

Вся правда о Soft Skills

Взгляд программиста

Вся правда о Soft Skills



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Какие бывают soft skills?

- Коммуникативные навыки
- Навыки самоорганизации
- Креативные навыки
- Умение работать с информацией
- Стрессоустойчивость

https://skillbox.ru/media/growth/chto_takoe_soft_skills_i_kak_ikh_razvit/

- Лидерство
- Эффективная коммуникация
- Точность
- Управление

<https://www.iwengo.ru/courses/soft-skills-v-korporacii>

- Коммуникация
- Критическое мышление
- Клиентоориентированность
- Управление проектами и людьми
- Наставничество и менторинг
- Решение проблем
- Принятие решений
- Эмоциональный интеллект
- Ненасильственное общение
- Управление знаниями
- Работа в неопределенности
- Бережливое производство
- Экологическое мышление
- Самоанализ и саморефлексия

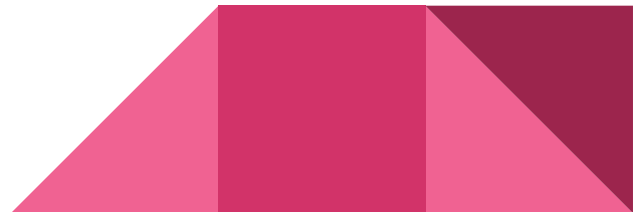
<https://trends.rbc.ru/trends/education/5e90743f9a7947ca3bbb6523>

Мошенничество?



«Лучшая часть общества» на самом деле не ушла далеко от собственных бабушек, зарядавших воду от пассов Чумака и Кашпировского, относивших последние деньги в МММ и даже выбравших Мавроди депутатом Госдумы...

Екатерина Винокурова, Esquire
<https://esquire.ru/articles/63152-tony-robbins-moscow/>



Вопросы

- Что такое soft skills?
- Насколько они важны по сравнению с hard skills?
- Можно ли их развивать и как это проверить?
- Какие методы эффективны?





Что такое Soft Skills?

System Engineering of Training

<p style="text-align: right;">WARD</p> <p style="text-align: center;">CON Reg 350-100-1</p> <p style="text-align: center;">HEADQUARTERS UNITED STATES CONTINENTAL ARMY COMMAND Fort Monroe, Virginia</p> <p>Regulation 1 February 1968</p> <p>No 350-100-1</p> <p style="text-align: center;">TRAINING</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Systems Engineering of Training (Course Design)</p>		
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1. Purpose. This regulation establishes uniform procedures for designing new MOS-producing and functional courses, and redesigning existing MOS-producing and functional courses and ASubJScd conducted or prepared by USCONARC service schools and training centers.

2. General.

a. Systems engineering of training is a system for designing or redesigning MOS and functional courses and consists of the following processes accomplished in sequence:

- (1) Job analysis.
- (2) Selecting tasks for school training.
- (3) Training analysis.
- (4) Developing training materials.
- (5) Developing testing materials.
- (6) Conduct of training (not included herein; see FM 21-6).
- (7) Quality control.

Details pertaining to processes cited in (1) through (5) and (7) above are contained in appendixes A through F.

b. The systems approach to training is based on evidence that the objective of each task to be performed in an MOS specialty can be precisely defined and measured. It insures that all factors relating to the development of a training program are considered in a definite sequence to reach the specific goal of training the student to perform in the MOS at the entry level.

c. USCONARC service schools and USATC currently use various methods and procedures in designing and redesigning MOS-producing and functional courses. The systems approach will insure that each school and training center uses the same orderly, systematic steps in developing new and existing courses.

3. Definitions. The principal critical terms are defined below (All other special terms are defined as they appear.):

a. Systems engineering of training: That series of orderly, systematic steps designed to produce a course of instruction that will

CONARC Soft Skills Training Conference

SCHEDULE		
for		
APPROACHES TO SYSTEMS ENGINEERING SOFT SKILL COURSES		
12 December 1972		
Chairman: Dr. W. E. Cross Educ Advisor, USAFAS		

<u>AM</u>		
0930-1010	What are Soft Skills? The Behavioral Model as a Tool for Analyzing Soft Skills	Dr. P. Whitmore HemRRO
1010-1030	System Engineering of Soft Skill Courses	CH (LTC) H. Lamm USACHS
1030-1035	Break	
1035-1055	A Functional Approach in Design of Soft Skill Training	CPT Y. Burger USWACS
1055-1115	Systems Engineering the Ordnance Officer Advance Course	Mr. W. Davis USAOCKS
1115-1140	Systems Approach in Designing Courses for Eight Combat MOS	LTC M. Lyman USAS
<u>PM</u>		
1245-1450	Working Group Discussions	
1450-1520	The "IDEALS" System Approach	Dr. G. Nadler
1520-1620	Preparation of group report on Approaches to System Engineer- ing Soft Skill Courses	
1620-1705	Pleasary Session	
II-1		

SOFT SKILL CONFERENCE	
Name and Address of Key Personnel	
Burger, CPT Yvonne N. Curriculum and Evaluation Branch US Army Women's Army Corp School Fort McClellan, Alabama 36501	Lamm, Chaplain (LTC) Harold Curriculum Officer US Army Chaplain School Fort Hamilton, New York 11209
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Kneisel, Mr. Richard Educational Advisor US Army Infantry School Fort Benning, Georgia 31905	
II-2	

Soft-skills are (1) important job-related skills (2) which involve little or not interaction with machines, including standardized because the situation or context contains a great deal of uncertainty; that is, we don't know much about the physical and social environments in which the skill occurs and we don't know much about the consequences of different ways of accomplishing the job functions. In other words, those job functions about which we know a good deal are hard skills and those about which we know very little are soft skills.

Социальные навыки

Executive Perceptions of the Top 10 Soft Skills

Executive Perceptions of the Top 10 Soft Skills Needed in Today's Workplace

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SAGE

Marcel M. Robles¹

Abstract

Hard skills are the technical expertise and knowledge needed for a job. Soft skills are interpersonal qualities, also known as people skills, and personal attributes that one possesses. Business executives consider soft skills a very important attribute in job applicants. Employers want new employees to have strong soft skills, as well as hard skills. This study identified the top 10 soft skills as perceived the most important by business executives: integrity, communication, courtesy, responsibility, social skills, positive attitude, professionalism, flexibility, teamwork, and work ethic.

Keywords

soft skills, interpersonal skills, people skills

Technology has had a profound impact on skills that employers want from business graduates today (Mitchell, Skinner, & White, 2010). The shift from an industrial economy to an information society and an office economy means that many jobs now place an emphasis on integrity, communication, and flexibility (Zehr, 1998). Historically, technical skills, also known as hard skills, were the only skills necessary for career employment; but today's workplace is showing that technical skills are not enough to keep individuals employed when organizations are right-sizing and cutting positions (James & James, 2004). Because soft skills are critical for productive performance in today's workplace, current and future business leaders are emphasizing the development of soft skills (Nealy, 2005). While technical skills are a part of many excellent educational curricula, soft skills need further emphasis in the university curricula so

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that students learn the importance of soft skills early in their academic programs before they embark on a business career (Wellington, 2005).

Much research has been done on the importance of soft skills in the workplace (Klaus, 2010; Maes, Weldy, & Icenogel, 1997; Mitchell et al., 2010; Nealy, 2005; Smith, 2007). One study found that 75% of long-term job success depends on people skills, while only 25% is dependent on technical knowledge (Klaus, 2010). Another study indicated that hard skills contribute only 15% to one's success, whereas 85% of success is due to soft skills (Watts & Watts, 2008, as cited in John, 2009). As employers are progressively looking for employees who are mature and socially well adjusted, they rate soft skills as number one in importance for entry-level success on the job (Wilhelm, 2004).

