: Absolutely. Those were our only variables really. But we researched ten types of common dreams, so we ended up with a lot of information.

#### Extract 7

MAJED: We also made sure we matched genders in the interviews. Women interviewed women, and men interviewed men.

JACK: Sorry, I don't follow. Could you possibly explain why that's important?

MAJED: Well, basically we wanted to avoid embarrassment as far as possible.

#### Extract 8

EVIE: I don't understand how you managed to get the same information from each of the people you interviewed. Didn't they all have different dreams?

LEILA: Well, of course, people all have their own individual dreams, but many dreams have common themes. For example, lots of people dream they are being chased but can't run fast enough to get away.

#### Extract 9

MAJED: Yes, that's true. And what's so interesting is that themes are common across genders and nationalities.

JACK: If I understand you correctly, you're saying that it doesn't matter what sex you are or where you come from, you probably dream about the same things as your neighbour or your colleague at work.

MAJED: Yes, that's right.

#### Extract 10

LECTURER: This is all very interesting, isn't it?

EVIE: Yes, but if we just go back to the graph, we can see that some dreams, like being happy, are just as common for men and women. But isn't it interesting to see how much more men dream about extraterrestrials than women do?

LEILA: Yes, isn't it?

#### Extract 11

JACK: I think that's silly. I mean, men and women are fundamentally the same.

MAJED: I'm not sure that's true. I think men and women are brought up differently. So their dreams reflect different anxieties and insecurities.

#### Extract 12

LECTURER: So what do you think is the most important point about this graph?

EVIE: As Leila said earlier, it shows how dream themes are fairly evenly spread across the sexes, with a couple of exceptions.

#### Extract 13

LECTURER: Any other ideas?

JACK: I'm sorry. Has anybody made the point that even though themes may be universal, dreams are really about the individual?

LECTURER: Yes, actually. Leila did say that earlier, but it's an important point.

#### Extract 14

LECTURER: So what else could you say about the graph?

EVIE: I don't know if this is relevant, but there isn't any information in the graph about the specific ages of the young people. Maybe 18-year-olds have different dreams from 24-year-olds.

LECTURER: Yes, that's interesting. Perhaps that's another way to analyze the data.

### Unit 7, Lesson 7.2, Exercise B 2.1

#### Part 1

Good morning, everyone. What I'm going to talk about today is the concept of memory: that is, how we receive information, encode it, store it and retrieve it. In other words, what are the stages between experiencing something and recalling the circumstances, events and emotions at a later

date? Firstly, I'm going to give you a definition of memory. Then I'll outline the basic process of creating memory as shown in the flow chart. In addition, I'll be looking at different ways of describing the memory processes, bearing in mind that views have changed over the years. Because, of course, the development of technology has made it easier to understand how the brain works. At the end of the lecture, I'll be introducing the theme of 'forgetting'. After all, we can't really talk about memory without mentioning forgetting.

So, er ... in later lectures, we'll also go on to consider how people forget events and experiences. Today, however, we will focus on the processes involved in creating memories.

### Unit 7, Lesson 7.2, Exercise C 2.2

#### Part 2

To begin with, let's look at a definition of memory. Essentially, memory is a process that combines a number of steps: information acquisition, transformation, retention and, subsequently, recovery. These steps can be thought of as: first – input, or reception; second – encoding; third – storage and fourth ... ah ... retrieval or remembering. As you can see in the handout, input enters through the senses and is transmitted along the nervous system to the brain. Then the information is interpreted and transformed in such a way that it can be stored in the brain tissue. This process is called 'encoding'. It is still not known exactly how this happens. Once the information has been encoded, it has to be stored, so it can be used later. Recent theories suggest that memory is an interactive process. In other words, our memories don't sit passively in our brains waiting to be used, but are connected to other thought processes that alter them each time they interact. Now, in the next part of the lecture, I'm going to describe two models that explain the memory system ...

### Unit 7, Lesson 7.2, Exercise E 2.3

#### Part 3

Now, although theories about the retention of information have changed over the years, an important concept in the study of memory is the notion of 'short-term' memory (STM) and 'long-term' memory (LTM). As far back as 1884, William James distinguished between 'short-term' and 'long-term' memory, or what he called 'primary' and 'secondary' memory. What do I mean by short-

term and long-term? Well, to help you understand this idea clearly, can you look for a moment at the handout I have given you about the process of creating memory? As you can see, information enters the brain through the sensory organs, in this case, the eyes. It passes through the thalamus to the cortex, where it's converted into a code that can be stored in the short-term memory system, but this is often only for a matter of minutes ... which isn't much use for routine activities. After all, we don't want to have to learn how to clean our teeth again every morning. However, looking at it another way, short-term memory has an important role to play in creating long-term memory. This happens when it is recycled or 'rehearsed' through the hippocampus, as you can see in the handout. In historical terms, this two-stage memory model has described short-term and long-term memory as structured storage systems. But, as I mentioned earlier, more recent research suggests that short-term and long-term memories have a dynamic relationship and that short-term memory has an active role in processing different tasks, such as problem-solving and categorizing objects. According to this model, the short-term memory is better described as 'working memory'.

Let me give you an example. Say you're writing an essay and printing from your computer when your printer runs out of ink. On one hand, your 'working' memory allows you to divide your attention between saving your document, changing your ink cartridge and re-starting your printing, whereas your long-term memory will remind you how to carry out each of these tasks. An important difference between working memory and long-term memory is that working memory is flexible and long-term memory is more stable.

What are the implications of research into short-term or working memory and long-term memory? Well, the point is that if psychologists understand how the memory systems work, they're in a better position to treat memory disorders and learning disabilities. In this way, they can improve the quality of life of those who suffer from memory loss and the educational performance of anyone who studies.

