



SAPIENZA

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Cross-cultural adaptation and validation of the Russian version of self-evaluation instruments for the evaluation of soft skills, future expectations and positivity of high-school students

PhD Student: Pavel Platygin

University: L'Università degli Studi di Roma "La Sapienza"

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Tutors: Prof.ssa Émiliane Elizabeth Marie Rubat du Mérac, Prof. Pietro Lucisano

Abstract

Lo studio è dedicato all'adattamento interculturale e alla convalida della versione russa degli strumenti per studiare l'autovalutazione, le aspettative dal futuro e la positività degli studenti delle scuole superiori. Nella parte teorica, c'è uno studio dell'immagine del futuro, le aspettative dal futuro, così come le soft skills per studiare l'autovalutazione. Nella parte preliminare, è stato condotto uno studio pilota per tradurre, adattare e validare gli strumenti selezionati per il test delle ipotesi. Nella parte principale, è stata effettuata una rianalisi degli strumenti tradotti e sono state testate le ipotesi dello studio. In conclusione, vengono presentati i risultati degli obiettivi e vengono tratte conclusioni sulle prospettive di ulteriore studio dell'autovalutazione, delle aspettative sul futuro e della positività degli studenti delle scuole superiori.

Le ipotesi dello studio erano: livelli più elevati di soft skill sono positivamente associati a positività e aspettative future ottimistiche; una maggiore positività è positivamente associata a aspettative future positive; attraverso il background culturale e il genere, i partecipanti differiscono nel loro modo di percepire il futuro. Gli obiettivi della ricerca sono stati: adattamento culturale e validazione del questionario sulle aspettative future degli studenti al contesto educativo russo; adattamento culturale e validazione del questionario di autovalutazione delle soft skill (3SQ) al contesto educativo russo; adattamento culturale e validazione della scala di positività (scala P) al contesto educativo russo; indagare su come i livelli di soft skill più elevati siano positivamente associati alla positività e alle aspettative future ottimistiche; indagare su come una positività più elevata sia positivamente associata alle aspettative future positive; indagare su come attraverso il background culturale e il genere, i partecipanti differiscano nel loro modo di percepire il futuro; trarre conclusioni sulle prospettive future della ricerca in Russia per studiare l'immagine del futuro, l'autovalutazione delle soft skills e l'associazione di positività. Il campione target era costituito da 339 studenti delle scuole superiori. Ci si aspettava di presentare la coerenza interna e l'affidabilità della versione russa degli strumenti. Le analisi EFA e CFA sono state utilizzate per testare la bontà della misura. Il criterio di Pearson e l'analisi 2-way ANOVA sono stati impiegati per testare le ipotesi. Tutti gli obiettivi sono stati raggiunti, le conclusioni fatte e le opinioni tratte sulle prospettive dell'ulteriore studio.

Abstract

The study is dedicated to cross-cultural adaptation and validation of the Russian version of instruments for studying self-evaluation, expectations from the future and positivity of high school students. In the theoretical part, there is a study of the image of the future, expectations from the future, as well as soft skills for studying self-evaluation. In the preliminary part, a pilot study was conducted to translate, adapt and validate the selected instruments for hypotheses testing. In the main part, a re-analysis of the translated instruments was carried out and the hypotheses of the

study were tested. In conclusion, the results of the objectives are presented and conclusions are drawn about the prospects for further study of self-evaluation, expectations from the future and positivity of high school students.

The hypotheses of the study were: higher soft skill levels are positively associated with positivity and optimistic future expectations; higher positivity is positively associated with positive future expectations; across cultural background and gender, participants differ in their way to perceive future. The objectives of the research were: cultural adaptation and validation of the questionnaire on students' future expectations to the Russian educational context; cultural adaptation and validation of the soft skill self-evaluation questionnaire (3SQ) to the Russian educational context; cultural adaptation and validation of the positivity scale (P-scale) to the Russian educational context; investigate how higher soft skill levels are positively associated with positivity and optimistic future expectations; investigate how higher positivity is positively associated with positive future expectations; investigate how across cultural background and gender, participants differ in their way to perceive future; make conclusions about future perspectives of research in Russia to study image of future, soft-skills self-evaluation and positivity association. Target sample consisted of 339 high school students. It was expected to present internal consistency and reliability of Russian version of the instruments. EFA and CFA analyses were used to for the instruments to test the goodness of the fit. Pearson criterion and 2-way ANOVA analysis were employed to test hypotheses. All objectives were fulfilled, conclusions made and opinions drawn about the perspectives of the further study.

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Preface

A moratorium or crisis of choice is typical for young people who are exploring alternative options for their development and actively trying to get out of this state by making an informed decision about their future. Representatives of this group reflect on possible options for development, engage in various roles, and strive to learn as much as possible about different specialties and ways to obtain them. This stage is characterized by unstable relationships with parents and friends: complete mutual understanding is quickly replaced by misunderstanding and vice versa.

As numerous studies show, most people after the "crisis of choice" move to the state of identity, but do not exclude cases of transition to an imposed personality.

An imposed identity is a condition that is imminent for a person who has chosen his or her path, but did not do it through independent reflection, but under the influence of authorities: parents or friends.

This study provides an overview of research approaches, the object of which is the future as an element of the actual social reality. The author introduces new instruments that will be translated, adapted and validated to compare social and cultural contexts of Russia and Italy in such directions as future vision of society, anticipations from future, soft skills and positivity. The interpretation of this concept is given as a reflection of collective ideas about the future, which have the character of a complete or almost complete picture of a social reality that does not exist yet. The author examines the existing methodologies for studying images of the future which will allow finding a common denominator of social expectations in different types of sources. In contrast to other perspectives on the future, the image of the future makes it possible to reconstruct the pictures of the future that function in the past and relate them to the real future. The study of the image of the future allows us to assess the inclusion of society in the time perspective, its attitude to the present, the degree of satisfaction with reality, to concretize ideas about the purpose of social development and the values of the society in which it exists. The study of the images of the future functioning in the past can help to understand the relationship between the ideas of the future and the future itself, and if this relationship is established, it can be extrapolated to the images of the future of our present and our future.

Design of research

The Research problems

1. An insufficient knowledge of young people about future vision and expectations
2. An inadequate knowledge of how and to what extent the socio-cultural context influences the future vision and expectations of young people
3. A lack of attention to how students' abilities are associated with future perceptions and expectations

In modern conditions, the state of youth does not allow us to talk about the full realization of its social potential. The radical reform of the economic sphere without due consideration of socio-psychological, cultural, ideological and other subjective factors has created prerequisites for social tension. The change of ideology and value system entails the absence of clear legal and moral criteria for social behavior. There is a process of revaluation of values - people's value perceptions are changing; new life orientations are being formed. Many researchers who study the value orientations of students talk about this (Vishnevsky, 2006; Karpukhin, 2000; Semenov, 2007; Sokolov, Shcherbakova, 2003).

The disillusionment of young people with the social demand forms a stable stereotype in the minds about the inability of the state to provide them with social support (Avramova, 2006; Karpukhin, 2000).

All this together slows down the process of socialization of the young generation, manifested, in particular, in the devaluation of value orientations, the growth of deviant behavior: "The social consequences of transformational processes taking place in our society for the youth environment are diverse. These are difficulties of socialization, low starting opportunities for entering market relations, problems of adaptation to the increased polarization of the social structure. They lead to a decrease in the quality of health of students, deterioration of their social well-being, and an increase in deviations" (Ragimova, 2007).

The rapid pace of economic changes, with the lag of the process of transformation of economic consciousness and the formation of adequate models of economic behavior, identified the problem of adaptation of students to new economic conditions, which quickly turned into the category of acute social. Young people are independently looking for ways out of this situation. In Russian society, there is a steady trend of spontaneous self-adaptation of young people to modern realities (Karpukhin, 2000).

Thus, the relevance of these problems is firstly, the need for a deep theoretical and empirical understanding of the current state of youth as a special socio-demographic group that has a serious impact on social development; secondly, the social demand for comprehensive knowledge about the level of problematic life of students.

Hypotheses of the research

1. Higher soft skill levels are positively associated with positivity and optimistic future expectations
2. Higher positivity is positively associated with positive future expectations
3. Across cultural background and gender, participants differ in their way to perceive future

These hypotheses were inspired by studies of authors mentioned below. Based on their reasoning about the importance of positivity, self-esteem among young people, we decided to assume and test the association of a high level of Soft Skills, positivity and gender difference on optimistic or high expectations for the future and its perception.

In adolescence, thinking becomes more systematic and critical. High school students demand evidence and substantiation of the statements they hear from teachers surrounding their loved ones. They like to argue, often get carried away with witty expressions, beautiful phrases, an original form of expression. There is a great emotional susceptibility to a number of phenomena of reality, many actions and deeds of people who passed by, for example, a junior schoolboy, begin to cause a distinct emotional response.

At this age, young people acquire the ability to draw conclusions based on the development of operational thinking, to put forward hypotheses and assumptions that are based not only on the observed states and properties of objects, but also on their possible, assumed states and properties. This ability is manifested not only in solving purely intellectual or educational tasks, but also in social relations, interpersonal relationships.

Young men and girls begin to question the values of their parents, compare them with other, less conservative or better understanding parents of their children, accuse them of hypocrisy – the inconsistency of their behavior with the principles proclaimed. The young man constantly compares the real with the possible and often finds that it is far from the desired. The latter is often characteristic of adolescents, but high school students can build their conclusions on this subject already at a much higher intellectual level, come to broader and deeper generalizations.

Boys and girls are concerned about many serious issues: how to find your place in life, choose a business according to your capabilities and abilities, what is the meaning of life, how to become a real person and much more. It is no coincidence that and many other researchers of this age associate the transition from adolescence to early adolescence with a sharp change in the internal position, which consists in the fact that striving for the future becomes the main focus of the individual, and the problem of choosing a profession, further life path moves into the center of attention, interests and plans.

The formation of a stable self-consciousness and a stable image of the self is the central psychological neoplasm of adolescence.

A system of ideas about oneself is being formed, which, regardless of whether it is true or not, is a psychological reality that affects behavior, generates certain experiences. The time factor enters into self-consciousness (the young man begins to live in the future). All this is connected with the strengthening of personal control, self-management, with a new stage of intelligence development, with the discovery of one's inner world.

I. S. Kon emphasizes that the discovery of one's inner world, its emancipation from adults is the main acquisition of youth. The outside world begins to be perceived through itself. There is a tendency to introspection and a need to systematize, generalize their knowledge about themselves (to understand their character, feelings, actions) (Kon, 1989).

The formation of positive thinking is important for the development of personality in adolescence.

As O. A. Sychev notes, summarizing the data available in the literature, optimistic thinking has multiple effects on effective personal functioning and mental health of students: 1) on a sense of competence and, through it, on internal motivation; 2) on setting goals and perseverance in achieving them: a person who believes in the possibility of achieving success and the importance of making efforts to achieve a successful result in activity will not be afraid to take on difficult tasks, show perseverance, efficiency and willingness to finish the job started until the end; 3) promotes adaptive reactions to difficult life situations and stress: constructive interpretation of failures promotes adaptive behavioral and emotional reactions to failures, the use of problem-focused strategies to overcome them (Sychev, 2008).

J. Peterson, who monitored the health status of 150 students over the course of a year, showed that compared with students who had an optimistic style of explanation, students with a pessimistic explanatory style were twice as likely to have infectious diseases and twice as likely to see doctors. A number of other studies have shown that people with a pessimistic style of explanation have weaker immunity, are more likely to complain about their well-being, they have higher systolic and diastolic pressure, which serves as an important indicator when assessing health (Gordeeva, 2009).

Successes and failures, Z. V. Kuzmina believes, can act as factors leading to a change in self-esteem, as a "constant status", "self-conception" of a person who is a relatively stable education." Frequent failures undermine the student's self-confidence, reduce self-esteem and lead to the formation of an internal stable and uncontrollable causal scheme. This can be avoided if the teacher ensures his student's success in teaching (Pantileev, 1991).

Students who experience constant failures develop low self-esteem over time, the expectation of failure. They begin to think that their results are obtained regardless of what they do. All the reasons seem to them uncontrollable, stable, and they see themselves doomed to failure. As you know, M. Seligman called this condition learned helplessness. Therefore, a necessary condition for the development of favorable self-esteem is the creation of conditions that ensure the success of students in learning (Sidorov, 2006). Some notes that a loser will always remain a

loser if the teachers working with him remind him of the past in one way or another, and that the child will never succeed if the previously hung label of a loser is not removed from him. Valuable information extracted from the past is only that which concerns the student's success.

Researchers assign an important role in the formation of self-esteem and positive thinking to factors such as assessment and monitoring of student performance. In particular, some notes that, adequately reflecting the level of educational activity of the child, teachers at the same time have a negative impact on the formation of personality, educating children with a sense of their own inferiority. It turned out that students from the group where academic performance was the focus of attention rated their knowledge and prospects lower than students from the group where teachers did not focus on the control of academic performance (Sidorov, 2007).

Thus, the style of thinking in school years determines the attitude to the events taking place in a person's life and forms his individual lifestyle.

The Research objectives

1. Cultural adaptation and validation of the questionnaire on students' future expectations to the Russian educational context
2. Cultural adaptation and validation of the soft skill self-evaluation questionnaire (3SQ) to the Russian educational context
3. Cultural adaptation and validation of the positivity scale (P-scale) to the Russian educational context
4. Investigate how higher soft skill levels are positively associated with positivity and optimistic future expectations
5. Investigate how higher positivity is positively associated with positive future expectations
6. Investigate how across cultural background and gender, participants differ in their way to perceive future
7. Make conclusions about future perspectives of research in Russia to study image of future, soft-skills self-evaluation and positivity association

The Research instruments

1. The “Questionario Visione giovani” (*Lucisano & du Méric, 2019*)
2. The “Questionario sul futuro” (*Lucisano & du Méric, 2019*)
3. The “Soft Skill Self-evaluation Questionnaire” – 3SQ (*Lucisano & du Méric, 2019*)
4. The “Positivity scale” – P-Scale (*Caprara, Alessandri & Eisenberg, 2012*)

Methods of research

The study is designed in two stages, preliminary and main study

Preliminary study:

1. Translation of the 3SQ, Future expectations questionnaire and P-scale
2. Cross language validation and psychometrics of the instruments. Standard back translation method was employed. The translation process was accomplished in 6 steps: 1 (*translation*); 2 (*committee approach*); 3 (*1st tryout*); 4 (*back translation*); 5 (*committee approach*); and 6 (*2d tryout*)

Main study:

It will be performed on a sample of 339 upper-secondary students. It is expected to present internal consistency and reliability of Russian version of the instruments; to test the hypotheses.

Stages of research

Stage 1 (March-August 2020)

1. literature review
2. choice of measurement method
3. translation and adaptation of the instruments
4. tryout of the adapted instruments on a sample, psychometric analysis of the data and possible improvement of the instruments Lyceum “1”, Berezniki, Perm region, 70-100 students (sample was revised) (April-August 2020)

Stage 2 (September 2020- February 2022)

1. testing in schools (339 students)
2. data analyses

Stage 3 (March 2022- October 2022)

1. data analyses and hypotheses testing
2. conclusions

Chapter 1. Theoretical framework

Interest in the future is one of the constants of human thinking and, in fact, is a way of thinking about the possible consequences of decisions made, allowing considering and evaluating various options for achieving the goal. At the individual level, future orientation is expressed in personal development projects, immediate and distant life plans. At the collective level, projectivity manifests itself in long-term plans in the political and economic fields. In science, a person's interest in the personal and social future is expressed in the predictive aspects present in most theories, and the allocation of forecasting to an independent scientific field. Unfortunately, we have to admit that complex forecasting is not always effective enough, and the more distant the forecast horizon, the lower the correlation between the present and the future, and, accordingly, the lower the feasibility of forecasts. Not least for this reason, at the end of the 20th century, such a scientific field as future research began to be localized. In contrast to futurology, which specializes in building various types of forecasts: short-term or long-term, complex or dedicated to individual areas and spheres of society, future research focuses on the present and what place the future occupies in it in the form of social expectations, moods, projects, fears, interest or lack thereof. One of the approaches to the study of the future is the study of images of the future as integral pictures of expected events that function in a society of a certain period. In the Russian scientific discourse, future research is a little-known area, and this study is devoted to getting acquainted with it. As an overview of the problem area, we will consider modern developments in the field of future research and the place that the image of the future occupies in these studies. The interest of modern researchers in the future is not exclusively predictive in nature, more and more often they take the position voiced by S. Mendonça and his colleagues, which involves the study of the present from the position of finding opportunities for the future in it (Mendonça, Miguel, Jari, Frank, 2004). The study of the entire diversity of the presence of the future in the present is engaged in such a scientific field as "Future studies", conceptualized in the last decades of the 20th century. I. Niiniluoto the object of study of Futures studies sees not the future as such, but the present in all the variety of manifestations of social reality. Knowledge of the present, its patterns, leading trends, weak signals is the basis for understanding the future. On the basis of these data, it is possible to outline the "contours" of the future with varying degrees of certainty, which will become the results of the study (Niiniluoto, 2001). Within the framework of future studies, there are several approaches that study the presence of the future in the present from different perspectives. Given that there are no Russian-language analogues of their key terms in the Russian scientific discourse, in the following review, when transmitting them, we focus not on the accuracy of translation, but on the presence of semantic analogues that can reflect the nuances of their differences.

1.1.1 Future Awareness Research (Future Consciousness)

Imagination and planning for the future are an actual component of the life of both an individual and society as a whole. Young people who are just entering life make plans for future studies and professions, think about when and with whom they will create a family, representatives of the current generation plan career growth or a change of occupation, building a house and summer holidays, even in old age, a person continues to imagine the life of their children and grandchildren, which will come after he is gone. All these projects and dreams about the future have a direct impact on human behavior in the present. Becoming the object of study, thinking about the future in this perspective, is designated as Futures Consciousness (awareness of the future). The concept of awareness of the future is defined by O. Sande as an active thought process that connects the future, present and past (Sande, 1972). Psychologically, the future is the background on which we build our individual or social behavior, and society determines its place in the historical perspective. The future is conceptualized and subjectively experienced in the same way as the present, and the attitude to it does not differ from the attitude to the phenomena of reality, notes Galtung (Galtung, Inayatullah, 1997). The researcher believes that the study of this relationship is useful because it helps to understand the motives that determine the actual behavior of individuals and social groups. So, in the Grimm brothers 'folk tale " Clever Elsa", the heroine and her parents weep over an imaginary situation in which the unborn son of an unmarried Elsa, when he grows up and goes down to the beer cellar, will be killed by an axe that is stuck in the ceiling beam. Such a specific awareness of the future of the "smart" Elsa leads to the fact that the groom changes his mind about marrying her, because in turn he imagines what kind of family life can expect him with this girl. Finnish researcher Anita Rubin, who analyzes the attitude to the future of student youth, focused the attention of her respondents on the question of what can and should happen in the future (Rubin, Kamppinen, Kuusi, Söderlund, 2002). These studies, in her opinion, help to understand how ideas about the future are related to the present day and how they affect the current behavior of young people. Thomas Lombardo defines future awareness as a multi-faceted psychological ability of a person that includes several psychological processes, such as perception, emotional attitude, motivation, memory, thinking, planning, intuition and imagination, self-identification and social interaction (Lombardo, 2017). The study of the awareness of the future allows us to determine the factors of the present that affect the representation of the future, and the influence of this representation itself on the processes of actual social reality. At the moment, the main attention of researchers of awareness of the future is connected with the development of a methodology that allows us to bring the research data closer to the factual ones (Ahvenharjua, Minkkinena, Lalotb, 2018).

1.1.2 Future orientation research

To study a person's interest in the future, their own or the future of society, researchers use the concept of future orientation. It is used primarily in individual and social psychology and is associated with the orientation of the time vector in the subject's consciousness to the present, past or future. Future orientation can have different degrees of intensity and different degrees of remoteness. For example, the statement - "after us at least the flood", attributed to the Marquise Pompadour, well demonstrates a minimal focus on the future, as well as the words of A. Einstein: "I never think about the future. It comes by itself soon enough." While the aphorisms of Charles Kettering – "I'm interested in the future because I'm going to spend the rest of my life there", or John Galsworthy – "if you don't think about the future, you won't have it" – can serve as an example of close attention and active attitude to the future. According to Trommsdorff, future orientation is a multidimensional cognitive-motivational system that includes the subjective duration of a time perspective, the assessment and comparison of opportunities, motivational and affective aspects (Trommsdorff, 1983). Future orientation is manifested in the tendency of people to think about the future, to discuss various lines of probability, planning, and calculations related to the future (Seginer, 2009). The study of future orientation allows us to determine the psychological roots of hope, striving for the future or fear of it, helps to identify the reasons for interest in the future or indifference to it at the level of an individual.

1.1.3 The study of anticipation

The concept, to a certain extent, combining the above mentioned is anticipation. This intentionally broad concept has been proposed as a general term for all cognitive interest in the future (Poli, 2014). Anticipation as a topic in future research is rapidly gaining momentum, and it has been the focus of recent articles, books, and scientific conferences (Poli, 2010). Some authors even called for the creation of a "science of anticipation" (Miller, Poli, Rossel, 2018). Anticipation is a phenomenon that encompasses all efforts to think and actively engage with the future, both on an individual and collective level (Miller, Poli, Rossel, 2018). Pauley believes that anticipation can be both explicit, conscious consideration of the future, and implicit, spontaneous, functioning at the level of prospect (Poli, 2010). The study of the entire variety of processes involved in anticipation allows us to see and correlate the rational and irrational components in relation to the future. As we can see, the specificity of future research is that the study of ideas about the future, orientations for the future, attitudes towards it is not aimed at obtaining knowledge about the future, on the contrary, the purpose of studying the presence of the future in the present is a new knowledge about the present, a new level of understanding of today's social reality.