Purpose and Problem Statement

The purpose of this study was to determine the critical soft skills that employers want from their employees so that business educators can promote these skills in their curriculum to improve the employability of graduating business seniors.


Method and Procedures

Students in a junior-level business communication class were each required to interview two executives each semester for their final project. After the interview, the student gave the executive a "thank you" letter and an evaluation survey from the course professor, along with a self-addressed, stamped envelope. The evaluation survey asked the business executive to comment on the performance of the student during the interviewing process. Additionally, the survey asked about topics that the business executives deemed important for business graduates to study. During the spring semester 2011, the executives were also asked to list the 10 most important soft skills they wanted new employees to possess when hired for a position within their organization.

Forty-five students were enrolled in the two business communication courses during spring semester 2011, so 90 executives received the survey. Of those 90 business executives, 49 (54%) responded by returning the questionnaire in the self-addressed, stamped envelope. A list of 517 soft skills (with repetition) was created. Some executives listed more than 10 soft skills; therefore, more than 490 items were gathered. After the skills were coded with like terms and themes, 26 soft skills emerged. The 10 soft skills that were listed most often by the executives were then included in a questionnaire to be rated by importance. Some examples of the "like" terms that were categorized as one of the 10 most mentioned *soft skill attributes* are listed in Figure 1.

After the top 10 soft skills attributes were determined, a 5-point Likert-type scale was created that would measure the strength of importance of each attribute. During the fall semester 2011 and spring semester 2012, the questionnaire was distributed to the business executives (along with the "thank you" and evaluation survey) by the

Социальные навыки по Марселю Робле

- **Общение.** Устная и письменная речь, умение выступать и слушать.
 - **Хорошие манеры.** Обходительность, уважительность.
 - **Гибкость.** Адаптируемость, готовность к изменениям, непрерывное обучение, принятие нового.
 - **Этичность.** Честность, моральность, наличие ценностей, правильность.
 - **Дружелюбие.** Приятность, представительность, чувство юмора, заботливость, чуткость, терпимость.
 - **Позитивность.** Оптимизм, энтузиазм, бодрость, жизнерадостность, уверенность в себе.
 - **Представительность.** Деловой вид, хорошая одежда, приятная внешность, уравновешенность.
 - **Добросовестность.** Предсказуемость, надёжность, ответственность, дисциплинированность, желание преуспеть, здравомыслие.
 - **Коллективизм.** Совместная деятельность, умение ладить с людьми, умение соглашаться, готовность оказать поддержку, сотрудничество.
 - **Деловая этика.** Трудолюбие, готовность к работе, лояльность, инициативность, мотивированность, соблюдение сроков, присутствие на рабочем месте.
- 



Важны ли социальные
навыки?

Hard evidence on soft skills



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Hard evidence on soft skills*

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Abstract

This paper summarizes recent evidence on what achievement tests measure; how achievement tests relate to other measures of “cognitive ability” like IQ and grades; the important skills that achievement tests miss or mismeasure, and how much these skills matter in life.

Achievement tests miss, or perhaps more accurately, do not adequately capture, *soft skills*—personality traits, goals, motivations, and preferences that are valued in the labor market, in school, and in many other domains. The larger message of this paper is that soft skills predict success in life, that they causally produce that success, and that programs that enhance soft skills have an important place in an effective portfolio of public policies.

Keywords

Personality; Achievement tests; IQ; Cognition

1. Introduction

Contemporary society places great value on standardized achievement tests to sift and sort people, to evaluate schools, and to assess the performance of nations. Admissions committees use tests like the SAT, the ACT, and the GRE (Graduate Record Examinations) to screen applicants. In the United States, the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act stipulates that government-run schools must administer standardized achievement tests in order to be eligible for federal funding.¹ The Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) evaluates student performance in math, science, and reading across countries. The results attract media attention and influence policy. The year 2000 PISA test results caused

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¹Scores of achievement tests have increased by nearly 40% between 1989 and 2005 (Digest of Education Statistics, various years; The Bowker Annual, Library and Book Trade Almanac, various years).

Heckman and Kautz

Page 2

Germany to re-evaluate its educational system and introduce a variety of educational reforms (Greck, 2009).

Despite the widespread use of standardized achievement tests, the traits that they measure are not well-understood. This paper summarizes recent evidence on what achievement tests capture; how achievement tests relate to other measures of “cognitive ability” like IQ and grades; the important skills that achievement tests miss or mismeasure, and how much these other skills matter in life.

Achievement tests miss, or more accurately, do not adequately capture, *soft skills*—personality traits, goals, motivations, and preferences that are valued in the labor market, in school, and in many other domains. The larger message of this paper is that soft skills predict success in life, that they produce that success, and that programs that enhance soft skills have an important place in an effective portfolio of public policies.²

Measurement of cognition and educational attainment has been refined during the past century. Psychometricians have shown that cognitive ability has multiple facets.³ This progress is not widely appreciated. Many social scientists—even many psychologists—continue to use IQ tests, standardized achievement tests, and grades interchangeably to proxy “cognitive ability.”⁴ Even though scores on IQ tests, standardized achievement tests, and grades are positively correlated with each other, the recent literature shows that they measure different skills and depend on different facets of cognitive ability. Recent research also shows that all three measures are associated with personality, but to different degrees across various cognitive measures.

Standardized achievement tests were designed to capture “general knowledge” produced in schools and through life experiences. Such knowledge is thought to be relevant to success inside and outside of the classroom. However, achievement tests are often validated using other standardized achievement tests or other measures of cognitive ability—surely a circular practice.

A more relevant validity criterion is how well these tests predict meaningful outcomes, such as educational attainment, labor market success, crime, and health. No single measure of cognitive ability predicts much of the variance in these outcomes, and measurement error does not account for most of the remaining variance, leaving much room for other determinants of success.⁵

Success in life depends on personality traits that are not well captured by measures of cognition. Conscientiousness, perseverance, sociability, and curiosity matter. While economists have largely ignored these traits, personality psychologists have studied them over the last century.⁶ They have constructed measures of them and provide evidence that these traits predict meaningful life outcomes.

Many scholars—inside and outside of psychology—have questioned the existence of stable personality traits, arguing that constraints and incentives in situations almost entirely determine behavior. These scholars claim that people are like chameleons—they adapt to

²This paper draws on and supplements Berghaus et al. (2008a), Almsland et al. (2011), and Heckman et al. (2012a).

³See Carroll (1993) and Ackerman and Heggestad (1997) for a discussion.

⁴Many call this “IQ,” e.g., Flynn (2007), Nisbett (2009), and Nisbett et al. (2012).

⁵On the magnitude of measurement error on a variety of economic measures, see Bound et al. (2001). These authors report that at most 15–30% of earnings variance is due to measurement error. Some early studies in economics are Bowles and Gintis (1976), and Bowles et al. (2001). An important study in sociology is Jencks (1979). Work in psychology going back to Terman et al. (1925) shows that personality traits matter (Murray, 1938; Terman et al. 1947; and the discussion in Genovese, 2012).

Интеллект vs Социальные навыки

Predictive validities in outcomes that matter (adjusted R-squared).

