

*N7-TECHNICAL TRAINING. TRAINING OF TRAINERS, TUTORS OR TECHNICIANS
OF SENIOR OUTPLACEMENT PROGRAMS*

FORMAZIONE TECNICA
METODOLOGIA *REINICIAL*

*FORMAZIONE FORMATORI PER IL MODULO:
STRATEGIE PER IL CAMBIAMENTO*

PROGRAMME DEVELOPMENT PROCESS (OUTPUTS)



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A1 - OBIETTIVI DIDATTICI DEL PROGRAMMA

FORMAZIONE FORMATORI: MODULO STRATEGIE PER IL CAMBIAMENTO: STRATEGIES FOR CHANGING MODULE

	OBIJECTIVE	TIPOLOGIA DI OBIETTIVI		
		Concettuali	Concettuali	Concettuali
O1	Identificare le principali caratteristiche psicologiche / sociologiche dei disoccupati over 45 ann.	X		
O2	Descrivere i principali aspetti pedagogici e psicologici per l'educazione degli adulti	X		
O3	Usare tecniche di insegnamento attivo		X	
O4	Applicare elementi di valutazione	X	X	
O5	Comprendere le basi teoriche del concetto di resilienza	X		
O6	Spiegare i concetti base di come gestire le emozioni	X		
O7	Analizzare come applicare strategie per il cambiamento	X	X	
O8	Descrivere il background dei bisogni umani	X		
O9	Portare avanti strategie per mettere in atto efficaci abitudini lavorative		X	X
O10	Ricordare alcuni concetti base della Programmazione Neuro Linguistica (PNL)	X		

A2 – Struttura del modulo “Strategie per il cambiamento”

Si tratta di un'attività per la formazione dei formatori al fine di portare avanti il corso specifico per i disoccupati over 45 “Strategie per il cambiamento”.

I contenuti della formazione formatori devono essere adeguati al corso specifico che verrà realizzato in futuro.

Il corso è diviso in 4 sessioni di diversa durata, ognuna separata da un intervallo di minimo 1 settimana, Massimo un mese. Il modulo è concepito per essere portato Avanti con un gruppo di 10/15 partecipanti, da dividere in due sottogruppi per le sessioni 2 e 3.

Questo è lo schema dei contenuti del corso

PRIMA SESSIONE (5 ORE)

- A) PRESENTAZIONE DEGLI OBIETTIVI
- B) PRESENTAZIONE DEI PARTECIPANTI
- C) TEORIA DEL CAMBIAMENTO E DELLA RESILIENZA CON ESERCIZI PRATICI I
 - 1- Concetti introduttivi**
 - Resilienza (Concetto)
 - Intelligenze multiple (Gardner)
 - Intelligenza emotive (Goleman)
 - Pilastri della resilienza:
 - connessioni affettive.
 - centro di controllo
 - auto stima
 - pensiero positivo
 - Tecniche di rilassamento (attività pratica)
 - 2- cambiamento continuo**
 - Il processo di cambiamento (spiegazione)
 - Come vi sentite riguardo al cambiamento? (dibattito)
 - Elementi catalizzatori/ostacoli al cambiamento (brainstorming)
 - Il processo di cambiamento: come affrontarlo (spiegazione)
- D) AFFRONTARE IL CAMBIAMENTO
 - Visione di film e dibattito (Cine Forum)

SECONDA SESSIONE (2 ore)

A) CONDIVISIONE DELLE CONCLUSIONI DEL LAVORO INDIVIDUALE

Storie che ispirano (dibattito)

Consigli e lettere di incoraggiamento per I personaggi del film (esercizio)

B) TEORIA DEL CAMBIAMENTO E RESILIENZA CON ESERCIZI PRATICI II

1. essere consapevoli

Comprendere le emozioni

Gestire le emozioni

2. relazione tra credenze e realtà

Sistemi di credenze

Rafforzare e limitare le credenze (esercizio)

3. Strategie per il cambiamento: abilità e atteggiamenti resilienti

Ottimismo e pessimismo

Locus di controllo interno

Locus di controllo esterno

Atteggiamenti resilienti

TERZA SESSIONE (2 ore)

A) CONDIVISIONE DELLE CONCLUSIONI DEL LAVORO INDIVIDUALE

I propri sentimenti (dibattito)

Lettere di incoraggiamento per I compagni di gruppo (esercizio)

B) APPLICARE STRATEGIE PERSONALI ED ESERCIZI

1. Strategie per un lavoro efficace: agenda quotidiana

Scala dei bisogni di Maslow

I bisogni soddisfatti da una posizione lavorativa

Abitudini lavorative efficaci

Programma giornaliero

Diario personale dell'efficacia

Strategie per il pensiero positive

Definizione degli obiettivi personali (esercizio pratico)

2. Coerenza e dialogo interiore

Dialogo interiore

Il vostro dialogo interiore (esercizio)

QUARTA SESSIONE (3,5 ore)

A) CONDIVISIONE DELLE CONCLUSIONI DEL LAVORO INDIVIDUALE

Conclusioni e risultati (esercizio)

B) CREARE SINERGIE, CONDIVIDERE ESPERIENZE

1. Benefici dell'esprimere bisogni e sentimenti, il potere della parola.

Condividere esperienze

2. Benefici di fare azioni altruiste

Aiutare gli altri

3. Networking

Rafforzare il proprio network sociale

C) COME FARE UN PASSO INDIETRO E ALLARGARE LA PROSPETTARE

Posizioni percettive: . PNL

Allargare la prospettiva

Senso dell'umorismo

D) CREARE IL PROPRIO PIANO DI AZIONE PERSONALE

Il piano di azione personale

B1 – Formazione dei formatori – contenuti del corso

Al fine di progettare la formazione per i formatori, sono stati presi in considerazione non solo i contenuti del corso per gli utenti finali, ma anche alcuni altri temi, in particolare quelli relativi alle competenze pedagogiche dei futuri formatori (moduli da 1 a 4).

Il modello dei contenuti della formazione formatori sarà il seguente:

Ordine dei contenuti della formazione:

1-Principali caratteristiche psicologiche/ sociologiche dei disoccupati over 45

- privazione economica
- Mancanza di controllo
- legittimazione al controllo
- modello di stress
- sostegno sociale
- coinvolgimento lavorativo
- Modello funzione latente

2- Aspetti salienti pedagogici e psicologici per l'educazione degli adulti

- I processi di apprendimento nell'educazione degli adulti
- Motivazione
- Comunicazione e processo di apprendimento

3- tecniche di insegnamento specifiche

- Discussione
- Role Playing
- Dinamiche di gruppo
- Uso di film come risorsa educativa

4- valutazione della formazione

- Concetto di valutazione
- Pianificare la valutazione: agenti coinvolti
- L'importanza della valutazione: valutare e misurare
- Caratteristiche tecniche della valutazione e metodi di valutazione
- Modelli di valutazione

5- basi teoriche sulla resilienza

- Resilienza (Concetto)
- Intelligenze multiple (Gardner)
- Intelligenza emotive (Goleman)
- I pilastri della resilienza
- Tecniche di rilassamento

6- gestire le emozioni

- Panorama delle emozioni
- Gestire le emozioni

7- strategie per il cambiamento

- Processo di cambiamento
- Ottimismo e pessimismo
- Locus di controllo, concetto
- Atteggiamenti resilienti
- Impedimenti e barriere al cambiamento

8- I bisogni umani

- La scala dei bisogni di Maslow
- Bisogni soddisfatti da una posizione lavorativa

9- abitudini lavorative efficacy

- Il piano di azione personale
- programma giornaliero
- Diario personale dell'efficacia
- Definizione degli obiettivi
- Strategie per il pensiero positive

10- programmazione neuro linguistica (PNL))

- panoramica
- posizioni percettive

B2 – Programmare le strategie didattiche

FORMAZIONE DEI FORMATORI: MODULO STRATEGIE PER IL CAMBIAMENTO

OBIETTIVO	CONTENUTI	METODOLOGIA	ATTIVITA'	DURATA	RISORSE	VALUTAZIONE
O1- Identificare le Principali caratteristiche psicologiche/ sociologiche dei disoccupati over 45	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - privazione economica - Mancanza di controllo - legittimazione al controllo - modello di stress - sostegno sociale - coinvolgimento lavorativo - Modello funzione latente 	Metodo espositivo	Spiegazioni del formatore e lavoro personale (lettura) per rafforzare l'apprendimento dell'argomento.	40 minuti	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Bibliografia e ricerca sull'argomento nei diversi paesi -strumenti (laptop and proiettore) 	Questionario per verificare la conoscenza alla fine del modulo
O2- descrivere I principali aspetti pedagogici e psicologici dell'educazione degli adulti	I processi di apprendimento nell'educazione degli adulti	Metodo espositivo	Spiegazioni del formatore e lavoro personale (lettura) per rafforzare l'apprendimento dell'argomento.	30 minuti	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Libri di testo -articoli e riferimenti bibliografici -strumenti (laptop and proiettore)) 	Questionario per verificare la conoscenza alla fine del modulo
	Motivazione	Metodo espositivo	Spiegazioni del formatore e lavoro personale (lettura) per	30 minuti		

OBIETTIVO	CONTENUTI	METODOLOGIA	ATTIVITA'	DURATA	RISORSE	VALUTAZIONE
			rafforzare l'apprendimento dell'argomento.			
	Comunicazione e processi di apprendimento	Metodo espositivo	Spiegazioni del formatore e lavoro personale (lettura) per rafforzare l'apprendimento dell'argomento.	30 minuti		
03 Usare le tecniche di insegnamento attivo	Discussione	Esperienza pratica	Partecipare alla discussione moderata dal formatore	30 minuti	- Libri di testo e articoli e riferimenti bibliografici - strumenti (laptop and proiettore, video registratore, lettore dvd e dvd, TV) - Guide per eseguire esperienze pratiche (discussione, role playing, dinamiche di	Questionario per verificare le procedure alla fine del modulo
	Role Playing	Esperienza pratica	Sperimentare una sessione di role playing	20 minuti		
	Dinamiche di gruppo	Esperienza pratica	Metodo dimostrativo applicato dai formatori	30 minuti		
	Uso di film come risorsa didattica educational resource	Esperienza pratica	Simulazione di attività di Cine Forum	120 minuti		

OBIETTIVO	CONTENUTI	METODOLOGIA	ATTIVITA'	DURATA	RISORSE	VALUTAZIONE
					gruppo e cine forum)	
4- Applicare elementi di valutazione	Concetto di valutazione	Metodo espositivo	Spiegazioni del formatore e lavoro personale (lettura) per rafforzare l'apprendimento dell'argomento.	20 minuti	-Libri di testo e articoli e riferimenti bibliografici -strumenti (laptop and proiettore))	Questionario per verificare la conoscenza alla fine del modulo
	Programmare la valutazione: agenti coinvolti:	Metodo espositivo ed esercizi pratici	Esercitazione su programmare la valutazione a seguito della spiegazione teorica.	40 minuti		
	Importanza della valutazione: valutare e misurare	Metodo espositivo	Spiegazioni del formatore e lavoro personale (lettura) per rafforzare l'apprendimento dell'argomento.	20 minuti		
	Caratteristiche tecniche della valutazione Metodi di valutazione	Metodo espositivo	Spiegazioni del formatore e lavoro personale (lettura) per rafforzare	30 minuti		

OBIETTIVO	CONTENUTI	METODOLOGIA	ATTIVITA'	DURATA	RISORSE	VALUTAZIONE
			l'apprendimento dell'argomento			
	Tecniche di valutazione	Metodo espositivo ed esercitazioni pratiche	Spiegazione del formatore ed esercitazioni pratiche	40 minuti		
O5- comprendere le basi teoretiche della resilienza	Resilienza (Concetto	Metodo espositivo	Spiegazioni del formatore e lavoro personale (lettura) per rafforzare l'apprendimento dell'argomento	20 minuti	- Libri di testo e riferimenti bibliografici - strumenti (laptop and proiettore, video registratore, lettore dvd e dvd, TV) - Guide per eseguire esperienze pratiche (tecniche di rilassamento)	Questionario per verificare la conoscenza alla fine del modulo
	Intelligenze multiple (Gardner)	Metodo espositivo	Spiegazioni del formatore e lavoro personale (lettura) per rafforzare l'apprendimento dell'argomento	30 minuti		
	Intelligenza emotive (Goleman)	Metodo espositivo	Spiegazioni del formatore e lavoro personale (lettura) per	30 minuti		

OBIETTIVO	CONTENUTI	METODOLOGIA	ATTIVITA'	DURATA	RISORSE	VALUTAZIONE
			rafforzare l'apprendimento dell'argomento			
	I pilastri della resilienza	Metodo espositivo	Spiegazioni del formatore e lavoro personale (lettura) per rafforzare l'apprendimento dell'argomento	20 minuti		
	Tecniche di rilassamento	Esercizi pratici	Eeguire la sessione di rilassamento	20 minuti		
O6-spiegare concetti base su gestire le emozioni	Panoramica sulle emozioni	Metodo espositivo	Spiegazione del formatore	20 minuti	-Libri di testo e riferimenti bibliografici -strumenti (laptop and proiettore))	Questionario per verificare la conoscenza alla fine del modulo
	Gestire le emozioni	Metodo espositivo	Spiegazione del formatore	30 minuti		
O7-analizzare come applicare strategie per il	Processo di cambiamento	Metodo espositivo	Spiegazione del formatore	20 minuti	-Libri di testo e articoli	Questionario per verificare la

OBIETTIVO	CONTENUTI	METODOLOGIA	ATTIVITA'	DURATA	RISORSE	VALUTAZIONE
cambiamento	Ottimismo e pessimismo	Metodo espositivo	Spiegazione del formatore	20 minuti	riferimenti bibliografici	conoscenza alla fine del modulo
	Locus di controllo, concetto	Metodo espositivo ed esercizi pratici	Classificare le attribuzioni all'interno o all'esterno dopo la spiegazione	40 minuti	-strumenti (laptop and proiettore)) - Guide per eseguire esperienze pratiche (attribuzione del locus di controllo)	
	Atteggiamenti resilienti	Metodo espositivo	Spiegazioni del formatore e lavoro personale (lettura) per rafforzare l'apprendimento dell'argomento	20 minuti		
	Impedimenti e barriere al cambiamento	Metodo espositivo	Spiegazioni del formatore e lavoro personale (lettura) per rafforzare l'apprendimento dell'argomento	20 minuti		
O8-descrivere il background per I bisogni	La scala dei bisogni di Maslow	Metodo espositivo	Spiegazioni del formatore	30 minuti	-Libri di testo e -articoli	Questionario per verificare la

OBIETTIVO	CONTENUTI	METODOLOGIA	ATTIVITA'	DURATA	RISORSE	VALUTAZIONE
umani	Bisogni soddisfatti da una posizione lavorativa	Metodo espositivo	Spiegazioni del formatore	10 minuti	riferimenti bibliografici -strumenti (laptop and proiettore))	conoscenza alla fine del modulo
O9 portare Avanti strategie per mettere in atto abitudini di lavoro efficaci	Piano d'azione personale	Metodo espositivo	Spiegazioni del formatore e lavoro personale (lettura) per rafforzare l'apprendimento dell'argomento	30 minuti	-Libri di testo e articoli e riferimenti bibliografici -strumenti (laptop and proiettore)	Questionario per verificare la conoscenza alla fine del modulo
	Programma giornaliero	Metodo espositivo ed esercizi pratici	Riempire il modello di programma giornaliero al termine della spiegazione	30 minuti	- Guide per eseguire esperienze pratiche (programma giornaliero, diario delle efficacia personale, strategie per il pensiero positivo,	
	Diario dell'efficacia personale	Metodo espositivo ed esercizi pratici	Riempire il modello "Diario dell'efficacia personale" al termine della	30 minuti		

OBIETTIVO	CONTENUTI	METODOLOGIA	ATTIVITA'	DURATA	RISORSE	VALUTAZIONE
			spiegazione		definizione degli obiettivi)	
	Strategie per il pensiero positivo	Esercizi pratici	Provare a implementare strategie con la moderazione del formatore	20 minuti		
	Definizione degli obiettivi	Metodo espositivo ed esercizi pratici	Definire obiettivi personali appropriate al termine della spiegazione	30 minuti		
O10 richiamare alcuni concetti basilari sulla programmazione neuro linguistica (PNL)	panoramica	Metodo espositivo	Spiegazioni del formatore e lavoro personale (lettura) per rafforzare l'apprendimento dell'argomento	20 minuti	-Libri di testo e articoli e riferimenti bibliografici -strumenti (laptop and proiettore)	Questionario per verificare la conoscenza alla fine del modulo
	Posizioni percettive	Metodo espositivo	Spiegazioni del formatore e lavoro personale (lettura) per rafforzare l'apprendimento	30 minuti		