1.2 Image of the future

1.2.1 Definition of the concept

The concept of "image of the future" was introduced into scientific use by Fred Polak, who in his two-volume study "The Future of History" showed how in the actual social reality there is an anticipation of the future, which usually exists in a figurative form (Polak, 1955). The Danish sociologist's concept became famous in the English translation of his work entitled "The Image of the Future, " in which the author compares the representations of the future with a reverse projection going from the future to the present, with vague memories that, in fact, turn out to be an omen of the future (Polak, 1973). The image of the future, according to Polak – is the result of the collision of our fantasies and the perception of reality; it depicts a fundamentally new world that serves as a pre-image for all other images. Polak does not localize the image of the future strictly on an individual or collective scale. The main thing for him, as well as for such authors as K. Boulding (1956), E. Bloch (1982), T. Lombardo (2015), A. Rubin (2013), is that the image of the future is represented by a holistic picture of the future, reflects not the prospects for the development of a particular sphere of public life, but the world as a whole. Lombardo means by images of the future, first of all, individual psychic phenomena, the study of which is possible at the level of individual personalities. Only then, after identifying individual ideas about the future, these authors are ready to move on to generalized pictures, to discover the moments that unite them. The difference in the approach we propose is to consider the image of the future as a manifestation of collective consciousness. Ideas about the future, in our opinion, are not formed by the individual completely independently, although they are present in the minds of individual people. The image of the future is a kind of common denominator of social expectations and attitudes to the future, in fact, what K. Castoriadis called the "social imaginary" (Castoriadis, 1981). We define the image of the future as the ideas about the future shared by society as a whole or by a large social group. In this regard, the image of the future can have both supporters, those to whom this picture of the future is presented as attractive, and opponents who have a negative attitude to this perspective. It is important that a certain vision of the future is shared by sufficiently large groups of people. An illustrative example of such a vision of the future is the image of the new social order, which was actualized in Russia at the turn of the 19th and 20th centuries. Nationalized industry, socialized land ownership, equalized distribution, universal free education and medical care, social engagement of science and art-seemed an attractive and achievable prospect to such authors as G. V. Plekhanov, V. I. Lenin, V. P. Vorontsov, L. D. Trotsky, Y. Novomirsky. This same image of the future was negatively perceived and caused fierce criticism from A.V. Peshekhonov, L. N. Tolstoy, L. Chernov, A. A. Borovoy, M. I. Tugan-Baranovsky, P. B. Struve, S. L. Frank, B. A. Kistyakovsky, M. O. Gershenson, S. N. Bulgakov. However, both recognized such a future as possible for Russia. One of the key features of the

image of the future is recognizability, evidence, and accessibility to perception. From this point of view, the image of the future contains the components of the collective unconscious, transmits hidden fears and hopes, desires and dreams, fears and forebodings (Lombardo, 2017). The image of the future as a phenomenon of public consciousness includes elements of different types: rational, emotional, volitional and intuitive. Its functioning can be represented both in the form of texts, and in the form of visual and musical images. The image of the future reflects our attitude to the future, including forecasts, calculations, projects, and descriptions as its elements (Kaboli, Tapio, 2018). As a complete and relatively complete picture, the image of the future combines ideas about the future of the social, political, economic, and cultural spheres of society. The image of the future reflects people's ideas about the possible forms of development of the society in which they live, captures the contours of the probable states of society. That is why the image of the future, functioning in a particular society, is rarely a single one. The images of the future are multiple; they contain expectations related to the continuation of various current trends in the life of society, which often give rise to mutually exclusive pictures and contradictory answers to the question – what can be expected from tomorrow (Rubin, 2013). For example, Seideh Akhbar Kaboli and Petri Tapio, as a result of a study of the ideas about the future of Finnish students, identified four generalized scenarios related to the future. The first is an unambiguously negative image of a future in which technological and scientific progress has spawned catastrophic wars, violence, rising crime, and irreversible climate change. The labor market is filled with competition and requires participants to work hard. The second image combines fear and hope – although the environmental situation is close to collapse and there are wars over resources in some parts of the world, in general, the combined efforts of the world community and the use of rapidly developing technologies allow us to hope for a normalization of the situation. The third image of the future also occupies an intermediate place between positive and negative. It shows a fundamental difference between developed and undeveloped countries, caused primarily by the success in the use of high-tech technologies. Here, the solution of climate and social problems is carried out by civil society institutions and volunteers. The fourth version of the vision of the future is clearly positive – full control over environmental changes leads to a slow but steady improvement in this area, and harmony between man and nature is established. National and international conflicts have been resolved, and the principles of social equality have been implemented. The development of science and technology has a positive impact on the standard of living of almost all citizens of the world (Kaboli, Tapio, 2018). All these four images are present in the minds of Finnish youth and reflect different types of social expectations. The image of the future can also be understood as one of the forms of self-consciousness, self-determination of society. Its formation takes place in close connection with people's assessment of their present. The analysis of the images of the future created in the societies of the past shows that there is a fairly well-traced relationship between how people see the future and how they evaluate the present (Polak, 1973). Very often, ideas about the

future are formed by extrapolating into the future those trends that are observed in the present and are estimated as dominant (Kaboli, Tapio, 2018). However, it is wrong to completely identify the image of the future with all sorts of scientific forecasts: historical, economic, and political. Despite the fact that the image of the future is associated with the current state of society, it, unlike a scientific forecast, includes not only a scientific calculation and a rational assessment of opportunities and prospects. A significant influence on the formation of the image of the future has a subjective "acceptance" or "rejection" of real trends and, accordingly, their inclusion or non-inclusion in those parameters of society that are worthy of continuation (Simandan, 2018). At the same time, the image of the future is not identical to the project or long-term plan, since the individual volitional moment in it is minimized (Innes, David, 2015). Thus, we can define the image of the future as collective representations that exist in a particular society, forming a complete and complete or relatively complete and complete picture of the future of this society. This picture includes representations of economic, political, social, and cultural perspectives.

1.2.2 Methods for studying the image of the future

Many authors working in the field of future research recognize the lack of a generally accepted methodology for conducting empirical research or working with factual material. To overcome this situation, Sanna Ahvenharjua and co-authors are working on adapting the methods of sociological survey in the form of a questionnaire to identify future perceptions in certain focus groups (Ahvenharjua, Minkkinena, Lalotb, 2018). And the Finnish researchers we have already mentioned, studying the ideas about the future of modern young people, use the techniques of Causal Layered Analysis, based on conducting in-depth interviews for many hours with subsequent analysis of the results, including the analysis of the dictionary of the description of the future, the value and worldview attitudes of respondents, their ethnic and social affiliation, the study of the spheres of society that attract the attention of the respondent, as well as the analysis of metaphors and images used in describing the future (Ahvenharjua, Minkkinena, Lalotb, 2018). The existing methodological developments in the study of ideas about the future are mainly aimed at identifying individual pictures of the future with their subsequent generalization. Since in future research we are primarily interested in a general, rather than a particular, vision of the future, we consider it advisable not to limit ourselves to the methods of sociological surveys and interviews, but rather to use techniques close to content analysis. The images of the future that are in the sphere of our attention are located mainly in the public space, so their analysis through the body of a wide variety of texts is quite effective. As we have already noted, the image of the future is a phenomenon of social or collective consciousness, respectively, in reality we as researchers are faced not with the image of the future itself, but with its specific manifestations. The purpose of such research is to form a generalized picture of the future, which is common to a certain culture of a certain time. There is no single group of texts suitable for

reconstructing images of the future of any time. The selection of research material requires a good familiarity with the general cultural context of the studied society and preliminary acquaintance with a large number of texts that are potentially interesting from the point of view of representing the pictures of the future. Only after that, it is possible to select the works to be analyzed. For example, for Russia at the beginning of the 19th century, the most representative from the point of view of the future are texts written by representatives of the upper class: various religious and philosophical works, speculative projects for the transformation of the social and state structure, and works of art. In the middle of the 19th century, journalism, epistolary heritage, and government programs were added to them and by the end of the century, the most interesting carriers of images of the future were scientific forecasts, political projects, and party and government programs. Since the beginning of the 20th century, the researcher has at his disposal such important additions as visual sources: postcards, posters, cinema and animation, advertising and fashion, and for modern culture also network games, groups in social networks, sociological surveys. In separate groups of sources – literary works, political programs, or philosophical works-the main parameters in the vision of the future are identified and combined according to the principle of similarity. A leading trend in the representation of tomorrow within a certain group of sources is revealed. For example, in the process of studying the images of the future of modern Russia, we have identified several literary works whose authors create descriptions of the distant or not-so-distant future. These include novels and collections of short stories by T. Tolstoy "Kys" (2000), B. Akunin "Tales for Idiots" (2000), V. Sorokin "Blue Fat" (1999)," Day of the Oprichnik "(2006)," Sugar Kremlin "(2008)," Telluria " (2013). These literary images of the future of Russia are quite pessimistic, their authors transfer elements of the past, archaic forms of life, to the future, resulting in a phantasmagoric picture of a future society in which public floggings strengthen the veneration of power, genetic engineers create human-animals for elite customers, a universal portable computer advises where it is better to tear shoes, household items become viviparous, and machines work on potatoes. In general, the Russia of the future is developing along its own "special" path – the church and the army is part of the system of state administration, officials are guided by the right of the strong, there is a rigid hierarchy in the social structure, there are no social guarantees, science and art perform leisure functions for the elite. It is important that these features are present not in one, but in all of these works. There is a thematic grouping of ideas about the future that are present in different groups of sources. There are similar pictures that reflect the future of the economy, politics, social relations, and culture. Continuing to consider the image of the future of modern Russia, we can see that the trend of building the future political system in the "retro-national style", noted by writers, can be traced in other types of sources. Russian development projects, such as the Constitutional Project created with the support of the Institute for National Strategy (2005) and the Russian Doctrine of the Russian Entrepreneur Foundation under the auspices of the Center for Dynamic Conservatism (2008),

offer the "ideal of spiritual sovereignty and social truth", combining autocratic and aristocratic principles, as an alternative to the Western democratic principle of the organization of power. Opinion polls conducted by the Institute of Sociology of the Russian Academy of Sciences (2012-2013), the Department of Sociology and Political Psychology of the Faculty of Political Science of Moscow State University (2016-2017), and the Levada Center (2016-2018) also note the positive attitude of Russians to the strengthening of the central government and the willingness to sacrifice civil liberties in favor of stability. Finally, analysis is replaced by synthesis, and we combine all the common features into one or more images of the future that are characteristic of the culture under study. In the case of the image of the future of modern Russia, its main features, which are present in such sources as scientific forecasts, government programs and strategic development projects, non-governmental projects, sociological surveys and literary works, are the paternalism of power, the absence of traditional civil society institutions, the strengthening of the central government with a partial rejection of the principle of separation of powers, significant social differentiation, with a simultaneous decline in state participation in the social sphere, the influence of the Church and the Army, both in politics and in the social sphere.

1.2.3 What gives the image of the future for the study of the present

The study of the image of the future, as well as the concepts of "awareness of the future", and "anticipation", allows you to determine the vision of a particular society of its place on the timeline. This perspective of study allows us to understand whether today is perceived as a continuation of the past, as a justification of its hopes, or as a social reality, thought of as a fundamentally new state in relation to the past, a state rooted not in the past, but in the future; whether the actual social being is evaluated as looking to the future, and how much this imaginable future is desirable. The image of the future helps to discover the temporal orientation of society, its time horizons. The selection and study of images of the future reveals the relationship to the actual social reality of society as a whole or its individual social groups and strata. The nature and number of diverse images of the future are indicative of understanding how much contemporaries justify their way of life, recognize it as correct, and wish it to continue or change. For example, let's look at the images of the future that function simultaneously in the past. The maximum number of them was present in the public consciousness of Russia at the beginning of the 20th century. The most common expectations were associated with the advent of a new social order, represented in the form of a communist, anarchist or monarchist model. The second direction of the ideas was the change of the person himself, his moral and religious guidelines. Here three more images of the future were formed: the image of the "common cause", the future of non-resistance to evil, and a new religious consciousness. Two images of the future functioned independently; this is the image of the triumph of science and the conquest of space. Along with these, there were social expectations that reflected uncertainty about the future, resulting in two images of approaching

chaos. From this multivariate vision of the future, it follows that the social reality of the early 20th century was assessed as containing a powerful development potential, internal opportunities for change, and trends worthy of continuation were highlighted in it. The image of the future provides visual representations of the goal of social development, social ideals and values. Moreover, these representations are contained in it as if in a "double exposure". On the one hand, the study of images of the future demonstrates the perspective of the possible in relation to goals and values – specific pictures of the future are the result of the movement of society in one direction or another, towards certain goals. On the other hand, due, - pictures of the possible future are evaluated in terms of how the expected state of society is correct, normal, dangerous. It is this perspective that determines the fear of the future or the hope for it. The consideration of images of the future in such extreme forms as utopias or eschatologies helps to determine the self-esteem of society and its members. The already mentioned image of the coming chaos, which is present in the pictures of the future of Russia at the beginning of the 20th century, is indicative in this respect. The sense of loss of a stable social condition has been growing since the last decade of the 19th century. But along with the fear of the coming disorder, there was also the hope of the changes it would bring. The terrifying image of approaching chaos included archetypal images of religious eschatology – the end of the world, the arrival of the Antichrist, the world war, the destruction of humanity and the entire earth. Internal social unrest and external wars also inspired fear. At the same time, chaos was perceived as a transitional state and a path to social and spiritual renewal. From this example, it can be seen that even expectations of negative events can contain a positive emotional attitude, in which the loss of stability is assessed as a necessary stage of renewal. As we can see, the study of the image of the future allows you to work not only with the ideas of the future of the researcher's contemporaries, but also with how the future was seen by people of past eras. The analysis of the nature of the images of the future that coexist in time, the change of a particular image over time, the appearance of new ones and the disappearance of old ones from the field of collective consciousness, allows us to identify changes in the mindset of society, the transformation of its ideological attitudes. The study of social expectations through the prism of images of the future can reveal times of temporal uncertainty and the self-perception of an individual during these periods. Just as the images of the future functioning in modern culture reveal to us its temporal self-determination, acceptance or non-acceptance, vision of the goal and values, the images of the future of past epochs will allow us to understand the value systems of their representatives, goals, and to re-evaluate the motives of activity.

1.2.4 The place of the image of the future in understanding the future

However, we believe that the study of images of the future can not only have a cognitive interest, addressed to the present and the past, but also perform a predictive function. As a hypothesis, we can assume that there is a connection

between how the future is seen and what it becomes in reality. As noted in the second section of this article, how we imagine the future has a very direct impact on our actions, which in turn determine the priorities in the feasibility of certain lines of probability. The multiplicity of possibilities that distinguishes the future does not mean that they are equally probable; the representation of pictures of a possible future can act as the very "disposition" that R. Poli wrote about (Poli, 2014). If we want to understand the relationship between the ideas of the future and the future itself, we should be interested not so much in the images of the future of our time, but in the images of the future that took place in the past. A retrospective view will provide the researcher with the position of an "outsider", for whom both what the future looked like in a certain period, and what society actually became in the expected time, refers to the past. This approach allows us to compare social expectations and social reality, to determine the degree of their coincidence or discrepancy, to see some other possible relationships. By tracing, if possible, the functional relationship between representations and reality, we can use the concept of "image of the future" as one of the ways of forecasting. Even now, we can point out the relationship between the number of images of the future and the stability of the immediate historical perspective of the society in which they function. Comparing the number of images of the future functioning at the turn of the century with the beginning of the 19th century, in which we find a single, conservative image of the future, we see an inverse relationship between the number of images of the future and the degree of stability of society. The more images of the future exist simultaneously, the more diverse and complete they are, the more unstable the development of this society will be in the near future. Many images of the future indicate that contemporaries see great potential in their present, place great hopes on the future, the collapse of which can lead to the saddest consequences for society. The approaches in these concepts allow us to rethink society from the point of view of its non-universality, the uniqueness of each particular society in a certain period of existence. In contrast to other perspectives on the future, the image of the future makes it possible to reconstruct the pictures of the future that function in the past and relate them to the real future for this period. That is why the study of the image of the future not only allows us to assess the inclusion of society in the time perspective, its attitude to the present, the degree of satisfaction with reality, to concretize ideas about the purpose of social development and the values of the society in which it exists, but also can have a predictive potential. The study of the images of the future functioning in the past can help to understand the relationship between the ideas of the future and the future itself, and if this relationship is established, it can be extrapolated to the images of the future of our present and our future.

1.3 Relationship between image of future and Soft Skills

Courses and trainings, the result of which is a confident mastery of both unified and unique skills, contribute to the development of certain reflex actions in each specific situation in everyday life. But, unlike professional skills, unified skills

require consistent development and simulation of such situations that force a person to make independent decisions. Otherwise, the training may simply be ineffective.

On the other hand, to confirm the possession of this category of skills, it is impossible to simply "complete the task"; "pass the exam" is impossible here. Situations cannot repeat themselves, and there are no forecasting tools that would allow us to assume what exactly might confuse the next time.

Here is a good example: when a person goes to a deliberately difficult conversation, he tries to build a dialogue that will allow him to quickly navigate the arguments and operate with facts. However, most likely, the dialogue will not go as he imagined. Then there are only two options for the development of events: either a person will enter a stupor and lose his position in the eyes of the interlocutor, or he will find an opportunity to return the conversation to the right direction. From this we can draw an interesting conclusion that the effective use of unified skills is a much more difficult task than the professional possession of hard skills.

At the same time, it is important to understand that the criteria for separating soft skills from any other skills are blurred, but this is more a consequence of their popularity and use in different fields. For example, for most people, the ability to type quickly on a computer is a super-professional skill (another name for unified skills), but for stenographers or writers it is rather a hard skill.

Is typing fast a flexible skill? Yes, because it can be used in many fields, and in general it will be useful for programmers, managers, editors, secretaries, students, researchers, etc.

That is, if you are a professional stenographer, you already have certain abilities that, other things being equal, professional skills will make you more effective in different professions than other people who do not know how to type quickly. In other words, your soft skills, firstly, can be used in different professions, and secondly, they can be useful in these professions.

In general, there is often confusion with the fact that the word skills are translated precisely as "skills", i.e., some processes brought to automatism. But it would be more correct to use the term "abilities", because in addition to skills, there are also knowledge and skills that can also be over-professional.

As a result, if we summarize once again, we can say that soft skills are the abilities of a person that help him to be more effective when using them in various fields of activity, regardless of professional, linguistic, historical and cultural context. And now it would not be superfluous to say a few words about where these same soft skills came from.

Education today is not only a school or university, but a certain life position LLL (Life Long Learning or lifelong learning). You always need to learn, otherwise knowledge and skills become obsolete. And soft skills play a very important role in this self-learning. Firstly, they help to learn better, and secondly, it is these skills that are least susceptible to aging, i.e., it is an asset for a long time.

We long believed and still believe that a person masters soft skills through gaining life experience and mastering basic subjects. But domestic pedagogy even now lags significantly behind both global trends and the real needs of the population. But still, do not exaggerate the role of soft skills, because it is not so much what you own, but how you apply it. Some flexible skills without specific professional knowledge will not help much. So, it is important to understand whether they help you in your career growth, whether you feel in your place in life, whether you like your work and whether you are satisfied with success in your personal life – this is the most important thing, and that is why you need to develop any skills.

1.4 Soft Skills

Socio-economic and political changes taking place in the modern world impose new requirements on the quality of training of students. Today, graduates who are ready to adapt in a dynamic society, capable of constant self-development and self-education, which are able to quickly switch from one type of activity to another and combine various labor functions are especially in demand. Such a complex is largely determined by both the knowledge gained and the qualities necessary in work, for which it is currently customary to use the concept of "competence".

It should be noted that today the terms "skill" and "competence" are increasingly used as synonyms. In modern theory and practice, competence means those abilities, knowledge, skills and abilities of a specialist, thanks to which he solves any tasks or achieves the desired results. Thus, competence is a set of formed skills.

Among the competencies, a special place is given to soft skills, the concept of which has become an integral part of the global labor market in various fields over the past few decades. For the first time, the use of the concept of "soft skills" was recorded in the USA in 1959, when American scientists began to study the competencies of the military and found out that their skills are divided into 2 types: professional skills (hard skills) and personal qualities (soft skills). However, the terms have taken root outside the military circle.

Today soft skills represent a set of skills or competencies that could be designated as meta-subject or common to various types of activities, and include some of the main features of cognitive and intellectual activity in general, emotional intelligence, managing one's own activities and productive interaction with other people (Gizatullina, Shatunova, 2019).

In many contexts, "soft skills" are equated or used as full synonyms of such concepts as "employability skills" (skills for employment), "people skills" (skills to communicate with people), "non-professional skills" (non-professional skills), in the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) – "key skills" (basic skills), and more recently – "skills for social progress" (skills for social development), also these skills are described in OECD documents as "21st century skills". In the International Health Organization, the concept of "soft skills" is equated with the concept of "life skills", or skills that are necessary in everyday

life. Thus, different approaches to the interpretation of the concept under consideration are highlighted, which are caused by different approaches of various research centers and groups (Raitskaya, Tikhonova, 2018).

"Soft skills" are skills whose possession does not belong to a professional group. In the Cambridge Dictionary, the concept of "soft skills" is considered as personal qualities of a person that allow you to interact with other people more effectively and harmoniously, for example, to carry out productive communicative activities. But even this capacious representation is rather indistinct.

According to some scientists, flexible skills (soft skills) is a term that is used to describe a person's EQ (EQ – coefficient of emotional intelligence), which is understood as a set of personal traits, social qualities, communication skills, language, personal habits, friendliness and optimism, which are the main characteristics of a person when interacting with others people.

Other researchers define soft skills as something abstract, difficult to describe and evaluate, "far" from real, traditional classifications of human abilities (Berkovich, Kofanova, Tikhonova, 2018).

Thus, today there is no universal definition of the concept of "soft skills". Each researcher considers this concept through the prism of his perception and the sphere of scientific interests. As already noted, in the theoretical developments of domestic and foreign researchers of this topic, the following synonyms of the concept of "soft skills" can be found: "people skills", "non-professional skills", "skills for social progress", "life skills", also "soft competencies", "soft skills" or "flexible skills". To concretize and more accurately describe the highlighted concept, we would like to give several modern definitions.

O. Sosnitskaya, E. Gaiduchenko and A. Marusheva, as well as D. Tataurshchikova in their research believe that soft skills are only communicative and administrative abilities that increase the efficiency of work and interaction with other people (Sosnitskaya, Gaiduchenko, Marusheva, Tataurshchikova, electronic sources). These skills include: personal development management, the ability to provide assistance and support, the ability to competently manage your time, the ability to convince, negotiation skills, the art of proving, refuting, leading, leading, etc. In general, those qualities and skills that would be allowed to be called universal are distinguished, and not those that are inherent in people of a particular specialty.

V. Davidova in her article considers flexible skills as the skills of an individual, which are formed through additional education and their own life experience and are used for further formation in professional activity. Due to this, these skills are so valued when hiring and in further work (Davidova, electronic source.).

Summarizing and systematizing scientific and practical works O.L. Chulanova defines the general concept of "soft skills": she considers flexible skills as a social and labor characteristic of the totality of knowledge, skills, skills and motivational characteristics of an employee in the field of interaction between people (Chulanova, Ivonina, 2017)

Thus, soft skills are those skills and competencies that are necessary for a student to communicate, interact not only in educational and professional activities, but

also in everyday life. As part of our research, we will operate with the concepts of "soft skills" and "flexible skills".

However, the question of specific skills remains open. Turning to world research, we found out that there is no single list of "soft skills". Each research group offers its own classification. For example, according to S. Mamayeva, flexible skills are aimed at developing skills that are divided into four areas: decision-making, leadership, negotiation, and management. Thus, she considers soft skills mainly as communication and management skills (Mamayeva, electronic source).