	<i><u>IQ Sample</u></i>			<i><u>AFQT Sample</u></i>			<i><u>GPA Sample</u></i>		
	IQ	Personality	Both	AFQT	Personality	Both	GPA	Personality	Both
<i>Males</i>									
Earnings at age 35	0.07	0.05	0.09	0.17	0.07	0.18	0.09	0.06	0.12
Hourly wage at age 35	0.07	0.03	0.08	0.13	0.06	0.14	0.07	0.06	0.09
Hours worked at age 35	0.01	0.03	0.04	0.03	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.02
Jail by age 35	0.03	0.02	0.04	0.06	0.06	0.09	0.03	0.03	0.04
Welfare at age 35	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.00	0.01
Married at age 35	0.01	0.05	0.05	0.04	0.03	0.06	0.03	0.03	0.04
B.A. degree by age 35	0.12	0.08	0.16	0.19	0.10	0.22	0.14	0.10	0.18
Depression in 1992	0.01	0.05	0.05	0.04	0.04	0.06	0.02	0.04	0.04
Adj, R^2 Cog, personality		0.07			0.17			0.11	
<i>Females</i>									
Earnings at age 35	0.01	0.03	0.03	0.09	0.05	0.11	0.05	0.04	0.07
Hourly wage at age 35	0.05	0.03	0.06	0.12	0.05	0.14	0.06	0.04	0.08
Hours worked at age 35	0.00	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.01
Jail by age 35	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.02
Welfare at age 35	0.02	0.04	0.05	0.10	0.05	0.12	0.05	0.05	0.07
Married at age 35	0.03	0.03	0.05	0.05	0.04	0.07	0.03	0.03	0.05
B.A. degree by age 35	0.10	0.08	0.14	0.17	0.09	0.20	0.10	0.08	0.13
Depression in 1992	0.02	0.05	0.05	0.04	0.05	0.07	0.02	0.05	0.05
Adj, R^2 Cog, personality		0.10			0.15			0.10	

Table 2 shows that personality traits predict many later-life outcomes as strongly as measures of cognitive ability.

Conscientiousness—the tendency to be perseverant and hardworking—stands out as the most predictive of the Big Five traits across many outcomes.

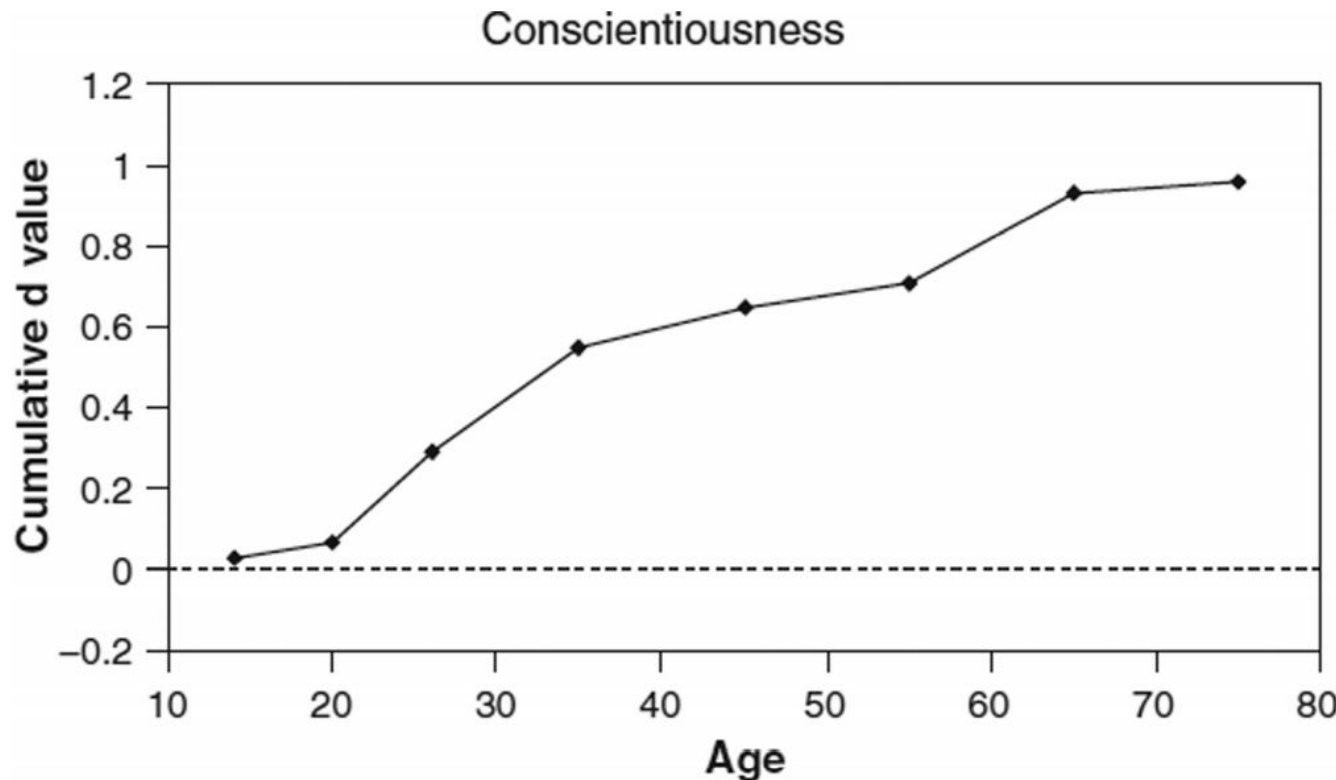
The importance of IQ increases with job complexity, defined as the information processing requirements of the job: cognitive skills are more important for professors, scientists, and senior managers than for semi-skilled or unskilled laborers

Стабильны ли личные качества



A large body of evidence reviewed in Almlund et al. (2011) shows that stable personality traits exist and are predictive of many behaviors. An important paper by Epstein (1979) presents compelling evidence that, averaging over tasks and situations at a point in time, people act in a predictable fashion with a high level of reliability (R^2 of 0.6–0.8) of average behavior (“measured personality”) across situations. The incentives in any situation also matter. Heritability studies show that measures of personality traits tend to be about 40%–60% heritable, suggesting that something tied to the person, rather than the situation, influences behavior (Bouchard and Loehlin, 2001). Evidence in neuroscience suggests that expression of traits is related to regions of the brain (see Canli, 2006; DeYoung et al., 2010).

Стабильны ли личные качества



Even though personality traits are relatively stable across situations, they are not set in stone. They change over the life cycle. Fig. 3 shows that Conscientiousness tends to increase monotonically over the life cycle. Other traits change in different ways over the life cycle.⁴¹ Crystallized intelligence tends to increase monotonically for most of the life cycle, whereas fluid intelligence tends to peak in early adulthood and then decline.⁴²



Можно ли развивать
социальные навыки?

Can people choose to change their personality traits?



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Personality Processes and Individual Differences

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You Have to Follow Through: Attaining Behavioral Change Goals Predicts Volitional Personality Change

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Prior research has found that people's desires to change their personality traits predict corresponding subsequent trait growth over time. However, few studies have examined the processes through which people can volitionally change their personality traits. Thus, it remains unclear whether merely desiring change predicts trait growth or whether actively pursuing change is necessary. The present study was a 15-week intensive longitudinal design that tested whether engaging in trait-optimal behaviors predicted trait change. Participants provided self-report ratings of their personality traits and were able to freely accept and complete weekly "challenges"—prewritten behavioral goals that would put their thoughts, feelings, and behaviors in line with their desired traits. Results indicated that merely accepting behavioral challenges did not predict trait changes. Rather, only actually completing challenges (i.e., performing trait-optimal behaviors) predicted trait change over time. Thus, merely wanting to change does not appear to be sufficient to evoke trait growth; successfully changing one's personality traits may require actively and successfully implementing behaviors to change oneself.