OBIETTIVO	CONTENUTI	METODOLOGIA	ATTIVITA'	DURATA	RISORSE	VALUTAZIONE
			dell'argomento			

B3 – programma di formazione

STRUTTURA DEL CORSO			
STRUTTURA TEMATICA	NUMERO DEL MODULO	LEZIONE	MODALITA'
TEMATICHE PEDAGOGICHE	1	Principali caratteristiche psicologiche/ sociologiche dei disoccupati over 45	Frontale
	2	Principali aspetti pedagogici e psicologici dell'educazione degli adulti	Frontale
	3	Tecniche di insegnamento specifiche	Frontale
	4	valutazione	Frontale
RESILIENZA	5	Basi teoriche sulla resilienza	Frontale
	6	Gestire le emozioni	Frontale
	7	Strategie per il cambiamento	Frontale
	8	I bisogni umani	Frontale
	9	Abitudini di lavoro efficaci	Frontale
	10	Programmazione neuro linguistica	Frontale

		(PNL)	
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STRUTTURA DELLE SESSIONI DI FORMAZIONE		
MODULI	CONTENUTI	DURATA
Principali caratteristiche psicologiche/ sociologiche dei disoccupati over 45	Privazioni economiche	40 minuti
	Mancanza di controllo	
	Legittimazione al controllo	
	Modello di stress	
	Assistenza sociale	
	Coinvolgimento lavorativo	
	- modelli funzionali latenti	
Principali aspetti pedagogici e psicologici dell'educazione degli adulti	I processi di apprendimento nell'educazione degli adulti	30 minuti
	Motivazione	30 minuti
	Comunicazione e processo di apprendimento	30 minuti
Tecniche di insegnamento specifiche	Dibattito	30 minuti
	Role Playing	20 minuti

STRUTTURA DELLE SESSIONI DI FORMAZIONE		
MODULI	CONTENUTI	DURATA
	Dinamiche di gruppo	30 minuti
	Uso di film come risorsa didattica	120 minuti
valutazione	Concetto di valutazione	20 minuti
	Pianificare la valutazione: gli agenti coinvolti	40 minuti
	L'importanza della valutazione: valutare e misurare:	20 minuti
	Caratteristiche tecniche della valutazione: metodi di valutazione	30 minuti
	Concetto di valutazione	20 minuti
Basi teoriche sulla resilienza	Resilienza (Concetto)	20 minuti
	Intelligenze multiple (Gardner)	30 minuti
	Intelligenza emotiva (Goleman)	30 minuti
	I pilastri della resilienza	20 minuti
	Tecniche di rilassamento	20 minuti
Gestire le emozioni	Panoramica sulle emozioni	20 minuti
	Gestire le emozioni	30 minuti

STRUTTURA DELLE SESSIONI DI FORMAZIONE		
MODULI	CONTENUTI	DURATA
Strategie per il cambiamento	Processo di cambiamento	20 minuti
	Ottimismo e pessimismo	20 minuti
	Locus di controllo, concetto	40 minuto
	Atteggiamenti resilienti	20 minuti
	Impedimenti e barriere al cambiamento	20 minuti
I bisogni umani	La scala dei bisogni di Maslow	30 minuti
	I bisogni soddisfatti da una posizione lavorativa	10 minuti
Abitudini di lavoro efficaci	Piano di azione personale	30 minuti
	Programma quotidiano	30 minuti
	Diario dell'efficacia personale	30 minuti
	Strategie per il pensiero positive	20 minuti
	Definire gli obiettivi	30 minuti
Programmazione neuro linguistica (PNL)	panoramica	20 minuti
	Posizioni percettive	30 minuti
DURATA TOTALE DEL CORSO		16, 7 ore

REQUISITI DEL FORMATORE			
STRUTTURA TEMATICA	MUMERO DEL MODULO	LEZIONE	QUALIFICA DEL FORMATORE
TEMATICHE PEDAGOGICHE	1	Principali caratteristiche psicologiche/ sociologiche dei disoccupati over 45	Psicologo, sociologo o educatore
	2	Principali aspetti pedagogici e psicologici dell'educazione degli adulti	Psicologo, sociologo o educatore
	3	Specifiche tecniche di insegnamento	Psicologo, sociologo o educatore
	4	valutazione	Psicologo, sociologo o educatore
RESILIENZA	5	Basi teoriche sulla resilienza	Psicologo
	6	Gestire le emozioni	Psicologo
	7	Strategie per il cambiamento	Psicologo
	8	I bisogni umani	Psicologo
	9	Abitudini di lavoro efficaci	Psicologo
	10	Programmazione neuro linguistica (PNL)	Psicologo

ANNEX – Reference texts

PURPOSE OF THE RESOURCES

SCOPO DEI TESTI DI RIFERIMENTO

L'obiettivo principale del presente allegato è quello di presentare una selezione di articoli (testi completi o parte di essi) relativi a diversi argomenti affrontati in questo corso di formazione, che::

- permetta allo studente di ottenere un riferimento scientifico come introduzione a ciascuno degli argomenti, fornendo un insieme di conoscenze utile a contestualizzare ogni sessione
- Aiuta il lavoro del trainer che, se opportuno, può utilizzare questi articoli come punto di partenza per sviluppare i diversi argomenti.

INDICE DEI CONTENUTI

1- Principali caratteristiche psicologiche/ sociologiche dei disoccupati over 45

- 1.1.–Privazione economica
- 1.2.– mancanza di controllo
- 1.3.- Locus di controllo
- 1.4.– modello di stress
- 1.5.–Supporto sociale
- 1.6.– coinvolgimento lavorativo
- 1.7.- Modello funzione latente

2- Principali aspetti pedagogici e psicologici per l'educazione degli adulti

- 2.1.- I processi di apprendimento nell'educazione degli adulti
- 2.2.-Motivazione
- 2.3.–Comunicazione e processo di apprendimento

3- Tecniche di insegnamento specifiche

- 3.1 Discussione
- 3.2 Role Playing
- 3.3 dinamiche di gruppo
- 3.4 Uso dei film come risorsa didattica

4- valutazione

- 4.1- Concetto di valutazione
- 4.2 - Pianificare la valutazione: agenti coinvolti
- 4.3 - L'importanza della valutazione: valutare e misurare
- 4.4 - Caratteristiche tecniche della valutazione e metodi di valutazione

4.5 - Modelli di valutazione

5- basi teoriche sulla resilienza

5.1 - Resilienza (Concetto)

5.2 - Intelligenze multiple (Gardner)

5.3 - Intelligenza emotiva (Goleman)

5.4 - I pilastri della resilienza

5.5 - Tecniche di rilassamento

6- gestire le emozioni

6.1- Panorama delle emozioni

6.2- gestire le emozioni

7- Strategie per il cambiamento

7.1- Processo di cambiamento

7.2- Ottimismo e pessimismo

7.3- Locus di controllo, concetto

7.4- Atteggiamenti resilienti

7.5- Impedimenti e barriere al cambiamento

8- I bisogni umani

8.1- la scala dei bisogni di Maslow

8.2- I bisogni soddisfatti da una posizione lavorativa

9- abitudini di lavoro efficaci

- 9.1- piano di azione personale
- 9.2- programma giornaliero
- 9.3- diario dell'efficacia personale
- 9.4- definizione degli obiettivi
- 9.5- Strategie per il pensiero positive

10- Programmazione neuro linguistica (NPL)

- 10.1- panoramica
- 10.2- posizioni percettive

1- Main Psychological/Sociological characteristics of the unemployed people over 45 years

In order to understand both Psychological and sociological characteristics of the People over 45

JANLERT, U., & HAMMARSTRÖM, A. (2009). WHICH THEORY IS BEST? EXPLANATORY MODELS OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN UNEMPLOYMENT AND HEALTH. BMC PUBLIC HEALTH, 9(1), 235.

Economic deprivation models

This is the classical sociological model. Unemployed people will have less money, and less money will – directly or indirectly – worsen the prerequisites for good health. The model also suggests a potential solution to the problem: by giving the unemployed support for subsistence, the most deleterious effects of unemployment could be alleviated.

Studies utilising an economic deprivation model include most of the historical studies of the inter-war period [4]. Unemployed people lacked food, adequate housing and clothing. These studies followed a tradition from older investigations of pauperism and ill-health [5].

During the period of post-war unemployment, the economic situation was quite different, and unemployment benefits were the rule in most countries. Although the post-war unemployed were not as affluent as the employed, the economic conditions for the unemployed were substantially better than during the inter-war period. In spite of this, many studies still showed a persistent link between unemployment and ill-health [6]. Economic deprivation theory is still one of the dominant models in current studies [3,7,8].

Control models

These models encompass a wide variety of formulations, however they all state that the possibility to control (or feel that you can control) the environment is crucial to respond to a situation of unemployment.

The most widely used control concept in public health is the demand-control model, which was developed by Robert Karasek and combines job demands with decision latitude [9]. In the

demand-control model unemployment can be regarded as a passive work situation, with low control and low demands in relation to working-life.

A specific aspect of control is the so-called locus of control, i.e. whether people feel that they are directed externally or internally [10]. An internal locus of control implies that the person can control the reinforcement him or herself, which means that the unemployed blame themselves for their lack of employment. Individuals with an external locus of control believe that reinforcement occurs by chance, and thus beyond one's own control. The unemployed therefore blame external forces for their situation. According to this hypothesis, those with an internal locus of control have a better chance of gaining employment as they feel that they themselves can control their situation [11].

Stress models

Although originally introduced by Walter Cannon, stress theory was popularised above all by Hans Selye. These models attempt to relate social stimuli to the health effects in the human being using physiological mechanisms as intermediating factors [12].

A theoretical model outlining the relationships between psychosocial stimuli and health outcome within the frame of stress theory was presented by French and Kahn [13]. Different versions of this model have been presented by many authors, including by Kagan and Levi [14].

In the stress models, psychosocial stimuli (e.g. employment termination) together with the psychobiological programme (including effects of earlier environmental and genetic factors) evoke the stress mechanism, which incidentally will result in precursors of disease. In more recent developments of the model, coping and social support play an important role in moderating the stress reaction [15].

Many unemployment studies have been carried out in this field. One of the classical plant closure studies, the so-called Michigan study from 1966, uses the stress concept explicitly [16].

An important part of the stress concept is the notion of "coping", i.e. how the individual handles the stress situation. In regards to unemployment research, only a few studies have focused on the effects of the coping process during unemployment [17].

Social support models

Theories of social support and social network are closely connected to the stress perspective. It is usual to differentiate between two different mechanisms for social support, the direct and the buffer effect. According to the direct effect model, lack of social network is supposed to have immediate consequences for health. The presence of human contact is looked upon as a fundamental need – when this is lacking it will result in unfavourable reactions. According to the buffer model, social support acts as a shield against different types of stress, e.g. unemployment.

House et al. conducted a study on effects of unemployment within this theoretical tradition [18]. Their analysis revealed only modest and selective effects of unemployment on social integration and support, however, on the other hand, social integration and support seemed most critical for promoting health and buffering the impact of unemployment. In a qualitative study by Thomas et al., it has even been suggested that unemployment has a positive effect on family relationships because of the increased time that the unemployed individual has to spend with their family [19].

Models of latent functions

The most renowned theory in this field is that of Marie Jahoda [20]. The idea behind these models is that work is supposed to contribute to a number of so-called latent functions. These latent functions include giving the day a time structure, providing opportunities for social contact with other people, contributing to status and personal identity for the individual, and providing an opportunity to strive towards collective purposes and shared experience. When these latent functions are lacking, ill-health may result.

Developments of this theory include the so-called vitamin model by Peter Warr [21]. This development has added other latent functions to the model and also modified some of the existing functions.

In a study of unemployed men in Brighton, United Kingdom, Ian Miles made explicit use of the concepts of Jahoda [22]. The study confirmed a strong connection between access to the five categories of experience and psychological well-being.

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2- Main pedagogical and psychological aspects for adult learning

BROOKFIELD, S. (1995). ADULT LEARNING: AN OVERVIEW. INTERNATIONAL ENCYCLOPEDIA OF EDUCATION, 1-16.

Adult learning is frequently spoken of by adult educators as if it were a discretely separate domain, having little connection to learning in childhood or adolescence. This chapter will examine critically this claim by exploring four major research areas (self-directed learning, critical reflection, experiential learning and learning to learn) each of which have been proposed as representing unique and exclusive adult learning processes.

Issues in Understanding Adult Learning

Despite the plethora of journals, books and research conferences devoted to adult learning across the world, we are very far from a universal understanding of adult learning. Even though warnings are frequently issued that at best only a multitude of context and domain specific theories are likely to result, the energy expended on developing a general theory of adult learning shows no sign of abating. Judged by epistemological, communicative and critically analytic criteria, theory development in adult learning is weak and is hindered by the persistence of myths that are etched deeply into adult educators' minds (Brookfield, 1992). These myths (which, taken together, comprise something of an academic orthodoxy in adult education) hold that adult learning is inherently joyful, that adults are innately self-directed learners, that good educational practice always meets the needs articulated by learners themselves and that there is a uniquely adult learning process as well as a uniquely adult form of practice. This chapter argues that the attempt to construct an exclusive theory of adult learning - one that is distinguished wholly by its standing in contradiction to what we know about learning at other stages in the lifespan - is a grave error. Indeed, a strong case can be made that as we examine learning across the lifespan the variables of culture, ethnicity, personality and political ethos assume far greater significance in explaining how learning occurs and is experienced than does the variable of chronological age.

Major Areas of Research on Adult Learning

The four areas discussed in this section represent the post-war preoccupations of adult learning researchers. Each area has its own internal debates and preoccupations, yet the concerns and interests of those working within each of them overlap significantly with those of the other three. Indeed, several researchers have made important contributions to more than one of these areas. Taken together these areas of research constitute an espoused theory of adult learning that informs how a great many adult educators practice their craft.

Self-Directed Learning

Self-directed learning focuses on the process by which adults take control of their own learning, in particular how they set their own learning goals, locate appropriate resources, decide on which learning methods to use and evaluate their progress. Work on self-direction is now so widespread that it justifies an annual international symposium devoted solely to research and theory in the area. After criticisms that the emphasis on self-directed learning as an adult characteristic was being uncritically advanced, that studies were conducted mostly with middle class subjects, that issues concerning the quality of self-directed learning projects were being ignored and that it was treated as disconnected from wider social and political forces, there have been some attempts to inject a more critical tone into work in this area. Meta-analyses of research and theory conducted by Australian, Canadian and American authors have raised questions about the political dimension to self-directedness and the need to study how deliberation and serendipity intersect in self-directed learning projects (Collins, 1988; Candy, 1991; Brockett and Hiemstra, 1991). There has also been a spirited debate concerning Australian criticism of the reliability and validity of the most widely used scale for assessing readiness for self-directed learning (Field, 1991). At least one book, developed in the South African adult educational experience, has argued that self-direction must be seen as firmly in the tradition of emancipatory adult education (Hammond and Collins, 1991).

A number of important questions remain regarding our understanding of self-direction as a defining concept for adult learning. For example, the cross-cultural dimension of the concept has been almost completely ignored. More longitudinal and life history research is needed to understand how periods of self-directedness alternate with more traditional forms of educational participation in adults' autobiographies as learners. Recent work on gender has criticised the ideal of the independent, self-directed learner as reflecting patriarchal values of division, separation and competition. The extent to which a disposition to self-directedness is culturally learned, or is tied to personality, is an open issue. We are still struggling to understand how various factors - the adult's previous experiences, the nature of the learning task and domain involved, the political ethos of the time - affect the decision to learn in this manner. We also need to know more about how adults engaged in self-directed learning use social networks and peer support groups for emotional sustenance and educational guidance. Finally, work is needed on clarifying the political dimensions of this idea; particularly on the issues of power and control raised by the learner's assuming responsibility for choices and judgments regarding what can be learned, how learning should happen, and whose evaluative judgments regarding the quality and effectiveness of learning should hold sway. If the cultural formation of the self is ignored, it is all too easy to equate self-direction with separateness and selfishness, with a narcissistic pursuit of private ends in disregard to the consequences of this for others and for wider cultural interests. A view of learning which views adults as self-contained, volitional beings scurrying around engaged in individual projects is one that works against cooperative and collective impulses. Citing self-direction, adults can deny the importance of collective action, common interests and their basic interdependence in favour of an obsessive focus on the self.