Various approaches to the classification of flexible skills are presented in foreign sources. All classifications are based in one way or another on six main (basic) groups (Berkovich, Kofanova, Tikhonova, 2018):

- 1) Basic (fundamental, academic) skills (literacy, numeracy);
- 2) Communication skills (communication, interpersonal relationships, teamwork, customer service skills);
- 3) Conceptual (thinking skills) (information collection and processing, problem solving, planning and organization, the ability to learn and develop skills, creative and systems thinking);
- 4) Personal skills (responsibility, resourcefulness, flexibility, ability to manage your time, self-esteem);
- 5) Skills related to the business world (innovative skills, initiative);
- 6) Social and civic skills (knowledge and skills in the field of civil law).

Researchers at the Max Planck Institute in Munich identify the following types of flexible skills that are most important in modern society:

- 1) Personal dynamics: a sense of responsibility, striving for achievements, self-confidence, high motivation;
- 2) The field of interpersonal relations: contact, objective self-esteem, empathy and empathy for other people;
- 3) Striving for success: dedication, motivation to maintain status, tendency to systematize, initiative;
- 4) Endurance: resistance to criticism, resistance to failures, positive emotional attitude, firmness of life position, job satisfaction.

However, the most complete list and categories were formed during the World Economic Forum international research in the Future of Jobs report. The study involved global employers-drivers of various industries, and 35 flexible skills were identified. At the same time, all flexible skills were divided into 3 key groups: abilities, basic skills, and cross-functional skills.

Thus, foreign sources present a sufficient number of different approaches to the classification of soft skills, which somehow have similar formulations. However, in 2016, at the World Economic Forum in Davos (Switzerland), the basic, generally accepted flexible skills necessary for a person in the XXI century for successful professional activity and everyday life were formulated (Gizatullina, Shatunova, 2019). So, these skills included: complex multi-level problem solving; critical thinking; creativity; people management; cooperation with others;

emotional intelligence; judgment and decision-making; customer orientation; ability to negotiate; cognitive flexibility; effective job search; self-management.

Thus, the importance of soft skills is emphasized by modern scientists in their theoretical and practical research. Thus, the experts of the World Economic Forum made a forecast in which they identified ten core competencies, the formation and development of which in 2020 will be necessary for every individual who wants to be in demand in the labor market.

According to the forecast, the first place in importance among all skills is the ability to solve complex problems. The second place is occupied by critical thinking, and the third is creativity. The above-mentioned competencies are followed by people management competence, coordination and interaction skills, emotional intelligence, judgment and decision-making, customer orientation, negotiation skills and cognitive flexibility.

It is worth noting that today more and more attention is being paid to the development of soft skills, i.e., "super-professional" skills, and not hard skills, which are necessary for a representative of a particular profession. First of all, this is due to the relationship between these professional competencies, which is not obvious. Thus, according to the results of a study conducted at Harvard University, the contribution of hard skills to the professional success of an employee is only 15%, while soft skills determine the remaining 85%. The results of another study conducted by the Stanford Institute in collaboration with the Carnegie Mellon Foundation showed that the long-term and stable success of employees is 75% determined by developed soft skills and only 25% by hard skills.

Also, based on surveys conducted in 16 European countries, it was concluded that 93% of employers focus their attention when hiring employees equally on whether they have hard skills and soft skills. Thus, the importance of both skill groups is equated. The leading international company Boston Group, which specializes in management consulting determined that communication skills are most in demand. According to 79% of respondents, communication skills are the most important quality of an applicant, which is necessary for everyone. Communication skills include the ability to conduct a conversation, argue your position, build a counterargument, ask the right questions, e.t.c (Berkovich, Kofanova, Tikhonova, 2018).

The current trend aimed at the formation and development of flexible skills is primarily related to the core value of post-industrial society, which is no longer interested in the material product of production, but information. If working skills become irrelevant over time or require stable improvement, then soft skills will be useful and needed constantly. At the moment, the recognition of a person largely depends on his communicative abilities (Patlina, Popova, 2017).

Thus, today soft skills are considered as a set of super-professional skills and personality qualities that determine its success and relevance both in life and in school or work. According to various studies and surveys, flexible skills occupy an important place in the development and formation of personality. Based on the analysis of the literature, it was revealed that soft skills include: 1) social and

communicative skills; 2) cognitive skills; 3) emotional intelligence of the individual.

1.5 Relationship between Soft Skills and Positivity

When learning, we usually first of all pay attention to cognitive skills — logical thinking, the ability to memorize and assimilate information. All this is more or less effectively measured by the usual exams and IQ tests. But such personal characteristics of a student as purposefulness, high self-esteem, sociability, perseverance and the ability to plan can be no less, and even more important.

The problem is that personal qualities are more difficult to measure and demonstrate, while the content of educational programs is largely determined by the method of evaluation.

High literacy and the ability to work with information is, of course, important. It is difficult to succeed both in educational institutions and in the labor market without these qualities.

But when it comes to health, a sense of well-being and social solidarity, the elusive soft skills are much more important.

Much suggests that education can be an effective way to solve such important social problems as poor health care, high crime rates, lack of social ties and class stratification.

People with a high level of education trust others more, are more interested in politics and take responsibility for their actions more easily. They lead a healthier lifestyle and live longer (on average 4 years among men, 8 years among women). And, probably, not only because they are better able to solve puzzles or know the second law of thermodynamics.

But it is still difficult to determine unambiguously how education affects non-cognitive skills. There is no agreement among scientists and practitioners of education on what place soft skills should occupy in school and post-school education.

It is necessary to change the place that is given to personal qualities in school education. But we do not think that these indicators can be used to evaluate students, teachers or schools.

Methods of measuring non-academic skills are still covered in a thick fog. In some countries, questionnaires are used in which students themselves must assess how hardworking, diligent and prepared they are for work.

But this is all, of course, too subjective. In addition, cultural differences can greatly distort the results.

Despite all these difficulties, we clearly need to change our attitude to emotions, values and communication in education — to recognize their great importance both for the personal development of students and for society as a whole. To do this, you do not need to rebuild the entire education system — you just need to shift the emphasis.

Other training formats, such as project work, can contribute to the development of important personal qualities. In the USA and European countries, this has long been taken for granted.

Society and the educational system mutually influence each other. Education can gradually change society as a whole: small changes trigger a positive feedback process that is already difficult to stop.

If we allow more interaction between students, more personal responsibility and freedom, the long-term consequences may be greater than we think.

1.6. Positivity

In the middle of the nineteenth century, a scientific movement called "positivism" (or "positive philosophy") arose, it was deeply materialistic and set itself the task of combating "metaphysics." It denied the value of the empirical (philosophical) scientific method, leaving the right to life only to experimental research. The founder of positivism, Auguste Comte, considered the distinctive features of positive philosophy to be objectivity, reality, accuracy, usefulness. (Comte, 1856). It had nothing to do with positive thinking in the modern sense of the word. Only in the middle of the twentieth century, for the first time in the history of mankind, the phenomenon of happiness begins to be studied within the framework of scientific research.

However, the foundations of positive thinking began to be laid already in the process of transition from feudalism to capitalism. The argument about the development of cooperation through trust is given in the book "The Wisdom of Crowds" by American researcher James Surowiecki, where it is argued that in the long term, capitalism was able to organize itself around a core of Quakers who always worked honestly with their partners (instead of deceiving and breaking promises - a phenomenon that stopped earlier long-term voluntary international contacts) (Surowiecki, 2004). It is argued that transactions with reliable merchants allowed the culture of honest behavior (cooperation) to spread among other merchants, who spread it further until it became profitable to be honest at all. Remember the history of Russian merchants. Our merchants had a cult of the merchant's word, the violation of which was tantamount to dishonor. Capitalism in Russia developed in the same ways as in the USA. The new social system, higher in comparison with feudalism, could not be established without a new higher system of thinking and behavior.

At the beginning of the 19th century, a movement called "New Thought" was formed in the USA. It is of a religious nature, but professes the principles of an actively positive attitude to life. It is also called the "Mind-curing Movement". The followers of this movement adhered to optimistic views on life in both philosophical and everyday matters. By the end of the 19th century, a lot of self-help books were published as part of this movement. These books give tips on how to get rich, how to achieve happiness in your personal life, etc. These books were very popular and sold out in unprecedented volumes for religious literature. The most famous authors of such books were Wallace Wattles, Frank Channing Haddock and Thomas Troward.

Since the beginning of the 20th century, philosophers and psychologists have been paying more and more attention to the issues of ways to achieve success. Humanistic psychology is developing, the most prominent representatives of which are Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers. Surely everyone has heard about Maslow's pyramid, but this is not the most important of his discoveries in the field of psychology. He was one of the first to explore the psyche of healthy, not sick people, he tried to prove that people do not just blindly react to external stimuli, but try to achieve something more (Maslow, 1943).

Humanistic psychologists believe that everyone strives to realize their potential, to achieve "self-realization", that is, the maximum possible success in life. However, according to Maslow, only 2% of the world's population achieve self-realization. Maslow used biographical analysis to study the phenomenon of self-realization. He analyzed the biographies of a large number of historical figures, as well as successful people well known to him. Based on this analysis, he compiled a list of qualities characteristic of all the successful people he studied. Here are some personal qualities from this list:

All these people had a focus on reality, that is, they could distinguish fake and false from real and true. They were problem solvers, that is, they treated all life events as problems that needed to be solved, and not as personal troubles that should be put up with. And they had a different understanding of the concept of "end-means". They believed that not every goal justifies the means to achieve it, that the process itself can be the goal and that such a process is often more important than the result.

They had a non-hostile sense of humor, they preferred jokes aimed at themselves or at a human quality, but never at other people. They had a quality that Maslow called acceptance of themselves and others, meaning by this that successful people would rather perceive a person as he is than adjust him to their idea of him. If some flaw of a person does not harm the cause, well, that's fine. But at the same time, they had a strong desire to fight with their own shortcomings. Also, successful people were characterized by spontaneity and simplicity. They preferred to remain themselves, did not make any attempts to appear better than they are. Although

they were very different from the people around them, they destroyed stereotypes and beliefs, they tried not to stand out in public (Shapiro, 2005).

However, all the studies of Maslow and other followers of humanistic psychology were mainly empirical in nature. It was only in the 60s of the 20th century that Martin Seligman conducted serious laboratory research that led him to the discovery of the "syndrome of conscious optimism" (Seligman, 1975).

Martin Seligman is an American psychologist that studied depression. He conducted experiments on dogs and found that dogs who received a light current discharge several times did not even try to avoid it if they thought they would get it anyway. Then Seligman conducted a series of similar experiments with people using noise instead of current. Most of the subjects also became helpless at some point and stopped trying to protect themselves from noise, although it was possible to find a way to do this. However, not all subjects, both humans and dogs, stopped trying to get rid of noise after several failures, some persisted in looking for a way out. These subjects interested Seligman. He decided to find out how they differ from the others. So, Seligman discovered the "phenomenon of conscious optimism." Seligman proved the importance of optimism for the survival of both an individual and a certain society. Another extremely useful concept for success, created by Martin Seligman, is "styles of explaining events"(Seligman, 1991).

Since the second half of the twentieth century, primarily under the influence of the revolutionary discoveries of science, Western civilization, to which Russia also tends, begins to revise the very foundations of its worldview. The worldview that has dominated world culture for the last couple of thousand years, starting with ancient Greece, is beginning to crack at the seams. This worldview includes, for example:

- the idea of the universe as a mechanical system consisting of indivisible elementary building blocks,
- or that life is a competitive struggle for existence,
- or the belief that unlimited material prosperity can be achieved through economic or technological growth,
- or the belief that male dominance over women is natural for our species.

The last conviction was completely destroyed at the moment. Prosperity due to uncontrolled technological growth has brought the planet to the brink of an ecological catastrophe. Economic growth is constantly bumping into global crises, obviously for a reason. Modern theoretical physics has already completely abandoned the Newtonian view of the universe as a kind of mechanism, modern discoveries are increasingly destroying the materialistic view of the universe. And the breaking of the belief that life is a competitive struggle for existence is actively

engaged in the science of personal effectiveness, which, in fact, is the topic of this article.

One of the first to notice this breaking of the worldview was theoretical physicist Fritjof Capra. In the mid-seventies of the last century, he wrote the book "Tao of Physics", in which he showed parallels between the latest discoveries of theoretical physics and the postulates of Eastern philosophical thought. Over the past years, more than one and a half million copies of his book have been sold, it has found a response in the souls of people who themselves have already noticed that "something is wrong in the Danish kingdom", but could not formulate their doubts about the foundations of the classical worldview.

His definition of the emerging new worldview:

"The new emerging worldview can be described in various ways. It can be called a holistic view of the world, when the world is perceived as a single interconnected whole, and not a set of disparate parts. It can also be called an ecological worldview, and I like this term the most. I use the term "ecological" in a broader and deeper sense than is customary. The ecological way of thinking in the deep sense of the word makes it possible to realize the global interdependence of all phenomena and the involvement of people and societies in the cyclical processes of nature. This ecological way of thinking is increasingly penetrating our society, both in science and outside it" (Shapiro, 2005).

Among the dying beliefs, Capra mentioned the need to fight for existence, which is directly related to the topic of this article. After all, positive thinking suggests replacing the struggle for existence with an «eco-friendlier» approach to solving problems and problems. Understanding the interconnection and interdependence of all people and phenomena makes it pointless to fight against anything or anyone. It suggests replacing it with a desire for something and cooperation with someone.

There is no doubt that happy people exist - as does a person suffering from depression. The "predisposition" to happiness is partly due to genetic factors, but it is obvious that happiness is also associated with some personal properties. A number of them have an innate character, which, however, does not mean that the measure of human happiness cannot be changed. One of the most important personality traits is extroversion; it can be enhanced by regular positive experiences that arise when communicating with friends and at work. Other personality traits (for example, social skills) are amenable to training. Extroverts tend to be happier than introverts and experience more positive emotions. Since this is only a statistical relationship, it is clear that there are happy introverts, but they draw their happiness from other sources. Individuals who are emotionally stable tend to be happier than those who are characterized by severe neuroticism or who experience more negative emotions.

Happiness is also associated with some cognitive aspects of personality, which can be called thinking styles. A certain set of such forms is an optimistic view of the

world. Among these characteristics are internal control (the belief that future events are controlled), cheerfulness, high self-esteem and the presence of a goal in life. All these aspects strongly correlate with happiness indicators; this relationship is so strong that they can be considered separate aspects of happiness.

A sense of purposefulness and meaningfulness of life can be formed by focusing on some significant goals: if they are realistic and there are enough resources to achieve them. One of the types of therapy is based on the choice of suitable goals.

Another source of "meaning and purpose" is religion, which gives a sense of confidence in the future. It also has a moderate positive effect on the feeling of happiness. The beneficial effect of religion is associated with the social support that the church community provides to a person, with positive emotions caused by divine services, as well as with a healthier lifestyle (believers drink less alcohol, smoke less, etc.).

Intelligence has almost no effect on the level of happiness. However, social skills play an important role, as they allow people to communicate and maintain relationships, cope with difficult circumstances, and enjoy certain social situations. Another important aspect is a sense of humor. Humor is one of the easiest ways to create a joyful mood, maintain good relationships and ease intra-group conflict. The effect of humor is due to the fact that it hints at some second meaning or a different view of things, and the less obvious meaning is usually "rougher". The ability to see the comic side of phenomena removes the threat, thanks to which humor allows us to cope with stress. This requires a special skill.

The conducted studies devoted to the problem of happiness were not based on the formed theoretical ideas, although the explanation of individual conclusions was the subject of discussion. In addition, many concepts are needed to explain the fullness of the results obtained. We know that physical education and sports contribute to improving mood and generally have a beneficial effect on various aspects of happiness. This fact, apparently, is partly due to the direct physiological effect, activation of endorphins, but at the same time an increase in self-esteem, as well as a factor of communication with other people.

Physiological explanations: Positive emotional mood is caused by neurotransmitters (dopamine, serotonin, etc.). Special chemicals can create a good mood, as well as purposeful activity. Physical education and sports cause a "sports boost" associated with the activation of endorphins. Other types of positive emotions can cause drugs, for example, alcohol relieves anxiety, marijuana leads to arousal. However, it is possible to get all the variety of positive emotions without the involvement of drugs - the brightness of sensations will not suffer at the same time. Nevertheless, it seems likely that emotions that are caused, for example, by success or listening to music, activate the same areas of the brain that are directly stimulated by narcotic substances.

Communication and social relationships: love is a powerful source of joy, and in general all social relationships affect the feeling of happiness. Extroverts are happy because of their excellent social skills and frequent communication with people. The pleasure of communicating with others is one of the main reasons for the joy received from leisure activities: manage to improve a person's mood, and he will strive for communication. Thus, there is a close relationship between happiness and sociability, but what is its nature? It may be due to the satisfaction of social needs, or the need for self-esteem, or memories of close relationships in childhood - until social psychology has come to an unambiguous conclusion.

Satisfaction of objective needs: the theory based on satisfaction of objective needs finds some confirmation: money makes people happier if they are very poor or live in a very poor country; the same role is played by having their own home, work, spouse, good health - all this brings happiness. But for most people, the influence of these factors is insignificant, and satisfaction with any of these aspects depends on various cognitive moments, for example, comparisons with the past or with the position of other people.

In addition, there are important sources of happiness that seem to have nothing to do with satisfying the needs of this order. This refers, for example, to the beneficial influence exerted by music, religion, voluntary work and most forms of leisure activities. In this case, we can turn to the theory of needs, if only we establish many new varieties of them: after all, it has never been said about the need for music.

Cognitive factors of happiness: Life satisfaction is rated higher if a person compares himself with those who are in a less favorable position. However, often people choose their own objects of comparison, and those who are happy benefit from upward comparisons (on the principle of "bottom-up"). The gap between achievements and aspirations negatively affects satisfaction.

A person also has an adaptation to both positive and negative life experiences. However, addiction does not always occur. The assessment of satisfaction is also influenced by the existing emotional state, since it is considered as direct evidence of subjective well-being. An optimistic view of things also has an impact on the feeling of happiness: this is due to the personal characteristics that characterize positive thinking, in particular, with cheerfulness and a good sense of humor. Many people have various illusions, thinking that everything is in the best way.

A whole complex of cognitive processes is involved in this, and all of them affect human judgments about satisfaction or happiness, and the mechanisms of such influence are very complex. Happiness assessment does not reflect the real situation in a straightforward way. People are unhappy not because they suffer actual hardships or disasters, but because of a certain perception of the world. Happiness therapy courses include a cognitive element: clients are taught to look at things more positively.

Goals, activity and self-esteem: Job satisfaction depends on the application of skills and the successful completion of tasks. The same is true for sports and other leisure activities. In addition to the external reward, there is the so-called "internal satisfaction" obtained from such activity. The sources of satisfaction are personal needs, the pleasure of using skills, from achieving goals. Happiness is enhanced by focusing on achieving real and important goals, which (for example, matching with the ideal Self) are part of the personality and contribute to self-esteem.

Chapter 2. Preliminary study. Description, translation, adaptation and validation of self-evaluation, future expectations and positivity instruments.

2.1 Justification of chosen instruments and translation issues

In social psychology, sociology and economics, there are quite convincing theories relating to a single research program and describing human behavior as selfish, aimed at achieving maximum satisfaction of the individual's needs. From the point of view of these theories, in particular, even the most ideal motives conceal a rational calculation aimed at increasing personal "assets", including material goods, social prestige, and political influence.

Every research in the social sciences is aimed at finding an explanation of human behavior and, therefore, is focused on the search for some hypothetical pattern that has a greater or lesser degree of generality, but always requires empirical confirmation and critical comparison with other alternative hypotheses. The source of such hypotheses, as we have already seen, can be established scientific concepts, and less often "ordinary theories". Further, the possibility of explanation and prediction in the social sciences is based on the recognition of the causality of the events being explained. Even explaining the behavior of people by their goals, ideas and beliefs, the sociologist seeks to demonstrate the work of some causal mechanism that ensures the relationship of goals and ideas (rational or irrational, true or false) with behavior. The study of purely logical relations of consistency between the goals and means of activity, elements of a belief system, or, for example, marriage rules existing in a certain community, does not in itself allow us to explain why certain events occurred or did not occur. Logical relations between ideas or statements (relations of implication) allow for logical inference - from one formally true statement to another, but do not allow us to assume what will happen (or happened) in reality.

Only another set of statements can be logically deduced from a set of statements. A person who logically talks about the advantages of loving one's neighbor, as you know, does not necessarily follow his own reasoning in practice. Therefore, contrary to the prescriptions of some proponents of the "humanistic model" of social sciences, sociologists are not limited to interpreting what people say or what they believe. Evaluation of existing theories and hypotheses in the social sciences, as well as in the natural sciences, involves the introduction of certain criteria for empirical verifiability and truth of theoretical statements, as well as the development and application of research methods corresponding to these criteria.

Thus, the process of sociological research inevitably includes:

- 1) the stage of awareness of the theoretical or practical insufficiency of existing knowledge (the sources of such awareness, as mentioned above, may lie both in the field of theory and in the field of everyday experience or social practice);
- 2) the stage of problem formulation and hypothetical explanation;

3) the stage of empirical verification of the formulated hypothesis, which is often followed by another stage;

4) the stage of redefinition and refinement of the problem or hypothesis, giving rise to a new research cycle.

The variety of research programs existing in sociology, as well as real research contexts, i.e., theoretical and practical research goals, opportunities available to the researcher, technical and ethical limitations arising in research practice leads to the fact that specific implementations of the described research process may differ significantly. The leading methods of sociological research are such specific implementations, or strategies, of the process of sociological research.

The success of sociological research depends on the successful development and implementation of a strategic research plan in the research process. Before we can test our hypotheses, we have to translate, adapt and validate our research instruments because they were constructed in Italian language.

We chose them because this insufficient quantity of studies in Russia about image of future, vision of society as well as about positive attitude to the future vision. To study these definitions and phenomena we needed instruments and new methods of research. Thus, we opted these four instruments:

1. The “Questionario Visione giovani” (*Lucisano & du Mérac, 2019*)
2. The “Questionario sul futuro” (*Lucisano & du Mérac, 2019*)
3. The “Soft Skill Self-evaluation Questionnaire” – 3SQ (*Lucisano & du Mérac, 2019*)
4. The “Positivity scale” – P-Scale (*Caprara, Alessandri & Eisenberg, 2012*)

Translation issues

The study of theoretical sources on the subject of the study, as well as the translation of items from Italian into Russian allow us to draw the following conclusions:

1) The concept of "inversion" implies both a change in the order within the grammatical basis and a rearrangement of minor terms within the sentence, because functionally and in the system of word order in the Italian language, they are endowed with the same syntactic properties. In Italian, inversion is a stylistic phenomenon and is a change in the traditional order of words in a sentence in order to emphasize semantic, intonation or emotional load on a specific member of the sentence, which is often not the main one.