Keywords: adult personality development, trait change goals, volitional personality change

An avid reader perusing the bestsellers list in search of a literary adventure on a lazy weekend afternoon would likely not be surprised to find the list rife with self-help books. Indeed, as just one prototypical example, *Of Amateurs.com's* top 10 bestseller books in the first week of September 2017, one promised to help people become more emotionally stable by practicing the art of "simply not caring." Two others advised readers to use practical guides to improving one's career and relationships by fostering conscientious and agreeable patterns of behavior. These books continue the long tradition of encouraging volitional personality change, with a modern history stretching back to 1936 with the publication of *How to Win Friends and Influence People*, which remains a bestseller to this day. And each book is no stranger to bestseller lists; Americans spend upward of \$10 billion each year on self-help books and programs that promise to help them successfully change their personality traits and thereby improve their lives (Linder, 2009). But do readers of these books stand a chance at

actually attaining the promised trait change? Here we evaluate the extent to which both making plans to change one's behavior as well as actually implementing behavioral changes predict trait change across time.

Do People Want to Change Their Personality Traits?

Beyond booming sales in the self-help industry, empirical evidence reaffirms the idea that most people want to change their personality traits (Baranski, Moore, & Dunlap, 2017; Hudson & Friley, 2016b; Hudson & Roberts, 2014; Robinson, Noller, Guo, Asadi, & Zhang, 2015). For example, using standard self-report/Likert-scale questionnaires, approximately 85–95% of participants indicate desires to increase with respect to the socially desirable pole of each big five personality domain—extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and openness to experience (Hudson & Friley, 2016b; Hudson & Roberts, 2014). Although such trait change goals are slightly more prevalent among younger individuals, people report desires to change in all of the big five well into late adulthood (Hudson & Friley, 2016b). Moreover, these desires are not an artifact of the questionnaires used. Even when asked in an open-ended fashion (e.g., "Is there any aspect of your personality that you would like to change?"), about two thirds of participants freely volunteer that they would like to change themselves—and they even tend to articulate their desires clearly in terms of the big five (e.g., "I would like to be able to be more outgoing"; Baranski et al., 2017).

Individuals likely have many reasons for wanting to change their personalities. Most directly, people intuitively understand

2

Hudson, Briley, Chopik, and Derringer

that stable patterns of thoughts, feelings, and behavior have utility value in relevant domains of their lives. For example, students who are dissatisfied with their collegiate experience are more likely to report greater desires to increase in conscientiousness than their more-satisfied peers—perhaps because they reason that being more thorough, hardworking, responsible, and organized might assuage their academic woes (Hudson & Roberts, 2014). Similarly, most of the Big Five personality traits possess a socially desirable orientation (e.g., Dunlap, Telford, & Morrison, 2012)—and consequently research suggests that people who are low with respect to the socially desirable pole of any of the big five tend to especially desire to change that trait (Baranski et al., 2017; Hudson & Roberts, 2014).

Can People Volitionally Change Their Traits?

People clearly want to change their personalities—and are willing to spend their hard-earned money on resources that promise to help them do so. However, the extent to which individuals can actually change their personality traits is less clear. Promising evidence comes from a series of three intensive longitudinal studies in which participants' personality traits were measured weekly for approximately four months; growth in participants' personalities followed in line with their trait change goals (Hudson & Friley, 2015, 2016a). For example, participants who reported desires to become more extraverted experienced more positive growth in extraversion across a period of four months, as compared with their peers who reported lesser (or no) desires to change. That said, there is not universal empirical support for this finding; Robinson and colleagues (2015) found that change goals did not predict trait growth across two measurement occasions spanning one year.

Nevertheless, when taken as a whole, the nascent body of literature on volitional personality change suggests that people tend to change in ways that align with their desires—at least across short periods of time. People who want to become more conscientious, for example, tend to increase in conscientiousness over time, relative to their peers who do not wish to change. That said, one critical ambiguity in these existing studies is that none of them have effectively measured the extent to which participants were actively working on changing their personality traits. Thus, the processes underlying volitional change remain poorly understood. It remains unclear whether merely wanting to change is sufficient to predict trait growth—or whether people must intentionally pursue cognitive, affective, and behavioral changes to experience trait growth across time.

More specifically, it is possible that change goals operate in a self-fulfilling fashion (see Jussim, 1986). In other words, merely wanting trait change—even without further intentional action to implement these changes—may prompt people to automatically behave in ways that elicit desired traits. For example, even without intentional action, an individual who wants to become more extraverted may experience subtle shifts in his or her identity (e.g., viewing him- or herself as more extraverted) or behavior (e.g., behaving in a slightly more friendly fashion toward others). These identity and behavioral changes alone may be sufficient to promote trait growth (Burke, 2006; Magnuson, Roberts, Collado-Rodriguez, & Lejuez, 2014).

Alternatively, it may be the case that merely desiring change is not sufficient. Rather, people may need to actively change their thoughts, feelings, and behaviors to realize desired trait growth. To this end, research suggests that even without coaching or guidance, people automatically take steps to change their personality traits (see Hudson & Friley, 2015; Quinlan, Jaccard, & Hannon, 2006; Stevenson & Clegg, 2011). For example, people who want to become more extraverted may intentionally engage in elevated levels of extrarole behaviors (e.g., socializing, assuming leadership roles) in an attempt to change their traits. This raises the possibility that merely desiring change is not sufficient; people may need to actively pursue behavioral change to experience trait growth. The purpose of the present study was to fill this gap in the empirical literature and examine the extent to which actively making cognitive, behavioral, and affective changes predicts desired trait growth.

How Can People Volitionally Change Their Traits?

Before discussing how people might be able to volitionally change their traits, it is useful to review how personality is thought to develop more generally. A large body of research suggests that personality traits can and do change (e.g., Lucas & Donnellan, 2011; Roberts & Mroczek, 2006; Roberts, Walton, & Viechtbauer, 2006). For example, people tend to become more agreeable, conscientious, and emotionally stable with age (Roberts et al., 2006; Son, John, Gosling, & Potter, 2011). These changes are thought to occur partially because normative experiences shape people's personalities in similar ways. For example, most people commit to careers in young adulthood, and successfully committing to a career requires one to think, feel, and behave in conscientious manners (Hudson & Roberts, 2016; Lodi-Smith & Jackson, 2007). Similarly, romantic relationships foster emotionally stable thoughts, feelings, and behaviors (e.g., Lehnart, Neyer, & Eccles, 2010).

In short, experiences have the potential to shape state-level thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. Theoretically, if state-level changes are maintained for extended periods of time, they have the potential to coalesce into trait-level changes (e.g., Blonstein, Jackson, Fayard, & Roberts, 2008; Huttenauer, Nestler, Wagner, Egloff, & Back, 2015; Magnuson et al., 2014; Roberts & Jackson, 2008). This may be because sustained patterns of thoughts, feelings, and behaviors simply become learned, automatized, and habitual—or chronic state-level changes may even alter biology, subsequently translating into trait changes (e.g., Hombeck, Bledian, Davidson, & Wood, 2014; Roberts & Jackson, 2008).


The idea that chronically maintained state-level changes can coalesce into trait-level changes has primarily been used to explain how people are *passively* shaped by their experiences and environments (e.g., workplaces make people more conscientious by reinforcing state-level conscientious behaviors; Hudson & Roberts, 2016). However, similar logic can be applied to people's attempts to actively, or volitionally, change their own personality traits (Hombeck et al., 2014; Hudson & Friley, 2015; Hudson & Roberts, 2014). To the extent that individuals can volitionally change their state-level thoughts, feelings, and behaviors—and maintain those changes over extended periods of time—they may be able to induce enduring changes to their own personality traits (Hudson & Friley, 2015).