Critical Reflection

Developing critical reflection is probably the idea of the decade for many adult educators who have long been searching for a form and process of learning that could be claimed to be distinctively adult. Evidence that adults are capable of this kind of learning can be found in developmental psychology, where a host of constructs such as embedded logic, dialectical thinking, working intelligence, reflective judgment, post-formal reasoning and epistemic cognition describe how adults come to think contextually and critically (Brookfield, 1987, 1991). As an idea critical reflection focuses on three interrelated processes; (1) the process by which adults question and then replace or reframe an assumption that up to that point has been uncritically accepted as representing commonsense wisdom, (2) the process through which adults take alternative perspective on previously taken for granted ideas, actions, forms of reasoning and ideologies, and (3) the process by which adults come to recognize the hegemonic aspects of dominant cultural values and to understand how self-evident renderings of the 'natural' state of the world actually bolster the power and self-interest of unrepresentative minorities. Writers in this area vary according to the extent to which critical reflection should have a political edge, or the extent to which it can be observed in such apparently a-political domains of adult life as personal relationships and workplace actions. Some confusion is caused by the fact that psychoanalytic and critical social theoretical traditions co-exist uneasily in many studies of critical reflection.

The most important work in this area is that of Mezirow (1991). Mezirow's early work (conducted with women returning to higher education) focused on the idea of perspective transformation which he understood as the learning process by which adults come to recognize and re-frame their culturally induced dependency roles and relationships. More recently he has drawn strongly on the work of Jurgen Habermas to propose a theory of transformative learning "that can explain how adult learners make sense or meaning of their experiences, the nature of the structures that influence the way they construe experience, the dynamics involved in modifying meanings, and the way the structures of meaning themselves undergo changes when learners find them to be dysfunctional" (Mezirow, 1991, p.xii). Applications of Mezirow's ideas have been made with widely varying groups of adult learners such as displaced homemakers, male spouse abusers and those suffering ill health, though his work has been criticised by educators in Nigeria, the United States, New Zealand and Canada for focusing too exclusively on individual transformation (Collard and Law, 1989; Ekpenyong, 1990; Clark and Wilson, 1991).

Many tasks remain for researchers of critical reflection as a dimension of adult learning. A language needs to be found to describe this process to educators which is more accessible than the psychoanalytic and critical theory terminology currently employed. More understanding of how people experience episodes of critical reflection (viscerally as well as cognitively), and how they deal with the risks of committing cultural suicide these entail, would help educators

respond to fluctuating rhythms of denial and depression in learners. Much research in this area confirms that critical reflection is context or domain-specific. How is it that the same people can be highly critical regarding, for example, dominant political ideologies, yet show no critical awareness of the existence of repressive features in their personal relationships? At present theoretical analyses of critical reflection (frequently drawn from Habermas' work) considerably outweigh the number of ethnographic, phenomenological studies of how this process is experienced. Contextual factors surrounding the decision to forgoe or pursue action after a period of critical reflection are still unclear, as is the extent to which critical reflection is associated with certain personality characteristics.

Experiential Learning

The emphasis on experience as a defining feature of adult learning was expressed in Lindeman's frequently quoted aphorism that "experience is the adult learner's living textbook" (1926, p. 7) and that adult education was, therefore, "a continuing process of evaluating experiences" (p. 85). This emphasis on experience is central to the concept of andragogy that has evolved to describe adult education practice in societies as diverse as the United States, Britain, France, Hungary, Poland, Russia, Estonia, Czechoslovakia, Finland and Yugoslavia (Savicevic 1991; Vooglaid and Marja, 1992). The belief that adult teaching should be grounded in adults' experiences, and that these experiences represent a valuable resource, is currently cited as crucial by adult educators of every conceivable ideological hue. Of all the models of experiential learning that have been developed, Kolb's has probably been the most influential in prompting theoretical work among researchers of adult learning (Jarvis, 1987). But almost every textbook on adult education practice affirms the importance of experiential methods such as games, simulations, case studies, psychodrama, role play and internships and many universities now grant credit for adults' experiential learning. Not surprisingly, then, the gradual accumulation of experience across the contexts of life is often argued as the chief difference between learning in adulthood and learning at earlier stages in the lifespan. Yet, an exclusive reliance on accumulated experience as the defining characteristic of adult learning contains two discernible pitfalls.

First, experience should not be thought of as an objectively neutral phenomenon, a river of thoughts, perceptions and sensations into which we decide, occasionally, to dip our toes. Rather, our experience is culturally framed and shaped. How we experience events and the readings we make of these are problematic; that is, they change according to the language and categories of analysis we use, and according to the cultural, moral and ideological vantage points from which they are viewed. In a very important sense we construct our experience: how we sense and interpret what happens to us and to the world around us is a function of structures of understanding and perceptual filters that are so culturally embedded that we are scarcely aware of their existence or operation. Second, the quantity or length of experience is not necessarily connected to its richness or intensity. For example, in an adult educational

career spanning 30 years the same one year's experience can, in effect, be repeated thirty times. Indeed, one's 'experience' over these 30 years can be interpreted using uncritically assimilated cultural filters in such a way as to prove to oneself that students from certain ethnic groups are lazy or that fear is always the best stimulus to critical thinking. Because of the habitual ways we draw meaning from our experiences, these experiences can become evidence for the self-fulfilling prophecies that stand in the way of critical insight. Uncritically affirming people's histories, stories and experiences risks idealizing and romanticising them. Experiences are neither innocent nor free from the cultural contradictions that inform them.

Learning to Learn

The ability of adults to learn how to learn - to become skilled at learning in a range of different situations and through a range of different styles - has often been proposed as an overarching purpose for those educators who work with adults. Like its sister term of 'meta-cognition', learning how to learn suffers for lack of a commonly agreed on definition, functioning more as an umbrella term for any attempts by adults to develop insight into their own habitual ways of learning. Most research on this topic has been conducted by Smith (1990) who has drawn together educators from the United States, Scotland, Australia, Germany and Sweden to work on theory development in this area (1987). An important body of related work (focusing mostly on young adults) is that of Kitchener and King (1990) who propose the concepts of epistemic cognition and reflective judgment. These latter authors emphasize that learning how to learn involves an epistemological awareness deeper than simply knowing how one scores on a cognitive style inventory, or what is one's typical or preferred pattern of learning. Rather, it means that adults possess a self-conscious awareness of how it is they come to know what they know; an awareness of the reasoning, assumptions, evidence and justifications that underlie our beliefs that something is true.

Studies of learning to learn have been conducted with a range of adult groups and in a range of settings such as adult basic education, the workplace and religious communities. Yet, of the four areas of adult learning research discussed, learning how to learn has been the least successful in capturing the imagination of the adult educational world and in prompting a dynamic programme of follow-up research. This may be because, as several writers have noted, in systems of lifelong education the function of helping people learn how to learn is often claimed as being more appropriate to schools than to adult education. Many books on learning to learn restrict themselves to the applicability of this concept to elementary or secondary school learning. While it is useful to acknowledge the school's foundational and formational role in this area, it is also important to stress that developing this capacity is too difficult to be left solely to primary and secondary education. Learning to learn should be conceived as a lifelong learning project. Research on learning to learn is also flawed in its emphasis on college students' meta-cognition and by its lack of attention to how this process manifests itself in the diverse contexts of adult life. That learning to learn is a skill that exists far beyond academic

boundaries is evident from the research conducted on practical intelligence and everyday cognition in settings and activities as diverse as grocery shopping and betting shops (Brookfield, 1991). The connections between a propensity for learning how to learn and the nature of the learning task or domain also need clarification. Learning how to learn is much more frequently spoken of in studies of clearly defined skill development or knowledge acquisition, and much less frequently referred to in studies examining emotional learning or the development of emotional intelligence.

Emergent Trends

Three trends in the study of adult learning that have emerged during the 1990's, and that promise to exercise some influence into the twenty first century, concern (1) the cross-cultural dimensions of adult learning, (2) adults' engagement in practical theorizing, and (3) the ways in which adults learn within the systems of education (distance education, computer assisted instruction, open learning systems) that are linked to recent technological advances.

Cross Cultural Adult Learning

Although the literature base in the area of cross-cultural adult learning is still sparse, there are indications that the variable of ethnicity is being taken with increasing seriousness (Cassara, 1990; Ross-Gordon, 1991). As China has opened its borders to adult educators in the 1980's research on Chinese conceptions of adult learning is starting to emerge (Pratt, 1992). As literature in this area points out, framing discussions of cultural diversity around a simple binary split between white and non-white populations vastly oversimplifies a complex reality. Among ethnic groups themselves there are significant intra and inter-group tensions. In the United States, for example, Black, Hispanic and Asian workers have points of tension between them. Within each of these broad groupings there is a myriad of overlapping rivalries; between African-Americans and immigrants from the British West Indies; between Colombians, Puerto-Ricans, Cubans and Dominicans; between Koreans, Vietnamese, Cambodians and Hmong tribe's people. Also, the tribal cultures of Native Americans cannot be conceptualized as a culturally homogeneous block.

Two important insights for practice have been suggested by early research into cross cultural adult learning. First, adult educators from the dominant American, European and northern cultures will need to examine some of their assumptions, inclinations and preferences about 'natural' adult learning and adult teaching styles (Brookfield, 1986). For the Hmong tribes people from the mountains of Laos who are used to working cooperatively and to looking to their teachers for direction and guidance, ways of working that emphasize self-directedness

and that place the locus of control with the individual student will be experienced, initially at least, as dissonant and anxiety-producing (Podeschi, 1990). However, their liking for materials that focus on personal concrete experience fits well with the adult education practices that emphasize experiential approaches. Second, 'teaching their own' is a common theme surfaced in case studies of multicultural learning. In other words, when adults are taught by educators drawn from their own ethnic communities they tend to feel more comfortable and to do better. Ethnocentric theories and assumptions regarding adult learning styles underscore the need for mainstream adult educators to research their own practice with native and aboriginal peoples. This will require a critically responsive stance towards their practice (Brookfield, 1990) and a readiness to examine some of their most strongly held, paradigmatic assumptions (Brookfield, 1987).

Practical Theorizing

Practical theorizing is an idea most associated with the work of Usher (Usher and Bryant, 1989) who has focused on the ways in which educational practitioners - including adult educators - become critically aware of the informally developed theories that guide their practice. Practical theorizing has its origins in practitioners' attempts to grapple with the dilemmas, tensions and contradictions of their work. Actions educators take in these situations often appear instinctual. Yet, on reflection, these apparently instinctive reactions can be understood to be embedded in assumptions, readings and interpretations that practitioners have evolved over time to make sense of their practice. Practitioners seem to come to a more informed understanding of their informal patterns of reasoning by subjecting these to critical review drawing on two important sources. First, they compare their emerging informal theories to those of their colleagues. This happens informally in individual conversations and in a more structured way through participation in reflection groups. Colleagues serve as reflective mirrors in these groups; they reflect back to the practitioner readings of her or his behaviour that come as an interesting surprise. As they describe their own reactions and experiences dealing with typical crises, colleagues can help the individual worker re-frame, broaden and refine her own theories of practice. Second, practitioners also use formal theory as a lens through which to view their own actions and the assumptions that inform these. As well as providing multiple perspectives on familiar situations, formal theory can help educators 'name' their practice by illuminating the general elements of what were thought of as idiosyncratic experiences. These two sources - colleagues' experiences and formal theory - intersect continuously in a dialectical interplay of particular and universal perspectives.

Distance Learning

In contrast to its earlier equation with necessarily limiting correspondence study formats, distance education is now regarded as an important setting within which a great deal of

significant adult learning occurs (Gibson, 1992). Weekend college formats, multi-media experimentations and the educational possibilities unleashed by satellite broadcasting have combined to provide learning opportunities for millions of adults across the world. That adult educational themes of empowerment, critical reflection, experience and collaboration can inform distance learning activities is evident from case studies of practice that are emerging. Modra (1992) provides an interesting account of how she drew on the work of radical adult educators such as Freire, Shor and Lovett to use learning journals to encourage adults' critical reflection in an Australian distance education course. Smith and Castle (1992) propose the use of "experiential learning technology, facilitated from a distance, as a method of developing critical thinking skills" with "the scattered, oppressed adult population of South Africa" (p. 191). (...)

3- Specific teaching techniques

3.1 DEBATE

DARBY, M. (2006). DEBATE: A TEACHING-LEARNING STRATEGY FOR DEVELOPING COMPETENCE IN COMMUNICATION AND CRITICAL THINKING. JOURNAL OF DENTAL HYGIENE: JDH/AMERICAN DENTAL HYGIENISTS' ASSOCIATION, 81(4), 78-78.

Introduction

Complex issues of health policy, politics, and professionalization require teaching strategies that engage and motivate today's graduate and undergraduate students to be critical thinkers in preparation for roles as leaders, organizers, and advocates. One strategy, the debate, requires students to work as individuals and as a team to research critical issues, prepare and present a logical argument, actively listen to various perspectives, differentiate between subjective and objective information, ask cogent questions, integrate relevant information, develop empathy, project confidence, cultivate poise, and formulate their own opinions based on evidence. Therefore, the debate strategy can be used as an effective pedagogical method to achieve these aforementioned competencies in baccalaureate and graduate dental hygiene programs.

Review of the Literature

Debate can be defined as an old teaching-learning strategy that presupposes an established position, either pro or con, on an issue, assertion, proposition, or solution to a problem. Protagoras of Abdera is thought to have developed the educational method of debate dating back to the 5th century. Debate as a teaching strategy thrived throughout the 19th and early 20th century and then declined in popularity. Renewed interest in debate as an educational teaching strategy occurred in the 1980s with the philosophy of promoting critical thinking, and continues to be a useful tool to develop skills in critical thinking, communication, and logic. The debate process is worthy of consideration by dental hygiene educators as a valuable tool for experiential learning.

Tumposky suggested that debate nurtures students' critical thinking skills and awareness of thought, and facilitates clinical reasoning and ability to share viewpoints with others while learning specific content. Debate also allows students to move beyond "rote learning of facts,

theories, and technique," and provides an opportunity for applying knowledge through role-playing while demonstrating their ideas, values, and attitudes. However, Tumposky also cautions that debate can ultimately compromise and distort the process of learning, eg, students can work to be effective in influencing the thinking of others at the expense of being accurate. Another limitation in debate is that it can cause frustration and anxiety in some learners.

3.2- Role Playing

JARVIS, L., ODELL, K., & TROIANO, M. (2002). ROLE-PLAYING AS A TEACHING STRATEGY. STRATEGIES FOR APPLICATION AND PRESENTATION.

Role-playing is a teaching strategy that fits within the social family of models

(Joyce and Weil, 2000). These strategies emphasize the social nature of learning, and see cooperative behavior as stimulating students both socially and intellectually.

Role-playing as a teaching strategy offers several advantages for both teacher and student. First, student interest in the topic is raised. Research has shown that "integrating experiential learning activities in the classroom increases interest in the subject mater and understanding of course content" (Poorman, 2002, pg. 32). Fogg (2001) tells of a college professor who felt that his history classes were boring and not involving the students. After trying out a role-playing type game one semester, he observed that students were much more interested in the material.

Secondly, there is increased involvement on the part of the students in a roleplaying lesson. Students are not passive recipients of the instructor's knowledge. Rather, they take an active part. Poorman (2002) observes that "true learning cannot take place when students are passive observers of the teaching process" (p. 32). One student at

Barnard College who was enrolled in a role-playing history class said, “This class tricks you into doing so much work” (Fogg, 2001). The result of the involvement is increased learning (Fogg, 2001).

A third advantage to using role-playing as a teaching strategy is that it teaches empathy and understanding of different perspectives (Poorman, 2002). A typical roleplaying activity would have students taking on a role of a character, learning and acting as that individual would do in the typical setting. Poorman (2002) found “a significant increase among students in feeling another’s distress as their own” (pg. 34). Role-playing has also been seen to be effective in reducing racial prejudice (McGregor, 1993).

3.3- Group Dynamics

TUCKMAN, B. W., & JENSEN, M. A. C. (1977). STAGES OF SMALL-GROUP DEVELOPMENT REVISITED. GROUP & ORGANIZATION MANAGEMENT, 2(4), 419-427.

Tuckman (1965) reviewed fifty-five articles dealing with stages of small group development in an attempt to isolate those concepts common to the various studies and produce a generalizable model of changes in group life over time. He examined studies of (1) Therapy Groups, (2) human relations training or T-groups, and (3) natural and laboratory-task groups in terms of two realms—task and interpersonal. The way members acted and related to one another was considered groupstructure or the interpersonal realm: the content of the interaction as related to the task was referred to as the task-activity realm.

Both realms represented simultaneous aspects of group functioning because members completed tasks while relating to one another.

The Model

As a result of the literature reviewed, Tuckman proposed a model of developmental stages for various group settings over time, labeled (1) testing and dependence, (2) intragroup conflict, (3) development of group cohesion, and (4) functional role relatedness. The stages of task activity were labeled (1) orientation to task, (2) emotional response to task demands, (3) open exchange of relevant interpretations, and (4) emergence of solutions. An essential

correspondence between the groupstructure realm and the task-activity realm over time caused Tuckman to summarise the four stages as “forming,” “storming,” “norming,” and “performing.” He acknowledged, however, that this was “a conceptual statement suggested by the data presented and subject to further test” (p.5).