## Unit 7, Lesson 7.2, Exercise F 🎧 2.4

### Part 4

Now ... er ... let's see ... oh dear, I see we're running short of time ... but perhaps I should just say something about forgetting. There are several

theories about why people forget events. Amongst them are: faulty encoding, displacement, brain damage, lack of use and repression. Let's look at each of these in turn.

Faulty encoding means that certain information may not be available because it hasn't been recorded correctly in the first place. This could happen when there is physical damage to the senses – to hearing or sight, for example. Now, from what we've looked at so far, it's easy to see that deficiencies of this kind will generally affect short-term memory.

Another reason why information may not be available is if it has been replaced by new information. This particularly applies to short-term memory. Right ... turning to long-term memory. In some cases, information may not be transferred from short-term to long-term memory as a result of damage to the hippocampus. As you'll remember, this is the part of the brain that recycles information and converts it into long-term memory.

I'd like to mention one more important theory, which claims that when information isn't retrieved and recycled regularly, it deteriorates or decays. An example of this would be forgetting the name of your teacher in primary school. If you moved away from where you went to school and didn't see your teacher for a long time, you probably wouldn't hear or mention her name very often, if at all. Gradually, because the information isn't being recycled frequently, the neural network that makes it available weakens and breaks down, and the memory is lost.

Moving on now ... let's look at another explanation for forgetting ... and that is *repression*. Memories are often repressed in situations where people have had traumatic experiences. By that, I mean when they have had terrible accidents, or they have been victims of violence or when they have seen, or done something dreadful. In these cases, the brain blocks the memory of the event by keeping it in the unconscious. More recent research suggests, though, that highly emotional events may be more difficult to remember just after they happen, but easier to recall in the long term.

Now ... oh dear, I was going to give more examples of repression, but ... ah ... I see that time is moving on. So instead, I'm going to ...

## Unit 7, Lesson 7.3, Exercise A 🎧 2.5

- 1 trau'matic
- 2 'thalamus
- 3 re'trieval
- 4 re'pression
- 5 'cortex
- 6 re'hearsal
- 7 en'coding
- 8 hippo'campus
- 9 dis'placement
- 10 'maintenance
- 11 de'cay
- 12 'sensory

## Unit 7, Lesson 7.3, Exercise B 🎧 2.6

### Part 5

I'm going to finish with some comments on how memory can be flawed – in other words, I'm going to talk about memory distortion.

Now, the fact of the matter is, it's very easy to confuse the memory. The reason for this is that it depends on so many factors – not to mention the fact that most of these are unconscious. First, let's take a look at the effect of preconceived ideas on our memory; these make us believe we remember certain things because of what we expect to see in certain situations. For instance, we might think we remember an old woman wearing glasses just because we expect elderly people to have poor eyesight. Plus there's the fact that when we recall a memory, we are affected by the emotions we felt at the time of the original event.

OK. Where was I? Oh, yes ... So memory distortion means remembering things inaccurately, depending on what we expect to remember, and how we feel about what we remember. For example, children of the same family will remember their parents' personalities differently; their kindness, their anger, their sense of humour, etc.

You've probably heard of hypnosis being used to help witnesses remember the details of crimes. It was Freud who claimed that hypnosis was an effective method for accessing repressed memories. The advantage of hypnosis is that it can remind people of the feelings they had at the time they witnessed the event. And, as we know, strong emotions make it easier to remember past events. What hypnosis can do is help eyewitnesses return to the moment of a traumatic event and see it again

'in the mind's eye'. However, there are still serious doubts about the reliability of this information.

To sum up, then, hypnosis – as a method for memory recall – must be used with caution. Let me put it another way ... hypnosis is not always a very reliable method for retrieving lost memories.

Oh, I almost forgot to mention your research topics. OK, well, what's very important is a full understanding of the use of hypnosis as a means of accessing memory, and an appreciation of its disadvantages as well as its benefits. So I'd like you to investigate the drawbacks of using hypnosis to recall traumatic events.

## Unit 7, Lesson 7.4, Exercise B 🎧 2.7

### Extract 1

Now, as we know, some people claim that hypnosis helps people remember details of events they had previously forgotten. A case in point is eyewitnesses in criminal investigations. But research has shown that the details people 'remember' under hypnosis are not always accurate. I asked you to look into the disadvantages of using hypnosis to remember the details of past events. For example, how is the memory affected by the way the hypnotist asks questions? How does the imagination of the person being interviewed distort their recollection of events? In effect, can hypnosis be effective in producing reliable testimony? So, let's have some views.

## Unit 7, Lesson 7.4, Exercises C and D 🎧 2.8

### Extract 2

JACK: Well. I'd like to make two points. First, hypnosis affects different people in different ways.

LEILA: Can you expand on that, Jack?

JACK: Sure, Leila. Some people are more suggestible than others.

LEILA: So?

JACK: So the point is that in some cases, the person being hypnotised may 'remember' things the hypnotist suggests by asking questions in a particular way. Different questions might result in different memories. So, in criminal cases, the evidence of people under hypnosis wouldn't be reliable.

LECTURER: OK. So, what's your second point, Jack?

JACK: I was coming to that! My second point is that people often imagine they've seen certain things because that's what they expect to see.

LEILA: Yes, but you have to admit there are lots of

examples of people being hypnotised and apparently recalling details of childhood experiences they've forgotten. To be honest, though, I don't really think that proves these memories are true. In fact, Jack, I agree with you. I think that under hypnosis, some people unintentionally invent memories.