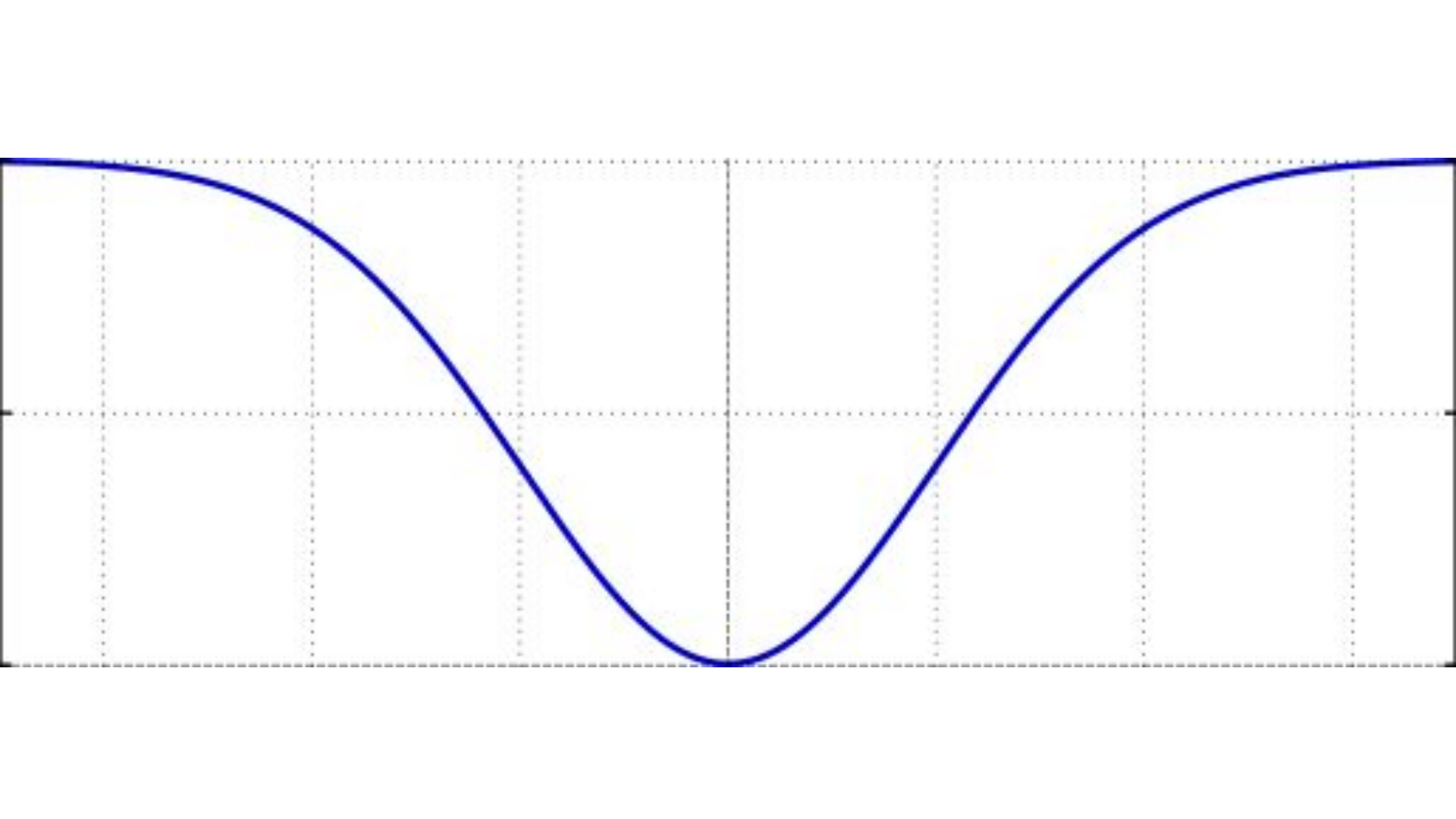
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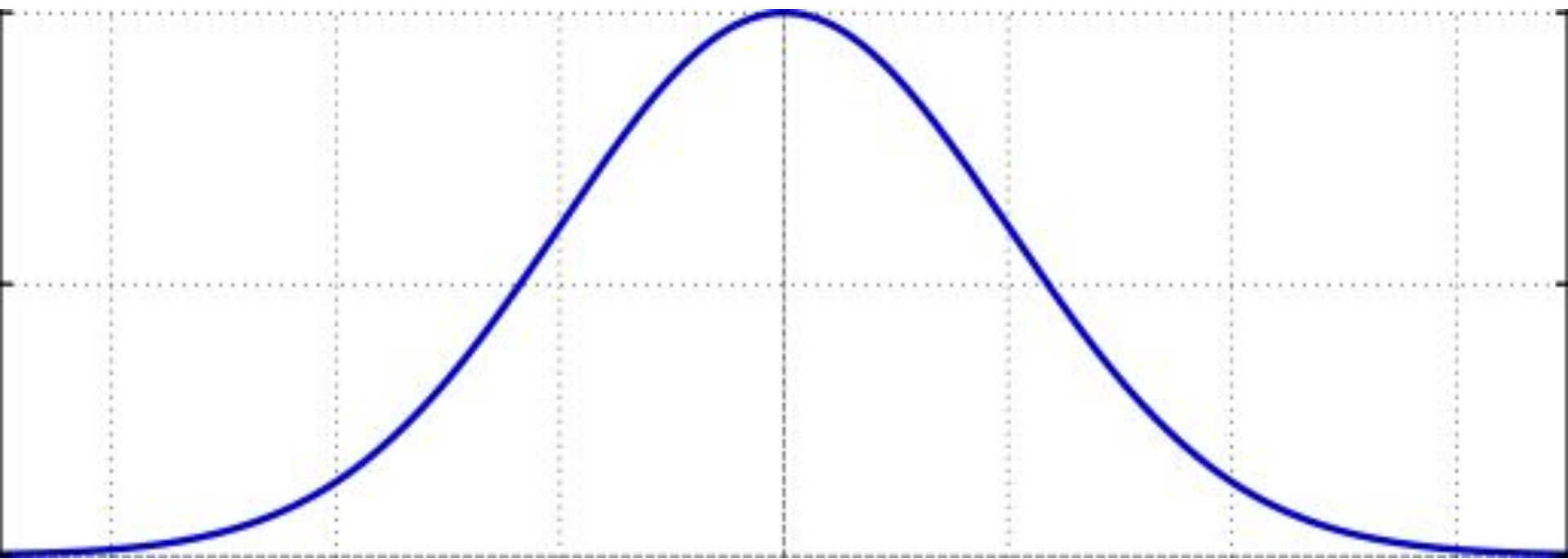
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5

Большая пятёрка

- **Экстраверсия.** Разговорчивое энергичное поведение у экстравертов, замкнутое уединённое поведение у интровертов.
 - **Доброжелательность.** Дружелюбие, способность прийти к согласию в отличие от желания доказать свою правоту.
 - **Добросовестность.** Сознательность, честность в отличие от склонности к обману.
 - **Нейротизм.** Тревожность, эмоциональная нестабильность в отличие от стабильности.
 - **Открытость опыту.** Интеллект.
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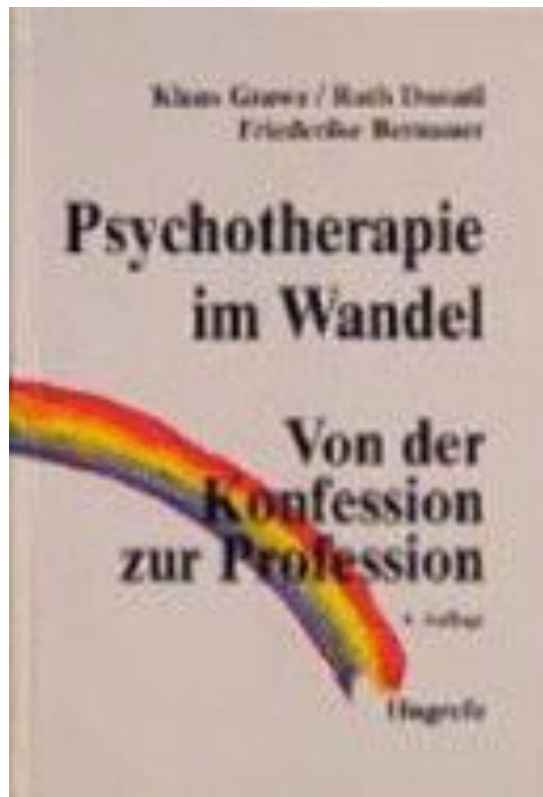






Какие методы эффективны?