Tuckman cited several limitations of the literature, e.g., that the literature could not be considered truly representative of smallgroup developmental processes because there was an overrepresentation of therapy and T-group settings and an underrepresentation of natural or laboratory groups, indicated the need for more rigorous methodological considerations in studying group process, and criticized the use of a single group for observation because it made control and systemic manipulation of independent values impossible.

Tuckman provided a developmental model of group process by organizing and conceptualizing existing research data and theoretical precepts rather than by presenting original empirical data to support a particular model. He stated, however, that his model was in need of further testing. (...)

3.4- Use of films as educational resource

CHAMPOUX, J. E. (1999). FILM AS A TEACHING RESOURCE. JOURNAL OF MANAGEMENT INQUIRY, 8(2), 206-217.

(...) Teaching Functions of Film

Films can serve many functions in one’s teaching program. The functions that will work for you depend on your teaching style, teaching goals, and course content.

The following is an overview of ways of using film as case, experiential exercise, metaphor, satire, symbolism, meaning, experience, and time.

- *Film as Case: Case analysis is an obvious use of film and perhaps the first that one thinks of when considering film for teaching. Scenes from a well-acted and well-directed film present material more dramatically and engagingly than a print case. Example: The Coca-Cola Kid*

- *Film as Experiential Exercise: Some films lend themselves to inclusion in experiential exercises. Using films instead of print materials adds the advantages and unique qualities of film to the exercise. Example: Apollo 13*

- *Film as Metaphor: Metaphors serve many functions in prose and poetry and can serve similar functions when using film as a teaching resource (Cooper 1986; Hawkes 1972; Mooij 1976). Metaphors often leave lasting impressions that a person easily recalls. Example: Scent of a Woman*

- *Film as Satire: Satire is an effective art form for burning concepts into a person's mind (Feinberg 1967; Griffin 1994, 1; Test 1991). It uses humor and ridicule to contrast pretense and reality. Well-done satire can leave an unforgettable image of concepts you are trying to emphasize. Example: Modern Times*

- *Film as Symbolism: Some scenes from films can offer a symbolic way of communicating theories and concepts. Unusual shots, sequencing, lighting, and the use of black and white film often convey symbolism. Example: Ikiru (to Live)*

- *Film as Meaning: Film is an excellent medium for giving meaning to theories and concepts. The visual and auditory effects of great films can convey a message better than printed or spoken words. Example: 12 Angry Men*

- *Film as Experience: The unique qualities of film described earlier can create strong experiences for viewers (Stadler 1990). You can use this feature of film to introduce students to other countries' cultures. Example: Ciao, Professore!*

- *Film as Time: Films portraying earlier periods can help show aspects of behavior during an earlier time. Example: Tucker: The Man and His Dream*

Ways of Using Film for Teaching

There are several ways of using film for teaching organizational behavior principles, theories, and concepts (Proctor and Adler 1991; Zorn 1991). Experimenting with each method will show you which ones are most effective for your teaching style and course content.

- Before: Showing film scenes before discussion gives students a recallable visual image to which they can compare the topics under discussion. This approach allows quick reference to easily recallable examples shown in the film. Example: Top Gun.

- After: Showing scenes after describing or discussing theories and concepts lets you use the scenes as a video case. This approach helps students develop their analytical skills in applying what they are learning. Example: Top Gun.

- Repeat: Repeating scenes is especially helpful when trying to develop student understanding of complex topics (Wolensky 1982). Run the scenes before discussion to give students a visual anchor. Rerun the scenes as a video case and ask students to analyze what they see with the theories and concepts discussed. Example: The Firm.

- Comparison: Films offer rich opportunities for comparisons in several ways. Remakes of the same film can offer a chance to see the same culture at different times. Example: Sabrina (1954) : Sabrina (1995).

Advantages and Disadvantages of Film

Many reports about using film as a teaching resource have included observations on the advantages and disadvantages of film. The following summarizes these observations from the published literature (Considine 1989; Fails 1988; Moore 1993; Proctor 1990; Proctor and Adler 1991; Shields and Kidd 1973; Winegarden, FussReineck, and Charron 1993; Zorn 1991).

Film's advantages as a teaching resource include:

- Films are a comfortable, familiar medium to contemporary students that can keep student interest in the theories and concepts under discussion.

- Films available on videotape and DVD have high production quality. They likely will engage your students' interest more than films of the McGraw-Hill CRM type.

- *Films also are an economical substitute for field trips and other real world visits. While most films are fiction, they can offer powerful experiences that students are unlikely to have in a classroom.*
- *Students can hone their analytical skills by analyzing film scenes using the theories and concepts they are studying.*
- *Films offer both cognitive and affective experiences. They can provoke good discussion, assessment of one's values, and assessment of self if the scenes have strong emotional content.*

Some disadvantages of film as a teaching resource include:

- *Some students might resist viewing foreign films with subtitles. These films take more effort to follow because of the need to read the subtitles and watch the scenes.*
- *Films are fiction and fiction writers and directors have much flexibility in how much reality they want their films to show.*
- *Students can vary in their reaction to actresses, actors, and characters in a film. Your knowledge of your students, and their likely reactions, should guide your choice of scenes.*
- *The content of scenes might distract some students from the theories and concepts the scenes portray. Humor, drama, terror, and language can distract people.*
- *Using film scenes in class takes time away from other classroom activities.*

By using selected scenes of twenty minutes or less, you can focus on specific theories or concepts.

4- Training evaluation

4.1- Concept of evaluation

SCRIVEN, M. (2003). EVALUATION THEORY AND METATHEORY. IN INTERNATIONAL HANDBOOK OF EDUCATIONAL EVALUATION (PP. 15). SPRINGER NETHERLANDS.

DEFINITIONS

What is evaluation? Synthesizing what the dictionaries and common usage tell us, it is the process of determining the merit, worth, or significance of things (near-synonyms are quality/value/importance). Reports on the results of this process are called evaluations if complex, evaluative claims if simple sentences, and we here use the term evaluand for whatever it is that is evaluated (optionally, we use evaluate to indicate that an evaluand is a person).

An evaluation theory (or theory of evaluation) can be of one or the other of two types. Normative theories are about what evaluation should do or be, or how it should be conceived or defined. Descriptive theories are about what evaluations there are, or what evaluations types there are (classificatory theories), and what they in fact do, or have done, or why or how they did or do that (explanatory theories).

A metatheory is a theory about theories, in this case about theories of evaluation.

It may be classificatory and/or explanatory. That is, it may suggest ways of grouping evaluation theories and/or provide explanations of why they are the way that they are. In this essay we provide a classification of evaluation theories, and an explanatory account of their genesis.

4.2- Assessment planning: agents involved

DESIGNING EVALUATIONS OF EDUCATIONAL AND SOCIAL PROGRESS BY LEE J. CRONBACH: A SYNOPSIS. STUFFLEBEAM, D. L., & SHINKFIELD, A. J. (1984). SYSTEMATIC EVALUATION (VOL. 8). SPRINGER SCIENCE & BUSINESS MEDIA.

*During the past 40 years, Lee J. Cronbach has concerned himself with many aspects of evaluation of social science programs. Much of his thinking in these areas has culminated in a book entitled *Designing Evaluations of Educational and Social Programs* (Cronbach, 1982), a lengthy and erudite work, the preliminary version of which was completed in April 1978. Containing 374 pages, the book includes some new aspects for the design of educational evaluations, while discussing the pros and cons of some of the design concepts already in use.*

In his introduction to the issues of planning evaluations Cronbach states that designing an evaluation investigation is an art because each design has to be decided according to its appropriateness to each new undertaking. He points out that the evaluator must be aware of the choices that are available so that the advantages that accrue from each feature of the design must be balanced against any sacrifices that each choice entails. The design, therefore, becomes a matter of planning for allocation of investigative resources, based upon a selection of questions that are considered to be most apt and guided by practical and political considerations.

The strong contrasts between some of the remarks of the adherents of the scientific approach to evaluation and the enthusiasts for the holistic or naturalistic approach suggest a polarization so strong that no reconciliation is possible. However, Cronbach believes that the conflict is exaggerated and that the more an evaluative effort becomes a program of studies (rather than a single study) the more place there is for a mixture of styles. The need for political awareness, open-mindedness, and good communications by the evaluator in both the design and operational stages of an investigation runs through all that Cronbach writes.

Because of the length of Cronbach's book, no attempt will be made to cover all its material in this brief paper. If, however, you find the points raised interesting, you may be assured that they are well worthy of further exploration by reference to the complete text. This paper will select from Cronbach's work those thoughts that fit into the general context which deals with investigative components and resources for an evaluation, such as the place of various styles in evaluation design, identification of research questions, and the importance of evaluator/decision maker communications. In addition, this paper will introduce Cronbach's concept of the elements in an evaluation design -units, treatments, and observations (uto).

4.3- Importance of the evaluation: assess and to measure

SCRIVEN, M. (2003). EVALUATION THEORY AND METATHEORY. IN INTERNATIONAL HANDBOOK OF EDUCATIONAL EVALUATION (PP.16). SPRINGER NETHERLANDS.

(...) evaluation is not just the process of determining facts about things (including their effects), which, roughly speaking, we call research if it's difficult and observation if it's easy. An evaluation must, by definition, lead to a particular type of conclusion - one about merit, worth, or significance – usually expressed in the language of good/bad, better/worse, well/ill, elegantly/poorly etc.

This constraint requires that evaluations - in everyday life as well as in scientific practice - involve three components: (i) the empirical study (i.e., determining brute facts about things and their effects and perhaps their causes); (ii) collecting the set of perceived as well as defensible values that are substantially relevant to the results of the empirical study, e.g., via a needs assessment, or a legal opinion; and (iii) integrating the two into a report with an evaluative claim as its conclusion.

4.4- Technical characteristics of evaluation. Evaluation methods

NEVO, D. (1983). THE CONCEPTUALIZATION OF EDUCATIONAL EVALUATION: AN ANALYTICAL REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE. REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH, 53(1), 117-128.

Summary

Risking oversimplification, one could summarize the review of the literature with the following most common answers to our 10 questions. This could be one way to describe briefly the state of the art in the conceptualization of educational evaluation.

1. *How is evaluation defined? Educational evaluation is a systematic description of educational objects and/or an assessment of their merit or worth.*
2. *What are the functions of evaluation? Educational evaluation can serve four different functions: (a) formative (for improvement); (b) summative (for selection and accountability); (c)*

sociopolitical (to motivate and gain public support); and (d) administrative (to exercise authority).

3. What are the objects of evaluation? Any entity can be an evaluation object.

Typical evaluation objects in education are students, educational and administrative personnel, curricula, instructional materials, programs, projects, and institutions.

4. What kinds of information should be collected regarding each object? Four groups of variables should be considered regarding each object. They focus on (a) the goals of the object; (b) its strategies and plans; (c) its process of implementation; and (d) its outcomes and impacts.

5. What criteria should be used to judge the merit of an object? The following criteria should be considered in judging the merit or worth of an educational object: (a) responding to identified needs of actual and potential clients; (b) achieving national goals, ideals, or social values; (c) meeting agreed-upon standards and norms; (d) outdoing alternative objects; and (e) achieving (important) stated goals of the object. Multiple criteria should be used for any object.

6. Who should be served by an evaluation? Evaluation should serve the information needs of all actual and potential parties interested in the evaluation object ("stakeholders"). It is the responsibility of the evaluator(s) to delineate the stakeholders of an evaluation and to identify or project their information needs.

7. What is the process of doing an evaluation? Regardless of its method of inquiry, an evaluation process should include the following three activities: (a) focusing the evaluation problem; (b) collecting and analyzing empirical data; and (c) communicating findings to evaluation audiences. There is more than one appropriate sequence for implementing these activities, and any such sequence can (and sometimes should) be repeated several times during the life span of an evaluation study.

8. What methods of inquiry should be used in evaluation? Being a complex task, evaluation needs to mobilize many alternative methods of inquiry from the

behavioral sciences and related fields of study and utilize them according to the nature of a specific evaluation problem. At the present state of the art, an a priori preference for any specific method of inquiry is not warranted.

9. Who should do evaluation? Evaluation should be conducted by individuals or teams possessing (a) extensive competencies in research methodology and other data analysis techniques; (b) understanding of the social context and the unique substance of the evaluation object; (c) the ability to maintain correct human relations and to develop rapport with individuals and groups involved in the evaluation; and (d) a conceptual framework to integrate the above-mentioned capabilities.

10. By what standards should evaluation be judged? Evaluation should strike for an optimal balance in meeting standards of (a) utility (to be useful and practical); (b) accuracy (to be technically adequate); (c) feasibility (to be realistic and prudent); and (d) propriety (to be conducted legally and ethically). (...)

4.5- Evaluation techniques

STUFFLEBEAM, D. L., & SHINKFIELD, A. J. (1984). SYSTEMATIC EVALUATION (VOL. 8). SPRINGER SCIENCE & BUSINESS MEDIA.

One aspect that distinguishes formal evaluation from informal evaluation is, of course the area of methodology. When we move our consideration away from evaluations that involve quick, intuitive judgments toward those that entail rigorously gathered findings and effective communications, we must necessarily deal with the complex areas of epistemology, rules of evidence, information sciences, research design, measurement, statistics, communication, and some others. Many principles, tools, and strategies within these areas have pertinence to systematic evaluation. The well-prepared evaluator will have a good command of concepts and techniques in all these areas and will keep informed about potentially useful technological developments. Those evaluators who would exert leadership and help move their profession should contribute to the critique of existing methods and the development of new ones.

Over the years, many evaluators have chosen, even championed, the exclusive use of a few techniques. Some have equated evaluation with their favorite methods—for example, experimental design, standardized testing, or site visits. Other leaders have sharply attacked narrow views of which methods are appropriate and, in some cases have argued for substituting their favorite technique, such as the case study. We find both positions short-sighted, inadequate, and sometimes divisive.

Instead, we advocate an eclectic approach. Thus, we believe that evaluators should know about a wide range of pertinent techniques and how well they apply in different evaluative contexts. Then in each evaluative situation, they can assess which techniques are potentially applicable and which ones most likely would work best to serve the particular purposes of the given evaluation.

Among the technical areas in which we think the professional evaluator should be proficient in are the following: interviewing, proposal writing, content analysis, observation, political analysis, cost analysis, survey research, technical writing, goal-free evaluation, advocacy-adversary hearings, advocacy teams, checklists, test construction, statistical analysis, research design, system analysis, theorizing, and project administration. Convenient sources of general

information about such technical areas of Scriven (1974), Anderson, Ball and Murphy (1974), Brinkerhoff et al., (1983), and Smith (1981a y 1981b).

5- Theoretical basis about resilience

- Resilience (Concept)

LUTHAR, S. S., CICHETTI, D., & BECKER, B. (2000). THE CONSTRUCT OF RESILIENCE: A CRITICAL EVALUATION AND GUIDELINES FOR FUTURE WORK. CHILD DEVELOPMENT, 71(3), 543.

THE CONSTRUCT OF RESILIENCE: SCIENTIFIC CONCERNS AND CHALLENGES

In the following discussion, we address, in turn, various issues that have been singled out as potentially problematic aspects of the construct of resilience. We proffer explicit suggestions for redressing the valid concerns that have impeded progress in this field, and elucidate factors that might underlie those criticisms we believe are less well justified.

Variations in Definitions and Use of Terminology

1. The theoretical and research literature on resilience reflects little consensus about definitions, with substantial variations in operationalization and measurement of key constructs

Without question, resilience is variously defined in extant theoretical writings. Rutter (1987, 1990), for example, has characterized resilience as the positive end of the distribution of developmental outcomes among individuals at high risk. Masten and her colleagues (Masten, 1994; Masten et al., 1990) have distinguished among three groups of resilient phenomena: those where (1) at-risk individuals show better-than-expected outcomes, (2) positive adaptation is maintained despite the occurrence of stressful experiences, and (3) there is a good recovery from trauma.

In empirical research, similarly, approaches taken to operationalizing resilience have varied across laboratories (see, e.g., Cicchetti & Garmezy, 1993; Gordon & Song, 1994; Kaufman, Cook, Arny, Jones, & Pittinsky, 1994; Luthar & Cushing, 1999; Stouthamer-Loeber et al., 1993; Tarter & Vanyukov, 1999; Tolan, 1996). To illustrate, adversity conditions examined have ranged from single stressful life experiences—such as exposure to war—to aggregates across multiple negative events (e.g., by means of life event checklists). Similarly, there has been substantial diversity in defining positive adjustment among individuals at risk. Some researchers have stipulated that to qualify for labels of resilience, at-risk children must excel in

multiple adjustment domains (e.g., Tolan, 1996), whereas others have required excellence in one salient sphere with at least average performance in other areas (Luthar, 1991; Luthar, Doernberger, & Zigler, 1993; see also Egeland & Farber, 1987; Radke-Yarrow & Sherman, 1990).