Based on what goals the authors of the items pursue (highlighting a specific word and phrase, giving emotional coloring and expressiveness to the utterance), it is possible to implement the grammatical or emotionally evaluative function of inversion. Also, through the intensification function, it is possible to strengthen the

intonation stress on a specific component of the sentence, which is necessary to create a certain image and mood of the entire item.

2) There are several classifications of inversions, but most linguists distinguish the following main points:

- Grammatical inversion is a simple change in the order of the predicate and subject, most often used in the construction of interrogative sentences. With this type of inversion, it is also possible to construct exclamation and clarifying sentences.

- Stylistic inversion is a deliberate violation of the order of words in a sentence in order to redistribute the emotional or semantic centers of the utterance.

In addition, there are special cases of stylistic inversion: local, exclamation, negative, in constructions with “there”, inversion in questions, inversion of equilibrium, inversion with stable structures, heavy inversion. Both grammatical and stylistic inversions in form are divided into full and partial.

Russian translation of items presents certain difficulties due to the different syntax of the Italian and Russian languages. As you know, in Italian, each member of a sentence, as you know, has a common place, determined by the way it is syntactically expressed, connections with other words and the type of sentence, i.e., there is a fixed word order in the sentence. This is due to the fact that the language has a very great number of grammatical endings and word-forming suffixes and the function of a word in a sentence is determined by its place in the sentence. However, sometimes the word order may have an indistinctly established character. Violation of the usual order of the sentence members leads to the fact that as a result, an element is highlighted and receives special connotations of emotionality or expressiveness, which is an inversion.

Russian has a fairly free word order, therefore, in the process of translation, often to preserve the emotionality of an Italian sentence with an inversion in Russian, it is necessary to use excretory words, rebuild the sentence structure, divide or combine sentences, etc.

4) When translating we tried to preserve the emotionality of sentences as much as possible by introducing additional words in Russian. As practice has shown, the translation is quite difficult, because inversion as a linguistic phenomenon seems to be characteristic of the Russian language and does not cause the same associations in the Russian-speaking reader as in Italian among native Italian speakers.

Russian version from Italian into Russian is translated back into Russian in order to check the competence of the translator and the correctness of the preservation of the meaning of the items. We believe that this process does not give a complete picture of the quality of the translation performed, and even more so about the qualifications of the translator who performed the direct and reverse translation. Assuming that the direct translation was performed by one translator and the reverse by another, we get the sum of errors, and it is not possible to single out which of the translators made more mistakes.

In fact, the translation of even one item, even one word from Russian into Italian and the reverse translation performed by another translator is unlikely to coincide verbatim. When translating synonyms of the word and analogues that were not used in the items may be used. And the mismatch of words will not be an error.

If we do not take into account the case of reverse translation described above, then there is a case when we have to use reverse translation very often in translation practice. This concerns the procedures for the approval and translation. For the Russian side, it is necessary to translate with all the changes made by the opposite side into Russian, for the other side – into Italian. When translating, it is necessary to track not only the changes made, but also to constantly synchronize both versions in two languages. In this case, the reverse or back translation performed by the same translator in both directions, from our point of view, is quite justified.

2.1.1 The “Questionario Visione giovani” (Lucisano & du Méric, 2019)

The “Youth vision questionnaire” has two factors of “Interaction with society” and “Confidence” that have three and five items correspondingly.

The questionnaire is divided into 2 dimensions. The 8 items included in the questionnaire are measured by the five-point Likert's scale where a responder should follow this instruction:

If you completely disagree with this statement, then put 1 in the circle next to the inscription "Absolutely disagree". If you completely agree with this statement, then put 5 next to the inscription "Absolutely agree". Or express the degree of your doubt, agreement or disagreement in circles 2, 3, 4.

Interaction with society is a set of interrelated and interdependent actions of different subjects (that is, actions between which there is a mutual causal relationship). In simple words, these are actions that are a reaction to the behavior of other people and are aimed at provoking a response on their part.

The main idea is that the individual is not a structural unit of social interactions. It takes at least two people to create a unit of society capable of creating social phenomena. At the same time, they become a structural element of society only when social interaction occurs between them.

Within society, an individual does not behave in a random and disorderly way. A characteristic feature of social interactions is that the behavior of each individual is predictable for the rest. It is an understandable reaction to the circumstances and behavior of others. Thus, social interaction implies that its participants complement each other's behavior in one way or another. And its result is usually the development of interpersonal relationships or their transformation.

Signs of social interaction: social interaction is a dynamic phenomenon that is constantly in motion, evolving and changing, while affecting the relationships between people. Researchers identify four key signs of this phenomenon:

- 1) **Situationality:** The process of interaction strongly depends on the circumstances in which it occurs.
- 2) **Objectivity:** There is some kind of external goal, for the sake of which the participants of the interaction combine their efforts.
- 3) **Explication:** Unlike interpersonal interaction, social interaction is an open process, accessible for observation and understanding by an outside observer.
- 4) **Reflexive ambiguity:** Interaction expresses both the conscious intentions of interacting individuals and their unconscious desires, aspirations and reactions to other people's actions.

Social interaction allows people to cooperate, combine efforts, distribute tasks, coordinate joint actions and build interpersonal relationships.

Confidence, as a mechanism for reducing social uncertainty, is based on the assumption of an initially defined behavior strategy. The absence of the need for individual choice shifts the emphasis towards the surrounding system or other individuals, which determines the perception of the committed action by the individual as an act involving danger, not risk. The danger, in the author's understanding, is rooted in the functioning of such systems that are not controlled by the individual. If you have no alternatives, you are in a situation of confidence. If you choose one action, preferring it to others, despite the possibility of being disappointed in the actions of others, you define the situation as a situation of trust.

Firstly, the distinction between trust and confidence depends on “an individual's ability to distinguish between dangers and risks.” When an individual chooses one of the possible options, he finds himself in a situation of risk, since his decision is based on predicting the future actions of a potential partner. The probability that his expectations will not be met is a measure of the riskiness of his decision, and the action itself, committed in the present, expresses the individual's trust in the counterparty.

Secondly, confidence is more characteristic of the social interactions of the individual and functional systems. Whereas trust is necessary in the situation of forming and maintaining relationships of personal systems (individuals). Trust is vital in interpersonal relationships, but participation in functional systems such as economics, politics is no longer a matter of personal relationships. It requires confidence, not trust.

Thirdly, confidence is a product of an individual's socialization. The use of the confidence mechanism is largely due to the knowledge acquired by the individual about the rules of functioning of various social systems, while the source of trust is the risk in a situation of social interaction caused by making an independent decision.

On Table 1 we can see the “Youth vision questionnaire” translation.

Interaction with society	La società attuale considera la voce dei giovani.	Modern society listens to the voice of youth.
	La società attuale offre ai giovani la possibilità di far vedere di cosa sono capaci.	Modern society gives young people the opportunity to show what they are capable of.
	La società attuale offre possibilità ai giovani.	Modern society offers opportunities for young people.
Confidence	Il mio futuro sarà migliore di quello dei miei genitori.	My future will be better than my parents'.
	Ho una visione positiva del mio futuro.	I have a positive outlook on my future.
	Il futuro dei miei figli sarà migliore del mio.	My children's future will be better than mine.
	Sono io a determinare il mio futuro.	I am determining my future.
	Posso partecipare a far cambiare la società.	I can participate in changing society.

Table 1: “Youth vision questionnaire” translation

2.1.2 The “Questionario sul futuro” (Lucisano & du Mérac, 2019)

The "Questionnaire about the future" has three factors of “Socio-political improvement,” “Socio-economic deterioration” and “Political and economic stability” that have twenty-one items total.

The questionnaire is divided into 3 dimensions. The 21 items included in the questionnaire are measured by the five-point Likert's scale where a responder should follow this instruction:

If you completely disagree with this statement, then put 1 in the circle next to the inscription "Absolutely disagree". If you completely agree with this statement, then put 5 next to the inscription "Absolutely agree". Or express the degree of your doubt, agreement or disagreement in circles 2, 3, 4.

Socio-political improvement is usually understood as the progress of the social structure of society and the cultural life of a person. It assumes such a direction of social and all social development, which is characterized by a transition from lower forms to higher, from less perfect to more perfect. Thus, social progress is a type of development of the social sphere, the process of changes taking place in it, in which it as a whole or its individual elements, individual social phenomena move to a higher stage, the stage of maturity, or there is a quantitative increase in the positive characteristics inherent in the corresponding social phenomena.

In general, the development of mankind follows the line of progressive social changes. The overall totality of social changes on a historical scale from primitive society to modern society can be characterized as progressive development. However, social progress is contradictory. Progress is not applicable to some areas of social life. This includes the field of art as a social institution. Art does not stand still; it is constantly subject to change. At the same time, the concept of progress is inapplicable when the artistic, aesthetic side of the evolution and development of art is considered. Here we can only talk about a certain progress in the technical means of creating, preserving and distributing works of art.

Similarly, the evolution of some other social institutions and phenomena should be evaluated. For example, religion. The same can be said about fundamental philosophical systems: their evolution takes place, but the concept of progress does not apply here.

The contradictory nature of social progress is revealed primarily in the fact that the development of many social structures and processes simultaneously leads to their advancement in some directions, to retreat, to return back in other directions, to improvement, improvement in one and deterioration of the other. Many social changes have such a contradictory character.

The nature of social changes is assessed based on their results.

This assessment may be subjective, but it can also be based on objective indicators. Subjective assessments can include those that come from the desires, aspirations, positions of individual groups or strata of the population. The main role here is played by the degree of satisfaction of social groups with the ongoing reforms. Social reform (from French *reform*, from Latin *reformo* - transformation) is a transformation, change, reorganization carried out with the help of new legislative

acts. Reforms are carried out “from above” in order to improve the existing system without changing its foundations.

If a particular social change has negative consequences for the position and status of a certain group, it is usually assessed by it as unnecessary, incorrect, anti-national, anti-state, although for other groups and society as a whole it may have an important positive significance. But it also happens that one group wins from changes, and many others lose. In this case, representatives of the winning group will evaluate the results as positive, and the losers - as negative.

Socio-economic deterioration and social status (socio-economic status, social status) is a position in society. It is determined by a whole set of socio-labor, economic, legal and other parameters characteristic of a social group or individual. The basic parameters of social status include: quality and standard of living, attitude to property, access to power, social infrastructure (services in the field of education, health, culture, social protection), place in the social and labor sphere, etc.

Risks by their nature can be economic, social, political, natural, man-made, etc. As a rule, the risks are closely related to each other and in most cases, it is difficult to draw a clear line between them, so many researchers refer in a broad sense to all these risks as social, given their public, mass nature.

Threats to social status may be of a natural nature and be conditioned by the essence of man as a biological species. These are well-known, predictable risks. Thus, in certain life periods, each person naturally has an objectively low potential for self-sufficiency (childhood, old age, illness, motherhood, etc.), which, in the case of a decrease in the standard of living recognized below the socially minimum, requires help from society. As a rule, they worsen the social situation.

Undoubtedly, there are risks of deterioration of the social situation of an individual, which are of a personal nature, when threats to a person come from himself: his behavior, lifestyle, attitude to society, For example, contribute to the deterioration of the social situation of the antisocial orientation of an individual who ignores the norms and rules, customs established in this society; bad habits (alcohol and drug use, smoking), irrational behavior, conscious, or due to psychophysical pathologies. The normal position of a person in society can be threatened by his individual properties, for example, the dominance of vices, inability (unwillingness) to adapt, to join social relations, the presence of mental abnormalities incomplete for recognition as incapacitated, but sufficient for problems with social integration, etc.

The underlying causes of social pathologies remain unclear. Perhaps a person already comes into this world with undesirable features for society, or society itself generates antisocial layers. In any case, the emergence of risks of an antisocial situation of a person, even if generated by himself, needs adequate measures to block them, minimize them, apply forms and mechanisms of social protection that are socially acceptable and specific for each type of risk.

In addition, risks associated with the peculiarities of a person's work, conditions and nature, and occupational safety (threats of dangerous and harmful production factors) can violate a person's social status — occupational risks, which, as a rule, are probabilistic, random, optional, but the probability of their impact for certain professional groups is very high.

Environmental risks can also disrupt the social status of an individual and all members of society. The sources of this type of risk are anthropogenic interference in the natural environment (deforestation, land reclamation, destruction of landscapes during mining), man—made impact on nature (pollution of the atmosphere, water sources, land with harmful substances, industrial waste), natural disasters (floods, earthquakes, drought, forest fires, other natural disasters), industrial technologies and high-risk facilities (accidents at nuclear, chemical and other industrial facilities, unauthorized emissions of toxic substances, transport disasters).

Social risks in a narrow sense are risks of violation of social status that arise for objective reasons and do not depend on individual behavior and qualities of a person, mass threats reproduced by society itself. For example, the threat of pandemic phenomena (mass epidemics, famine), population decline (demographic risks), forced migration; risks arising from wars and military conflicts, revolutions, interethnic conflicts, international terrorism, various reforms; political risks associated with the peculiarities of the state's domestic and foreign policy, as well as risks of public administration, etc.

Political and economic stability and its problem has not only academic, but also practical significance. Stabilization of the economic, political, and social life of modern Russian society is an urgent social need. Social stability is not synonymous with immutability, immobility of social systems and relationships. On the contrary, the immutability of any structures, institutions, processes contain an element of tension, conflict, and ultimately an element of instability. Social stability is the reproduction of social structures, processes and relationships within a certain integrity of society itself. Moreover, this reproduction is not a simple repetition of the previous stages, but necessarily includes elements of variability.

A stable society is a society that is developing and at the same time maintaining its stability, a society with well-established processes and mechanisms of social change that preserve its stability, excluding such a political struggle that leads to the loosening of the foundations of society. Both authoritarian and totalitarian social systems can be stable for some time. However, historical experience shows that such systems "explode", become the focus of social conflicts, revolutions. Therefore, a stable society in the full sense of the word is a democratic society. Stability in society is achieved through the skillful implementation of overdue social changes at the right time and in the right place.

The stability of society is ensured by a whole set of factors and mechanisms in various spheres of its life - economic, social, political, legal, moral, spiritual. First of all, social stability is conditioned by the existence of social control mechanisms through which society seeks to influence people's behavior in order to maintain the necessary order. Most societies are based on an extensive system of control, in which physical force is only a last resort. The existing types of control are closely interrelated, and if one is weakened, the other immediately replaces it.

Among the factors of social stability are factors related to the socio-class structure of society, its stratification. Among them is the presence in society of a fairly extensive so-called middle class, which has average incomes for this society, private property. The existence of such a class determines the existence and strengthening of centrist political forces. Conversely, insufficient influence of centrist groups can lead to the development of extremism, political and social tensions. A factor of potential instability can be considered the presence of a significant layer of lumpen, criminal elements.

Social stability largely depends on the stable state of the political system of society, the state, the interaction of the executive, legislative and judicial authorities. One of the protective mechanisms of stability can be the development of a multiparty system. It protects society from the onset of authoritarianism and dictatorship. The arena of struggle of various political parties and organized political groups is the Parliament.

On Table 2 we can see the “Questionario sul futuro” translation.

Socio-political improvement	Lo studio sarà più riconosciuto.	Education will get more recognition
	Ci sarà più partecipazione politica.	Society will be more politicized
	Il livello culturale sarà più alto.	The cultural level will be higher
	L'informazione sarà più libera.	The information will be more accessible
	Ci sarà più rispetto per gli anziani.	There will be more respect for the elderly
	Ci saranno più attenzioni per i bambini.	There will be more attention to children
	Ci sarà più giustizia.	There will be more justice.
	Ci sarà più felicità.	There will be more happiness.
Socio-economic deterioration	Ci sarà più violenza.	There will be more violence.
	Ci saranno più guerre.	There will be more wars.
	Ci sarà più corruzione.	There will be more corruption.
	Ci sarà più razzismo.	There will be more racism.
	Saremo più soli.	We'll be more alone.
	L'Italia avrà più problemi economici.	Russia will have more economic problems.

	Ci saranno più poveri.	There will be more poor people.
	Ci sarà più inquinamento.	Environmental pollution will increase.
Political and economic stability	Sarà più facile trovare lavoro in Italia.	It will be easier to find a job in Russia.
	Sarà più facile fare il lavoro che si vuole.	It will be easier to get a job that you like.
	Sara più facile trovare lavoro.	It will be easier to find a job.
	Ci sarà una distribuzione della ricchezza più giusta.	There will be a more equitable distribution of benefits.
	Ci sarà più stabilità politica.	There will be more political stability.

Table 2: “Youth vision questionnaire” translation

2.1.3 The “Soft Skill Self-evaluation Questionnaire” – 3SQ (Lucisano & du Méric, 2019)

The “Soft Skills self-evaluation questionnaire” has ten factors of “Trust,” “Openness,” “Collaboration,” “Leadership,” “Empathy,” “Commitment,” “Autonomy,” “Curiosity,” “Problem solving” and “Resilience” with forty-one items overall quantity.

The questionnaire is divided into 10 dimensions. The 41 items included in the questionnaire are measured by the five-point Likert's scale where a responder should follow this instruction:

If you completely disagree with this statement, then put 1 in the circle next to the inscription "Absolutely disagree". If you completely agree with this statement, then put 5 next to the inscription "Absolutely agree". Or express the degree of your doubt, agreement or disagreement in circles 2, 3, 4.

Trust (self-confidence) is a concept in psychology that describes an emotional state or a stable personal quality, the essence of which is to accept one's individuality, a positive assessment of one's abilities, skills and rights. Confidence is in psychology the ability to allow oneself to have certain requests and the absence of fear or guilt when presenting them to the environment, initiative and courage in social contacts.

From the point of view of psychology, confidence is the norm, a sign of a healthy, harmonious personality. This is a quality that every person should strive for when engaged in self-development. Self-confidence should be distinguished from self-confidence (conviction in the absence of negative qualities, arrogance, a tendency to treat others with disdain).

The characteristic signs of a self-confident personality are the following skills:

- 1) Playfulness, a penchant for improvisation, open and spontaneous self-expression.

- 2) The ability to admit your mistakes, but without self-deprecation and self-eating.
- 3) Calm perception of both claims and compliments in your address.
- 4) The ability to discuss, directly and honestly express one's own opinion, even if unpopular in society.
- 5) The ability to repeat a request, a question, to remind another person of the promise given to them. Willingness to protect their interests and rights.

For an insecure person, the presentation of their point of view, achievements, needs, desires are accompanied by a lot of negative experiences (fear, embarrassment, shame, guilt). The more insecure a person is, the more difficult it is for him to take active actions to achieve his goals, to make independent decisions. Too much energy is spent worrying and doubting. A confident person is not afraid of possible failures and does not unsettle for a long time.

Sometimes a person tries to hide his self-doubt behind aggressive, defiant behavior. But in the end, he encounters misunderstanding and retaliatory aggression from others, which only increases his sense of his own inferiority. A self-confident person treats others kindly, rejoices in the successes of others, does not get upset if he is inferior to others in some way.

Openness is a positive quality of a person's character, manifested as a willingness and ability to objectively perceive and realize negative and positive characteristics and information about oneself. The ability of a person to have an open dialogue about himself.

Openness is actually a positive property of a very Strong personality. A person with a capital letter who has a pure consciousness, his mind, feelings and mind are not subject to manifestations of Egoism. An open person is someone for whom secrecy is unacceptable, this is someone who believes in Himself, naturally and freely speaks about his preferences. He sincerely shows feelings and emotions, is ready for self-awareness, perception through the mind of new knowledge and its generous gift to other people.

An open person is noble, benevolent and generous, he has no need to conceal his deeds and thoughts, his directness is directed to good deeds, and a benevolent soul is a disinterested willingness to share his warmth with other people. An open person trusts people, he is more sociable, effective in communication and influence, is disposed to support and other positive forms of interaction.

Openness is self-awareness combined with sincerity, in which a person's state of Happiness is realized. When we say an open person, we subconsciously understand that this is not a liar, not an egoist or hypocrite.

Collaboration is a step from selfishness to trust. It's when we do something together. This is a brave step from selfish aspirations to mutual understanding, mutual respect and mutual assistance. True cooperation is the ability to enjoy the

success of others. Cooperation is the idea that joint activities will be more effective.

It becomes a quality of personality when a person sees in others not a danger and an obstacle, but an opportunity and a means to solve a problem together, for mutual benefit. A person who is inclined to cooperate has learned the truth: the best deal in which both sides win.

It is competition with the opposite sign. Being the opposite of rivalry, cooperation can also differ in idealizations, excesses and extremes. Not all problems can be solved together.

Collaboration is a consequence of interdependence. In an environment of interdependence, it becomes the only reasonable means of achieving success. Therefore, people begin to negotiate among themselves, decide to join alliances, try to find compromises to solve problems.

Leadership refers to the ability to influence a person, a group of people, focusing on achieving goals. This is a natural process of a socio-psychological type, when personal authority is used to influence the activities of group members. The leader influences the team — implements behavior that makes changes in the system of relationships, the sensory zone of the personality. You can influence through ideas, verbally, using suggestion mechanisms, emotionally infecting the team, using authority, personal example.

The psychology of leadership notes that character, way of thinking, and external factors is important for team management. The leader stands out from the rest by his behavior and habits, demonstrates confidence, readiness to manage the team, taking responsibility for decisions, the behavior of the team.

The ability to apply verbal, non-verbal influence is striking. The leader openly gestures, demonstrates confidence, the ability to dominate. It stands out with a determined look, a free gait, sharp movements, an even back.

The facial expressions and gestures of the dominant individual are just the tip of the iceberg. The internal state, the type of thinking is important. The leader loves, knows how to take risks, takes on new projects. Possessing great willpower, he, due to his communicative abilities and the ability to motivate, infects the group with confidence. The leader has a psychological impact on the team, so everyone is imbued with common ideas, shows a desire to achieve their goals.

Empathy is an important element of human relationships, without which trust, sincerity and kindness in society decrease.

Developed empathy is expressed in the form of active participation in a specific situation with another person. Special forms of manifestation are empathy and empathy. In the first case, the empath identifies himself with another person and experiences the same experiences, fully understanding his situation. Empathy is a

variant of empathy, when an empath expresses his emotions about the experiences of another subject.

Empathy is something that does not tolerate fakes. It cannot be replaced by ostentatious complicity or sympathy. You can't cheat and pretend. A real empath is distinguished by the sincerity of his feelings and behavior. They are dictated by a full understanding of the feelings of another person and immersion in his inner world.

Commitment (perseverance) is a personality quality that allows a person to pursue distant, long-term goals, to achieve which it is necessary to make great efforts and patience for failures. Perseverance is manifested in a person's ability to overcome life's obstacles for a long time. A persistent person without any doubts and hesitations goes to the goal he has set and does not give up on it because of various difficulties and obstacles that may arise on his way. That is, unlike perseverance, perseverance requires from a person not a one-time, but a systematic manifestation of willpower, in order to realize a distant goal in time. In other words, in order to achieve a distant goal, you need to solve many different tasks, while achieving close goals, for which, as already mentioned above, you need to persevere. Thus, it turns out that by showing perseverance, in order to achieve close goals and thereby moving towards a distant, more significant goal, a person shows perseverance.