Psychotherapie im Wandel



Положительной индикации для долговременного психоанализа нет, а контриндикация есть: у пациентов с более выраженной симптоматикой имеется опасность ятрогенных эффектов

Predicate Matching in NLP

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Predicate Matching in NLP: A Review of Research on the Preferred Representational System

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The increasing publicity of Neurolinguistic Programming (NLP) has not been accompanied by marked research support. As a first review of the 15 studies performed to date that have investigated the use of the Preferred Representational System (PRS) in NLP, this article describes each of these studies, compiling a summary of data collected. Aspects of design, methodology, population, and dependent measures are evaluated, with comments on the outcomes obtained. Results of this review suggest that there is little supportive evidence for the use of the PRS in NLP in these 15 studies, with much data to the contrary. Questions of accountability are raised, with suggestions for future research.

Beginning with their first publications (Bandler & Grinder, 1975; Grinder & Bandler, 1976), the proponents of Neurolinguistic Programming (NLP) have seen a notable increase of interest in their theory of human communication. Harman and O'Neill (1981) commented that "hardly a month goes by that we do not receive two or more notices of some kind of NLP seminar" (p. 449). Although applications of NLP have been principally oriented toward counseling (e.g., Eliasoph, 1981; Stevens, 1978), the fields of personnel training (Maron, 1979) and marketing (Brownlee, 1981) have also been suggested as benefiting from NLP. Yet, in spite of this increase in interest (and presumed application), no review has been published of research evidence supporting NLP's claim as an effective intervention procedure for use by counselors and others seeking to facilitate human communication. The present article examines 15 such reports, performed to evaluate one of the basic tenets of NLP, and discusses outcomes from the viewpoint of variables of design, including methodology, subjects, and dependent measures. Findings are evaluated, with particular reference to the counselor in the field.

Neurolinguistic Programming (NLP) and the Preferred Representational System (PRS)

Based on their observations of "therapeutic wizards" (Bandler & Grinder, 1978, p. 3) such as Satir, Erickson, and Perls, Bandler and Grinder proposed that persons process reality through five sensory and representational systems: visual, auditory, kinesthetic, gustatory, and olfactory (Dilta, Grinder, Bandler, Bandler, & Delozier, 1980), although this theory is applicable to right-handed persons only. In our culture it is the first three of these systems that are most used, with individuals seldom using only one system for all interactions with physical reality and showing variability in the prevalence they have for each system. Although persons can distort their experiences or of reactions to reality, Bandler and Grinder (1978) suggested that counselors can define the "deep structure" of clients' thinking processes by reference to the "surface structure" of their verbal and nonverbal responses to the elements of reality that are discussed within a counseling interview. This "surface structure" can be classified into (most commonly) visual, auditory, or kinesthetic representational systems by careful observation of client eye movements or verbalizations. The system that an individual uses most of the time is termed the Preferred Representational System (PRS), and Bandler and Grinder suggested that

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matching this PRS is the key to effective counseling. The presence of PRS, procedures for identifying it, and the effectiveness of matching or otherwise utilizing the PRS of a selected individual is the focus of the studies reviewed here, with results either supporting or failing to support this basic tenet of NLP. Although it may be that the "therapeutic wizards" referred to by Bandler and Grinder do in fact match the PRS of their clients, it does not follow that such matching is a necessary or sufficient condition for effective communication, particularly in counseling situations.

The Studies Reviewed

A detailed examination of the literature by computer search and cross-referencing revealed a total of 15 studies investigating NLP, all focused on the issue of the PRS of individuals and matching of it to achieve more effective communication for a variety of purposes. Each of the studies is described in this section, with a summary for comparison drawn up in Table 1. The studies are presented in the following development: (a) examinations of the presence of PRS, (b) the congruence of PRS as detected via differing measures, (c) the use of matching PRS for noncounseling intervention, (d) the effectiveness of matching PRS in counseling interviews.

Presence of the PRS

Prior to discussing findings related to the effectiveness of PRS matching with clients, the issues of verifying the existence of the PRS and then evaluating the reliability of methods suggested to identify the PRS arise. Only one study has attempted to verify the presence of PRS in individuals over time. Birholtz (1981) examined the preferences of 27 college students showed for words that reflected one sensory modality over others. The students were asked to describe positive and negative experiences in their past, present, and projected future. Questions used to elicit these responses were phrased in a neutral modality and were audio-taped. Results indicated that there was one preferred ($p < .01$) mode for all

subjects and this was kinesthetic, although there was no significant correlation between this and subjects' self-report of their PRS. These results were replicated 1 week after the initial interview, suggesting that a preference for kinesthetic predicates did exist and was stable over 1 week. Whether this preference is the result of neurological "style" or societal influence is open to question. However, it does comply with the NLP theory and as such offers some support for the contention that persons possess PRS and these systems are stable over 1 week.

Identifying the PRS

One of the earlier pieces of research performed on NLP was Owens's (1977/1978) investigation of congruity of PRS as identified by eye movements, verbalizations, and self-report. Owens posed nine stimulus cues that required subjects to respond according to their PRS. Counts of eye movements and verbalizations were performed by independent raters on 128 undergraduate psychology students, and all subjects were later asked to report on their own PRS by answering a short questionnaire. Results of all ratings were classified as either visual, auditory, or kinesthetic on each of the three identification procedures and data were analyzed for agreement between these procedures. No significant correlations were noted (see Gumm, Walker, & Day, 1982, p. 329, for a note on these results), thus failing to verify NLP's theory of preferred representational systems as dominant across modalities. Although not in direct contradiction to Birholtz's (1981) suggestions that the PRS does actually exist, Owens's results seriously question the process by which these PRS can be identified, and therefore the chances of implementing any process of matching PRS to facilitate communication.

A similar study was performed by Gumm et al. (1982) in which they also failed to verify NLP predictions of agreement between three methods of determining PRS. In a study of congruity between eye movements, verbalizations, and self-report with 50 female college students confirmed as right-handed, subjects were asked to speak for 1 min in response to each of five questions and answer

Perhaps the PRS does exist. Birholtz (1981) provided some evidence based on verbalizations collected. However, the identification of this PRS (if it is a PRS and not merely current language style) by either eye movements or self-report is not supported by the research data. The cuing effect of client verbalizations is valuable, not to identify PRS but to alert counselors to phrase their responses in such a way as to maximize empathy within the interview. The existence or stability of the PRS is irrelevant to predicate matching as a counseling process, and parsimony argues for the process rather than the as yet unverified theory.

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What Does Not Work?