MAJED: Well, I don't agree with that, Leila, because Freud said that hypnosis really does uncover repressed childhood memories.

EVIE: Sorry, but what are we talking about, exactly? Real memories? People making up things that never happened? Or memories changing when we recall them?

LEILA: Yes, we need to be clear here. Are we saying that people create completely false memories, or that real memories are distorted in the process of being remembered? Well, I'd just like to say that according to what I've read, people under hypnosis can genuinely believe that they remember seeing things that haven't actually happened in real life.

EVIE: In what way?

LEILA: Well, because memory can be affected by our mood, or the situation we're in when we remember something.

EVIE: I don't get that. Are these memories real or not?

LEILA: What I'm trying to say is that people under hypnosis may be picking up clues from the hypnotist, encouraging them to recall details that might not be accurate. So, people can be convinced they've remembered something, but, in fact, they've been influenced by the way the hypnotist asked the questions.

EVIE: I still don't understand. Can you give me an example, Leila?

LEILA: OK. Look at it this way. Imagine you're trying to find out whether someone stole something from a shop. You might have a witness who doesn't recall exactly what the suspect was doing at the time of the theft. The hypnotist might ask, 'Was the young man putting something in his backpack?' or 'Was the young man taking something out of his backpack?'. Depending on the question, the witness may 'remember' seeing a person stealing, or seeing him take his wallet out of his bag.

MAJED: So, it depends on the question?

LECTURER: Absolutely. Research has shown that, because people are more suggestible under hypnosis, there is a real danger of recovered memories becoming false memories. So there are serious doubts about the reliability of evidence obtained from eyewitnesses under hypnosis.

## Unit 9, Lesson 9.2, Exercise B 2.9

### Part 1

Good morning, everyone. I'm going to talk to you this morning about personality, and in particular, about how it is defined and measured. To start with, we'll look at three different theories ... trait theory, social cognition and humanism. I'll talk about trait theory first, and outline some of the ways traits are measured. After that, I'll describe the social cognitivist and then the humanist approaches to personality, then I'll give you a summary of the major differences between the three theories. At the end, I'll talk briefly about genes, environment and personality.

But before we begin, I have a little story to tell you ... I once worked for a small company that was looking for a new person to work in their human resources department. The company put a psychometric test (a test that creates a personality profile) on its website for potential candidates to complete. Based on this test, they invited several people for interview and offered the position to the person who seemed to have the best qualifications and personal qualities for the job. However, about a month after the new person started work, it became obvious that he didn't get on with anyone else in the team. Well ... in staff meetings, which were fairly light-hearted affairs ... the manager noticed that the new person wasn't joining in at all. So she started to keep an eye on how he related with the rest of the team in other situations. And, in the end, ... she realized that he simply had no sense of humour.

Of course, the point of that story is that scientific tests can't find out everything about a person's character. Other factors ... for example, relating to people in different situations, will also affect their behaviour.

So, to get back to the main topic – trait theory. What exactly is a trait? Well, it's a pattern of behaviour that's consistent enough for us to be able to say that a person has a tendency to act or react in a certain way. For example, being optimistic is a trait, or always looking on the bright side is a trait. Trait theorists believe that we all have fairly constant aspects of our personality which aren't very likely to change.

OK, first of all, let's take a few moments to consider how trait theory developed. The main trait theorists are Allport, Eysenck and Cattell, although Allport's focus was different from that of the other two, as we shall see when we discuss the main differences between their approaches.

When Allport published his psychological study of traits in 1936, he found 18,000 words in the English dictionary to describe personal qualities. Yes, that's right, 18,000! Now, Allport's interest in personality focused on the uniqueness of each individual, which means he took an *idiographic* approach to personality. That's spelt I-D-I-O-G-R-A-P-H-I-C. So, although he accepted that people could be compared by their common traits, he was more concerned with describing individuals.

In contrast, Eysenck and Cattell took a *nomothetic* approach, which means they focused on discovering which traits were common to all the individuals in a particular group. They both aimed to produce scientifically reliable research using the technique of factor analysis. Factor analysis is a statistical method for identifying patterns in large numbers of responses to questionnaires. But I should mention that although Eysenck and Cattell took a similar approach, they differed in important ways. While Eysenck used factor analysis to produce a simple two-dimensional model of personality, Cattell used a *multivariate* method of factor analysis because he thought personality was more complex, and that many traits interacted with each other. So, on one hand, it could be argued that two dimensions ... extroversion and introversion ... are enough to create a framework for classifying personalities. Whereas, on the other hand, Cattell concluded that there were sixteen basic personality traits.

However, it's true to say that, in spite of Cattell's research, the more recent *five factor model* has become the most widely accepted. This model includes the traits known as the Big Five: extroversion, neuroticism (or introversion), agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness to experience. It is a popular model, and is used nowadays as the basis for many psychometric tests, like the one I mentioned earlier.

Well, that leads me quite neatly on to my next point ... which is how we measure personality. The most widespread method of measuring personality is with carefully designed questionnaires which include questions based on the Big Five personality factors. In order to establish clusters, or patterns, in the responses, some of these questions will overlap, or correlate, with each other. For example, we would expect a person to give the same answer to questions like, 'Do you like to study alone?' and 'Do you find it difficult to concentrate when you study with friends?' The answers are then scored on a scale for each of the personality factors.

In terms of practicality, trait theory helps us to classify people quite quickly, predict what they're going to do and understand why. From the point of view of staff selection, personality questionnaires are easy to administer. Increasingly, we find them being used in job applications, career advice, aptitude assessments and social networking sites.