Autonomy is the ability to make decisions without outside interference, to sensibly assess the positive and negative sides of any issue, and on the basis of this to conclude what to do. Autonomy implies that a person sets certain goals for himself and achieves them himself. This property begins to manifest itself at an early age, when the child has a desire to do something himself. This is a natural human need.

To be autonomous does not mean to refuse external help, it means to be able to choose the right way of life for yourself, to have your own point of view, to be able to stand up for your interests. A person with this quality can be called a truly adult, because this is the only true criterion for evaluating the formation of a personality.

Curiosity is a desire for knowledge, an interest devoid of rational grain, but underlying any discovery. This is an insatiable hunger to learn and understand everything you can about life, yourself and the world around you.

An inquisitive person really craves knowledge, growth and development. At the same time, he passionately strives to solve problems, implement ideas, find answers to many questions that allow him to adapt optimally to life.

This passion does not come just like that: it requires patience and determination to think, reflect and ask difficult questions that may not be answered immediately. Curiosity is closely related to passion and enthusiasm, openness to new experiences.

Naturally, the greatest curiosity is associated with a deep and insatiable desire to master the unknown, which, of course, requires courage to get out of the comfort zone into a world full of uncertainties and doubts.

Problem solving is a complex psychological process by which we try to find the best way to overcome an obstacle or face a problem. Unfortunately, this process is not always linear, but it can go down very tortuous paths, throwing us into a situation of psychological pain when we believe that there is no solution.

Problem Solving steps that we can all apply:

1. Identify the problem

It may seem trivial, but the fact is that identifying the real problem is not as easy as it seems, especially when it comes to a situation that affects us emotionally. In fact, when a problem causes fear or we feel that we do not have the psychological tools to solve it, we tend to put into practice some Protective mechanisms like this displacement that allow us to erase the problematic situation from our conscious mind.

On the contrary, the ability to identify a problem is the first step to finding a solution. This often means that we stop looking for the culprits from the outside and look inside ourselves, asking ourselves why the situation bothers us or hinders us.

2. Figure out the problem.

Often a problem carries the grain of a solution. So, one of the steps to solving the problem is to make sure that you understand it. It is not enough to identify the problem; it needs to be identified. To do this, we need to analyze it from different points of view.

For example, if we are trying to implement a professional project that does not start, we need to find out the reasons. Do we need more training? Are we in an overly competitive sector? Do we have enough resources? We need to understand the source of the problem.

Organizing the available information is another important step in the troubleshooting process. We have to ask ourselves both what we know about the problem and everything we don't know. Ultimately, the accuracy of the solution will largely depend on the amount of information available.

3. Step back to the psychological distance.

Most serious life problems can cause an emotional tsunami. However, emotional involvement often clouds us and prevents us from thinking clearly. That's why one of the most important, but least known stages of problem solving is to move away from what is bothering us. Assuming some psychological distance, we can move

away from the problematic environment for a few days or try to stop thinking about what is bothering us for a while.

At this time, the subconscious mind will continue to work and will probably generate creative and completely reasonable thoughts that lead to solving the problem. Distance allows us to overcome functional fixations that prevent us from thinking outside the box, and begin a mental restructuring that will allow us to look at the problem from a different point of view.

4. Finding solutions and developing strategies

Each problem is individual; therefore, it requires a specific solution. The solution may not always be achieved shrewdly, so it will be necessary to think about possible alternatives to solve the problem. There's an example, it's a problem-solving method that uses a creative approach to find original solutions.

The next step is to develop a strategy, because solutions that are not implemented in the form of concrete steps are very difficult to implement in practice. Therefore, we have to ask ourselves how we will implement our solution. At this stage of solving the problem, it is important to be honest with ourselves and apply this strategy in practice, taking into account our resources and our real availability. There's no point in developing an extraordinary strategy if we can't apply it later.

5. Assessment of progress

Very few problems are solved overnight. As a rule, these are difficult situations that we must patiently "dissolve" over time. Therefore, another stage of solving the problem is tracking the results we receive. This way we ensure that we are on the right track and do not waste time and energy.

At this last stage of solving the problem, it is important to be able to adapt our expectations. It's difficult for a professional project to take off in the blink of an eye, so we need to focus on small steps that indicate that the solution is paying off. To do this, it is important to stop and from time to time reflect on the impact of the decision.

We also have to remember that circumstances often change, so it may be necessary to make changes to the original decision. It requires a lot of mental flexibility to change course when we realize that the strategy is not as effective as we would like.

Resilience (psychological stability) is the process of preserving the most optimal mode of operation of the human psyche in conditions of constantly changing circumstances and their stressful effects. It is interesting that this personality trait is formed in a person in the process of his development and is not genetically determined. It depends on factors such as a person's nervous system, his upbringing, experience, level of development, etc. But this is not the final indicator, because a person who has been constantly subjected to stressful

influences will react painfully to every problem, because his nerves have been pretty shaken over time.

In addition, resilience is not an absolute guarantee of resistance to everything at all. Psychological stability is more the flexibility of a person's psyche than the steadfastness and stability of his nervous system. And the fundamental characteristic of psychological stability is precisely the mobility of the psyche in constantly changing conditions. Psychological stability, as well as instability, always "works" according to the scheme.

On Table 3 we can see the “Soft Skill Self-evaluation Questionnaire- 3SQ” translation.

Trust	Sono fiero/a di me stesso/a.	I'm proud of myself.
	Sono soddisfatto di me stesso/a.	I am pleased with myself.
	Credo in me stesso/a.	I believe in myself.
	Credo nelle mie capacità.	I believe in my abilities.
Openness	Prendo in considerazione l'opinione altrui.	I take into account the opinions of other people.
	Prendo in considerazione le proposte espresse dagli altri.	I take into account suggestions made by other people.
	Tendo ad accogliere i punti di vista degli altri.	I tend to take into account other people's point of view.
	Valorizzo i contributi espressi dagli altri.	I appreciate the verbal support expressed by others.
Collaboration	Mi piace realizzare delle cose insieme ad altri.	I like to implement tasks together with other people.
	Partecipo volentieri a iniziative di gruppo.	I willingly support group initiatives.
	Mi è facile lavorare insieme ad altri.	It's easy for me to work with other people.
	So organizzarmi con altri per far delle cose insieme.	I know how to communicate with other people in order to effectively carry out projects together.
Leadership	So coordinare un'attività di gruppo.	I know how to manage group activities.
	So organizzare il lavoro degli altri.	I know how to organize other people's work.
	Ci sono attività in cui guido gli altri.	There are areas of activity in which I manage other people.
	So assegnare responsabilità all'interno di un gruppo.	I know how to distribute responsibility within a group.
	Gli altri mi affidano responsabilità.	I am trusted to make responsible decisions.
Empathy	Mi immedesimo nelle vicende altrui.	I am able to understand the human condition and treat it with attention and participation.
	Quando viene fatto un torto a qualcuno provo le sue stesse emozioni.	When someone is treated unfairly, I experience his (her) emotions.
	Mi sento coinvolto da quello che succede agli altri.	I feel my involvement in what is happening to other

		people.
	Cerco di mettermi nei panni degli altri.	I'm trying to get into the position of other people/imagine myself in their place.
Commitment	Quando svolgo una attività sono determinato nel portarla a termine.	When I take up some activity, I am determined to finish the job.
	Quando faccio le cose ce la metto tutta.	When I do something, I make every effort.
	Faccio le cose in modo accurato.	I do everything carefully and accurately.
	Eseguo con attenzione le attività necessarie per raggiungere un risultato.	I carefully perform all the actions that are necessary to achieve the result.
Autonomy	So prendere decisioni da solo.	I can make my own decisions.
	So fare le mie scelte.	I am able to make my choice.
	Penso in modo autonomo.	I'm thinking on my own.
	Scelgo da solo le mie attività.	I choose my own activity.
Curiosity	Tendo a documentarmi.	I tend to study carefully, take notes.
	Mi piace approfondire gli argomenti.	I like an in-depth approach to argumentation.
	Cerco attivamente nuove informazioni.	Actively looking for new information.
	Tendo a fare domande per saperne di più.	I tend to ask questions to find out more.
Problem solving	Di fronte a un ostacolo rifletto sui diversi modi di superarlo.	Faced with a difficult situation, I think over various ways to get out of it.
	Quando affronto un problema esamino le diverse soluzioni possibili.	To solve complex problems, I consider all possible solutions.
	Trovo più soluzioni possibili ai problemi che incontro.	I find the maximum possible solutions to the problems I face.
	Quando affronto una difficoltà cerco strategie per uscirne.	Being in a difficult situation, I develop strategies to get out of it.
Resilience	Mi riprendo facilmente da una delusione.	I deal with disappointment easily.
	Ritrovo facilmente il buon umore dopo la rabbia.	I easily return to a good mood after an outburst of anger.
	Rimango positivo/a di fronte alle difficoltà.	I remain realistic and keep a positive attitude when faced with difficulties.
	Nelle situazioni di crisi mantengo la calma.	I keep calm in crisis situations.

Table 3: “Soft Skills self-evaluation questionnaire – 3SQ” translation

2.1.4 The “Positivity scale” – P-Scale (Caprara, Alessandri & Eisenberg, 2012)

The “Positivity Questionnaire” has one factor and eight items.

The questionnaire has 1 dimension. The 8 items included in the questionnaire are measured by the five-point Likert's scale where a responder should follow this instruction:

If you completely disagree with this statement, then put 1 in the circle next to the inscription "Absolutely disagree". If you completely agree with this statement, then put 5 next to the inscription "Absolutely agree". Or express the degree of your doubt, agreement or disagreement in circles 2, 3, 4.

Item "Sometimes the future seems really bleak to me" must be recoded in order to conduct correct analysis. The sequence is (5=1) (4=2) (3=3) (2=4) (1=5).

Positivity means optimistic thinking, searching for solutions, expecting good results and success, as well as concentration and striving to make life happier. It is a happy and carefree state of mind that looks at the bright side of life.

Positivity means positive mindset:

- 1) In this frame of mind, you don't take everything too personally.
- 2) You are enjoying the present moment.
- 3) You don't worry about the future.
- 4) You focus on doing and achieving, not on thinking about the past and the future and about difficulties.
- 5) It means the state of being happy, tolerant and good-natured.

Positivity and emotions

Emotions associated with positivity are joy, love and inspiration. A person with such a state of mind chooses constructive and kind feelings and emotions, and also tries to avoid negative and unhappy feelings. It may not be easy at first, but with a little training it becomes possible.

Positivity and thoughts

Thoughts related to positivity are thoughts about success, self-esteem and confidence. The mind of such a person prefers to think with the phrases "I can", "it's possible", "I'm doing everything possible to improve myself and my life".

Positivity and mindset

Being positive does not mean ignoring difficulties and bad experiences. It means recognizing them, learning from them, and using the knowledge gained to improve. With this state of mind, even if you experience negative emotions and unpleasant experiences, you will not lose your spirit and will not give up. It is important that you strive to experience more positive thoughts and emotions than negative ones. The ratio should be in favor of the positive, not the negative.

Life is such that we often hear negative stories and negative news. If we allow them to seep into our consciousness and subconscious, we will allow negativity to

rule our lives. This happens quite often, because of the negative information that finds its way into our mind, and which we encounter in everyday life, on television, in newspapers and the Internet.

Unfortunately, the world is so arranged that negative news is well monetized, and that is why we encounter negative news so often. Negative news arouses emotions of anger and fear, which are quite powerful emotions. Negative thoughts and emotions are contagious.

On Table 4 we can see the “Positivity scale” translation.

Ho una grande fiducia nel futuro.	I am very confident in the future.
Sono soddisfatto della mia vita.	I am happy with my life.
Quando ne ho bisogno, solitamente ho qualcuno sul quale posso contare.	When I need it, I usually have someone I can rely on.
Guardo al futuro con speranza ed entusiasmo.	I look to the future with hope and enthusiasm.
Complessivamente sono soddisfatto di me stesso.	In general, I am pleased with myself.
A volte il futuro mi sembra davvero oscuro.	Sometimes the future seems really bleak to me.
Penso di avere molto di cui essere fiero.	I think I have something to be proud of.
Generalmente ho molta fiducia in me stesso/a.	As a rule, I really believe in myself.

Table 4: The “Positivity Questionnaire” translation

2.2 Validation of instruments, first tryout and committee approach

In order to test our translation and adaptation of instruments into Russian language we needed to perform a pilot study. We used standard back translation but due to differences between Italian and Russian some items could need additional clarification and modification.

Back translation or reverse translation is one of the most effective ways of verification. It implies the translation of a text from a foreign language into a native language, then the translation of this text into a foreign language, followed by comparison with the original. Such an operation is similar to a mathematical one, when in order to check the correctness of the solution of the equation, you need to substitute the values obtained. But, of course, reverse translation is not as accurate as a mathematical problem, because its main tool is language, more flexible and metaphorical than numbers.

Basically, the one gives the translated text to another translator to translate it into the original language, and then compares the correspondence of the meaning. But

this method can also be used by the translator himself, as a method of correcting his own mistakes.

Mistakes are made when the subject and meaning of the translated text are not completely clear. They most often manifest themselves when we allow ourselves very free interpretations, unable to get to a more or less accurate translation, as well as to its grammatical justification, and are satisfied with only an approximate understanding, which does not at all contribute to improving the quality of our knowledge of the language. The reverse translation is another matter. Here, in order to get an undistorted, correct translation of the text, we must do everything absolutely precisely, that is, in accordance with the laws of grammar. This accuracy becomes the key to valid translation.

To verify our accuracy, we created a link in Google forms to send it to schools with cover letter presenting research main objectives and other properties. The URL contain brief information about each instrument as well as instruction about the order of form filling. Also, the form had questions about age, gender and origin. We had consent to acquire the data only from students aged 14 to 18. Other responders were not admitted for analyses.

If the student completely disagrees with the statement, then he\she puts 1 in the circle next to the inscription "Absolutely disagree". If student completely agrees with this statement, then he\she puts 5 next to the inscription "Absolutely agree" or expresses the degree of his\her doubt, agreement or disagreement in circles 2, 3, 4.

First school administration responded to us willing to participate in our study. It was Lyceum “1”, Berezniki, Perm region, 70-100 students (sample was revised). We employed IBM SPSS 24-26 software to analyze received data.

2.2.1 Youth vision questionnaire

EFA and Descriptive analysis of the “Youth vision questionnaire” General Cronbach’s alpha is good in each factor as well as for each item in variable. The questionnaire has 8 items with factor loadings ranging from 0.54 to 0.93. The 2 factors cumulatively explained 46.35% of the variance and their correlation coefficient ranging from 17.58 to 28.77.

On Table 5 we can see tryout results of “Youth vision questionnaire.”

Scales	Media	Median	Mode	SD
Interaction with society	3,01	3,33	3,3	0,88
Confidence	3,72	3,80	3,8	0,78

Items	Factor	
	1	2
Modern society gives young people the opportunity to show what they are capable of.	0,93	
Modern society offers opportunities for young people.	0,77	
Modern society listens to the voice of youth.	0,67	
$\alpha = 0,83$		
I have a positive outlook on my future.		0,77
I am determining my future.		0,63
My children's future will be better than mine.		0,55
My future will be better than my parents'.		0,54
I can participate in changing society.		0,43
$\alpha = 0,72$		
% variace	28,77	17,58
Variance tot.	46,35	

Extraction method: maximum likelihood.

Rotation method: Oblimin with Kaiser normalization.

Table 5: “Youth vision questionnaire” tryout results

According to results of the tryout for “Youth vision questionnaire” we may say that it is trustworthy to be used in our main study. The translation and adaptation of items was made reliably and accurately into the Russian language. The committee fulfilled its objectives in respect of this questionnaire completely.

2.2.2 Questionnaire about the future

EFA and Descriptive analysis of the “Questionnaire about the future.” General Cronbach’s alpha is good in each factor as well as for each item in variable. The questionnaire has 21 items with factor loadings ranging from 0.75 to 0.84. The 3 factors cumulatively explained 1.26% of the variance and their correlation coefficient ranging from 20.15 to 45.33.

On Table 6 we can see tryout results of “Questionnaire about the future.”

Scales	Mode	Median	Mean	SD
Socio-political improvement	3,00	3,63	3,59	0,90
Socio-economic deterioration	3,38	3,25	3,11	1,00
Political and economic stability	2,60	2,60	2,76	0,94

Items	1	2	3
Education will get more recognition	0,79		
Society will be more politicized	0,80		
The cultural level will be higher	0,76		
The information will be more accessible	0,78		
There will be more respect for the elderly	0,75		
There will be more attention to children	0,75		
There will be more justice.	0,75		
There will be more happiness.	0,75		
$\alpha = 0,79$			
There will be more violence.		0,80	
There will be more wars.		0,80	
There will be more corruption.		0,80	
There will be more racism.		0,82	
We'll be more alone.		0,82	
Russia will have more economic problems.		0,83	
There will be more poor people.		0,81	
Environmental pollution will increase.		0,84	
$\alpha = 0,83$			
It will be easier to find a job in Russia.			0,80
It will be easier to get a job that you like.			0,80
It will be easier to find a job.			0,79
There will be a more equitable distribution of benefits.			0,82
There will be more political stability.			0,84
$\alpha = 0,84$			
Variance	33,34	45,33	20,15
Variance tot.	1,26		

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Rotation converged in 12 iterations.

Table 6: “Questionnaire about the future” tryout results

During analysis we received good indices and we may say that “Questionnaire about the future” can be employed in the main study of our research.

Normal distribution analysis showed good values. It is one of the most important concepts in mathematical statistics. The normal distribution (also called the Gaussian distribution) is characterized by the fact that the extreme values of a feature in it are quite rare, and values close to the average value are often. A normal distribution occurs when a given random variable is the sum of a large number of independent random variables, each of which plays an insignificant role in the formation of the entire sum.

The normal distribution has a bell-shaped shape, the values of the mode, median and arithmetic mean are equal to each other. It was found that many biological parameters are distributed in a similar way (height, weight, and so on). Subsequently, psychologists found out that most psychological properties (indicators of intelligence, temperamental characteristics, abilities and other mental phenomena) also have a normal distribution. This principle is taken into account when standardizing test methods. At the same time, the larger the sample size, the more the empirical distribution obtained approaches normal.

Also, in the main study we will do Skewness and Kurtosis analyses to verify the goodness of the fit of our research construct. The asymmetry is an indicator of the symmetry/skewness of the distribution curve, and the kurtosis determines its imperfection. With left-sided asymmetry, its indicator is positive and lower values of the attribute prevail in the distribution.

If the distribution is dominated by values close to the arithmetic mean, then a vertex distribution is formed. In this case, the kurtosis indicator tends to a positive value. In a normal distribution, the kurtosis is zero. If the distribution has 2 vertices (bimodal distribution), then the kurtosis tends to a negative value.

The distribution is estimated as presumably close to normal if it is established that from 50 to 80% of all values are located within one standard deviation from the arithmetic mean, and the kurtosis coefficient in absolute value does not exceed a value equal to two.

The distribution is considered to be reliably normal if the absolute value of the asymmetry and kurtosis indicators is less than their representativeness errors by 3 or more times.

2.2.3 Soft Skills self-evaluation questionnaire - 3SQ

On Table 7 we can see tryout results of “Soft Skills self-evaluation questionnaire 3SQ.”

Scales	Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Autonomy	I am able to make my choice.	0,98									
	I'm thinking on my own.	0,731									
	I can make my own decisions.	0,728									
	I choose my own activity.	0,53					-0,273				
Trust	I am pleased with myself.		0,896								
	I'm proud of myself.		0,85								
	I believe in myself.		0,734								
Leadership	I believe in my abilities.		0,669							0,382	
	I know how to manage group activities.			-1,002							
	I know how to organize other people's work.			-0,875							
Collaboration	I know how to distribute responsibility within a group.			-0,629			0,294				
	I know how to communicate with other people in order to effectively carry out projects together							-0,291			-0,293
Leadership	There are areas of activity in which I manage other people.		0,252	-0,391		0,32					
Leadership	I am trusted to make responsible decisions.		0,32	-0,352					0,297		
Problem solving	To solve complex problems, I consider all possible solutions.				0,804						
	I find the maximum possible solutions to the problems I face.				0,616				0,25	-0,295	
	Faced with a difficult situation, I think over various ways to get out of it.				0,607				0,452	0,28	
Collaboration	Being in a difficult situation, I develop strategies to get out of it.				0,477			0,343	0,318		
	I willingly support group initiatives.					0,804					
Empathy	I feel my involvement in what is happening to other people.					0,669					
Collaboration	I like to implement tasks together with other people.					0,593					
Empathy	I am able to understand the human condition and treat it with attention and participation.			-0,338		0,548					
Empathy	When someone is treated unfairly, I experience his (her) emotions.				0,335	0,486				0,286	
Collaboration	It's easy for me to work with other people.			-0,288		0,41					-0,384
Empathy	I'm trying to get into the position of other people/imagine myself in their place.				0,379	0,405					
Commitment	When I do something, I make every effort.						0,701				
	I carefully perform all the actions that are necessary to achieve the result.						0,645				
	I do everything carefully and accurately.						0,562				
Resilience	I keep calm in crisis situations.						0,508				-0,462
Commitment	When I take up some activity, I am determined to finish the job.	0,411					0,5				
Openness	I take into account the opinions of other people.							0,859			
	I take into account suggestions made by other people.							0,828			
	I appreciate the verbal support expressed by others.							0,422		0,255	
	I tend to take into account other people's point of view.	-0,275						0,339	0,405		
Curiosity	I like an in-depth approach to argumentation.									0,837	
	I tend to study carefully, take notes.									0,791	
	I tend to ask questions to find out more.									0,495	
	Actively looking for new information.									0,447	
Resilience	I easily return to a good mood after an outburst of anger.										-0,757
	I deal with disappointment easily.										-0,713
	I remain realistic and keep a positive attitude when faced with difficulties.		0,266				0,334				-0,46
% of variance		27,92	6,88	6,10	5,99	4,99	4,31	3,51	2,85	2,27	1,90
Total variance		66,70									

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood. Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 18 iterations.

Scales	Mode	Median	Mean	SD
Trust	5,0	3,50	3,53	1,09
Empathy	3,8	3,75	3,52	0,93
Curiosity	5,0	3,75	3,85	0,86
Leadership	5,0	3,80	3,75	0,93
Openness	3,3	3,50	3,50	0,78
Collaboration	3,5	3,50	3,59	0,91
Autonomy	5,0	4,50	4,37	0,69
Commitment	3,0	3,75	3,63	0,79
Problem solving	4,0	4,00	4,04	0,77
Resilience	3,0	3,50	3,40	0,98

Table 7: “Soft Skills self-evaluation questionnaire – 3SQ” tryout result

General Cronbach’s alpha is good for each factor as well as descriptive indices but some items in EFA analysis showed insignificant values. Some items in variables made one factor with different scales. “Empathy” and “Collaboration” converged. That can be explained by inappropriate translation and adaptation procedure of committee. All marked items must be revised in order to modify and fix the analysis as well as to be used further in our research. We will do second committee approach and tryout for “Soft Skills self-evaluation questionnaire – 3SQ” with revised items to check the goodness of the fit of the construct.