Resilience researchers have also conceptualized the connection between conditions of risk and manifest competence differently. Some have used personbased data analytic approaches, which entail identifying individuals with high adversity and high competence, and comparing them with others (e.g., low adversity, high competence). Other investigators have used variable-based analyses and relied on either main effect models or those involving interaction effects (see Luthar & Cushing, 1999, for a detailed review of measurement issues). This diversity in measurement has led some scholars to question whether resilience researchers are dealing with the same entity or with fundamentally different phenomena (Kaplan, 1999).

Although diverse empirical methods can admittedly lead to a medley of unrelated findings, it must be noted, too, that some variability in methods is essential to expand understanding of any scientific construct (Luthar, 1996). Consider, as an analogous case, the vast literature on parent–child relations. If one were told of new research evidence on “predictors of adequate parenting,” a number of questions would inevitably arise, including, “Adequate parenting in terms of which dimensions? Parental attitudes or parental behaviors? If the latter, is the reference to nurturance, discipline, communication styles, or some combination of these? What ethnic group is involved, and who are the respondents?” Depending on the answers to each of these queries, the conclusions deriving from the research could differ substantially.

Returning to the controversy under consideration, it is clearly untenable to argue that the diversity in defining or measuring positive parenting, in itself, diminishes the literature on this construct. To the contrary, this very diversity is essential for establishing the validity of discrete parenting domains. If different studies with diverse methods yielded largely consonant findings on particular aspects of parenting, it would be reasonable to infer that they each tapped into the same broad scientific construct (cf. Cronbach & Meehl, 1955).

Considering such evidence of construct validity for the existence of a hypothetical concept (Carnap, 1950; Meehl, 1977; Pap, 1953), research in the area of resilience appears to be in good standing. Reviews of the relatively small though burgeoning literature (see, e.g., Cicchetti & Garmezy, 1993; Luthar & Zigler, 1991; Masten et al., 1990; Masten & Coatsworth, 1995, 1998; Rutter, 1990; Werner, 1990, 1995) have indicated synchronous evidence regarding many correlates of resilience (protective factors) across multiple studies that have used varying measurement strategies. Themes that recur across studies include the importance of close relations with supportive adults, effective schools, and connections with competent, prosocial adults in the wider community.

This said, we believe that in future research, concerted attention must be given both to selecting and justifying strategies used to operationalize pivotal constructs. Definitional diversity can result not only in varying conclusions regarding risk and protective processes but also in disparate estimates of rates of resilience among similar risk groups (Cicchetti & Rogosch, 1997; Kaufman et al., 1994; Luthar & Cushing, 1999). In the absence of any universally employed operationalization of resilience, researchers must clearly explicate the approaches they select to define both adversity and competence and provide cogent justifications for choices made on both conceptual and empirical grounds (also see discussions later in this article on the multidimensional nature of resilience).

Furthermore, as empirical evidence on resilience accumulates, scholars need to consolidate findings periodically, identifying themes that recur across methodologically diverse studies as opposed to those identified in relatively few instances (cf. Luthar, 1999). Such diversity is essential in allowing the derivation of testable theoretical postulates that imply breadth of applicability across disparate at-risk samples and methods, as opposed to those that suggest relative specificity in application.

- Multiple intelligences (Gardner)

BRUALDI, A. C. (1996). MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES: GARDNER'S THEORY. ERIC DIGEST.

Gardner (1983) proposed a new view of intelligence that is rapidly being incorporated in school curricula. In his Theory of Multiple Intelligences, Gardner expanded the concept of intelligence to also include such areas as music, spacial relations, and interpersonal knowledge in addition to mathematical and linguistic ability.

This digest discusses the origins of Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligences, his definition of intelligence, the incorporation of the Theory of Multiple Intelligences into the classroom, and its role in alternative assessment practices.

SEVEN INTELLIGENCES

Gardner defines intelligence as "the capacity to solve problems or to fashion products that are valued in one or more cultural setting" (Gardner & Hatch, 1989). Using biological as well as cultural research, he formulated a list of seven intelligences. This new outlook on intelligence differs greatly from the traditional view which usually recognizes only two intelligences, verbal and computational. The seven intelligences

Gardner defines are:

Logical-Mathematical Intelligence--consists of the ability to detect patterns, reason deductively and think logically. This intelligence is most often associated with scientific and mathematical thinking.

Linguistic Intelligence--involves having a mastery of language. This intelligence includes the ability to effectively manipulate language to express oneself rhetorically or poetically. It also allows one to use language as a means to remember information.

Spatial Intelligence--gives one the ability to manipulate and create mental images in order to solve problems. This intelligence is not limited to visual domains—Gardner notes that spatial intelligence is also formed in blind children.

Musical Intelligence--encompasses the capability to recognize and compose musical pitches, tones, and rhythms. (Auditory functions are required for a person to develop this intelligence in relation to pitch and tone, but it is not needed for the knowledge of rhythm.)

Bodily-Kinesthetic Intelligence--is the ability to use one's mental abilities to coordinate one's own bodily movements. This intelligence challenges the popular belief that mental and physical activity are unrelated.

The Personal Intelligences--includes interpersonal feelings and intentions of others—and intrapersonal intelligence--the ability to understand one's own feelings and motivations.

These two intelligences are separate from each other. Nevertheless, because of their close association in most cultures, they are often linked together.

Although the intelligences are anatomically separated from each other, Gardner claims that the seven intelligences very rarely operate independently. Rather, the intelligences are used concurrently and typically complement each other as individuals develop skills or solve problems. For example, a dancer can excel in his art only if he has 1) strong musical intelligence to understand the rhythm and variations of the music, 2) interpersonal intelligence to understand how he can inspire or emotionally move his audience through his movements, as well as 3) bodily-kinesthetic intelligence to provide him with the agility and coordination to complete the movements successfully.

BASIS FOR INTELLIGENCE

Gardner argues that there is both a biological and cultural basis for the multiple intelligences. Neurobiological research indicates that learning is an outcome of the modifications in the synaptic connections between cells. Primary elements of different types of learning are found in particular areas of the brain where corresponding transformations have occurred. Thus, various types of learning results in synaptic connections in different areas of the brain. For example, injury to the Broca's area of the brain will result in the loss of one's ability to verbally communicate using proper syntax.

Nevertheless, this injury will not remove the patient's understanding of correct grammar and word usage.

In addition to biology, Gardner (1983) argues that culture also plays a large role in the development of the intelligences. All societies value different types of intelligences. The cultural value placed upon the ability to perform certain tasks provides the motivation to become skilled in those areas. Thus, while particular intelligences might be highly evolved in many people of one culture, those same intelligences might not be as developed in the individuals of another.

- Emotional intelligence (Goleman)

GOLEMAN, D. WORKING WITH EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

THE BIG IDEA

In this book, author Daniel Goleman reveals the skills that distinguish star performers in every field, from entry level jobs to middle-level to top executive posts. The book shows that the single most important factor is not IQ, advanced degrees, or technical expertise, but the quality called "Emotional Intelligence."

This book shows that we all possess the potential to improve our emotional intelligence – at any stage in our careers, as individuals or as team members in an organization.

The New Yardstick

The rules for work are changing. We're being judged by a new yardstick: not just by how smart we are, or by our training and expertise, but also by how we handle ourselves and each other. This is increasingly applied in choosing who will be hired and not, who will be let go or retained. In a time with no guarantee of job security, when the very concept of a job is being replaced by "portable skills," these are prime qualities that make and keep us employable. Talked about loosely for decades under a variety of names, from "character" and "personality" to "soft skills" and "competence," there is at last a more precise understanding of these human talents: emotional intelligence.

Some Misconceptions

- *First, emotional intelligence does not mean merely "being nice," but rather, for example, bluntly confronting someone with an uncomfortable but consequential truth they have been avoiding.*

- *Second, emotional intelligence does not mean giving free rein to feelings.*

Rather, it means managing feelings so that they are expressed appropriately and effectively, enabling people to work together smoothly toward their common goal.

- *Lastly, levels of emotional intelligence are not fixed genetically, nor does it develop in early childhood. Unlike IQ, which changes little after our teen years, emotional intelligence seems to be largely learned, and it continues to develop through life and learn from our experiences.*

What Employers Want

A survey of American employers reveals that more than half the people who work for them lack the motivation to keep learning and improving in their job. Four in ten are not able to work cooperatively with fellow employees, and just 19 percent of those applying for entry-level jobs have enough self-discipline in their work habits. More and more employers are complaining about the lack of social skills in new hires.

The Limits of IQ

Given how much emphasis schools and admissions tests put on it, IQ alone explains surprisingly little of achievement at work or in life. When IQ test scores are correlated with how well people perform in their careers, the highest estimate of how much difference IQ accounts for is about 25 percent. This means that IQ alone at best leaves 75 percent of job success unexplained.

Expertise

In large part, expertise is a combination of common sense plus the specialized knowledge and skill we pick up in the course of doing any job. Expertise comes from in-the-trenches learning. It shows up as an insider's sense of the tricks of a trade – the real knowledge of how to do a job that only experience brings. Be that as it may, expertise is a “threshold requirement.” The abilities that distinguish the outstanding supervisors in technical fields are not technical, but rather relate to handling people.

- Pillars of resilience

MASTEN, A. S. (2001). ORDINARY MAGIC: RESILIENCE PROCESSES IN DEVELOPMENT. AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGIST, 56(3), 227.

Models of Resilience

Two major approaches have characterized the designs of resilience studies aimed at explaining the variation in outcomes among high-risk children. Variable-focused approaches use multivariate statistics to test for linkages among measures of the degree of risk or adversity, outcome, and potential qualities of the individual or environment that may function to compensate for or protect the individual from the negative consequences of risk or adversity.

Person-focused approaches compare people who have different profiles within or across time on sets of criteria to ascertain what differentiates resilient children from other groups of children.

Each approach has advantages and disadvantages, leading some investigators to include both. The variable focus often maximizes statistical power and is well suited to searching for specific and differential links between predictors and outcomes that have implications for intervention. Yet this approach can fail to capture striking patterns in the lives of real people, losing a sense of the whole and overlooking distinctive regularities across dimensions that can indicate who is at greatest risk or needs a particular intervention. The person focus keeps variables assembled in naturally occurring configurations and is well suited to searching for common and uncommon patterns in lives through time that result from multiple processes and constraints on development (Bergman & Magnusson, 1997). On the other hand, person-focused approaches can obscure specific linkages that provide valuable clues to explanatory processes (Shiner, Tellegen & Masten, in press).

- Relaxation techniques

GOLEMAN, D. (1986). RELAXATION: SURPRISING BENEFITS DETECTED. THE NEW YORK TIMES, 23.

THE simple act of becoming relaxed can have surprising health benefits, new research is showing. In addition to the obvious psychological effects of relieving stress and mental tension, the new findings indicate, deep relaxation, if practiced regularly, can strengthen the immune system and produce a host of other medically valuable physiological changes.

In asthmatics, for example, relaxation training has been found to widen restricted respiratory passages. In some diabetics, relaxation can reduce the need for insulin. In many patients with chronic, unbearable pain, the training has brought about significant relief.

Moreover, the research shows, relaxation may help ward off disease by making people less susceptible to viruses, and by lowering blood pressure and cholesterol levels.

Intensive Techniques Are Used

Although such benefits have long been associated with meditation, a particular form of relaxation, the experimental evidence available now is much stronger than it was for meditation a few years ago. In addition, any form of deep relaxation seems to bring these benefits.

The medical advantages are not from ordinary relaxing activities, such as catnaps or gardening, but from intensive techniques that allow people to evoke a specific physiological state. "Just sitting quietly or, say, watching television, is not enough to produce the physiological changes," said Herbert Benson, director of the Division of Behavioral Medicine at Beth Israel Hospital, a part of Harvard Medical School in Boston. "You need to use a relaxation technique that will break the train of everyday thought, and decrease the activity of the sympathetic nervous system." Ancient and Modern Methods

Like meditation and yoga, some of the relaxation techniques being used are quite ancient. Others, like biofeedback or progressive muscle relaxation, are relatively new. And some, like repetitive prayer, may seem worlds away from medicine. All of the techniques, though, seem to evoke a single physiological state that Dr. Benson some years ago called the "relaxation response."

The findings have led many hospitals to teach their patients ways to relax as part of their medical treatment. In some hospitals physicians can now prescribe a relaxation program that is broadcast on televisions in hospital rooms, so that patients can learn the techniques from their hospital beds.

"More and more doctors are seeing the value of these techniques as a way to tap the inner capacity of patients to help with their own healing," said Jon Kabat-Zinn, director of the Stress Reduction and Relaxation Program at the University of Massachusetts Medical School in Worcester. A 57-minute relaxation videotape made by Dr. Kabat-Zinn is in use at about a hundred hospitals. On that videotape, for example, patients are taught to meditate on their breathing, and are led in scanning the sensations throughout their bodies. Fight-or-Flight Syndrome

The sympathetic nervous system reacts to stress by secreting hormones that mobilize the body's muscles and organs to face a threat. Sometimes called the "fight-or-flight response," this mobilization includes a variety of biological responses, including shifting blood flow from the limbs to the organs and increased blood pressure. The stress response does not require an emergency; it can be triggered merely by everyday worries and pressures.

In contrast, the relaxation response releases muscle tension, lowers blood pressure and slows the heart and breath rates.

The new work is showing that along with these changes come shifts in hormone levels that seem to produce beneficial effects on the immune system. For example, relaxation training in medical students during exams was found to increase their levels of helper cells that defend against infectious disease, according to a report in the current issue of the Journal of Behavioral Medicine.

The degree of benefits depends on the rigor with which people use the relaxation techniques. Those medical students who used the techniques just a few times showed little or no changes in the immune measure. Those who did the exercises most faithfully had the strongest immune

effects, according to the report by Janice Kiecolt-Glaser and Ronald Glaser of the Ohio State University College of Medicine at Columbus.

In another study, the Ohio State researchers taught relaxation techniques to residents of a retirement home, whose average age was 74 years. After a month of training their levels of natural killer cells and antibody titers - indicators of resistance to tumors and viruses - had improved significantly, according to a report in Health Psychology.

"These improvements are particularly important for the elderly, since the immune system weakens with aging," Dr. Kiecolt-Glaser said. Cardiovascular Problems Abate

Much interest in the medical use of relaxation has been for patients suffering from cardiovascular problems. A report in the British Medical Journal, for example, reported that patients who had been trained to relax significantly lowered their blood pressure, and had maintained that reduction four years later

In research at the Harvard Medical School, associates of Dr. Benson found that regular sessions of a simple meditation technique decreased the body's response to norepinephrine, a hormone released in reaction to stress. Although the endocrine system continued to emit the hormones, they did not seem to have their usual effects.

"Ordinarily, norepinephrine stimulates the cardiovascular system," Dr. Benson said. "But regular relaxation training resulted in less blood pressure increase to norepinephrine than is usually seen. Relaxation seems to mimic the action of the beta-blocking drugs used to control blood pressure."

Research by Dean Ornish, director of the Preventive Medicine Research Institute in San Francisco, has shown that relaxation training improves blood flow to the heart. Silent ischemia, which chokes off that blood flow, can damage the heart without causing noticeable pain. He also found that relaxation lowered cholesterol levels and lessened the severity of angina attacks.

In 1984, a National Institutes of Health report recommended the use of relaxation, along with salt restriction and weight loss, as the first therapy for mild hypertension, before resorting to drug treatments. Nevertheless, many cardiologists have been slow to use the relaxation techniques.

"Most cardiologists still can't believe that stress has much to do with heart disease, or that relaxation can help in more than a minor way," Dr. Ornish said. "They don't learn about relaxation techniques in medical school, so they ignore them. But, slowly, relaxation is making more sense to them." Diabetes and Chronic Pain

Diabetics can benefit from relaxation, according to research by Richard Surwit, a psychologist at the Duke University Medical Center. In a series of studies, Dr. Surwit found that relaxation improved the body's ability to regulate glucose in patients with the most common type of diabetes, which has its onset in adulthood. It is the body's inability to control glucose, or blood sugar, that ultimately leads to the damage done by the disease.

Relaxation seems to offer relief to many asthmatics by diminishing both the emotional upsets that can trigger attacks and the constriction of air passages that chokes breathing, according to a report by Paul Lehrer of Rutgers Medical School in the current issue of the Journal of Psychosomatic Research. The effects have been more pronounced for those who suffer chronic asthma, rather than those whose asthma is seasonal.