HLTH 4511: Introduction to Problematic Substance Use and Approaches for its Prevention and Treatment

What Does Not Work? Expert Consensus on Discredited Treatments in the Addictions

By

John C. Norcross, Gerald P. Koocher, Natalie C. Fala, & Harry K. Wexler

Norcross, J. C., Koocher, G. P., Fala, N. C., & Wexler, H. K. (2010). What Does Not Work? Expert Consensus on Discredited Treatments in the Addictions. *Journal of Addictive Medicine* 4(3), 174-180. doi:10.1097/ADM.0b013e3181c5f9db273

ORIGINAL ARTICLE

What Does Not Work? Expert Consensus on Discredited Treatments in the Addictions

John C. Norcross, PhD, Gerald P. Koocher, PhD, Natalie C. Fala, BS, and Harry K. Wexler, PhD

Abstract: Evidence-based practice promotes those research-supported treatments that have proven effective, but it rarely identifies discredited treatments that are to be avoided. We sought to establish a professional consensus on discredited addiction treatments using Delphi methodology. A panel of 75 experts participated in a 2-stage study, reporting familiarity with 65 treatments and rating these on a continuum from "not at all discredited" to "certainly discredited." We report their composite opinions and significant differences that occurred as a function of the panelists' theoretical orientation. The results require careful interpretation, but do offer a cogent first step in identifying a professional consensus of discredited treatments for addictions.

Key Words: addictions, discredited treatments, evidence-based practice, psychotherapy, substance abuse

(*J Addict Med* 2010;4: 174-180)

Evidence-based practice (EBP) constitutes an international juggernaut in healthcare, and the addictions prove no exception. The EBP movement aims to disseminate and promote research-supported treatments to increase the efficacy of services to individual patients and thereby enhance public health. The Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, for 1 prominent example, created a National Registry of Evidence-Based Programs and Practices (www.nrepp.samhsa.gov) designed to provide the public with reliable information on the scientific value and practicality of interventions that prevent and/or treat mental and substance abuse disorders. The focus of EBP falls squarely on what works (eg, Miller and Kavanagh, 2007; Norcross et al., 2009).

But EBP largely ignores what does not work. Far less research and clinical attention has focused on establishing a consensus on ineffective methods when compared with effective methods (Miller et al., 2003).

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A 2008 report of the Institute of Medicine focused on integrating clinical expertise with the best available research evidence in evidence-based medicine. That report concluded, "Technological and scientific innovations continue to expand the universe of medical interventions, treatments, and approaches to care, ushering in an era rich with potential for improving the quality of health care but also rife with increased uncertainty about what works best for whom. That uncertainty can—and does—lead to the delivery of services that may be unnecessary, unproven, and sometimes harmful..." (McClellan et al., 2008).

We believe that it will prove useful and perhaps easier to establish a professional consensus on discredited treatments for addictions. Doing so may counter the widespread tendency for professionals to practice (or repeat) what they have been taught by their mentors or authorities. Many of the treatment methods taught just 2 decades ago as "state of the art" for addictions are now regarded as contraindicated, such as confrontational therapy and certain medication regimens. Establishing an expert consensus can counter the professional equivalent of urban myths, encourage critical thinking, and allow us to educate consumers when they inquire about such methods. A consensus of multiple experts hailing from diverse theoretical orientations, professional disciplines, and employment settings will probably be regarded as more balanced and robust than a conclusion rendered by a single research reviewer with a particular theoretical commitment and treatment allegiance.

A frequent challenge to the use of expert consensus is "Why not rely on the results of randomized clinical trials?" Because most potentially discredited treatments have not (and will not) be subjected to controlled research. Because of the scientific difficulty of "proving" the null hypothesis (ie, no outcome differences between the treatment in question and a credible placebo). Because, with the exception of huge, multisite randomized clinical trials (RCTs), there are relatively few bona fide comparisons of alternative treatments; most comparative outcome research in mental health and the addictions entails structurally unequal treatments and involves the researcher allegiance effect (Wampold, 2008). Finally, because even in those instances when dispassionate RCTs are conducted, the field lacks meaningful criteria to identify discredited or ineffective treatments on the basis of those RCTs.

Most assuredly, select investigators have attempted to identify the pseudoscientific or ineffective treatments applied to a variety of mental disorders and addictions (eg, Holder

J Addict Med • Volume 4, Number 3, September 2010

Active Albuterol or Placebo

THE NEW ENGLAND JOURNAL OF MEDICINE

ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Active Albuterol or Placebo, Sham Acupuncture, or No Intervention in Asthma

Michael E. Wechsler, M.D., John M. Kelley, Ph.D., Ingrid O.E. Boyd, M.P.H., Stefanie Dutile, B.S., Gautham Marigowda, M.B., Irving Kirsch, Ph.D., Elliot Israel, M.D., and Ted J. Kaptchuk

ABSTRACT

BACKGROUND

In prospective experimental studies in patients with asthma, it is difficult to determine whether responses to placebo differ from the natural course of physiological changes that occur without any intervention. We compared the effects of a bronchodilator, two placebo interventions, and no intervention on outcomes in patients with asthma.

METHODS

In a double-blind, crossover pilot study, we randomly assigned 46 patients with asthma to active treatment with an albuterol inhaler, a placebo inhaler, sham acupuncture, or no intervention. Using a block design, we administered one of these four interventions in random order during four sequential visits (3 to 7 days apart); this procedure was repeated in two more blocks of visits (for a total of 12 visits by each patient). At each visit, spirometry was performed repeatedly over a period of 2 hours. Maximum forced expiratory volume in 1 second (FEV₁) was measured, and patients' self-reported improvement ratings were recorded.

RESULTS

Among the 39 patients who completed the study, albuterol resulted in a 20% increase in FEV₁, as compared with approximately 7% with each of the other three interventions ($P < 0.001$). However, patients' reports of improvement after the intervention did not differ significantly for the albuterol inhaler (50% improvement), placebo inhaler (45%), or sham acupuncture (46%), but the subjective improvement with all three of these interventions was significantly greater than that with the no-intervention control (21%) ($P < 0.001$).

CONCLUSIONS

Although albuterol, but not the two placebo interventions, improved FEV₁ in these patients with asthma, albuterol provided no incremental benefit with respect to the self-reported outcomes. Placebo effects can be clinically meaningful and can rival the effects of active medication in patients with asthma. However, from a clinical-management and research-design perspective, patient self-reports can be unreliable. An assessment of untreated responses in asthma may be essential in evaluating patient-reported outcomes. (Funded by the National Center for Complementary and Alternative Medicine; ClinicalTrials.gov number, NCT01143688.)

N. Engl. J. Med. 365:2 NEJM.ORG. JULY 14, 2011

The New England Journal of Medicine

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THE NEW ENGLAND JOURNAL OF MEDICINE

PLACEBO EFFECTS (I.E., BENEFITS RESULTING from simulated treatment or the experience of receiving care) are reported to improve signs and symptoms of many diseases in clinical trials and in clinical practice.¹ On this basis, the accepted standards for clinical-trial design specify that the effects of active treatment should ideally be compared with the effects of placebo.^{2,3} Despite this common practice, it is unclear whether placebo effects observed in clinical trials (or those that presumably occur in clinical care) influence both objective and subjective outcomes and whether placebo effects differ from the natural course of disease or regression to the mean.⁴

In patients with asthma, the administration of an inhaled bronchodilator can result in rapid increases in expiratory airflow that can be measured with spirometry. Since repeated lung-function assessments can be performed over short periods of time, asthma is an excellent model for the study of placebo effects. Although many studies suggest that such effects occur in patients with asthma, these studies have generally not controlled for the effects of variability that can occur over the period of observation without treatment.⁵⁻⁸

In this pilot study, we compared acute changes in lung function that occurred after repeated administration of four interventions: a masked bronchodilator (inhaled albuterol), two different types of placebo (an inert inhaler and a validated sham acupuncture needle), and a period of no intervention. By using different placebos and a no-intervention control, we were able to determine whether placebo interventions in asthma can lead to objective changes in airway caliber, self-reported subjective improvements, or both beyond the changes in lung function and symptoms that are attributable to the natural history of the disease.