The main task in solving the problem of translatability is to trace the patterns of translation in relation to its original. Much attention is paid to the final type of translation and its relation to the original. At the present stage of the development of approaches to translation, it is very important not only to convey the main meaning of the original text, but also to build a translation according to the same scheme and the same concept as in the original, in order not to lose numerous, at first glance, not significant parts of the text, which united they form the main meaning of the work into one whole.

It should be borne in mind that for translation, the equivalence of the meanings of not individual words or even isolated sentences is essential, but of the entire translated text (speech work) as a whole in relation to the entire translation text. The specific distribution of elementary units of meaning according to individual words, phrases and sentences of a given text is determined by numerous and complex factors.

A translation is considered successful if it meets the following criteria:

1) reliability and accuracy of the translation. In this case, we are talking about how accurately the translator was able to convey the meaning of the source text, while using various methods of translation activity;

2) transparency of the translation. This criterion characterizes the translation as a translation that meets all the grammatical and lexical rules of the target language.

When covering the problem of translatability, we encounter such a concept as equivalence. The equivalence of a translation is the semantic proximity, or in other words, the commonality of the content of the original and the translation. Depending on the proximity of the translation to the original, the level of equivalence is determined.

There are two types of translation equivalence:

1) potentially achievable, which means the maximum commonality of the content of two texts that are written in different languages, while allowing differences in language units;

2) real semantic equivalence, which is achieved directly in the translation process.

There are also often situations when a process, object or phenomenon is described neutrally in the original, and there is a comparative turnover of these terms in the translation language. In this case, for the beauty and emotionality of the work, the translator can replace neutral words with their comparative turns.

2.2.4 Positivity Questionnaire

EFA and Descriptive analysis of the “Positivity scale” –P-scale. General Cronbach’s alpha is good as well as for each item in variable. The questionnaire has 8 items with factor loadings ranging from 0.78 to 0.80. Item “Sometimes the future seems really bleak to me” must be recoded in order to conduct correct analysis.

On Table 8 we can see tryout results of “Positivity Questionnaire.”

Items	Component	
	1	2
As a rule, I really believe in myself.	0,76	-0,28
In general, I am pleased with myself.	0,71	-0,01
I am happy with my life.	0,71	-0,02
Sometimes the future seems really bleak to me.	-0,69	-0,07
I look to the future with hope and enthusiasm.	0,68	0,06
I think I have something to be proud of.	0,66	-0,63
I am very confident in the future.	0,64	0,34
When I need it, I usually have someone I can rely on.	0,47	0,71
% Variance	44,85	13,76
Variance tot.	58,61	
Extraction method: analysis of the main components. 2 components extracted.		

Items	Correct	If deleted	Alpha
I am very confident in the future.	0,51	0,80	0,82
I am happy with my life.	0,60	0,79	
When I need it, I usually have someone I can rely on.	0,36	0,82	
I look to the future with hope and enthusiasm.	0,55	0,80	
In general, I am pleased with myself.	0,59	0,79	
I think I have something to be proud of.	0,51	0,80	
As a rule, I really believe in myself.	0,64	0,78	
Sometimes the future seems really bleak to me. (Recoded)	0,57	0,80	

Scale	Mode	Median	Mean	SD
Positivity	3,00	3,69	3,59	0,97

Table 8: “Positivity Questionnaire” tryout results

During analysis we received good indices and we may say that “Positivity Questionnaire” can be used in the main study of our research.

The best translations, according to many well-known researchers, may contain conditional changes compared to the original - and these changes are absolutely necessary if the goal is to create a unity of form and content similar to the original on the material of another language, however, the accuracy of the translation depends on the volume of these changes - and it is the minimum of such changes that an equivalent translation assumes.

The main requirements that an artistic equivalent translation must meet, according to many scientists, are the following:

1) Accuracy. The translator is obliged to convey to the reader completely all the thoughts expressed by the author. At the same time, "not only the main provisions should be preserved, but also the nuances and shades of the statement. Taking care of the completeness of the transmission of the utterance, the translator, at the same time, should not add anything from himself, should not supplement and explain the author" It would also be a distortion of the original text.

2) Clarity. The conciseness and conciseness of the translation language, however, should not go anywhere to the detriment of the clarity of the presentation of the idea, the ease of its understanding. It is necessary to "avoid complex and ambiguous phrases that complicate perception" The idea should be stated in simple and clear language.

3) Literariness. As already noted, the translation must fully comply with the generally accepted norms of the Russian literary language. Each phrase should

sound lively and natural, without retaining any hints of the syntactic constructions of the original that are alien to the Russian language. Due to the significant discrepancy in the syntactic structure of the Italian and Russian languages, it is rarely possible to preserve the original form of expression in translation. Moreover, in the interests of the accuracy of the meaning transfer, it is often necessary to resort to changing the structure of the translated sentence in accordance with the norms of the Russian language, i.e., rearranging or even completely replacing individual words and expressions, although replacing even one word with another is very significant." In translation, not one, but all words are replaced by others belonging, among other things, to a different language system, which is distinguished by its special structure of speech - the order of words in a sentence, words belonging to the same synonymous series, as a rule, differ significantly in different languages in semantic shades.

2.3 Second tryout and committee

In order to translate, adapt and validate the “Soft Skills self-evaluation questionnaire” we needed to take second tryout as well as second committee approach to improve items that were not translated properly that was revealed during Exploratory Factor Analysis. Some items of several factors indicated insignificant values to be used in main study and some items converged with others from different variables. It can only be explained by confusion of students while filling the forms questionnaires. Also, it showed some problems of translation and adaptation that were mentioned above.

On Table 9 we can see variants of translation of original items of “Soft Skills self-evaluation questionnaire”. Committee discussed and chose the final version of items to be employed in the second tryout for this questionnaire.

Variant 1

Leadership	In the group, I make a decision. (I am trusted to take responsibility for myself)
Problem solving	When I have problems, I think about different ways to solve them.
Problem solving	When I have problems, I make a decision right away, without thinking that there is another way. (when I encounter a problem, I try different solutions)
Collaboration	I like to do joint projects with others.
Collaboration	I know how to do projects with classmates.(I know how to organize collaboration with other people)
Leadership	There are questions or cases where I am in charge (leading others).
Collaboration	I am willing to participate in any group projects (events).
Empathy	I am always ready to help solve other people's problems.
Collaboration	I participate with interest in other people's projects.(it's easy for me to work in a team.
Problem solving	When I have problems, I try to find different ways to solve them. (when

	faced with a difficult situation, I look for ways out)
Problem solving	I find as many solutions as possible to the problems I face.
Resilience	When I have problems, I do not restrain myself from emotions, but remain calm (oh). (in crisis situations, I remain calm)
Resilience	I remain realistic and maintain a positive attitude when faced with difficulties.
Empathy	I care about what happens (how they live) with others. (how they live - don't)
Empathy	When someone feels bad that I feel his (her) pain. (when someone is treated unfairly, I experience his (her) emotions)
Empathy	When someone feels bad or good that I'm trying (I can feel) his (her) feelings (I'm trying to put myself in the place of others - that is, to understand someone else's point of view)
Commitment	When I am engaged in any business, I am determined to bring it to the end.
Openness	I understand that my opinion is not the only one. (I try to accept other people's point of view)

Variant 2

Leadership	I am trusted to make responsible/final decisions.
Problem solving	(Faced with) In a difficult situation, I think over think over various ways to get out of it.
Problem solving	To solve complex problems (Faced with a problem), I consider/explore all possible solutions.
Collaboration	I like to implement/implement/implement projects/tasks together with other people.
Collaboration	I am able to communicate/interact with other people in order to effectively perform work/projects/tasks together.
Leadership	There are/there are areas of activity in which I am a leader/manage other people.
Collaboration	I willingly take part (in the discussion)/I support group initiatives (proposals put forward for discussion).
Empathy	I am able to enter into the position of another person / understand the state of a person and treat him with attention and participation.
Collaboration	It's easy for me to work with other people (in a team).
Problem solving	Being in a difficult situation, I think over / work out / develop strategies to get out of it (from the current situation).
Problem solving	I find the maximum possible solutions to the problems I face.
Resilience	I keep calm in crisis situations.
Resilience	I remain realistic and keep a positive attitude when faced with difficulties.
Empathy	I feel my involvement in what is happening to other people.
Empathy	When someone is treated unfairly, I experience/experience his (her) emotions/feelings.
Empathy	Trying to get into the position of other people/imagine myself in their place.
Commitment	When I take on Something / some activity, I am determined to finish the job.
Openness	I tend/have a tendency/predisposition to take into account/take into account the point of view of other people.

Final variant

Leadership	I am trusted to make responsible decisions.
Problem solving	Faced with a difficult situation, I think over various ways to get out of it.
Problem solving	To solve complex problems, I consider all possible solutions.
Collaboration	I like to implement tasks together with other people.
Collaboration	I know how to communicate with other people in order to effectively carry out projects together.
Leadership	There are areas of activity in which I manage other people.
Collaboration	I willingly support group initiatives.
Empathy	I am able to understand the human condition and treat it with attention and participation.
Collaboration	It's easy for me to work with other people.
Problem solving	Being in a difficult situation, I develop strategies to get out of it.
Problem solving	I find the maximum possible solutions to the problems I face.
Resilience	I keep calm in crisis situations.
Resilience	I remain realistic and maintain a positive attitude when faced with difficulties.
Empathy	I feel my involvement in what is happening to other people.
Empathy	When someone is treated unfairly, I experience his (her) emotions.
Empathy	I'm trying to get into the position of other people/imagine myself in their place.
Commitment	When I take up some activity, I am determined to finish the job.
Openness	I tend to take into account other people's point of view.

Table 9: “Soft Skills self-evaluation questionnaire” variant of translation

When committee finished to translate and discuss the variants of items that showed insignificant values due to inadequate translation and adaptation procedure that was made in the first tryout the “Soft Skills self-evaluation questionnaire” was reassembled in Google forms to create a new link for testing.

Administration of Lyceum “1”, Berezniki, Perm region responded to us willing to participate in our study and to help with “Soft Skills self-evaluation questionnaire” validation. The sample was 100 students. We employed IBM SPSS 24-26 software to analyze received data.

On Table 10 we can see the results of “Soft Skills self-evaluation questionnaire” validation.

Scales	Mean	SD	Alpha
Trust	3,73	0,97	0,93
Empathy	3,75	0,84	0,79
Curiosity	3,88	0,80	0,81
Leadership	3,69	0,94	0,89
Openness	3,60	0,73	0,70
Collaboration	3,71	0,91	0,86
Autonomy	4,36	0,69	0,88
Commitment	3,85	0,79	0,87
P. Solving	4,11	0,75	0,87
Resilience	3,42	0,87	0,79
Total	3,81	0,83	0,94

Scales	Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Trust	I'm proud of myself.	0,86									
	I believe in myself.	0,85									
	I believe in my abilities.	0,82									
	I am pleased with myself.	0,78									
Autonomy	I am able to make my choice.		-0,96								
	I'm thinking on my own.		-0,77								
	I can make my own decisions.		-0,75								
	I choose my own activity.		-0,49								
Openness	I take into account the opinions of other people.			0,95							
	I take into account suggestions made by other people.			0,75							
	I appreciate the verbal support expressed by others.			0,35							
	I tend to take into account other people's point of view.			0,42							
P. solving	To solve complex problems, I consider all possible solutions.				0,67						
	I find the maximum possible solutions to the problems I face.				0,66						
	Faced with a difficult situation, I think over various ways to get out of it.				0,53						
	Being in a difficult situation, I develop strategies to get out of it.				0,50						
Leadership	I know how to distribute responsibility within a group.					-0,75					
	I know how to manage group activities.					-0,69					
	I know how to organize other people's work.					-0,65					
	There are areas of activity in which I manage other people.					-0,63					
	I am trusted to make responsible decisions.					-0,43					
Empathy	When someone is treated unfairly, I experience his (her) emotions.						0,79				
	I'm trying to get into the position of other people/imagine myself in their place.						0,67				
	I feel my involvement in what is happening to other people.						0,66				
	I am able to understand the human condition and treat it with attention and participation.						0,54				
Commitment	When I take up some activity, I am determined to finish the job.							-0,85			
	I carefully perform all the actions that are necessary to achieve the result.							-0,82			
	When I do something, I make every effort.							-0,74			
	I do everything carefully and accurately.							-0,60			
Resilience	I easily return to a good mood after an outburst of anger.								0,77		
	I deal with disappointment easily.								0,67		
	I remain realistic and keep a positive attitude when faced with difficulties.								0,62		
	I keep calm in crisis situations.								0,48		
Curiosity	I like an in-depth approach to argumentation.									-0,75	
	I tend to study carefully, take notes.									-0,57	
	I tend to ask questions to find out more.									0,29	
	Actively looking for new information.									-0,45	
Collaboration	I know how to communicate with other people in order to effectively carry out projects together										-0,68
	It's easy for me to work with other people.										-0,68
	I like to implement tasks together with other people.										0,48
	I willingly support group initiatives.										0,43
% of variance		27,92	6,88	6,10	5,99	4,99	4,31	3,51	2,85	2,27	1,90
Total variance		66,70									

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood. Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 18 iterations.

Table 10: "Soft Skills self-evaluation questionnaire" second tryout results

EFA and Descriptive analysis of the “Soft Skills self-evaluation questionnaire.” General Cronbach’s alpha is good in each factor as well as for each item in variable. The questionnaire has 41 items with factor loadings ranging from 0.29 to 0.96. The 10 factors cumulatively explained 66.705% of the variance and their correlation coefficient ranging from 1.90 to 27.92.

Now we may say that “Soft Skills self-evaluation questionnaire” can be used in main study though items “I willingly support group initiatives,” “I tend to ask questions to find out more,” “I appreciate the verbal support expressed by others” showed low values but it didn’t affect the factors as had been before in the first tryout.

We also may say that the objectives to translate, adapt and validate were fulfilled. The second committee approach improved the items of “Soft Skills self-evaluation questionnaire” and the further analyses demonstrated the goodness of the construct fit of validated instrument.

2.4 Problems of instruments’ translation and adaptation

Translation problems

After first attempt of translation there were several problems connected with interpretation of Italian items into Russian ones because of its structure. The problem consisted of some features and peculiarities of Italian language and its reflective type:

- 1) reflective type of items without revising and clarification
- 2) simple organized order of sentences
- 3) sequence of judgments in one variable that seemed similar to each other
- 4) sequence of suppositions in one variable seemed to confuse the students whether they are doing the same or not
- 5) some items in one variable seemed to have one meaning, purpose but were different in tail- so the sequence in one sentence was revised for a special purpose (may be unknown)
- 6) when translated due to reflective type of Italian some items needed additional clarification or explanation
- 7) clarification was not allowed to do because it will break or corrupt the sequence of judgements and suppositions in one variable and then it will affect the whole questionnaire

that is why we need to “sharpen” the items in Russian without total or partial change of items as well as adding any clarification

that caused several problems related with translation and interpretation - we need experts in Italian. Ones who can do a proper translation and exact formulations of items

So, when it was done and we had received the translated items- we got several options in re-assembling them into Russian ones.

Also, we came across with building the order and sequence of judgements in Russian language because of its inversive type:

- proper formulation of judgments and suppositions
- conjugation of judgments(items) in sequence
- rearranging of words in one sequence, block, sentence
- order, coherence, consistency
- language advantages and disadvantages
- extended sequence of any judgment or supposition

Adaptation problems

Besides what was said we want to add some details that are related to Russian context. When trying to find a pure reason for it we found some answers that were related to the level of understanding of some items given. They were as we supposed it:

because we gave these questionnaires to students from 14 to 18 thus each item affected every student randomly or in particular way

- in terms of their age
- in terms of puberty
- in terms of their gender
- in terms of their place of living, conditions, etc.
- partly of their family status or its lack, in case of orphanage
- some of students were in some social groups or clubs
- some of them moved to the other city\town\country
- world situation 2020\2022 COVID-19
- aftermath of COVID-19 on students who graduate from school\university and etc.
- self-lock down because of COVID-19

- some expressions and some words in the items might have been unknown for students or seemed unfamiliar that were set in the questionnaires
- some expressions and some words had personal context for some students
- mentality in language, some expression and some words had another taint, tint or even meaning in Russian context and language in comparison with Italian one.
- mentality in understanding, interpretation of words in sequence for each student for her\himself
- variability of translation of each item into Russian language
- full or partial reformulation when translating into Russian
- side effects when one item is translated properly and the other is reformulated
- some items seem to be incomplete in the matter of statement, judgment or supposition thus look strange, queer or make one distracted from the meaning

All these features are not new to the situation we have but also, they add some complexity and disorder that can't be solved by one man.

Thus, we had to find some experts in the fields we use those who work with language. For example: teachers, interpreters and lingua psychologists to help our research as well as other colleagues to improve our research step by step.

Chapter 3. Main study. Testing in schools of Moscow and hypotheses testing and analyses.

3.1 Main sample description

The empirical study of the adolescents of 14-18 years old was conducted from September of 2020 to February of 2022 in schools No. 1284, 2107, 1468 of Moscow. To explore the expectations of society, future, Soft-skills and positivity we created a link Google forms with description of our study and instruction of how to fill the form. Also, before the questionnaires there were questions about age, gender and origin of a responder.

The study involved 339 adolescents aged 14 to 18 years. 263 female and 76 male students participated in our main study.

The age of children aged 14-18 is called the senior adolescence. Children at this age are already practically formed intellectually developed personalities. They have their own opinion and their own taste. They are ready to discuss any issue, to prove their opinion in a reasoned manner. An increasing place in their lives is occupied by studies, tutors and thoughts about admission.

Psychological and personal changes in a teenager occur unevenly. A teenager declares himself as an adult, but sometimes commits childish acts. This is due to the fact that adolescents do not yet have well-learned adult forms of behavior, adult "blanks" of behavior. That is why a teenager often describes more decisive actions in his fantasies and statements, but in reality, he gives in to the situation and does not always own it.

The need to recognize one's own adulthood at this age is maximal, and the social life that a teenager lead remains basically the same: the child also goes to school, does homework, communicates with friends and family. This need for changes and the inability to make them often causes conflicts between a teenager and parents and teachers. Children at this age are "hypertrophied", exaggerated adults who have their own opinion on everything, express it endlessly and are not ready to take into account the opinions of other people. But despite the fact that a teenager is not ready to listen to others, it is worth listening to his opinion, there is a chance that this will benefit your relationship and the teenager will reciprocate.

Here are a few rules that it is advisable to follow when interacting with a teenager:

- Respect his opinion and his taste. In older adolescence, a child develops his own style in clothes, his preferences in music, in movies. Sometimes, and even often, parents do not share their child's preferences. It is not necessary to love his music and his appearance at all, it is enough just to respect!
- Respect your child's choice. This applies to different spheres of life – the choice to skip half a day and do homework at night; the choice not to go to the anniversary to my grandmother, even if the whole family is going there; the choice

to buy an expensive thing now and stay for a few months without pocket money. Give the child the right to such decisions and make sure that he himself is responsible for the consequences of his choices and actions.

- Involve the teenager in solving family problems. Gather a family council and decide together where the family will travel. Or distribute the family budget together. A teenager will feel his importance in the family on an equal basis with adults.

- The older the child gets, the more personal boundaries he builds around himself. Don't touch things in his room. If there's a mess, it's his mess and he's happy with it. Knock when you enter the room. The sooner you accept these boundaries, the less conflict there will be between you.

- Children at this age are looking for themselves, trying to figure out who they are, whether they are good or bad. It is for this, to understand which side I am, which I am, that well-off teenagers can join dysfunctional companies, start making friends with bad guys. Do not be afraid of this, if you have given your child a good personal example, the child will be able to make the right choice between good and evil. And if your personal example is not so good, do not expect the best from your child. Perhaps he will become better than you, but this will happen much later, at a more conscious age.

- Do not criticize the company with which your child communicates, even if you really do not like it. This may lead to the teenager withholding his communication with them. Let the child decide for himself who he should be with – trust him with this, he will make the right choice.

Mood swings are a common story in the life of a teenager. Take it calmly. You know that unexpected mood swings are characteristic of your child's age, respectively, you should not worry about this and there is no need to be angry either. Your child at this age will not always be – everything is temporary, and his mood will also return to normal over time. The best thing you can do with your emotions, which are still there, and you can't get them anywhere, is to express them verbally in the form of "I am a message". "I get angry when people don't keep their promises. I am even more angry when my daughter does not fulfill her promises." "I don't like it when someone walks around the house in street shoes. I feel sorry for my work. Don't do that anymore." Thus, you will give an example of a constructive dialogue to the child.

3.2 Problems and threats of the main study

The specifics of scientific research in social psychology

Each of the features of scientific research mentioned here has its own specifics in social psychology. The model of scientific research proposed in the logic and methodology of science is usually based on examples of exact sciences and, above

all, physics. As a result, many essential features for other scientific disciplines are lost. In particular, for social psychology, it is necessary to specify a number of specific problems concerning each of these traits.

The first problem that arises here is the problem of empirical data. Data in social psychology can be either data on the open behavior of individuals in groups, or data characterizing some characteristics of the consciousness of these individuals, or psychological characteristics of the group itself. There is a fierce debate in social psychology about whether to "admit" these two types of data into the study: in different theoretical orientations, this issue is solved in different ways.

Thus, in behaviorist social psychology, only facts of open behavior are taken as data; cognitivism, on the contrary, focuses on data that characterize only the cognitive world of an individual: images, values, attitudes, etc. In other traditions, the data of socio-psychological research can be represented by both of their types. But this immediately puts forward certain requirements for the methods of their collection. The source of any data in social psychology is a person, but one set of methods is suitable for registering acts of his behavior, the other for fixing his cognitive formations. Recognition of both genera as full-fledged data requires recognition and a variety of methods.

The data problem also has another side: what should be their volume? According to the amount of data present in a socio-psychological study, they are all divided into two types: a) correlation, based on a large array of data, among which various kinds of correlations are established, and b) experimental, where the researcher works with a limited amount of data and where the meaning of the work is the arbitrary introduction of new variables by the researcher and control over them. Again, the researcher's theoretical position is very significant in this matter: which objects, from his point of view, are generally "permissible" in social psychology (let's assume whether large groups are included in the number of objects or not).