One of the major boons of relaxation training has been in lessening or alleviating chronic, severe pain. Such pain can arise from many different causes, including backache and chronic migraine or tension headaches, diseases such as cancer, and even as the unintended outcome of operations to control pain.

In a recent article in the Journal of Behavioral Medicine, Dr. Kabat-Zinn reported a sharp decrease in pain and related symptoms in patients trained in relaxation at the University of Massachusetts Medical Center in Worcester. The patients in the study, who included the full range of those typically seen in pain clinics, were able to lessen or, in some cases, stop altogether their use of pain drugs.

Four years after their training ended, the majority of patients were still faithful in their use of the relaxation practice, and still reported a decrease in pain and less reliance on drugs to control it, Dr. Kabat-Zinn said.

Relaxation is being used clinically in a much larger range of medical problems than the research so far has been able to assess. These include the management of the side effects of such medical procedures as kidney dialysis and cancer chemotherapy, gastrointestinal problems like

irritable bowel syndrome, and insomnia, emphysema and skin disorders. Evaluating Overall Effectiveness

Although clinical successes have been reported in individual cases with these disorders, research is now under way at Harvard and other centers to evaluate the overall effectiveness of relaxation in their treatment.

"It's not yet clear that relaxation will help with every kind of stress reactivity," Dr. Kabat-Zinn said. "And we've just begun to sort out which relaxation techniques work best with which medical problems. Most may be interchangeable, because of their general neuroendocrine effects, but we do not know yet for sure."

In research at Harvard, students who were identified as being easily engrossed in thoughts and images were trained in muscle relaxation and then asked to visualize certain specific images. Relaxation alone increased defenses against upper respiratory infections. The added imagery, however, enhanced the effect. The research was done by Mary Jasnosi, a psychologist, who reported the findings at a recent meeting of the Society of Behavioral Medicine in San Francisco.

Although their biological effects are essentially similar, the relaxation techniques are very different. In Dr. Kabat-Zinn's "mindfulness" training, for example, patients pay careful attention to the sensations in their bodies, sweeping slowly from head to foot. They do not try to change those sensations, but note them precisely, with a neutral awareness. They are also taught a set of gentle yoga movements and stretches, which they do with the same careful attentiveness. Patients are encouraged to extend a relaxed mindfulness into the rest of their daily lives, especially when stressed.

In progressive relaxation, Dr. Lehrer's patients learn to recognize the often-subtle signals of tension in the major muscles of the body, and to systematically release that tension, leaving their whole body in a state of deep relaxation.

And Dr. Benson has found that for many of his patients the relaxation response can be evoked by their sitting quietly with eyes closed for 15 minutes twice daily, and mentally repeating a simple word or sound. "Eighty percent of patients choose a simple prayer to repeat," Dr. Benson said.

The experts caution that intensive training, followed by regular use of the techniques, may be required before many medical benefits appear. Most training programs last several weeks. And, according to Dr. Lehrer, relaxation may be better when it is taught in person rather than learned from a tape.

The benefits seem to come from the physiology of relaxation rather than from mere suggestion, according to Dr. Lehrer. In a recent study, he found that asthmatic patients who were highly open to suggestions and hypnosis actually benefited the least from his relaxation training.

"Just feeling relaxed may not be the same as being truly relaxed physically," Dr. Lehrer said.

Not everyone is helped by the relaxation training, said Joan Borysenko, who directs the relaxation program for outpatients at Beth Israel Hospital in Boston. "Some people don't change much, some do a little, some a lot. And there are a few whose lives turn around totally."

6- Managing emotions

- Overview about emotions

SCHERER, K. R., & EKMAN, P. (EDS.). (2014). APPROACHES TO EMOTION. PSYCHOLOGY PRESS.

I- BIOLOGICAL APPROACH

We tremble, sweat, cry, and choke, when emotional, have butterflies in our stomach, goosepimples on our skins, and tears in our eyes. It is not surprising, then, that most emotion theorists have placed great emphasis on the biology of the emotions; in many cases, the physiological mechanisms and processes that were postulated to underly emotional experience and behavior actually preceded the psychological aspects of the theory (e.g., theories by James, Lange, Cannon, McLean, Arnold, Pribram).

There are two major sources of controversy. One issue concerns the relevance of underlying biological factors to psychological theory and research. Some have argued that the search for underlying physiological processes will not be helpful in discovering psychological laws. The proponents of this view decry biological reductionism and call for a clear-cut separation of the different levels of analysis. The opposing view is that psychological phenomena can not be understood without specifying the underlying physiological processes and, if possible, isolating and localizing the structures that are involved. Proponents of this view see the study of the physiology of emotion as the best road to an understanding of emotion.

The second major controversy involves the longstanding dispute between peripheralists and centralists. Whereas the peripheralists hold that most of the important aspects of the physiology of emotion can be found in the autonomic nervous systems, particularly the viscera; the centralists believe that the localization of the cortical and limbic system structures that are involved in mediating emotional processes are far more important.

Increasingly, emotion researchers are rejecting either extreme position. Both peripheral and central processes are relevant to an understanding of emotion. The question is not which is more important, but the way in which these structures interact. Similarly, the question is not whether physiology and psychology are to study emotion in isolation of each other, or whether one or the other has to play the leading role, but rather how each other can benefit from the respective theories and findings in contributing to the accumulation of knowledge on each level

of analysis. We need to be certain that psychological theories and research efforts are not at odds with established physiological facts. In addition, theory and research on the biology of emotion can provide very important leads for psychological and sociological (see Kemper, this volume) theorizing (...)

- Managing emotions

MAYER, J. D., SALOVEY, P., CARUSO, D. R., & SITARENIOS, G. (2001). EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AS A STANDARD INTELLIGENCE.

The Nature of EI

Our model of EI begins with the idea that emotions contain information about relationships. (Other models of EI exist as well; see Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000b, for a review.) When a person's relationship with another person or an object changes, so do their emotions toward that person or object. A person who is viewed as threatening is feared, an object that is favored is liked. Whether these relationships are actual, remembered, or even imagined, they are accompanied by the felt signals called emotions. EI, in turn, refers to an ability to recognize the meanings of emotions and their relationships and to use them as a basis in reasoning and problem solving. It further involves using emotions to enhance cognitive activities (Mayer et al., 1999).

Our own analysis of emotion-related abilities led us to divide EI into four areas of skills (e.g., Mayer & Salovey, 1995, 1997; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). we call these areas branches in reference to the diagrams in which they were first introduced. The four-branch model that we now use divides EI into four areas: accuracy in (a) perceiving emotions, (b) using emotions to facilitate thought, (c) understanding emotions, and (d) managing emotions in a way that

enhances personal growth and social relations. We view a distinction between the second branch (using emotions to facilitate thought) and the other three. Whereas Branches 1, 3, and 4 involve reasoning about emotions, Branch 2 uniquely involves using emotions to enhance reasoning. Finally, we view the four branches as forming a hierarchy, with emotional perception at the bottom and management at the top. This four-branch model serves as a basis of our current reviews of the field (e.g., Mayer, 2001; Salovey, Bedell, Mayer, & Detweiler, 2000; Salovey, Mayer, & Caruso, in press; Salovey, Woolery, & Mayer, 2001). With this thumbnail sketch of our model, let us proceed to Roberts et al.'s (2001) concerns.

Which Areas of EI Should Correlate Highest With Cognitive Intelligence?

A clarification of one aspect of our EI model can explain a result obtained by Roberts et al. (2001) that they found to be unexpected. Recall that our four-branch model of EI is hierarchical in the context of an individual's personality. The four branches are briefly described in Table 2. There, emotional understanding is most allied with cognitive processing and abstract reasoning; it is most cognitively saturated. Emotion management, although the highest branch, creates an interface between the cognitive system and the more general personality system. As such, emotion management is actually less cognitive than emotional understanding, because it must balance many factors including the motivational, emotional, and cognitive (Mayer, 2001). Roberts et al. expected the MEIS's emotion management score to have the highest correlation with general IQ, because it should be "most cognitive." In fact, however, our model supposes that the third branch, understanding, is most cognitive and should have the highest relation to abstract reasoning. That, in fact, is what the data show; the third branch does correlate most highly with IQ.

Table 2
Overview of the Four-Branch Model of Emotional Intelligence, With a Focus on Its Relation to Intelligence and Personality

Branch	Description of measure	Relation to intelligence and personality
4: Managing emotion	Ability to manage emotions and emotional relationships for personal and interpersonal growth	Interface with personality and personal goals
3: Understanding emotion	Ability to comprehend emotional information about relationships, transitions from one emotion to another, linguistic information about emotions	Central locus of abstract processing and reasoning about emotions and emotional information
2: Facilitating thought with emotion	Ability to harness emotional information and directionality to enhance thinking	Calibrates and adjusts thinking so that cognitive tasks make use of emotional information
1: Perceiving emotion	Ability to identify emotions in faces, pictures	Inputs information to intelligence

7- Strategies for changing

- Process of change

(BASED ON THE GRIEF CYCLE MODEL FIRST PUBLISHED IN ON DEATH & DYING, ELISABETH KÜBLER-ROSS, 1969. INTERPRETATION BY ALAN CHAPMAN 2006-2013.) SOURCE: [HTTP://WWW.BUSINESSBALLS.COM/ELISABETH KUBLER ROSS FIVE STAGES OF GRIEF.HTM #AUTHORSHIP-REFERENCING](http://www.businessballs.com/elisabeth_kubler_ross_five_stages_of_grief.htm#AUTHORSHIP-REFERENCING)

Elisabeth Kübler-Ross - five stages of grief

(I wrote this interpretation in 2006. As at 2011-13, this summary has been used on the Elisabeth Kübler-Ross [EKR] Foundation website as their main introduction to the Five Stages of Grief concept. I am grateful for this endorsement.)

Also known as the 'grief cycle', it is important to bear in mind that Kübler-Ross did not intend this to be a rigid series of sequential or uniformly timed steps. It's not a process as such, it's a model or a framework. There is a subtle difference: a process implies something quite fixed and consistent; a model is less specific - more of a shape or guide. By way of example, people do not always experience all of the five 'grief cycle' stages. Some stages might be revisited. Some stages might not be experienced at all. Transition between stages can be more of an ebb and flow, rather than a progression. The five stages are not linear; neither are they equal in their experience. People's grief, and other reactions to emotional trauma, are as individual as a fingerprint.

*In this sense you might wonder what the purpose of the model is if it can vary so much from person to person. An answer is that the model acknowledges there to be an individual pattern of reactive emotional responses which people feel when coming to terms with death, bereavement, and great loss or trauma, etc. The model recognises that people have to pass through **their own individual journey** of coming to terms with death and bereavement, etc., after which there is generally an acceptance of reality, which then enables the person to cope.*

The model is perhaps a way of explaining how and why 'time heals', or how 'life goes on'. And as with any aspect of our own or other people's emotions, when we know more about what is happening, then dealing with it is usually made a little easier.

Again, while Kübler-Ross's focus was on death and bereavement, the grief cycle model is a useful perspective for understanding our own and other people's emotional reaction to personal trauma and change, irrespective of cause.

<i>Five Stages Of Grief - Elisabeth Kübler Ross</i>	
EKR stage	Interpretation
1 - Denial	<i>Denial is a conscious or unconscious refusal to accept facts, information, reality, etc., relating to the situation concerned. It's a defence mechanism and perfectly natural. Some people can become locked in this stage when dealing with a traumatic change that can be ignored. Death of course is not particularly easy to avoid or evade indefinitely.</i>
2 - Anger	<i>Anger can manifest in different ways. People dealing with emotional upset can be angry with themselves, and/or with others, especially those close to them. Knowing this helps keep detached and non-judgemental when experiencing the anger of someone who is very upset.</i>
3 - Bargaining	<i>Traditionally the bargaining stage for people facing death can involve attempting to bargain with whatever God the person believes in. People facing less serious trauma can bargain or seek to negotiate a compromise. For example "Can we still be friends?.." when facing a break-up. Bargaining rarely provides a sustainable solution, especially if it's a matter of life or death.</i>
4 - Depression	<i>Also referred to as preparatory grieving. In a way it's the dress rehearsal or the practice run for the 'aftermath' although this stage means different things depending on whom it involves. It's a sort of acceptance with emotional attachment. It's natural to feel sadness and regret, fear, uncertainty, etc. It shows that the person has at least begun to accept the reality.</i>
5 - Acceptance	<i>Again this stage definitely varies according to the person's situation, although broadly it is an indication that there is some emotional detachment and objectivity. People dying can enter this stage a long time before the people they leave behind, who must necessarily pass through their own individual stages of dealing with the grief.</i>

- Optimism and pessimism

SELIGMAN, M. E., & CSIKSZENTMIHALYI, M. (2000). POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY.

Entering a new millennium, Americans face a historical choice. Left alone on the pinnacle of economic and political leadership, the United States can continue to increase its material wealth while ignoring the human needs of its people and those of the rest of the planet. Such a course is likely to lead to increasing selfishness, to alienation between the more and the less fortunate, and eventually to chaos and despair.

At this juncture, the social and behavioral sciences can play an enormously important role. They can articulate a vision of the good life that is empirically sound while being understandable and attractive. They can show what actions lead to well-being, to positive individuals, and to thriving communities. Psychology should be able to help document what kinds of families result in children who flourish, what work settings support the greatest satisfaction among workers, what policies result in the strongest civic engagement, and how people's lives can be most worth living.

Yet psychologists have scant knowledge of what makes life worth living. They have come to understand quite a bit about how people survive and endure under conditions of adversity. (For recent surveys of the history of psychology, see, e.g., Benjamin, 1992; Koch & Leary, 1985; and Smith, 1997.) However, psychologists know very little about how normal people flourish under more benign conditions. Psychology has, since World War II, become a science largely about healing. It concentrates on repairing damage within a disease model of human functioning.

This almost exclusive attention to pathology neglects the fulfilled individual and the thriving community.

The aim of positive psychology is to begin to catalyze a change in the focus of psychology from preoccupation only with repairing the worst things in life to also building positive qualities.

The field of positive psychology at the subjective level is about valued subjective experiences: well-being, contentment, and satisfaction (in the past); hope and optimism (for the future); and flow and happiness (in the present). At the individual level, it is about positive individual traits: the capacity for love and vocation, courage, interpersonal skill, aesthetic sensibility, perseverance, forgiveness, originality, future mindedness, spirituality, high talent, and wisdom. At the group level, it is about the civic virtues and the institutions that move individuals toward

better citizenship: responsibility, nurturance, altruism, civility, moderation, tolerance, and work ethic. (...)

- Locus of control, concept

ROTTER, J. B. (1966). GENERALIZED EXPECTANCIES FOR INTERNAL VERSUS EXTERNAL CONTROL OF REINFORCEMENT. PSYCHOLOGICAL MONOGRAPHS: GENERAL AND APPLIED, 80(1), 1.

The role of reinforcement, reward, or gratification is universally recognized by students of human nature as a crucial one in the acquisition and performance of skills and knowledge. However, an event regarded by some persons as a reward or reinforcement may be differently perceived and reacted to by others. One of the determinants of this reaction is the degree to which the individual perceives that the reward follows from, or is contingent upon, his own behavior or attributes versus the degree to which he feels the reward is controlled by forces outside of himself and may occur independently of his own actions. The effect of a reinforcement following some behavior on the part of a human subject, in other words, is not a simple stamping-in process but depends upon whether or not the person perceives a causal relationship between his own behaviour and the reward. A perception of causal relationship need not be all or none but can vary in degree. When a reinforcement is perceived by the subject as following some action of his own but not being entirely contingent upon his action, then, in our culture, it is typically perceived as the result of luck, chance, fate, as under the control of powerful others, or as unpredictable because of the great complexity of the forces surrounding him. When the event is interpreted in this way by an individual, we have labeled this a belief in external control. If the person perceives that the event is contingent upon his own behavior or his own relatively permanent characteristics, we have termed this a belief in internal control.

It is hypothesized that this variable is of major significance in understanding the nature of learning processes in different kinds of learning situations and also that consistent individual differences exist among individuals in the degree to which they are likely to attribute personal control to reward in the same situation. This report is concerned with reviewing a number of studies which have been made to test both hypotheses; to present some heretofore unpublished experimental results; and to present in detail new data regarding the development, reliability, and validity of one measure of individual differences in a generalized belief for internal versus external control of reinforcement.

- Resilient attitudes

MASTEN, A. S., & POWELL, J. L. (2003). A RESILIENCE FRAMEWORK FOR RESEARCH, POLICY, AND PRACTICE. RESILIENCE AND VULNERABILITY: ADAPTATION IN THE CONTEXT OF CHILDHOOD ADVERSITIES, 1-25.