METHODS

PATIENTS AND STUDY DESIGN

Between January 2007 and December 2008, we conducted a randomized, double-blind, crossover pilot study with the use of a block design to determine the short-term responses to an inhaled bronchodilator and placebo treatments in patients with stable asthma. At the initial screening visit, 79 patients completed questionnaires and, having had short-acting bronchodilator therapy withheld for a minimum of 8 hours and long-acting bronchodilator therapy withheld for at least 24 hours, underwent bronchodilator reversibility testing with open-

label inhaled albuterol. The 46 patients who had a response, defined as a forced expiratory volume in 1 second (FEV₁) that was at least 12% higher than the baseline value, were eligible to continue in the study (Fig. 1). (Details about the inclusion and exclusion criteria, structure of the study, and study visits can be found in the Supplementary Appendix, available with the full text of this article at NEJM.org.)

These patients returned within a week and were assigned to a randomly ordered series of four interventions — active albuterol inhaler, placebo inhaler, sham acupuncture, or no-intervention control — administered on four separate occasions, 3 to 7 days apart (block 1) (Fig. 2). This procedure was repeated in two more blocks of four visits each (blocks 2 and 3), during which the interventions were again randomly ordered and administered. Thus, each subject received a total of 12 interventions. Albuterol and the placebo inhaler were administered in a double-blind fashion and sham acupuncture in a single-blind fashion, and the no-intervention control was not blinded. As before, short-acting and long-acting bronchodilator therapy was withheld for 8 hours and 24 hours, respectively, before each intervention. The no-intervention control condition differs from the natural history of asthma, since it controls for nonspecific factors such as attention from study staff, responses to repeated spirometry, regression to the mean, natural physiological variation, and any effects arising from the hospital setting. Nonetheless, no-intervention controls are the best approximation of no treatment in an experimental design. The study was conducted in accordance with the protocol (available at NEJM.org).

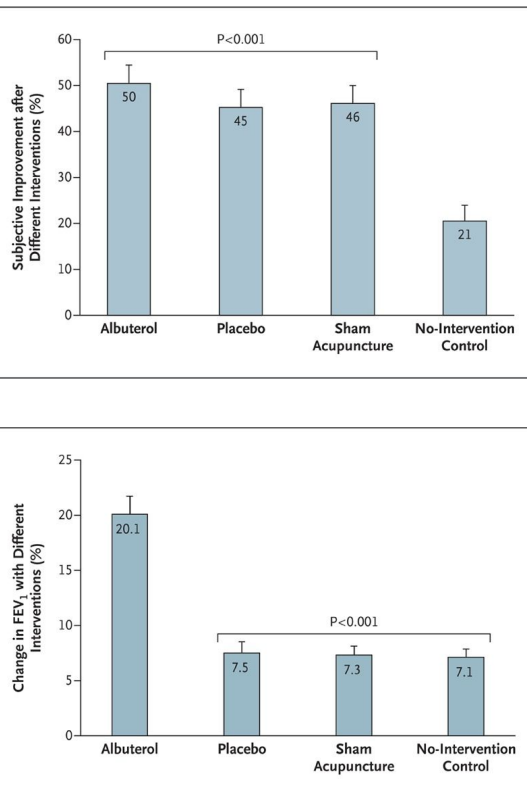
OBJECTIVE AND SUBJECTIVE OUTCOMES

At each of the 12 visits, spirometry was used to obtain a baseline measurement of FEV₁, after which patients received the intervention for that particular visit (as randomly assigned within the four visits of that block of visits). Spirometry was then repeated every 20 minutes for 2 hours. Also at each visit, patients were asked to score any perceived improvements in asthma symptoms on a visual-analogue scale,^{9,10} with scores ranging from 0 (no improvement) to 10 (complete improvement), and were also asked whether they thought they had received a genuine therapy or placebo (to assess blinding). These subjective responses were then converted to percent improvement during the 2 hours by multiplying each score by 10.

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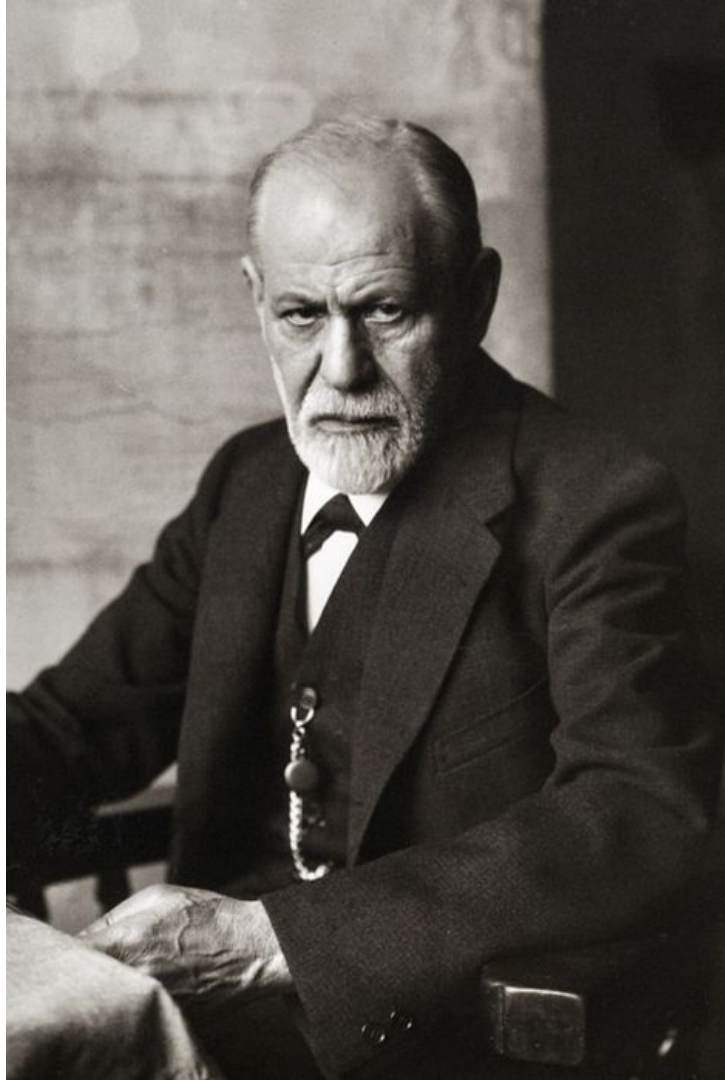


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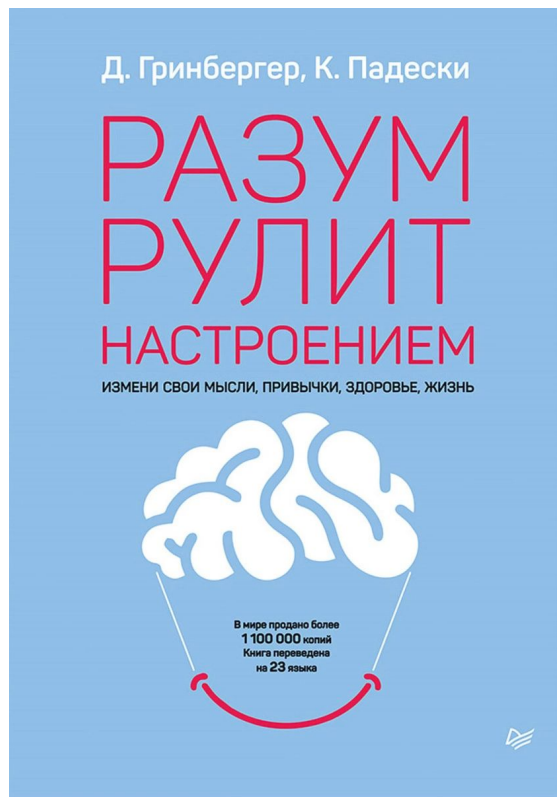
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