The second feature of scientific research is the integration of data into principles, the construction of hypotheses and theories. And this trait is very specifically revealed in social psychology. Theories in the sense in which they are spoken about in the logic and methodology of science, it does not possess at all. As in other humanities, theories in social psychology are not deductive in nature, i.e., they do not represent such a well-organized connection between positions that it is possible to deduce any other from one. In socio-psychological theories, there is no rigor of such an order, as, for example, in the theories of mathematics or logic. In such conditions, a hypothesis begins to occupy a particularly important place in the study. The hypothesis "represents" a theoretical form of knowledge in socio-psychological research. Hence, the most important link in socio-psychological research is the formulation of hypotheses. One of the reasons for the weakness of many studies is the lack of hypotheses in them or their illiterate construction.

On the other hand, no matter how difficult it is to build theories in social psychology, more or less complete knowledge cannot develop here in the absence of theoretical generalizations. Therefore, even a good hypothesis in research is not a sufficient level of inclusion of theory in research practice: the level of generalizations obtained on the basis of hypothesis testing and on the basis of its confirmation is still only the most primary form of data "organization". The next step is the transition to higher-level generalizations, to theoretical generalizations. Of course, it would be optimal to build some kind of general theory explaining all the problems of social behavior and activity of an individual in a group, the mechanisms of the dynamics of the groups themselves, etc. But the development of so-called special theories (in a certain sense they can be called middle-rank theories), which cover a narrower sphere - some separate aspects of socio-psychological reality, seems to be more accessible so far. Such theories include, for example, the theory of group cohesion, the theory of group decision-making, the theory of leadership, etc. Just as the most important task of social psychology is the task of developing a special methodology, the creation of special theories is also extremely relevant here. Without this, the accumulated empirical material cannot be of value for making predictions of social behavior, i.e., for solving the main task of social psychology.

The third feature of scientific research, according to the requirements of logic and methodology of science, is the mandatory verifiability of hypotheses and the construction of reasonable predictions on this basis. Hypothesis testing is, of course, a necessary element of scientific research: without this element, strictly speaking, research generally loses its meaning. And at the same time, in testing hypotheses, social psychology is experiencing a number of difficulties associated with its dual status.

As an experimental discipline, social psychology is subject to the standards of hypothesis testing that exist for any experimental sciences where various models of hypothesis testing have been developed for a long time. However, having the features of a humanitarian discipline, social psychology gets into difficulties associated with this characteristic of it. There is an old controversy within the philosophy of neo-positivism on the question of what testing hypotheses means in general, their verification. Positivism has declared legitimate only one form of verification, namely, the comparison of scientific judgments with the data of direct sensory experience. If such a comparison is impossible, then it is impossible to say at all about the judgment being tested whether it is true or false; it simply cannot be considered a judgment in this case, it is a "pseudo-judgment".

If one strictly follows this principle (i.e., accepts the idea of "rigid" verification), no more or less general judgment of science has the right to exist. This leads to two important consequences accepted by positivist-oriented researchers: 1) science can use only the method of experiment (because only under these conditions is it possible to organize a comparison of judgment with the data of direct sensory

experience) and 2) science essentially cannot deal with theoretical knowledge (because not every theoretical position can be verified). The promotion of this requirement in the philosophy of neo-positivism closed the possibilities for the development of any non-experimental science and put restrictions on any theoretical knowledge in general; it has long been criticized. However, among experimental researchers, there is still a well-known nihilism regarding any forms of non-experimental research: the combination of two principles within social psychology gives a certain scope for neglecting that part of the problem that cannot be investigated by experimental methods, and where, consequently, verification of hypotheses in the only form in which it is developed in the neo-positivist a variant of logic and methodology of science.

But in social psychology, there are such subject areas as the field of research of the psychological characteristics of large groups, mass processes, where the use of completely different methods is necessary, and on the grounds that verification is impossible here, these areas cannot be excluded from the problems of science; here we need to develop other ways to test the hypotheses put forward. In this part, social psychology is similar to most of the humanities and, like them, must assert the right to the existence of its deep specificity. In other words, here it is necessary to introduce other criteria of scientific character, except those that are developed only on the material of exact sciences. One cannot agree with the statement that any inclusion of elements of humanitarian knowledge reduces the "scientific standard" of the discipline: crisis phenomena in modern social psychology, on the contrary, show that it often loses precisely because of the lack of its "humanitarian orientation".

Thus, all three requirements formulated above for scientific research are applicable in social psychology with certain reservations, which multiplies methodological difficulties.

The problem of the quality of socio-psychological information

The problem of information quality in socio-psychological research is closely related to the previous one. In a different way, this problem can be formulated as a problem of obtaining reliable information. In general, the problem of information quality is solved by ensuring the principle of representativeness, as well as by checking the method of obtaining data for reliability. In social psychology, these general problems acquire a specific content. Whether it is an experimental or a correlation study, the information that is collected in it must meet certain requirements. Taking into account the specifics of non-experimental research should not result in disregard for the quality of information. For social psychology, as for other human sciences, two types of information quality parameters can be distinguished: objective and subjective.

This assumption follows from the peculiarity of the discipline that the source of information in it is always a person. This means that it is impossible to ignore this

fact and it is only necessary to ensure the highest possible level of reliability and those parameters that qualify as "subjective". Of course, the answers to the questionnaire or interview questions constitute "subjective" information, but it can also be obtained in the most complete and reliable form, or you can miss many important points arising from this "subjectivity". To overcome errors of this kind, a number of requirements regarding the reliability of information are introduced.

The reliability of information is achieved primarily by checking the reliability of the tool through which the data is collected. In each case, at least three reliability characteristics are provided: validity (validity), stability and accuracy (Yadov, 1995).

The validity of a tool is its ability to measure exactly those characteristics of an object that need to be measured. A researcher – social psychologist, when building a scale, must be sure that this scale will measure exactly those properties, for example, of the individual's attitudes, which he intends to measure. There are several ways to check the validity of the tool. You can resort to the help of experts, a circle of people whose competence in the issue under study is generally recognized. The distributions of the characteristics of the studied property obtained using the scale can be compared with those distributions that experts will give (acting without a scale). The coincidence of the results obtained to a certain extent convinces of the validity of the scale used. Another way, again based on comparison, is to conduct an additional interview: the questions in it should be formulated so that the answers to them also give an indirect characteristic of the distribution of the property being studied. The coincidence in this case is considered as some evidence of the validity of the scale. As can be seen, all these methods do not provide an absolute guarantee of the validity of the tool used, and this is one of the significant difficulties of socio-psychological research. It is explained by the fact that there are no ready-made methods that have already proven their validity, on the contrary, the researcher has to essentially rebuild the tool every time.

The stability of information is its quality to be unambiguous, i.e., when receiving it in different situations, it must be identical. (Sometimes this quality of information is called "reliability"). The methods of checking information for stability are as follows: a) repeated measurement; b) measurement of the same property by different observers; c) the so-called "splitting of the scale", i.e., checking the scale in parts. As you can see, all these methods of rechecking are based on repeated repetition of measurements. All of them should create confidence in the researcher that he can trust the data obtained.

Finally, the accuracy of information (in some works coincides with stability – see Saganenko, 1977) is measured by how fractional the metrics used are, or, in other words, how sensitive the instrument is. Thus, this is the degree of approximation of the measurement results to the true value of the measured value. Of course, every researcher should strive to get the most accurate data. However, creating a tool

with the right degree of accuracy is quite difficult in some cases. It is always necessary to decide which measure of accuracy is acceptable. When determining this measure, the researcher includes the entire arsenal of his theoretical ideas about the object.

Violation of one requirement negates another: for example, the data may be justified, but unstable (in a socio-psychological study, such a situation may arise when the survey turned out to be situational, i.e. the time of its conduct could play a certain role, and because of this, some additional factor arose that does not manifest itself in other situations); another example is when the data can be stable, but not justified (if, let's say, the entire survey turned out to be biased, then the same picture will be repeated for a long period of time, but the picture will be false!).

Many researchers note that all methods of checking information for reliability are not perfect enough in social psychology. In addition, R. Panto and M. Gravitz, for example, rightly note that these methods work only in the hands of a qualified specialist. In the hands of inexperienced researchers, verification "gives inaccurate results, does not justify the work involved and serves as the basis for untenable statements" (Panto, Gravitz, 1972).

The requirements that are considered elementary in the research of other sciences, in social psychology, are overgrown with a number of difficulties due primarily to a specific source of information. What are the characteristics of such a source as a person that complicate the situation? Before becoming a source of information, a person must understand the question, instruction, or any other requirement of the researcher. But people have different abilities of understanding; therefore, already at this point, various surprises await the researcher. Further, in order to become a source of information, a person must have it, but after all, the sample of subjects is not built from the point of view of selecting those who have information and rejecting those who do not have it (because in order to identify this difference between the subjects, again, it is necessary to conduct a special study). The following circumstance concerns the properties of human memory: if a person understands the question, has information, he still has to remember everything that is necessary for the completeness of the information. But the quality of memory is a strictly individual thing, and there are no guarantees that the subjects in the sample are selected according to the principle of more or less the same memory. There is one more important circumstance: a person must agree to give out information. His motivation in this case, of course, to a certain extent can be stimulated by the instructions, the conditions of the study, but all these circumstances do not guarantee the consent of the subjects to cooperate with the researcher.

Therefore, along with ensuring the reliability of data, the issue of representativeness is particularly acute in social psychology. The very formulation of this question is connected with the dual nature of social psychology. If we were

talking about it only as an experimental discipline, the problem would be solved relatively simply: representativeness in the experiment is quite strictly determined and verified. But in the case of correlation research, a social psychologist faces a completely new problem for him, especially if we are talking about mass processes. This new problem is sampling. The conditions for solving this problem are similar to the conditions for solving it in sociology.

Naturally, the same sampling norms are applied in social psychology, as they are described in statistics and as they are used everywhere. A researcher in the field of social psychology, in principle, is given, for example, such types of sampling as random, typical (or stratified), quota sampling, etc.

But in which case to apply one or the other kind is always a creative question: whether or not in each individual case it is necessary to divide the general population into classes beforehand, and only then to make a random selection from them, this task has to be solved anew each time in relation to this study, to this object, to these characteristics of the general population. The very allocation of classes (types) within the general population is strictly dictated by a meaningful description of the object of study: when it comes to the behavior and activity of masses of people, it is very important to determine exactly by what parameters types of behavior can be distinguished here.

The most difficult problem, however, is the problem of representativeness, which arises in a specific form and in a socio-psychological experiment. But before covering it, it is necessary to give a general description of those methods that are used in socio-psychological research.

General characteristics of methods of socio-psychological research. The whole set of methods can be divided into two large groups: research methods and methods of influence. The latter relate to a specific field of social psychology, the so-called "psychology of impact" and will be discussed in the chapter on practical applications of social psychology. Research methods are also analyzed here, in which, in turn, methods of collecting information and methods of its processing differ. There are many other classifications of methods of socio-psychological research. For example, there are three groups of methods: 1) methods of empirical research, 2) modeling methods, 3) managerial and educational methods (Sventsitsky, Semenov, 1977). At the same time, all those that will be discussed in this chapter fall into the first group. As for the second and third groups of methods indicated in the above classification, they do not have any special specifics in social psychology (which is recognized, at least with respect to modeling, by the authors of the classification themselves). Data processing methods are often simply not allocated to a special block, since most of them are also not specific to socio-psychological research, but use some general scientific techniques. One can agree with this, but nevertheless, for a complete understanding of the entire methodological armament of social psychology, it is necessary to mention the existence of this second group of methods.

Among the methods of collecting information, it is necessary to name: observation, study of documents (in particular, content analysis), various kinds of surveys (questionnaires, interviews), various kinds of tests (including the most common sociometric test), and finally, experiment (both laboratory and natural). It is hardly advisable to characterize each of these methods in detail in the general course, and even at the beginning of it. It is more logical to indicate the cases of their application in the presentation of individual substantive problems of social psychology, then such a presentation will be much clearer. Now it is necessary to give only the most general description of each method and, most importantly, to identify those moments where certain difficulties occur in their application. In most cases, these methods are identical to those used in sociology (Yadov, 1995).

Observation is an "old" method of social psychology and is sometimes contrasted with experiment as an imperfect method. At the same time, not all the possibilities of the observation method have been exhausted in social psychology today: in the case of obtaining data on open behavior, on the actions of individuals, the observation method plays a very important role. The main problem that arises when applying the observation method is how to ensure that certain classes of characteristics are fixed so that the "reading" of the observation protocol is understandable to another researcher and can be interpreted in terms of a hypothesis. In ordinary language, this question can be formulated as follows: what to observe? How to fix the observed?

There are many different proposals for organizing the so-called structuring of observation data, i.e., allocating certain classes in advance, for example, interactions of individuals in a group, followed by fixing the number, frequency of manifestation of these interactions, etc. One of such attempts made by R. Bales will be described in detail below. The question of distinguishing classes of observable phenomena is essentially a question of observation units, as is well known, which is also acute in other sections of psychology. In a socio-psychological study, it can be solved only separately for each specific case, provided that the subject of the study is taken into account. Another fundamental issue is the time interval that can be considered sufficient to fix any observation units. Although there are many different procedures in order to ensure that these units are fixed at certain intervals and their encoding, the issue cannot be considered fully resolved. As can be seen, the observation method is not as primitive as it seems at first glance, and, undoubtedly, can be successfully applied in a number of socio-psychological studies.

The study of documents is of great importance, because with this method it is possible to analyze the products of human activity. Sometimes the method of studying documents is unreasonably opposed, for example, to the method of surveys as an "objective" method to a "subjective" method. It is unlikely that this opposition is appropriate: after all, a person acts as a source of information in documents, therefore, all the problems that arise at the same time remain in force.

Of course, the measure of the "subjectivity" of a document varies depending on whether an official or a purely personal document is being studied, but it is always present. A special problem arises here also in connection with the fact that the researcher interprets the document, i.e., also a person with his own individual psychological characteristics inherent in him. The most important role in studying a document is played, for example, by the ability to understand the text. The problem of understanding is a special problem of psychology, but here it is included in the process of applying the methodology, therefore, it cannot be ignored.

To overcome this new kind of "subjectivity" (interpretation of the document by the researcher), a special technique is introduced, called "content analysis" (literally: "content analysis") (Bogomolova, Stefanenko, 1992). This is a special, more or less formalized method of analyzing a document, when special "units" are allocated in the text, and then the frequency of their use is calculated. It makes sense to use the content analysis method only in cases when the researcher is dealing with a large array of information, so that it is necessary to analyze numerous texts. Practically, this method is used in social psychology in research in the field of mass communications. A number of difficulties are not removed, of course, by the use of content analysis techniques; for example, the process of selecting text units, of course, largely depends on the theoretical position of the researcher, and on his personal competence, the level of his creative abilities. As with the use of many other methods in social psychology, here the reasons for success or failure depend on the art of the researcher.

Surveys are a very common technique in socio-psychological research, causing, perhaps, the greatest number of complaints. Usually, criticisms are expressed in confusion about how one can trust the information obtained from the direct answers of the subjects, in essence from their self-reports. Accusations of this kind are based either on a misunderstanding or on absolute incompetence in the field of conducting surveys. Among the numerous types of surveys, interviews and questionnaires are most common in social psychology (especially in studies of large groups).

The main methodological problems that arise when using these methods are the construction of the questionnaire. The first requirement here is the logic of its construction, ensuring that the questionnaire delivers exactly the information that is required by the hypothesis, and that this information is as reliable as possible. There are numerous rules for constructing each question, arranging them in a certain order, grouping them into separate blocks, etc. The literature describes in detail (Lectures on the methodology of specific social research. M., 1972) typical errors that occur during the illiterate construction of the questionnaire. All this serves to ensure that the questionnaire does not require answers "head-on", so that its content is understandable to the author only if a certain plan is carried out, which is set out not in the questionnaire, but in the research program, in the

hypothesis constructed by the researcher. Designing a questionnaire is a very difficult job, it cannot be done hastily, because every bad questionnaire only serves to compromise the method.

A separate big problem is the use of interviews, since here there is an interaction between the interviewer and the respondent (i.e., the person answering the questions), which in itself is a certain socio-psychological phenomenon. During the interview, all the ways described in social psychology of the influence of one person on another are revealed, all the laws of people's perception of each other, the norms of their communication are in effect. Each of these characteristics can affect the quality of information, can introduce another kind of "subjectivity", which was discussed above. But it must be borne in mind that all these problems are not new to social psychology, certain "antidotes" have been developed for each of them, and the task is only to take mastering these methods with due seriousness. In contrast to the widespread unprofessional view that surveys are the "easiest" method to use, we can safely say that a good survey is the most "difficult" method of socio-psychological research.

Tests are not a specific socio-psychological method, they are widely used in various fields of psychology. When they talk about the use of tests in social psychology, they most often mean personality tests, less often group tests. But this kind of tests, as is known, is also used in general psychological studies of personality, there is no special specificity of the use of this method in socio-psychological research: all methodological standards for the use of tests adopted in general psychology are valid here.

As you know, a test is a special kind of test, during which the subject performs either a specially designed task, or answers questions that differ from questionnaire questions or interviews. The questions in the tests are indirect. The meaning of subsequent processing is to use the "key" to correlate the answers received with certain parameters, for example, personality characteristics, if we are talking about personality tests. Most of these tests are developed in pathopsychology, where their use makes sense only in combination with methods of clinical observation. Within certain limits, tests provide important information about the characteristics of personality pathology. It is usually considered the greatest weakness of personality tests that their quality is that they grasp only one side of the personality. This disadvantage is partially overcome in complex tests, for example, the Kettel test or the MMPI test. However, the use of these methods not in conditions of pathology, but in conditions of norm (which is what social psychology deals with) requires many methodological adjustments.

The most important question that arises here is the question of how important the tasks and questions offered to the individual are for her; in socio-psychological research - how much can be correlated with test measurements of various characteristics of the individual, her activities in the group, etc. The most common mistake is the illusion that it is worth conducting mass testing of personalities in to

some group, how all the problems of this group and the personalities that make it up will become clear. In social psychology, tests can be used as an auxiliary means of research. Their data must necessarily be compared with the data obtained using other methods. In addition, the use of tests is local in nature also because they mainly concern only one section of social psychology – the problem of personality. There are not so many tests that are important for the diagnosis of the group. As an example, we can name a widely used sociometric test, which will be discussed specifically in the section devoted to a small group.

The experiment acts as one of the main research methods in social psychology. The controversy surrounding the possibilities and limitations of the experimental method in this area is one of the most acute debates on methodological problems at the present time (Zhukov, Grzhegorzhevskaya, 1977). In social psychology, there are two main types of experiment: laboratory and natural. For both types, there are some general rules that express the essence of the method, namely: arbitrary introduction of independent variables by the experimenter and control over them, as well as changes in dependent variables. It is also common to require the separation of control and experimental groups so that the measurement results can be compared with some standard. However, along with these general requirements, laboratory and natural experiments have their own rules. Especially controversial for social psychology is the question of a laboratory experiment.

Debatable problems of the application of methods of socio-psychological research. In modern literature, two problems are discussed in this regard: what is the ecological validity of a laboratory experiment, i.e., the possibility of spreading the data obtained to "real life", and what is the danger of data bias due to a special selection of subjects. As a more fundamental methodological question, the question of whether the real fabric of social relations, the very "social" that constitutes the most important context in socio-psychological research, is not lost in a laboratory experiment. There are different points of view regarding the first of the problems posed. Many authors agree with the mentioned limitations of laboratory experiments, others believe that environmental validity should not be required from a laboratory experiment, that its results should not be transferred to "real life", i.e., that in an experiment it is only necessary to check certain provisions of the theory, and for the analysis of real situations it is necessary to interpret these provisions of the theory. Still others, such as D. Campbell, propose a special class of "quasi-experiments" in social psychology (Campbell, 1980). Their difference is the implementation of experiments not according to the full scheme dictated by the logic of scientific research, but in a kind of "truncated" form. Campbell scrupulously justifies the researcher's right to such a form of experiment, constantly appealing to the specifics of the subject of research in social psychology. At the same time, according to Campbell, it is necessary to take into account the numerous "threats" to the internal and external validity of the experiment in this area of knowledge and be able to overcome them. The main idea is that in socio-psychological research in general and in experimental research in

particular, an organic combination of quantitative and qualitative analysis is necessary. Such considerations can, of course, be taken into account, but they do not remove all problems.

Another limitation of the laboratory experiment, discussed in the literature, is associated with a specific solution to the problem of representativeness. Usually, for a laboratory experiment, it is not considered mandatory to observe the principle of representativeness, i.e., to accurately account for the class of objects to which the results can be distributed. However, as far as social psychology is concerned, there is a kind of bias that cannot be ignored. In order to assemble a group of subjects in the laboratory, they must be "torn out" from real life for a more or less long time. It is clear that this condition is so difficult that more often experimenters follow an easier path – they use those subjects who are closer and more accessible. Most often they are students of psychological faculties, moreover, those of them who have expressed willingness, consent to participate in the experiment. But it is this fact that causes criticism (in the USA there is even a disparaging term "social psychology of sophomores", ironically fixing the predominant contingent of subjects – students of psychological faculties), since in social psychology the age, professional status of the subjects plays a very serious role and this bias can greatly distort the results. In addition, the "willingness" to work with the experimenter also means a kind of sample bias. So, in a number of experiments, the so-called "anticipatory assessment" is recorded, when the subject plays along with the experimenter, trying to meet his expectations. In addition, a common phenomenon in laboratory experiments in social psychology is the so-called Rosenthal effect, when the result arises due to the presence of the experimenter (described by Rosenthal).

Compared with laboratory experiments in natural conditions, they have some advantages in these respects, but in turn they are inferior to them in terms of "purity" and accuracy. If we take into account the most important requirement of social psychology – to study real social groups, the real activity of individuals in them, then we can consider natural experiment a more promising method in this field of knowledge. As for the contradiction between the accuracy of measurement and the depth of qualitative (meaningful) data analysis, this contradiction really exists and applies not only to the problems of the experimental method.

All the described methods have one common feature, specific specifically for socio-psychological research. In any form of obtaining information, provided that its source is a person, there is also such a special variable as the interaction of the researcher with the subject. This interaction is most clearly manifested in the interview, but is actually given with any of the methods. The fact itself, the requirement to take it into account, has been stated for a long time in the socio-psychological literature. However, serious development and study of this problem are still waiting for their researchers.

A number of important methodological problems arise in the characterization of the second group of methods, namely, methods of material processing. This includes all statistical techniques (correlation analysis, factor analysis) and at the same time logical and theoretical processing techniques (building typologies, various ways of constructing explanations, etc.). This is where the newly named contradiction is found. To what extent does a researcher have the right to include in the interpretation of data considerations not only of logic, but also of meaningful theory? Won't the inclusion of such moments reduce the objectivity of the study, introduce into it what in the language of science is called the problem of values? For the natural and especially exact sciences, the problem of values does not stand as a special problem, but for the human sciences, including social psychology, it is exactly that.