The Two Fundamental Judgments Required for Defining Resilience

Resilience refers to patterns of positive adaptation in the context of significant risk or adversity. Resilience is an inference about a person's life that requires two fundamental judgments: (1) that a person is "doing okay" and (2) that there is now or has been significant risk or adversity to overcome (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998). When a person is called resilient, whether in casual conversation or systematic research, a diagnosis in effect has been made, involving explicit or implicit criteria and a judgment call about a person matching characteristic features of resilience. Technically, to call a person resilient would be improper in diagnostic terminology because resilience is a description of a general pattern, whereas diagnosis occurs when the individual is matched to the pattern. It might be more appropriate to say that "This person has a resilient pattern" or "This person shows the features of resilience." It is also important to keep in mind that identifying resilience from explicit or implicit diagnostic criteria is not assumed to describe people in totality or to define their lives at all times. Hence, one would expect individuals who meet the criteria for resilience to differ in many other ways, and one would not expect a resilient person, however defined at one point in time, to be doing well every minute of the day, under all imaginable circumstances, or in perpetuity. Resilience is not a trait of an individual, though individuals manifest resilience in their behavior and life patterns.

- Impellers and barriers for changing

SENGE, P. M. (2014). THE DANCE OF CHANGE: THE CHALLENGES TO SUSTAINING MOMENTUM IN A LEARNING ORGANIZATION. CROWN BUSINESS.

We have all experienced change situations where we have gone from a feeling of comfortable stability into a feeling of panic. It is useful for anyone in improvement to remember when it happened to them and understand those feelings.

The comfort zone is where some people are quite happy to stay. It may be a way of thinking or working, or a job that someone has been doing for a long time. In a comfort zone:

- *things feel familiar and certain*
- *the work is controllable and predictable*
- *people feel comfortable and competent*
- *there is no threat to self esteem or identity*
- *there is a sense of belonging*

However, in the comfort zone people generally don't need to learn new things and therefore don't change.

The panic zone is the place many are forced into when confronted with a change that they do not agree with. It is when people have been forced into the panic zone that they will most likely feel:

- *stress, worry and fear*
- *anger, irritation and annoyance*
- *sadness, hopelessness and apathy*
- *guilt and shame*
- *inadequacy and frustration*

Here people freeze, they certainly don't change and they won't learn.

8- The human's needs

- Maslow's hierarchy of needs

SIMONS, J. A., IRWIN, D. B., & DRINNIEN, B. A. MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS.

Abraham Maslow developed a theory of personality that has influenced a number of different fields, including education. This wide influence is due in part to the high level of practicality of Maslow's theory. This theory accurately describes many realities of personal experiences. Many people find they can understand what Maslow says. They can recognize some features of their experience or behavior which is true and identifiable but which they have never put into words.

Maslow is a humanistic psychologist. Humanists do not believe that human beings are pushed and pulled by mechanical forces, either of stimuli and reinforcements (behaviorism) or of unconscious instinctual impulses (psychoanalysis). Humanists focus upon potentials. They believe that humans strive for an upper level of capabilities. Humans seek the frontiers of creativity, the highest reaches of consciousness and wisdom. This has been labeled "fully functioning person", "healthy personality", or as Maslow calls this level, "self-actualizing person."

Maslow has set up a hierarchic theory of needs. All of his basic needs are instinctual, equivalent of instincts in animals. Humans start with a very weak disposition that is then fashioned fully as the person grows. If the environment is right, people will grow straight and beautiful, actualizing the potentials they have inherited. If the environment is not "right" (and mostly it is not) they will not grow tall and straight and beautiful.

Maslow has set up a hierarchy of five levels of basic needs. Beyond these needs, higher levels of needs exist. These include needs for understanding, esthetic appreciation and purely spiritual needs. In the levels of the five basic needs, the person does not feel the second need until the demands of the first have been satisfied or the third until the second has been satisfied, and so on.

Maslow's basic needs are as follows:

Physiological Needs

These are biological needs. They consist of needs for oxygen, food, water, and a relatively constant body temperature. They are the strongest needs because if a person were deprived of all needs, the physiological ones would come first in the person's search for satisfaction.

Safety Needs

When all physiological needs are satisfied and are no longer controlling thoughts and behaviors, the needs for security can become active. Adults have little awareness of their security needs except in times of emergency or periods of disorganization in the social structure (such as widespread rioting). Children often display the signs of insecurity and the need to be safe.

Needs of Love, Affection and Belongingness

When the needs for safety and for physiological well-being are satisfied, the next class of needs for love, affection and belongingness can emerge. Maslow states that people seek to overcome feelings of loneliness and alienation. This involves both giving and receiving love, affection and the sense of belonging.

Needs for Esteem

When the first three classes of needs are satisfied, the needs for esteem can become dominant. These involve needs for both self-esteem and for the esteem a person gets from others. Humans have a need for a stable, firmly based, high level of self-respect, and respect from others. When these needs are satisfied, the person feels self-confident and valuable as a person in the world. When these needs are frustrated, the person feels inferior, weak, helpless and worthless.

Needs for Self-Actualization

When all of the foregoing needs are satisfied, then and only then are the needs for self-actualization activated. Maslow describes self-actualization as a person's need to be and do that which the person was "born to do." "A musician must make music, an artist must paint, and a poet must write." These needs make themselves felt in signs of restlessness.

The person feels on edge, tense, lacking something, in short, restless. If a person is hungry, unsafe, not loved or accepted, or lacking self-esteem, it is very easy to know what the person is restless about. It is not always clear what a person wants when there is a need for self-actualization

The hierarchic theory is often represented as a pyramid, with the larger, lower levels representing the lower needs, and the upper point representing the need for self-actualization. Maslow believes that the only reason that people would not move well in direction of self-actualization is because of hindrances placed in their way by society. He states that education is one of these hindrances. He recommends ways education can switch from its usual person-stunting tactics to person-growing approaches. Maslow states that educators should respond to the potential an individual has for growing into a self-actualizing person of his/her own kind.

- Needs fulfilled by a job position

LAMBERT, SUSAN J. 2008. HUMAN NEEDS: WORK/EMPLOYMENT. IN ENCYCLOPEDIA OF SOCIAL WORK, 20TH ED., TERRY MIZRAHI AND LARRY E. DAVIS, EDS. NEW YORK: OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS AND NASW.

Qualities of Work That Affect Well-Being

As research on the relationship between work and well-being has evolved several qualities of work have remained central. The following are some established or emerging features of work that research suggests are central to well-being defined in terms of mental and physical health.

INTRINSIC JOB CHARACTERISTICS. Many of the qualities of work essential to workers mental and physical health are intrinsic to the job itself; that is, they stem from the way in which the job is designed. Intrinsic job characteristics are essential to experiencing work as a meaningful part of life.

Job challenge. Job challenge (use and development of workers' skills) is one such intrinsic job characteristic. Substantial empirical support demonstrates the effect of job challenge on not only positive work attitudes, such as motivation, job satisfaction. And more recently, workplace engagement, but also on worker well-being, including depression and psycho-somatic health. In addition to a direct effect on worker well-being, job challenge often interacts with other job conditions in explaining outcomes, attesting to its centrality to human experience.

Job autonomy and control. Having control over the pace of one's work and how one approaches it is another intrinsic job characteristic that research has shown to be intimately linked to the mental and physical health of workers. Most notable is Karasek and colleagues' (Karasek & Theorell. 1990) decades-long program of research refining the Job Demand-Control Model of the relationship between job stress and worker health.

This model specifies an interaction between job demands and job control. High job demands with low job control lead to psychological and physical strain, while jobs high in both demands and control contribute to worker well-being. Beyond this particular line of inquiry, job autonomy has proven to be core to many different dimensions of worker well-being (for example. psychosomatic health, job satisfaction, job involvement) and like challenge, has been shown to interact with other job conditions in ways that either limit or enhance effects on well-being.

Additional qualities of work have emerged essential to mental and physical health as notions of well-being have expanded to encompass high-quality child care arrangements, family practices, worker engagement, and sense of community.

SCHEDULING PRACTICES. Scheduling practices are changing in ways that hold important implication for worker and family well-being. For example, there appears to be a growing mismatch between the hours workers would like to work and the hours they actually work. The mismatch is bifurcated, with those at the high end of the labor market desiring to work fewer hours and those at the low end of the market desiring more hours (Reynolds, 2003). Contrary to popular thought, research indicates that the number of hours worked is only loosely related to how much time women spend with their children. National data indicate that working mothers protect their time with their children by reducing household work and other tasks, and on average, spend about the same amount of time with their children as mothers who do not work for pay outside the home (Bianchi. Robinson & Milkie. 2006). In addition to looking at hours worked, there are other dimensions of scheduling that are related to worker and family well-being.

Nonstandard timing. Forty percent of Americans now work the majority of their hours outside of day-time, weekday hours, and even more routinely work at least some of their hours in the early morning or late evening (Presser. 2003). Research has demonstrated negative associations between nonstandard schedules and the health of workers, marital quality and stability, positive parent-child interactions, and use of high- quality child care (Henly. Shaefer. & Waxman. 2006; Presser. 2003).

Predictability of work schedule. Predictability of work schedules is defined as the length of advance notice given to workers regarding their work schedules. Although no national data currently exist that would allow an estimation of the proportion of workers who hold unpredictable schedules, qualitative research on low-level jobs suggests that unpredictable scheduling practices are widespread (Lambert & Waxman. 2005).

Limited predictability can interfere with workers' ability to effectively structure and use nonwork hours-making it difficult to plan family meals, adopt consistent homework and bedtime routines, participate in children's school activities, and maintain consistent child care arrangements (Henly & Lambert, 2005).

Flexibility. Flexibility is the extent to which workers have control over how, where, or when they carry out their jobs tasks. Flexibility can make it easier for workers to combine employment with caregiving and other family responsibilities. Employee surveys consistently demonstrate that workers desire flexible work arrangements, believe flexibility in hours would improve their quality of life, and would trade other types of compensation for flexibility. National data indicate that flexible work schedules are distributed unequally: Men report more flexibility than do women. Whites more than non-Whites, and those with higher education more flexibility than those with less education (Golden. 2005).

INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS. Relationships with supervisors and co-workers can support or undermine worker well-being (Hopkins, 2005). Poor relationships are strongly associated with poor mental health, including depression and psychosomatic symptoms. Research indicates that having a supervisor who is supportive when experiencing personal or family problems reduces workers' perceived stress and lowers their risk of harmful mental health outcomes. Supervisors also serve a mediating role between the firm and employees. Without supervisor support, organizational policies are often not implemented into everyday practice, and a supportive supervisor can help mitigate the negative effects of poorly designed jobs on worker well-being. Similarly, positive co-worker relationships enhance workers' ability to perform well and are a major source of satisfaction in workers' lives.

9- Effective working habits

- Personal action plan

R.G. SULTANA & A.G. WATTS. (2005). CAREER GUIDANCE IN EUROPE'S PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT SERVICES. TRENDS AND CHALLENGES.

The Personal Action Plan (PAP), also referred to as an Individualised (or Individual) Career Plan or an Individualised (or Individual) Career Development Plan, is a recognised strategy aimed at helping clients identify and meet their changing goals, interests and needs in a fast-paced, rapidly changing society. PAP entails clients in a process whereby they identify goals in the job-search process, and strategies to reach those goals. Clients are often encouraged to develop objectives that are SMART, i.e.

Specific, Measurable (quantified), Attainable (realistic as well as challenging), Result-focused, and Time-oriented or -bound. In other words, an effective action plan sets out a concrete timetable and a set of clearly defined steps that help the client reach the objectives set. The PAP is distinguished by a process that is ongoing, and bi-directional, meaning that the client can move back to previous steps to gather more information or clarify choices. The process is also marked by joint ownership, where both the client and the adviser have clearly defined responsibilities. The client commits to the implementation of the plan; while the adviser commits to assisting the client in the process, and to provide the resources that may be required. PAPs are usually printed out as documents which bear the signature of both client and adviser. In some cases (e.g. Lithuania), social partners are also included in the development of PAPs

- Everyday agenda

ALLEN, DAVID (2001). GETTING THINGS DONE: THE ART OF STRESS-FREE PRODUCTIVITY. PENGUIN BOOKS

Getting Control of Your Life: The Five Stages of Mastering Workflow

THE CORE PROCESS I teach for mastering the art of relaxed and controlled knowledge work is a five-stage method for managing workflow. No matter what the setting, there are five discrete stages that we go through as we deal with our work. We (1) collect things that command our attention; (2) process what they mean and what to do about them; and (3) organize the results, which we (4) review as options for what we choose to (5) do.

This constitutes the management of the "horizontal" aspect of our lives—incorporating everything that has our attention at any time.

The method is straightforward enough in principle, and it is generally how we all go about our work in any case, but in my experience most people can stand significantly to improve their handling of each one of the five stages. The quality of our workflow management is only as good as the weakest link in this fivephase chain, so all the links must be integrated together and supported with consistent standards.

Most people have major leaks in their collection process. Many have collected things but haven't processed or decided what action to take about them. Others make good decisions about "stuff" in the moment but lose the value of that thinking because they don't efficiently organize the results. Still others have good systems but don't review them consistently enough to keep them functional. Finally, if any one of these links is weak, what someone is likely to choose to do at any point in time may not be the best option.

- Personal effectiveness diary

SELIGMAN, M. E., STEEN, T. A., PARK, N., & PETERSON, C. (2005). POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY PROGRESS: EMPIRICAL VALIDATION OF INTERVENTIONS. AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGIST, 60(5), 410.

Procedure

For our first large RCT, we designed five happiness exercises and one placebo control exercise. Each exercise was delivered via the Internet and could be completed within one week. One of these exercises focused on building gratitude, two focused on increasing awareness of what is most positive about oneself, and two focused on identifying strengths of character. In a randomized, placebo-controlled study, we compared the effects of these exercises with those of what we thought would be a plausible placebo control: journaling for one week about early

memories. We followed our participants for six months, periodically measuring symptoms of both depression and happiness. (...)

Detailed descriptions of the exercises are available from us upon request. However, the following paragraphs present overviews of each:

Placebo control exercise: Early memories.

Participants were asked to write about their early memories every night for one week.

Gratitude visit. Participants were given one week to write and then deliver a letter of gratitude in person to someone who had been especially kind to them but had never been properly thanked.

Three good things in life. Participants were asked to write down three things that went well each day and their causes every night for one week. In addition, they were asked to provide a causal explanation for each good thing.

You at your best. Participants were asked to write about a time when they were at their best and then to reflect on the personal strengths displayed in the story.

They were told to review their story once every day for a week and to reflect on the strengths they had identified.

Using signature strengths in a new way.

Participants were asked to take our inventory of character strengths online at www.authentic happiness.org and to receive individualized feedback about their top five ("signature") strengths (Peterson et al., 2005a). They were then asked to use one of these top strengths in a new and different way every day for one week.

Identifying signature strengths. This exercise was a truncated version of the one just described, without the instruction to use signature strengths in new ways. Participants were asked to take the survey, to note their five highest strengths, and to use them more often during the next week. (...)

Participants in the three good things exercise began to show beneficial effects one month following the posttest. At the one-month follow-up, participants in this exercise were happier and less depressed than they had been at baseline, and they stayed happier and less depressed at the three-month and six-month follow-ups.

- Defining objectives

MEYER, PAUL J (2003). "WHAT WOULD YOU DO IF YOU KNEW YOU COULDN'T FAIL? CREATING S.M.A.R.T. GOALS". ATTITUDE IS EVERYTHING: IF YOU WANT TO SUCCEED ABOVE AND BEYOND. MEYER RESOURCE GROUP, INCORPORATED.

Developing SMART goals

Paul J. Meyer describes the characteristics of S.M.A.R.T. goals in "Attitude is Everything".

Specific

The first term stresses the need for a specific goal over and against a more general one. This means the goal is clear and unambiguous; without vagaries and platitudes. To make goals specific, they must tell a team exactly what is expected, why is it important, who's involved, where is it going to happen and which attributes are important.

A specific goal will usually answer the five "W" questions:

- What: What do I want to accomplish?*
- Why: Specific reasons, purpose or benefits of accomplishing the goal.*
- Who: Who is involved?*
- Where: Identify a location.*
- Which: Identify requirements and constraints.*

Measurable

The second term stresses the need for concrete criteria for measuring progress toward the attainment of the goal. The thought behind this is that if a goal is not measurable, it is not possible to know whether a team is making progress toward successful completion. Measuring progress is supposed to help a team stay on track, reach its target dates, and experience the exhilaration of achievement that spurs it on to continued effort required to reach the ultimate goal.

A measurable goal will usually answer questions such as:

- How much?*
- How many?*
- How will I know when it is accomplished?*

Attainable

The third term stresses the importance of goals that are realistic and attainable. While an attainable goal may stretch a team in order to achieve it, the goal is not extreme. That is, the goals are neither out of reach nor below standard performance, as these may be considered meaningless. When you identify goals that are most important to you, you begin to figure out ways you can make them come true. You develop the attitudes, abilities, skills, and financial capacity to reach them. The theory states that an attainable goal may cause goal-setters to identify previously overlooked opportunities to bring themselves closer to the achievement of their goals.