A word of caution, though ... relying on self-reporting psychometric tests to assess personality can have serious disadvantages. For instance, people may give the answer they think will give them the highest score; they may misunderstand or misinterpret the question, or the questions may be ambiguous. And on top of that, the data collected on questionnaires can be grouped and interpreted in lots of different ways, which can result in a completely inaccurate picture. Fortunately, there are other ways of profiling personalities. One of these is to collect information about someone from others who know them, and who can describe their performance or behaviour in the past. And another is by direct observation of how they behave when they're asked to perform specific tasks or take part in a simulation. But, even with these methods, there must be a set of criteria against which to measure behaviour and the Big Five are still the most informative to date.

So far, I've been talking about how personality is defined and measured according to trait theory. But now, I'm going to move on to talk about the social-cognitive and humanist approaches to personality.

## Unit 9, Lesson 9.2, Exercise C 🗣️ 2.10

### Part 2

Let's turn now to social cognitive approaches to personality. In contrast to trait theory, which, as we've seen, assumes that we have fairly set patterns of behaviour, social cognitivism claims that our personalities are formed by the dynamic interaction of the individual with their environment. So, social cognitivism conflicts with trait theory because it questions the consistency of our behaviour. It argues that, as the environment changes, so does a person's behaviour. For example, just going on holiday can turn us into 'different people'. If we work in a very formal office that discourages us from showing our fun-loving side, our colleagues might think we were rather dull. So, if they met us relaxing on the beach, they would hardly recognize us. Depending on our circumstances, our personalities can seem entirely different. I'm sure you have had that experience yourselves ...

Now where was I? Oh yes, right, I was talking about social constructivism and personality. The most influential psychologists in this field are Bandura, who was born in 1925, and Mischel, who was born just five years later. Both theorists assume a dynamic model of personality, but they differ in important ways. Let's look at Bandura first ... Bandura is best known for his theory of self-efficacy. His hypothesis is that we learn by observing the consequences of our actions and those of others. In this way, according to Bandura, we build up a series of expectations, which gradually give us a sense of ourselves as agents that control our circumstances, or of 'self-efficacy'. So, Bandura's theory is that our personality is the result of our past experiences and our expectations. He used microanalytical research techniques to establish people's perceptions of their self-efficacy. In other words, he didn't ask them if they were 'good at swimming', but if they could 'swim a length of the pool in less than a minute'. Interestingly, research has shown that people with a developed sense of self-efficacy, or a feeling that they are in control of their circumstances and capable of performing tasks effectively, actually do perform more successfully and even have better relationships and health.

Now I'd like to move on to Mischel's theory of *situationism*. Mischel's research demonstrated that there is actually very little consistency in people's behaviour across situations. His conclusion is that behaviour is determined by situations rather than personality traits. As a result, he claims that trait theory may be useful as a general summary of a person's behaviour, but does not take into account the many different ways people interpret circumstances. More recently, many theorists, including Mischel himself, have adopted an interactionist approach that assumes that behaviour is the interaction of consistent traits and an individual's perception of changing situations. This theory is not very far from the humanist approach, which I'll comment on next.

We don't have a lot of time, so I'm going to mention the humanist approach very briefly. Humanists argue that each individual has a unique self-concept, which interacts continuously with the outside world. This approach is generally represented by Maslow, who is well known for his *hierarchy of needs*, and Carl Rogers, whose theory is that personality is a process of *self-actualization*, or attaining our full human potential.

So, to sum up so far, it should be clear that there are two main differences between trait theory and social cognitive and humanist approaches. Firstly,

while trait theory deals with constant aspects of the personality, social cognitive and humanist approaches assume that personality is a dynamic interaction of the individual with their surroundings. And secondly, whereas trait theory is based on objectively tested dimensions, the social cognitive and humanist concepts of personality are based on subjective observations.

### Unit 9, Lesson 9.2, Exercise D 🎧 2.11

- 1 The main trait theorists are Allport, Eysenck and Cattell, although Allport's focus was different from that of the other two, as we shall see when we discuss the main differences between their approaches.
- 2 So, on one hand, it could be argued that two dimensions ... extroversion and introversion ... are enough to create a framework for classifying personalities.
- 3 However, it's true to say that, in spite of Cattell's research, the more recent *five factor model* has become the most widely accepted.
- 4 In terms of practicality, trait theory helps us to classify people quite quickly, predict what they're going to do and understand why.
- 5 From the point of view of staff selection, personality questionnaires are easy to administer ...
- 6 ... and increasingly, we find them being used in job applications, career advice, aptitude assessments and social networking sites.
- 7 Interestingly, research has shown that people with a developed sense of self-efficacy, or a feeling that they are in control of their circumstances and capable of performing tasks effectively, actually do perform more successfully and even have better relationships and health.
- 8 So, to sum up so far, it should be clear that there are two main differences between trait theory and social cognitive and humanist approaches.

### Unit 9, Lesson 9.3, Exercise A 🎧 2.12

- 1 be'haviour, cog'nition, con'sistent 'tendency, u'niqueness
- 2 obser'vation, self-re'porting, two-di'mensional, perso'nality, 'trait theory
- 3 extro'version, nomo'thetic, psycho'metric, 'cognitivist
- 4 'actually, 'generally, 'usually, en'tirely, 'neatly



## Unit 9, Lesson 9.3, Exercise C 2.13

### Part 3

Now, let's look at the last point on our slide: genes and the environment. The question is ... is personality inherited or environmentally determined?