An attainable goal will usually answer the question:

- How: How can the goal be accomplished?*

Relevant

The fourth term stresses the importance of choosing goals that matter. A Bank Manager's goal to "Make 50 peanut butter and jelly sandwiches by 2:00pm." may be Specific, Measurable,

Attainable, and Time-Bound, but lacks Relevance. Many times you will need support to accomplish a goal: resources, a champion voice, someone to knock down obstacles. Goals that are relevant to your boss, your team, your organization will receive that needed support.

Relevant goals (when met) drive the team, department, and organization forward. A goal that supports or is in alignment with other goals would be considered a relevant goal.

A relevant goal can answer yes to these questions:

- Does this seem worthwhile?*
- Is this the right time?*
- Does this match our other efforts/needs?*
- Are you the right person?*

Time-bound

The fifth term stresses the importance of grounding goals within a time frame, giving them a target date. A commitment to a deadline helps a team focus their efforts on completion of the goal on or before the due date. This part of the S.M.A.R.T. goal criteria is intended to prevent goals from being overtaken by the day-to-day crises that invariably arise in an organization. A time-bound goal is intended to establish a sense of urgency.

A time-bound goal will usually answer the question:

- When?*
- What can I do 6 months from now?*
- What can I do 6 weeks from now?*
- What can I do today?*

- Strategies for positive thinking

HENRY, J. (2006). STRATEGIES FOR ACHIEVING WELL-BEING. CSIKSZENTMIHALYI, M. E., & CSIKSZENTMIHALYI, I. S. E. (2006). A LIFE WORTH LIVING: CONTRIBUTIONS TO POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY. OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS.

Self-help

Judging by the popularity of television programs such as “Oprah” and “Dr. Phil” and the size of the mind and body section in your local bookstore, there is enormous interest in ways of

changing and developing oneself and a desire to learn how to improve well-being. There is also an interesting contrast between strategies advocated in the self-help literature and in the therapeutic and professional development literature.

In the self-help literature, there seems to be much less emphasis on talking about your problem(s) and much more emphasis on looking to the future and elaborating where you would like to be. Instead of trying to analyze the problem and attempting to fix it, you are often encouraged to start from a vision of where you would like to be and work out what steps you can take to get there. There is often an emphasis on positive thinking, developed from Coue through Carnegie to the present-day emphasis on positive affirmations. You also find more attention paid to intuitive, non verbal and narrative approaches, like visualization and storytelling, approaches that might be expected to be more sensitive to emotions and implicit understandings. In addition, embodied strategies that aim to get at the mind through the body are common, for example, psychophysical approaches such as focusing and biogenetics. The self-help area, like positive psychology, also includes attention to modelling success such as Covey's (1990) attempts to derive principles from his studies of successful people or the neurolinguistics programming (NLP) patterns of productive communication derived from studying successful therapists (Dilts, 1990).

There are other interesting differences between professional and self-help strategies. Professional approaches tend to be expert-led by a trained practitioner, whereas some of the very successful approaches in the self-help area are self-managed. These include Alcoholics Anonymous and co-counseling, procedures that operate according to certain simple principles and rules and without an expert leader.

The attention to modelling success, positive thinking, a future orientation, embodied, and more-intuitive routes to personal development seems very different from the strategies advocated traditionally by many professional clinicians. Positive psychologists share the concern with modelling success, valuing a positive attitude and the benefits of a future orientation.

10- Neuro-linguistic programming (NLP)

- Overview

DILTS, R., GRINDER, J., BANDLER, R., CAMERON-BANDLER, L., & DELOZIER, J. (1978). NEURO LINGUISTIC PROGRAMMING. ROOTS OF NEURO-LINGUISTIC PROGRAMMING.

NLP, or Neuro-Linguistic Programming, is the art and science of excellence, derived from studying how top people in different fields obtain their outstanding results. These communication skills can be learned by anyone to improve their effectiveness both personally and professionally. It is directly applicable to a diverse spectrum of fields such as communications, business, sales, education and therapy

Beginnings of NeuroLinguistic Programming

NLP began in the early 70's as a thesis project in Santa Cruz, California. Richard Bandler and his professor, John Grinder, wanted to develop models of human behavior to understand why certain people seemed to be excellent at what they did, while others found the same tasks challenging or nearly impossible to do.

Inspired by pioneers in fields of therapy and personal growth and development, Bandler and Grinder began to develop systematic procedures and theories that formed the basis of NLP. They studied three top therapists: Virginia Satir, the extraordinary family therapist, who consistently was able to resolve difficult family relationships that many other therapists found intractable, the innovative psychotherapist Fritz Perls, who originated the school of therapy known as Gestalt, and Milton Erickson, the world-famous hypnotherapist.

Their goal was to develop models of how it was that these people got the results they did. They sought to identify and model the patterns that produced these results and then to teach these models to others. These three gifted therapists were quite different personalities, yet Grinder and Bandler discovered some underlying patterns that were quite similar. These patterns became the underlying structure of NLP, with names like: meta-model, submodalities, reframing, language patterns, well formedness conditions and eye accessing clues.

The phrase "Neuro-Linguistic Programming" describes the process of how personality creates and expresses itself. Put simply, we are all made up of a neurology that conveys information about our environment to our central nervous systems and brains. Since we are also meaning creating creatures, we translate these perceptions in our brains into meanings, beliefs and expectations. As we continue to grow from a rather "critter brain" baby into a more complex adult human, we tend to filter, distort and magnify the input we get from our environment such that it matches the elaborate program we evolve to explain our life experience.

The infant passes through "magical thinking" and various other stages of development, on its journey into becoming an adult. We may even carry with us the "suffering contracts" we made as children in unworkable attempts to love and heal the family. The study of how we do all this, the kinds of meanings we make from our perceptions and the internal programming and external behaviors we have set up to explain, predict and make sense of it all - this is what the core of NLP is all about.

The concepts of "submodalities"...

We all have our unique "maps" of reality. We are a complex and unique mix of inborn genetic potential, and the molding effects from the people and experiences of our lives. Science has now proven that emotional and social development is at least equally as important as is the cognitive development of the growing infant and toddler, and for adaptability and success later in life.

We humans store the memory of our life experience as sequences and montages of visual, auditory, kinesthetic, olfactory and gustatory representations. When we load up a particular sequence pattern from our memory banks that matches some previous powerful experience - we get to relive the experience of the event or situation (the V's, & A's,... that produce the K's) . These Visual, auditory, kinesthetic, etc sensory systems are the "modalities" in NLP. Each modality has submodalities, which define the characteristics and properties of the information coming from each sensory channel. Visual has brightness, color/B&W, motion/still, fuzzy/clear, degree of transparency, to name a few. Auditory can be fast/slow tempo, rhythmic, staccato, loud/soft, tin can/stereophonic,.. Kinesthetic can have the full range of emotional experience, but also considers texture, rough/smooth, temperature, impact, duration, subtlety,...

By playing with the adjustments or "volume knobs" of these submodalities, we can dial in different meanings into our brain and neurology that literally change our experience, and

sometimes our memories. It is thought that since the human brain/body being is generally aspiring towards higher evolution, that human neurology often reorganizes itself in resonance with a more elegant way of functioning, when the system is offered a new experience that offers a choice in addition to the old, patterned way of doing things. A skilled practitioner of NeuroLinguistic Programming can help your system have experience of new choices, from which you can incorporate or discard resources, insight and healing.

Replaying old patterns in new ways and adjusting submodalities is a classical NLP methodology for assisting clients be free of problematic habits and phobias. Adjusting submodalities can have the effect of defusing an overwhelming challenge or obstacle. Adjusting submodalities can also increase the pleasure, comfort and value of.

- Perceptual positions

O'CONNOR, J.;SEYMOUR, J. (1993) INTRODUCING NEURO-LINGUISTIC PROGRAMMING. THE AQUARIAN PRESS,LONDON.

Perceptive Positions

Authors in the Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP) approach have focused a lot in distinguishing different “positions” from which people can think about past, planned, or imagined events, or life events in general.

Firstly, they distinguish:

- Associated state: we feel the situation as if it were real in the present moment. For example we can feel again the good mood related to a pleasant memory, “living it” again.*
- Dissociate estate: we look at the situation from outside, as spectators, without the emotional charge of that moment. People usually look that way to unpleasant past events, for example, remembering them but avoiding feeling again the painful emotions.*

Similarly, they define at least three different positions from which people can think and give sense to a situation, affirming that it is useful to change voluntarily from one to another. It would give more accurate picture of the problem, and consequently have greater tools to face it.

- *First Position: the person is associated to its own body; the world is perceived through his or her own eyes, ears and body; they feel the world from its own point of view. The question from that position is "how it affects me"? The focus is oneself in relation to the situation, and it gives "self-consciousness". It helps to clarify aspects as "what is important for me?", "what do I want to achieve?" "What do I would prefer?". However, if a person always saw life events that way, it might act in a too egocentric way, being careless about others.*

- *Second Position: To look to the situation as if we were another person implied in the situation. "How would I feel if I were that person, in this situation? It allows seeing it from another perspective, and it is also the base for empathy. It can help especially when there is a conflict between different people. However, seeing events only from that point of view may make people acting too conditioned by others' thoughts, needs and point of view, ignoring the own ones.*

- *Third position: Observing the situation as if we were an independent observer. It means not only to be dissociated, but also being conscious about what is happening and looking at it in an impartial way. Looking to our own behaviour objectively and with all resources, in order to evaluate will let us generate useful options to face difficult situations. However, if someone is always looking life events as a spectator, will be a distant observer of life, instead of a full protagonist of it.*

FORMULARI DI VALUTAZIONE – STRATEGIE PER IL CAMBIAMENTO

SESSIONE 1

Caro formatore,

Il presente questionario è stato creato per raccogliere i vostri contributi professionali relativi alla sessione che ha appena avuto luogo, e per offrirvi la possibilità di esprimere eventuali dubbi o domande.

La tua opinione è importante per tutto il gruppo di progetto e farà parte dei report che il coordinatore deve inviare alla Commissione.

Si tratta di strumenti necessari per garantire e / o migliorare la qualità del progetto Reinicial e dei suoi prodotti; e come tale questionario è parte integrante del piano di valutazione.

Vi preghiamo gentilmente di rispondere alle seguenti domande contrassegnando il punteggio appropriato

Grazie.

Il Team del progetto REINICIAL

Città:
 Data:
 formatore:

VALUTAZIONE DEL CORSO
SESSIONE 1
Si prega di valutare i seguenti aspetti della sessione di formazione utilizzando la seguente scala: 1 - scarso, 2 – Insufficiente, 3 – Adeguato, 4 – buono, 5 – ottimo

	1	2	3	4	5
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I. CONTENUTI DELLA SESSIONE:

In termini di contributo alla conoscenza dell’approccio teorico al cambiamento e alla resilienza.					
Come strumento per offrire esercizi partecipativi (tecniche di rilassamento, auto analisi, brainstorming e analisi comportamentali).					

II. Preparazione e abilità del formatore:

Capacità e chiarezza espositiva.					
Conoscenza della materia					
Capacità di aiutare.					
Capacità di mantenere l’interesse					
Comportamento generale, atteggiamento positivo e professionalità					

Ulteriori commenti

SESSIONE 2

Caro formatore,

Il presente questionario è stato creato per raccogliere i vostri contributi professionale relativi alla sessione che ha appena avuto luogo, e per offrirvi la possibilità di esprimere eventuali dubbi o domande.

La tua opinione è importante per tutto il gruppo di progetto e farà parte dei report che il coordinatore deve inviare alla Commissione.

Si tratta di strumenti necessari per garantire e / o migliorare la qualità del progetto Reinicial e dei suoi prodotti; e come tale questionario è parte integrante del piano di valutazione.

Vi preghiamo gentilmente di rispondere alle seguenti domande contrassegnando il punteggio appropriato

Grazie.

Il Team del progetto REINICIAL

Città:

Data:

Formatore:

VALUTAZIONE DEL CORSO SESSIONE 2
Si prega di valutare i seguenti aspetti della sessione di formazione utilizzando la seguente scala: 1 - scarso, 2 – Insufficiente, 3 – Adeguato, 4 – buono, 5 – ottimo

	1	2	3	4	5
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I. CONTENUTI DELLA SESSIONE:

In termini di contributo alla conoscenza dell’approccio teorico al cambiamento e alla resilienza..					
In termini di risorse offerte per motivare al cambiamento e alla resilienza.					
Come strumento per offrire esercizi partecipativi (tecniche di rilassamento, auto analisi, brainstorming e anlisi comportamentali).					

II. Preparazione e abilità del formatore:

Capacità e chiarezza espositiva.					
Conoscenza della materia					
Capacità di aiutare.					
Capacità di mantenere l’interesse					
Comportamento generale, atteggiamento positivo e professionalità					

Ulteriori commenti

SESSIONE 3

Caro formatore,

Il presente questionario è stato creato per raccogliere i vostri contributi professionali relativi alla sessione che ha appena avuto luogo, e per offrirvi la possibilità di esprimere eventuali dubbi o domande.

La tua opinione è importante per tutto il gruppo di progetto e farà parte dei report che il coordinatore deve inviare alla Commissione.

Si tratta di strumenti necessari per garantire e / o migliorare la qualità del progetto Reincial e dei suoi prodotti; e come tale questionario è parte integrante del piano di valutazione.

Vi preghiamo gentilmente di rispondere alle seguenti domande contrassegnando il punteggio appropriato

Grazie.

Il Team del progetto REINICIAL

Città:

Data:

Formatore:

VALUTAZIONE DEL CORSO SESSIONE 3
Si prega di valutare i seguenti aspetti della sessione di formazione utilizzando la seguente scala: 1 - scarso, 2 – Insufficiente, 3 – Adeguato, 4 – buono, 5 – ottimo

	1	2	3	4	5
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I. CONTENUTI DELLA SESSIONE:

Come contributo allo sviluppo delle capacità per il lavoro efficace work.					
Come contributo allo sviluppo del pensiero positivo.					
Come strumento per offrire esercizi su argomenti teorici.					

II. Preparazione e abilità del formatore:

Capacità e chiarezza espositiva.					
Conoscenza della materia					
Capacità di aiutare.					
Capacità di mantenere l'interesse					
Comportamento generale, atteggiamento positivo e professionalità					

Ulteriori commenti.

SESSIONE 4 E ULTIMA

Caro formatore,

Il presente questionario è stato creato per raccogliere i vostri contributi professionali relativi alla sessione che ha appena avuto luogo, e per offrirvi la possibilità di esprimere eventuali dubbi o domande.

La tua opinione è importante per tutto il gruppo di progetto e farà parte dei report che il coordinatore deve inviare alla Commissione.

Si tratta di strumenti necessari per garantire e / o migliorare la qualità del progetto Reincial e dei suoi prodotti; e come tale questionario è parte integrante del piano di valutazione.

Vi preghiamo gentilmente di rispondere alle seguenti domande contrassegnando il punteggio appropriato

Grazie.

Il Team del progetto REINICIAL

Città:
 Data:
 Sessione:
 Formatore :

VALUTAZIONE DEL CORSO SESSIONE 4					
Si prega di valutare i seguenti aspetti della sessione di formazione utilizzando la seguente scala: 1 - scarso, 2 – Insufficiente, 3 – Adeguato, 4 – buono, 5 – ottimo					
	1	2	3	4	5

I. Sede del corso :

Confort e servizi					
accessibilità					
Idoneità dell'orario.					

II. Contenuti del corso:

In termini di contributo alla vostra conoscenza su come creare sinergie e condividere esperienze.					
In termine di contributo alla vostra conoscenza su come fornire un senso di prospettiva.					
Come strumento per offrire sesercizi su come rafforzare il proprio social network.					
Come strumento per orffire esercizi collettivi sul networking.					
Come strumento per supportare la sreazione di un piano di azione personale.					

III. Contenuti generali della formazione:

Come contributo alla vostra conoscenza della materia					
Come strumento per costruire e/o adattare strategie.					
In termini di abilità e risorse offerte					
Come strumento per costruire scenari positivi e renderli reali.					
Utilità dei contenuti					
Rilevanza rispetto ai vostri bisogni					
Durata di ciascun argomento.					
Materiali offerti					
Ordine generale e struttura della presentazione.					

IV. Preparazione e abilità del formatore:

Capacità e chiarezza espositiva.					
Conoscenza della materia					
Capacità di aiutare.					
Capacità di mantenere l'interesse					
Comportamento generale, atteggiamento positivo e professionalità					

Ulteriori commenti