The theory that personality is based on brain structure has a long history, and until recently, not much of it was scientific. However, the extraordinary case of Phineas Gage, that's G-A-G-E, does illustrate the influence of different parts of the brain on behaviour. In 1848, Phineas Gage suffered an accident in which an iron rod went through his cheek and the frontal lobe of his brain. Amazingly, he survived the accident, but changed from being a serious, reliable person to being irresponsible and reckless. In effect, brain damage had altered his personality. This is fairly strong evidence that behaviour is dependent on specific parts of the brain. You can find a full account of the case in *Personality: theory and research* by Pervin (the 9<sup>th</sup> edition was published in 2005) ... it's in the library.

If we accept, then, that personality is in some ways determined by our physiology, which is inherited from our parents, then it would be logical to assume that our personalities are also inherited, wouldn't it? So how do theorists prove this? Well, the most common method for investigating genetically-inherited characteristics is carrying out 'twin studies' ... with identical (or monozygotic) and fraternal (dizygotic) twins.

If we want to look at this in a bit more detail we can go back to trait theory. There are trait theorists who take the view that the Big Five personality traits are inherited. In your core text, *Psychology* (the 6<sup>th</sup> edition was published in 2003), Gleitman reports Borkenau's study of German adult twins, from the *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 2001, which showed a 40–60% correlation between the behaviour of identical twins, in comparison with a 20–30% correlation for fraternal twins. Quite convincing evidence, I think.

By the way, I see that some of you are using the Cornell note-taking system. That's very good. Do you all know about this? No? Right, well, if you want to know more about it, I suggest you look at *How to study in college* by Walter Pauk, the 9<sup>th</sup> edition, published in 2007. It's very good, and it should be in the university library. I'm sure that you all know the importance of taking good notes – and this system is particularly useful.

Anyway, getting back to the point ... the link between genes and personality. In spite of compelling evidence in its favour, there are

objections to the theory that personality is genetically determined. I'll just mention two for the moment. Both are based on weaknesses in twin studies as a research method. The first, as Borkenau comments, is that the majority of twin studies into genes and personality have been based on self- and peer-reporting. Of course, the main disadvantage of self-reporting is *bias* (a tendency to be influenced by personal preferences). Personally, I think Borkenau's research is more convincing because his information is based on reports from detached observers, who assessed the behaviour of twins over a range of situations on video recordings. The second objection to twin studies as a research method is the question of how upbringing affects twins' personalities. For example, twins brought up in the same environment may be similar for that very reason, rather than because they were genetically disposed to a certain personality.

On the other hand, there is more evidence of the link between biology and personality. If we go back to Eysenck's model ... remember he created a two-dimensional model based on Jung's theory of introversion and extroversion ... we'll find support for his work in experiments carried out in Sweden in 1980 ... You can find this in Gleitman, again. More recent research, carried out by Schwartz in 2003, is described in Pervin. This study aimed to discover whether introverts or extroverts react differently to images of familiar and unfamiliar faces. The participants in the experiment were adults (but not twins, in this case) who had already been classified as introverts or extroverts when they were children. Their reactions to the images were measured on a fMRI (functional magnetic resonance imaging) scanner, an instrument for calculating brain activity. The results demonstrated quite clearly that the introverts were more sensitive to new stimuli than the extroverts.

I'm afraid we really have run out of time ... which is a pity, because I was planning to talk about the influence of environmental factors on personality as well. Anyway, I'll sum up what we have covered in today's lecture ... we've looked at four theories of personality ... trait theory, social-cognition, humanism and genetic inheritance ... and we've had a look at ways of measuring personality.

Are there any questions so far? ... No, good. Now, when I see you in tutorials, we'll look in more detail at personality theories. In the meantime, I'm going to set you a research task. Right, now listen carefully ... your task is to find out about the effect of environment on the development of personality. I'd like you to work

in groups of four. Each group should find out about how the development of one of the Big Five traits can be affected by the environment and report back on their findings.

### Unit 9, Lesson 9.3, Exercise D 🎧 2.14

#### Extract 1

In 1848, Phineas Gage suffered an accident in which an iron rod went through his cheek and the frontal lobe of his brain. Amazingly, he survived the accident, but changed from being a serious, reliable person to being irresponsible and reckless. In effect, brain damage had altered his personality. This is fairly strong evidence that behaviour is dependent on specific parts of the brain. You can find a full account of the case in *Personality: theory and research* by Pervin (the 9th edition was published in 2005) ... it's in the library.

#### Extract 2

There are trait theorists who take the view that the Big Five personality traits are inherited. In your core text, *Psychology*, (the 6th edition was published in 2003), Gleitman reports Borke's study of German adult twins', from the *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 2001, which showed a 40–60% correlation between the behaviour of identical twins in comparison with a 20–30% correlation for fraternal twins.

#### Extract 3

By the way, I see that some of you are using the Cornell note-taking system. That's very good. Do you all know about this? No? Right, well, if you want to know more about it, I suggest you look at *How to Study in College* by Walter Pauk, the 9th edition, published in 2007. It's very good, and it should be in the university library.

#### Extract 4

If we go back to Eysenck's model ... remember he created a two-dimensional model based on Jung's theory of introversion and extroversion ... we'll find support for his theory in experiments carried out in Sweden in 1980 ... you can find this in Gleitman, again. More recent research, carried out by Schwartz in 2003, is described in Pervin.

### Unit 9, Lesson 9.4, Exercise C 🎧 2.15

#### Extract 1

It seems quite clear that we can identify certain traits in people, but their behaviour is definitely

affected by the environment. Let's look at three examples: firstly, upbringing can affect how much a child's innate tendencies are reinforced or discouraged; secondly, we can see how different situations influence how we behave; for example, we might be quite talkative with our friends, but rather quiet with our lecturers; and thirdly, pretty important this, ...

#### Extract 2

... erm, I think our astrological signs actually affect our personalities more than our culture. I mean there must be typical Leos all over the world. It's possible ... erm ... we can see how this is proved. Fidel Castro and Barack Obama are both Leos, but they come from different cultures. Let's look at descriptions of Leos and ... oh, sorry, that's the wrong star sign, just a minute ... right, so here's a Leo profile ... erm, you can see I think, how well it describes both of them ... do you have any questions about this idea? ...

#### Extract 3

We could ask the question: Are traits inherited? Usually, research into this question is based on twin studies. You know, studying identical and fraternal twins to see whether they have the same personalities. In some cases, they've been separated at birth and brought up in different families then brought together again to see how similar they are. It's amazing how sometimes they have the same habits and like the same food, even though they've never met before. Fraternal twins are different ...

#### Extract 4

So, recent research has come to the conclusion that some basic personality traits, like introversion and extroversion, are genetically inherited. Actually, these two are more often defined as *temperament*, than personality. Anyway, experiments have shown that introverts and extroverts definitely have different physiological reactions to unfamiliar experiences. Apart from this, the development of people's other traits depends on environmental factors, such as family, culture and situation. For example, a child who's brought up to be considerate and respectful towards other members of the family will usually be more agreeable than a child brought up in a family where it's normal to be violent and selfish. In other words, the environment decides which traits develop. The extent to which ...

## Unit 11, Lesson 11.2, Exercise B 🎧 2.16

### Part 1

Good morning. It's a pleasure to be here today. My name is Dr Elizabeth MacDonald and I've been researching parapsychology for over 20 years. Today, I am going to present some of the main arguments for and against the existence of paranormal phenomena, that is to say, events and experiences that seem to have no scientific explanation, like seeing ghosts or being able to predict the future.

Don't misunderstand me; I'm not going to try to convince you that either of these actually happens. No ... I'll be looking at a few contrasting beliefs and presenting a reasoned argument, which should help you decide for yourselves.

All the views I'm going to discuss are part of a long-standing debate about dualism and materialism. Just to remind you ... dualism is the belief that the mind and the body exist separately. Materialism, on the other hand, maintains that there can be no division between body and spirit; not only that, but only the physical exists.

First of all, I think it's fair to say that there are four main views on the existence of paranormal events. At one end of the scale, we have the spiritualists, who believe in the supernatural, and are convinced that ghosts and spirits exist. The next group, which includes parapsychologists, holds the view that the paranormal or psi (that's spelt P-S-I) may exist, but can only be perceived by certain individuals, as in the case of clairvoyance. The third group, sceptics, take the view that, because out-of-body experiences, for instance, are subjective, it is to some degree impossible to prove or disprove their existence. Turning to the other end of the scale, the fourth group – the scientists – we find the most radical, materialist view that, for example, all experiences are no more than the result of neurological processes. In an attempt to present a balanced view, I'm going to summarize each of these views in turn.

## Unit 11, Lesson 11.2, Exercise C 🎧 2.17

### Part 2

Let's start with spiritualism. Spiritualism is based on the belief that there are superior forces we don't understand. So spiritualists believe in the existence of the supernatural and events that are beyond our control. They also claim that communication between the supernatural and the physical world is made possible by the intervention of sensitive

individuals. Like in the film *The Sixth Sense* with Bruce Willis and Haley Joel Osment, the little boy who said, 'I see dead people'... Have any of you seen it? Well, in the spiritualist community, there are quite a few mediums, that is, people with psychic powers, who claim to communicate with the dead during meetings known as seances. A phenomenon associated with seances is the production of ectoplasm, a slimy substance which is said to be the physical manifestation of spirits. If you saw the film *Ghostbusters*, you might remember it. And one more example of inexplicable events ... Has anyone heard of poltergeists? Poltergeists are invisible forces that some people believe can move objects around the room.

Of course, the question arises ... what proof do we have of psychic events? Well, as I've just mentioned, because they're so subjective, it's very difficult to establish their authenticity. With respect to ectoplasm, it must be said that scientific experiments have not supported its existence.

Now let's turn to parapsychology ... the scientific study of paranormal experiences. Since its beginnings in the 1930s, most research into parapsychology has focused on the phenomenon of extrasensory perception, that's E-S-P. There are several forms of ESP, one of which is telepathy, the ability to read minds and transmit information without seeing or speaking to the other person. Another form is clairvoyance – being able to describe places, objects and events the clairvoyant has not visited or witnessed in person. Describing places the clairvoyant has never seen before is known as 'remote viewing'. A third kind of ESP is precognition, the ability to predict the future. In the '30s, J.B. Rhine and his wife Louisa carried out experiments to prove the existence of ESP. The Rhines' experiments involved placing two individuals in separate rooms. One person, the sender, would have a set of cards with symbols on them. They would look at the cards while the other person, the receiver, guessed which card they were looking at. Although the Rhines claimed that the results proved the existence of ESP, there were strong objections from the scientific community, which insisted that the experiments were not controlled carefully enough. More recent experiments have introduced the *free-response* method, in which the receiver doesn't even know what the target image or object might be. These days, the most widely accepted technique for testing telepathy and clairvoyance in laboratory conditions is the ganzfeld procedure, in which the receiver is placed in a kind of sensory isolation

with their eyes covered and headphones over their ears playing 'white noise'. Honorton gave a good description of this technique in the *Psychological Bulletin* in 1994, by which time an automated device called a 'random event generator' had been developed to eliminate bias. In spite of these methodological advances, many scientists still doubt the existence of psychic abilities.

At this point, I'll just mention sceptics very briefly. Sceptics are usually scientists who've applied scientific methods to find out if psi exists. And to the extent that it can be tested, they've concluded that it doesn't. Susan Blackmore is a well-known example of a sceptic. After having an impressive out-of-body experience in her youth, she studied the paranormal for 30 years. However, after much research, she found no evidence for the existence of the paranormal and is now investigating consciousness and meditation. Right, now I'll move on to explain one of the reasons why the paranormal is questioned so seriously by mainstream scientists.

Materialism, as I mentioned earlier, is the belief that things are only real if they can be shown to exist physically. And reductionism, a more radical form of materialism, is defined by Graham as: 'the idea that psychological explanations can be replaced by explanations in terms of brain functioning or even in terms of physics and chemistry'.

Anyway, one of the arguments against the paranormal is that, as physical and biological sciences advance, more and more phenomena that were previously thought to be inexplicable can be explained scientifically. A case in point is the out-of-body experience (OBE), which French briefly describes as 'an experience in which a person seems to perceive the world from a location outside the physical body.' Well, spiritualists might interpret this as evidence of the separate existence of body and spirit. But neurological research has shown that electrical stimulation of the right temporal lobe of the brain results in a sensation of floating and being outside the body. In other words, the out-of-body experience is produced by a spontaneous electrical spasm in the brain. A second example of science disproving popular belief is the case of déjà vu, you know, that feeling that you've already lived the moment you're living now. Now, some people say that this is proof of having lived a former life. In fact, the evidence shows that far from proving that we have lived before, déjà vu can be explained by any one of several cognitive theories. In my opinion, A.S. Brown's summary of these possibilities in his article, 'A review of the déjà vu experience',

published in the 2003 issue of the *Psychological Bulletin*, is very balanced. He has no doubt that there are psychological explanations for the phenomenon, and in my view, recognition memory theories are particularly interesting. Before I go on to discuss psychokinesis, I'm going to stop and ...

### Unit 11, Lesson 11.2, Exercise F 🗣️ 2.18

Now, some people say that this is proof of having lived a former life. In fact, the evidence shows that far from proving that we have lived before, déjà vu can be explained by any one of several cognitive theories. In my opinion, A.S. Brown's summary of these possibilities in his article, 'A review of the déjà vu experience', published in the 2003 issue of the *Psychological Bulletin*, is very balanced. He has no doubt that there are psychological explanations for the phenomenon, and in my view, recognition memory theories are particularly interesting.

### Unit 11, Lesson 11.2, Exercise G 🗣️ 2.19

#### Extract 1

Today, I am going to present some of the main arguments for and against the existence of paranormal phenomena, that is to say, events and experiences that seem to have no scientific explanation, like seeing ghosts or being able to predict the future.

#### Extract 2

Don't misunderstand me; I'm not going to try to convince you that either of these actually happens.

#### Extract 3

Materialism, on the other hand, maintains that there can be no division between body and spirit; not only that, but only the physical exists.

#### Extract 4

First of all, I think it's fair to say that there are four main views on the existence of paranormal events.

#### Extract 5

The third group, sceptics, take the view that, because out-of-body experiences, for instance, are subjective, it is to some degree impossible to prove or disprove their existence.

#### Extract 6

In an attempt to present a balanced view, I'm going to summarize each of these views in turn.

### Extract 7

With respect to ectoplasm, it must be said that scientific experiments have not supported its existence.

### Extract 8

Honorton gave a good description of this technique in the *Psychological Bulletin* in 1994 ...

### Extract 9

And to the extent that it can be tested, they've concluded that it doesn't.

### Extract 10

A case in point is the out-of-body experience (OBE) ...

### Extract 11

... which French briefly describes as ...

### Extract 12

He has no doubt that there are psychological explanations for the phenomenon.

## Unit 11, Lesson 11.3, Exercise A 2.20

mental 'powers  
mind over 'matter  
living 'systems  
physical 'health  
naked 'eye  
special 'apparatus  
distant 'healing  
random 'intervals  
sleight of 'hand

## Unit 11, Lesson 11.3, Exercise B 2.21

### Part 3

I'd like to turn now to the topic of mind over matter ... This is a general category for phenomena that suggest that the mind can have a direct effect on objects and living bodies. This group of phenomena includes psychokinesis or PK ... which means using willpower to move or alter objects ... and Direct Mental Interaction with Living Systems (D-M-I-L-S) ... which includes using mental powers to improve people's health ... you know, people who believe they can control their health through meditation or even heal others at a distance.

Before we go any further, I should explain that there are two main types of PK. One is macro-PK,

which can be seen with the naked eye ..., which means we don't need any instruments to see it. The second is micro-PK, which can only be observed with special apparatus, usually in a laboratory.

To begin with, let's look at a study in macro-PK. Since the 1970s, many people have claimed to be able to bend metal spoons and other objects with their mental powers. These demonstrations have sometimes taken place in front of eyewitnesses. Others have been filmed. So the evidence has been taken directly from observers, many of whom have been convinced that various metal objects have been deformed as a result of psychokinesis.

Now, let's move on to DMILS. First, let me give you an example. When you're standing in a crowd, have any of you had a strange feeling that someone's staring at you? Or, when you're in a queue, have you ever tried staring at the back of someone's head until they look round? Have you done that? Interesting, isn't it? Well, that's called remote staring, and has actually been researched under laboratory conditions that would classify it as micro-PK. In remote staring experiments, the participant sits in a room with electrodes attached to their skin to detect any reaction when they feel someone is staring at them. Meanwhile, the experimenter stares at them on CCTV from another room for 30-second periods at random intervals. In a few studies, the results have been slightly in favour of the existence of psychic powers ... just enough to promote further research.

Finally, I'd like to look very briefly at another example of DMILS ... in this case, the power of the mind to heal the body. Several alternative therapies, like reiki, are based on the theory that diseases can be cured by treating imbalances in our energy, even at a distance. Meditation is another case in point. It involves a combination of concentration and relaxation that produces an altered state of mind. There are claims that regular meditation can produce health benefits, and many people report an increased sense of well-being when they meditate. This is known as biofeedback. However, there is no conclusive scientific evidence to prove the benefits of meditation yet. Neither has it been possible, so far, to prove claims of distant healing.

The question is how reliable is the evidence? It's quite clear that anecdotal evidence of PK is not sufficient to prove its existence. Research has shown that people are unreliable witnesses and very susceptible to suggestion. So, although some people claim that they have seen objects move as a result of PK, I'm afraid this just can't be true.

The evidence lies in the fact that very few, if any, successful demonstrations have taken place under controlled conditions to eliminate the possibility of fraud or *sleight of hand* ... a quick hand movement used in magic tricks to distract the observer.

Now I'm going to set you a task which will involve investigating some of the points I've raised. I want you to do some research into different types of mind over matter. You should focus on one of the three areas I've mentioned, and identify examples of micro-PK and macro-PK. I want you to look at some research and find out what measures were taken to eliminate bias or fraud.

### Unit 11, Lesson 11.3, Exercise E 2.22

The question is how reliable is the evidence? It's quite clear that anecdotal evidence of PK is not sufficient to prove its existence. Research has shown that people are unreliable witnesses and very susceptible to suggestion. So, although some people claim that they have seen objects move as a result of PK, I'm afraid this just can't be true. The evidence lies in the fact that very few, if any, successful demonstrations have taken place under controlled conditions to eliminate the possibility of fraud or *sleight of hand* ... a quick hand movement used in magic tricks to distract the observer.

### Unit 11, Lesson 11.4, Exercise E 2.23

#### Extract 1

MAJED: The lecturer we listened to last week introduced a number of interesting issues. In my part of the seminar, I would like to build on what she said, and give an example of macro-PK. For my research, I looked at teletransportation ... that is moving objects from one place to another without touching them. The evidence for most cases is anecdotal, as the lecturer said. But I found some experiments that were carried out by scientists under laboratory conditions. According to the Federation of American Scientists, a number of very convincing experiments were carried out in China in the early '80s and '90s. They involved using the mental powers of children and young adults to move an object from the inside of a container to a new location, without opening or damaging the containers, or the objects. The experimenters used different types of containers with radio micro-transmitters and high-speed photography. They eliminated the possibility of fraud with blind and double blind methods and documented the data and experiments very carefully.

#### Extract 2

EVIE: OK, following on from what Majed has said about trying to make experiments as objective as possible, I'd like to talk about the experimenter effect on the results of experiments in Direct Mental Interaction with Living Systems. My research is an example of micro-PK. There's been a lot of discussion about whether the attitude of the experimenters can affect the actual responses of the participants in laboratory experiments into DMIL. Two researchers, Wiseman, who is a sceptic, and Schlitz, a believer in psi, carried out two joint experiments to find out if the experimenter's belief in psi affected participants' scores in remote staring experiments. In each series of experiments, they reproduced the laboratory conditions by using the same equipment and techniques ... CCTV, skin sensors, randomization and double blind procedures. The only difference was that in one experiment Wiseman did the staring, and Schlitz did the staring in the other. On both occasions, they found that Wiseman's participants had lower scores than Schlitz's. At first, it looked as though they had fairly clear-cut proof of the experimenter effect. But the third time they collaborated, the results were not significant enough to prove their theory. So it looks as though experimenter-participant interaction is more complex than it seems.

#### Extract 3

EVIE: Right. Thank you, Evie. I'm going to expand the topic by mentioning another type of mind over matter. This is another example of micro-PK. I've been looking at meditation and how it's possible to influence the body with the mind. The most carefully controlled experiments that I could find go back to 1970, when Elmer and Alyce Green invited Swami Rama, an Indian master of yoga, to demonstrate how he could raise and lower the temperature in different parts of his hand, and lower his pulse until it was almost undetectable. The researchers took a lot of precautions to prevent fraud or tricks. They attached psycho-physiology equipment, including a cardiometer, and a thermistor to the yogi to measure his heart rate and the temperature on either side of his hand. Two of the researchers stayed in the room with the Swami, so he couldn't cheat, while all his physical responses were being measured on the equipment in a separate room. What's amazing is that they found that he really could control his pulse and the temperature in his hand.

#### Extract 4

LEILA: That's really interesting. My topic is quite closely connected because I was interested in the idea of distant healing. I found two examples of laboratory experiments ... one investigates touch reiki and the other studies distant healing. I decided to include reiki because it's an energy field treatment that involves balancing a person's energy, either by touching them, or by focusing on them from a distance. The first one tested the biological reactions of healthy participants to touch reiki. This study used the same participants twice and tested for changes in their saliva, skin temperature and blood pressure. The results showed that reiki had a replacing effect on the participants, but there wasn't enough biological evidence to suggest that it could actually have an effect on their immune system. The second study, this time in distant healing for patients with AIDS, involved healers and patients who had never met. To make sure the data analysis would be objective; this study was designed as a randomized double blind trial. Patients were tested for their initial resistance to AIDS and interviewed to establish their psychological state and their attitude to distant healing. Again, the results weren't significant enough to demonstrate a relationship between distant healing and improvements in health.

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