In modern scientific literature, the controversy around the problem of values finds its resolution in the formulation of two samples of scientific knowledge – "scientific" and "humanistic" – and clarifying the relationship between them. The scientific image of science was created in the philosophy of neo-positivism. The main idea, which was the basis for the construction of such an image, was the requirement to liken all sciences to the most rigorous and developed natural sciences, primarily physics. Science should be based on a strict foundation of facts, apply strict measurement methods, use operational concepts (i.e., concepts, in relation to which operations for measuring those features that are expressed in the concept have been developed), have perfect methods for verifying hypotheses. No value judgments can be included either in the process of scientific research itself or in the interpretation of its results, since such inclusion reduces the quality of knowledge, opens access to extremely subjective conclusions. The role of the scientist in society was interpreted accordingly to this image of science. She was identified with the role of an impartial observer, but by no means a participant in the events of the studied world. At best, a scientist is allowed to perform the role of an engineer or, more precisely, a technician who develops specific recommendations, but is removed from solving fundamental issues, for example, regarding the direction of using the results of his research.

Already at the earliest stages of the emergence of such views, serious objections were raised against such a point of view. They were especially concerned with the sciences of man, society, and individual social phenomena. Such an objection was formulated, in particular, in the philosophy of neo-Kantianism, where the thesis about the fundamental difference between "natural sciences" and "cultural sciences" was discussed. At a level closer to concrete psychology, this problem was posed by V. Dilthey when he created "understanding psychology", where the principle of understanding was put on an equal level with the principle of explanation defended by positivists. Thus, the controversy has a long history. Today, this second trend identifies itself with the "humanistic" tradition and is largely supported by the philosophical ideas of the Frankfurt School.

Objecting to the position of scientism, the humanistic orientation insists that the specifics of the human sciences require the inclusion of value judgments in the fabric of scientific research, which also applies to social psychology. A scientist, formulating a problem, realizing the purpose of his research, focuses on certain values of society that he recognizes or rejects; further, the values he accepts allow him to comprehend the direction of using his recommendations; finally, values are necessarily "present" in the interpretation of the material, and this fact does not "reduce" the quality of knowledge, but, on the contrary, makes interpretations meaningful, since it allows us to fully take into account the social context in which the events studied by the scientist take place. The philosophical development of this problem is now complemented by attention to it from the side of social psychology. One of the points of criticism of the American tradition by European authors (especially S. Moscovici) is precisely the call to take into account the value orientation of socio-psychological research (Moscovici, 1984).

The problem of values is by no means an abstract, but a very relevant problem for social psychology. The thoroughness of the selection, development and application of specific techniques cannot by itself bring success to socio-psychological research if the vision of the problem as a whole, i.e., in the "social context", is lost. Of course, the main task is to find ways in which this social context can be captured in each specific study. But this is the second question. It is important to see this problem, to understand that value judgments are inevitably present in the research of sciences like social psychology, and one should not dismiss this problem, but consciously control one's own social position, the choice of certain values. At the level of each individual study, the question may be as follows: before starting a study, before choosing a methodology, it is necessary to think over the main outline of the study for yourself, to think about what, for what purpose the research is being undertaken, from what the researcher proceeds, starting it. It is in this context that in recent years the issue of qualitative research methods has been acutely discussed in social psychology, as well as in sociology (Yadov, 1995).

The means of implementing all these requirements is the construction of a program of socio-psychological research. In the presence of those methodological difficulties mentioned above, it is important in each study to clearly identify, explicate the tasks to be solved, the choice of object, formulate the problem being investigated, clarify the concepts used, and systematically designate the entire set of methods used. This will greatly contribute to the "methodological equipment" of the study. It is with the help of the program that it is possible to trace how each study is included in the "social context". The modern stage in the development of social psychology sets the task of building a kind of "standard" of socio-psychological research as opposed to the standard that was built in the tradition, mainly formed on the basis of the philosophy of neo-positivism. This standard should include all the requirements that are imposed on science today by the methodological reflection undertaken by it. It is the construction of the program

that can contribute to the improvement of research, turning them in each individual case from a simple "data acquisition" (even by perfect methods) into a genuine scientific analysis of the object under study.

3.3 Main sample analyses

3.3.1 Youth vision questionnaire

EFA and Descriptive analysis of the “Youth vision questionnaire” General Cronbach’s alpha is good in each factor as well as for each item in variable. The questionnaire has 8 items with factor loadings ranging from 0.57 to 0.72. The 2 factors cumulatively explained 22,70% of the variance and their correlation coefficient ranging from 5.17 to 11.66.

On Table 11 we can see main study results of “Questionnaire about the future.”

Scales	Median	Mode	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Interaction with society	3,67	3,67	3,50	0,80	-0,36	0,13	-0,13	0,26
Confidence	4,20	4,60	4,08	0,68	-0,83	0,13	0,68	0,26

Items	1	2
Modern society gives young people the opportunity to show what they are capable of.	0,72	
Modern society offers opportunities for young people.	0,62	
Modern society listens to the voice of youth.	0,63	
$\alpha = 0,745$		
I have a positive outlook on my future.		0,62
I am determining my future.		0,57
My children's future will be better than mine.		0,67
My future will be better than my parents'.		0,59
I can participate in changing society.		0,67
$\alpha = 0,68$		
Variance	5,71	11,66
Variance total	22,70	

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood. Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 4 iterations.

Table 11: “Youth vision questionnaire” main study results

The analysis of the scales in descriptive statistics of Kurtosis and Skewness showed the good values.

In order to fully validate the instrument, we conducted CFA analysis. We used M-PLUS 6.0 to run Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), whereas SPSS 26 was used for data managing, preliminary analyses of the data, correlational analyses and reliability analyses.

CFA represents a kind of structural equation modelling that specifically deals with measurement models, aiming to examine the relationship between observed measures and latent variables or factors. CFA procedures were used to evaluate the expected correlated 2-factor model for the “Youth vision questionnaire”.

The hypothesized 2-factor model did not provide a moderately acceptable fit with the following indices: $\chi^2 = 1215.963$, $\chi^2 / df = 28$, RMSEA = 0.066, CFI 0.960, AIC = 12667.034.

Thus, we can't say that we have Russian version of “Youth vision questionnaire” because the CFA showed unsatisfactory results.

3.3.2 Questionnaire about the future

On Table 12 we can see main study results of “Questionnaire about the future.”

Scales	Median	Mode	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Socio-political improvement	3,75	3,75	3,78	0,63	-0,26	0,13	-0,33	0,26
Socio-economic deterioration	2,63	3,00	2,74	0,87	0,26	0,13	-0,28	0,26
Political and economic stability	3,00	3,00	3,05	0,87	0,16	0,13	-0,28	0,26

Items	1	2	3
Education will get more recognition	0,77		
Society will be more politicized	0,78		
The cultural level will be higher	0,73		
The information will be more accessible	0,76		
There will be more respect for the elderly	0,71		
There will be more attention to children	0,72		
There will be more justice.	0,70		
There will be more happiness.	0,72		
$\alpha = 0,76$			

There will be more violence.		0,85	
There will be more wars.		0,86	
There will be more corruption.		0,85	
There will be more racism.		0,86	
We'll be more alone.		0,87	
Russia will have more economic problems.		0,86	
There will be more poor people.		0,85	
Environmental pollution will increase.		0,87	
$\alpha = 0,87$			
It will be easier to find a job in Russia.			0,82
It will be easier to get a job that you like.			0,82
It will be easier to find a job.			0,80
There will be a more equitable distribution of benefits.			0,84
There will be more political stability.			0,86
$\alpha = 0,85$			
Variance	25,78	48,17	19,04
Variance total	51,07		

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood. Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 12 iterations.

Table 12: "Questionnaire about the future" main study results

EFA and Descriptive analysis of the “Questionnaire about the future.” General Cronbach’s alpha is good in each factor as well as for each item in variable. The questionnaire has 21 items with factor loadings ranging from 0.70 to 0.87. The 3 factors cumulatively explained 51.07% of the variance and their correlation coefficient ranging from 19.04 to 48.17.

The analysis of the scales in descriptive statistics of Kurtosis and Skewness showed the good values.

In order to fully validate the instrument, we conducted CFA analysis. We used M-PLUS 6.0 to run Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), whereas SPSS 26 was used for data managing, preliminary analyses of the data, correlational analyses and reliability analyses.

CFA represents a kind of structural equation modelling that specifically deals with measurement models, aiming to examine the relationship between observed measures and latent variables or factors. CFA procedures were used to evaluate the expected correlated 3-factor model for the “Questionnaire about the future”.

The hypothesized 3-factor model did not provide a moderately acceptable fit with the following indices: $\chi^2 = 3300.511$, $\chi^2 / df = 91$, RMSEA = 0.075, CFI 0.924, AIC = 21934.872.

Thus, we can’t say that we have Russian version of “Youth vision questionnaire” because the CFA showed unsatisfactory results.

3.3.3 Soft Skills self-evaluation questionnaire

On Table 13 we can see main study results of “Soft Skills self-evaluation questionnaire”

Descriptive Statistics

	Median	Mode	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Total Soft Skills	3,90	4,05	3,87	0,57	-0,46	0,13	0,09	0,26

Scales	Cronbach's Alpha	Total
Trust	0,81	0,83
Openness	0,85	
Collaboration	0,82	
Leadership	0,81	
Empathy	0,83	
Commitment	0,81	
Autonomy	0,82	
Curiosity	0,81	
P.solving	0,81	
Resilience	0,83	

Scales	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Trust	1,00	0,37	0,45	0,01	-0,35	0,19	-0,20	-0,56	0,38	0,17
Openness	0,37	1,00	0,38	0,04	-0,28	0,24	-0,43	-0,36	0,26	0,23
Collaboration	0,45	0,38	1,00	-0,01	-0,38	0,37	-0,19	-0,37	0,21	0,00
Leadership	0,01	0,04	-0,01	1,00	0,02	0,04	-0,30	-0,02	0,02	0,41
Empathy	-0,35	-0,28	-0,38	0,02	1,00	-0,24	0,17	0,45	-0,23	-0,13
Commitment	0,19	0,24	0,37	0,04	-0,24	1,00	-0,16	-0,35	0,11	-0,04
Autonomy	-0,20	-0,43	-0,19	-0,30	0,17	-0,16	1,00	0,18	-0,03	-0,29
Curiosity	-0,56	-0,36	-0,37	-0,02	0,45	-0,35	0,18	1,00	-0,43	-0,25
P.solving	0,38	0,26	0,21	0,02	-0,23	0,11	-0,03	-0,43	1,00	0,18
Resilience	0,17	0,23	0,00	0,41	-0,13	-0,04	-0,29	-0,25	0,18	1,00

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood. Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 18 iterations.

	Trust	Openness	Collaboration	Leadership	Empathy	Commitment	Autonomy	Curiosity	P.solving	Resilience
Mode	5,00	5,00	5,00	5,00	5,00	5,00	5,00	5,00	5,00	3,00
Median	4,00	4,00	4,00	3,60	4,25	4,00	4,50	4,00	4,25	3,25
Mean	3,84	3,95	3,87	3,54	4,08	3,86	4,33	3,96	4,08	3,32
Std. Deviation	1,09	0,78	0,90	1,04	0,75	0,89	0,79	0,81	0,86	1,00
Skewness	-0,90	-0,46	-0,76	-0,43	-0,82	-0,65	-1,39	-0,60	-0,81	-0,24
Std. Error of Skewness	0,13	0,13	0,13	0,13	0,13	0,13	0,13	0,13	0,13	0,13
Kurtosis	0,07	-0,52	0,22	-0,51	0,49	-0,03	1,89	-0,18	0,30	-0,52
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0,26	0,26	0,26	0,26	0,26	0,26	0,26	0,26	0,26	0,26

Table 13: Soft Skills self-evaluation questionnaire” main study results

EFA and Descriptive analysis of the “Soft Skills self-evaluation questionnaire.” General Cronbach’s alpha is good in each factor as well as for each item in variable. The questionnaire has 41 items with factor loadings ranging from 0.81 to 0.85.

The analysis of the scales in descriptive statistics of Kurtosis and Skewness showed the good values.

In order to fully validate the instrument, we conducted CFA analysis. We used M-PLUS 6.0 to run Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), whereas SPSS 26 was used for data managing, preliminary analyses of the data, correlational analyses and reliability analyses.

CFA represents a kind of structural equation modelling that specifically deals with measurement models, aiming to examine the relationship between observed measures and latent variables or factors. CFA procedures were used to evaluate the expected correlated 10-factor model for the 3SQ.

The indices of fit for testing the dimensionality of the 3SQ were the following: the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), and the Normed Chi-Square (χ^2/df). CFI assesses the extent to which the tested model is superior to an alternative model in reproducing the observed covariance matrix. The CFI index varies from 0 to 1 and a cut-off criterion of CFI $>.90$ is needed in order to ensure that inadequate models are not accepted. The RMSEA introduces a correction for lack of parsimony, since all other things being equal, more complex models are penalized. A cut-off value close to .06 or an upper limit of .08 seems to be the general consensus among researchers. The Normed Chi-Square, or the Chi-Square to Degrees of Freedom Ratio (χ^2/df), is a further version of the traditional Chi-Square, whose advantage is that it is less sensitive to the sample size. It is suggested that a Normed Chi Square smaller than 5 is an index of a good fit.

The goodness-of-fit indices are as follows: χ^2 is 2158.241, χ^2 / df is 734, RMSEA is 0.058, CFI is 0.903 and AIC is 57158.530. Based on the values in the literature, the values for the 10-factor model are satisfactory.

Thus, we can say that we have Russian version of “Soft Skills self-evaluation questionnaire” to be used in Russia.

3.3.4 Positivity Questionnaire

EFA and Descriptive analysis of the “Positivity scale” –P-scale. General Cronbach’s alpha is good as well as for each item in variable. The questionnaire has 8 items with factor loadings ranging from 0.88 to 0.91.

On Table 14 we can see main study results of “Positivity Questionnaire.”

Scale	Median	Mode	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Positivity	3,88	4,13	3,73	0,89	-1,01	0,13	0,70	0,26

Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Total
I am very confident in the future.	0,87	0,89
I am happy with my life.	0,86	
When I need it, I usually have someone I can rely on.	0,89	
I look to the future with hope and enthusiasm.	0,86	
In general, I am pleased with myself.	0,86	
I think I have something to be proud of.	0,87	
As a rule, I really believe in myself.	0,86	
Sometimes the future seems really bleak to me. (Recoded)	0,90	

Table 14: “Positivity Questionnaire” main study results

The analysis of the scales in descriptive statistics of Kurtosis and Skewness showed the good values.

In order to fully validate the instrument, we conducted CFA analysis. We used M-PLUS 6.0 to run Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), whereas SPSS 26 was used for data managing, preliminary analyses of the data, correlational analyses and reliability analyses.

CFA represents a kind of structural equation modelling that specifically deals with measurement models, aiming to examine the relationship between observed measures and latent variables or factors. CFA procedures were used to evaluate the expected correlated 1-factor model for the “Positivity Questionnaire”.

The hypothesized 1-factor model did not provide adequate fit indices: $\chi^2 = 2601.256$, $\chi^2 / df = 28$, RMSEA = 0.119, CFI 0.936, AIC = 12495.364. Maybe it happened because item “Sometimes the future seems really bleak to me” must be recoded.

Thus, we can't say that we have Russian version of “Positivity Questionnaire” because the CFA showed unsatisfactory results.

Confirmatory factor analysis

Factor analysis is a branch of mathematical statistics. Its goals, as well as the goal of other sections of mathematical statistics, is to develop models, concepts and methods that allow analysing and interpreting arrays of experimental or observed data regardless of their physical form.

One of the most typical forms of presentation of experimental data is a matrix, the columns of which correspond to various parameters, properties, tests, etc., and the rows correspond to individual objects, phenomena, modes described by a set of specific parameter values. In practice, the dimensions of the matrix turn out to be quite large: for example, the number of rows of this matrix can range from several tens to several hundred thousand (for example, in sociological surveys), and the number of columns – from one or two to several hundred. Direct, “visual” analysis of matrices of this size is impossible, therefore, many approaches and methods have emerged in mathematical statistics designed to “compress” the initial information contained in the matrix to a foreseeable size, extract the most “essential” from the initial information, discarding the “secondary”, “random”.

When analysing data presented in the form of a matrix, two types of tasks arise. The tasks of the first type are aimed at obtaining a “short description” of the distribution of objects, and the tasks of the second are to identify the relationship between the parameters.

It should be borne in mind that the main incentive for the appearance of these tasks lies not only and not so much in the desire to briefly encode a large array of numbers, but in a much more fundamental circumstance of a methodological nature: as soon as it was possible to briefly describe a large array of numbers, then we can believe that some objective regularity has been revealed, which caused the possibility of a short description but it is the search for objective patterns that is the main goal for which, as a rule, data is collected.

The mentioned approaches and methods of data matrix processing differ in what type of data processing tasks they are designed to solve, and in what size matrices they are applicable to.

As for the problem of a short description of the relationships between parameters with an average number of these parameters, in this case the corresponding correlation matrix contains several tens or hundreds of numbers and by itself it cannot yet serve as a “short description” of the existing relationships between parameters, but should be further processed for this purpose.

Factor analysis is precisely a set of models and methods designed to “compress” the information contained in the correlation matrix. Various models of factor analysis are based on the following hypothesis: the observed or measured parameters are only indirect characteristics of the object or phenomenon being studied, but in fact there are internal (hidden, not directly observed) parameters or

properties, the number of which is small and which determine the values of the observed parameters. These internal parameters are commonly referred to as factors. The task of factor analysis is to present the observed parameters in the form of linear combinations of factors and, perhaps, some additional, “not essential” quantities – “interference”. It is remarkable that, although the factors themselves are not known, such a decomposition can be obtained and, moreover, such factors can be determined, i.e., the values of each factor can be specified for each object.

Factor analysis, regardless of the methods used, begins with processing a table of intercorrelations obtained on a set of tests, known as a correlation matrix, and ends with obtaining a factor matrix, i.e., a table showing the weight or load of each of the factors for each test.

Some researchers are guided by the theoretical model as the principle of axis rotation. In addition, the immutability or confirmation of the same factors in independently performed but comparable studies are taken into account.

Having received a factor solution (or, more simply, a factor matrix) after the rotation procedure, we can proceed to the interpretation and naming of factors. This stage of work requires psychological intuition rather than statistical training. To understand the nature of a particular factor, we have no choice but to study tests that have high loads on this factor and try to detect psychological processes common to them. The more tests there are with high loads on this factor, the easier it is to reveal its nature.

When factors correlate with each other, the intercorrelations existing between them can be subjected to the same statistical analysis that we apply to intercorrelations between tests. In other words, we have the opportunity to “factorize factors” This method of data processing has been used in a number of studies of variables such as abilities and personality traits. In some studies, using aptitude tests, a single common factor of the second order has been obtained. As a rule, American researchers using factor analysis begin by explaining as much of the total variance as possible by group factors and only then identify the common factor as a second-order factor if the data confirm its presence. In English psychologists, on the contrary, it is customary to start with a common factor, to which the bulk of the total variance is attributed, and then return to group factors to explain the residual correlation. This difference in techniques is a consequence of theoretical differences.

Whatever the mechanism of their formation, the factors or abilities identified by factor analysis are descriptive categories reflecting the changing interrelationships of the characteristics of activity in various situations. These factors are not frozen entities, but the product of a person's accumulated life experience. And since the structure of experience varies among individuals or their groups, it is reasonable to expect the appearance of various factorial representations. As the experience of a

particular person transforms – as a result of education, professional duties or other long-term activities – new features may appear, and previously existing ones may merge into broader complexes.

Requirements for the organization of factor analysis

In the work of a researcher on the construction of a psychodiagnostics test, three main stages can be distinguished:

- 1) formation of a “draft” version of the test;
- 2) selection of the diagnostic model and determination of its parameters;
- 3) standardization and testing of the built diagnostic model.

A diagnostic model is understood as a way of assembling (converting) the initial diagnostic features (variants of answers to test tasks) into a diagnostic indicator. There can be an infinite number of such methods.

To determine the parameters of the diagnostic model, various methods of empirical and statistical data analysis are used. In particular, if the set of initial features includes several interrelated features, then one or several diagnostic models can be obtained using factor analysis methods.

Factor analysis is a complex procedure. As a rule, a good factorial solution (quite simple and meaningfully interpreted) can be obtained at least after several cycles of its implementation – from the selection of features to the attempt of interpretation after the rotation of factors. In order to come to him, it is necessary to comply with many requirements. Let's name the main ones.

- 1) Variables should be measured at least at the level of the interval scale (according to the Stevens classification). Many variables, such as measures of attitudes and opinions in sociology, various variables in the processing of test results, do not have a well-defined metric basis. Nevertheless, it is assumed that ordinal variables can be given numerical values and included in factor analysis.
- 2) Dichotomous variables should not be included. But if the purpose of the study is to find a cluster structure, the use of factor analysis to data containing dichotomous variables is justified.
- 3) When selecting variables for factor analysis, it should be taken into account that at least three variables should account for one desired factor.
- 4) For a well-founded final decision, it is necessary that the number of subjects be three or more times greater than the number of variables in the aggregate of which the final factor decision is determined. However, this requirement is not generally accepted. Since it is more difficult to increase the number of subjects during processing, so many variables should be selected so that their number does not exceed one third of the number of subjects.

For exploratory component or factor analysis, it is not necessary to comply with this requirement, but it must be remembered that the more it is violated, the less accurate the results are. This means that if data collection is carried out on a different sample, a new factorial solution will be obtained, which will only partially resemble the one obtained on the existing sample. Consequently, the conclusions drawn are not of a general nature, they cannot be extended to other cases.

5) It does not make sense to include variables in factor analysis that have very weak connections with other variables. With a high probability, they will have little commonality and will not be included in any factor. If the paper does not have the task of forming a questionnaire scale based on factor analysis or any similar task, then it should also not include all variables that have very close relationships with each other. Most likely, they form one factor. The more such variables are included in the factor analysis, the more likely it is that they form the first factor and most of the other variables will join it.

6) Stability of the revealed factor structure (its non-randomness) the less, the more its constituent factors. It is also unstable with a small number of subjects. In the fourth point, a sufficient number of subjects were discussed.

So, the main stages of factor analysis:

- 1) collecting empirical data and preparing a correlation (covariance) matrix;
- 2) selection of initial (orthogonal) factors;
- 3) rotation of the factor structure and meaningful interpretation of the results of factor analysis.

The second stage is primarily the choice of the method of factor analysis. Let's name the most used of them in psychology.

The method of the main components. In this method, the search for a solution goes in the direction of calculating eigenvectors (factors), and the eigenvalues characterize the variance (spread) by factors.

The method of the main factors. To determine the number of factors, various statistical criteria are used, with the help of which the hypothesis of the insignificance of the matrix of correlation residuals is tested.

The maximum likelihood method (Lawley, Maxwell, 1967), unlike the previous one, is based not on a preliminary assessment of generalities, but on a priori determination of the number of common factors and, in the case of a large sample, allows us to obtain a statistical criterion for the significance of the obtained factor solution.

The method of minimal residuals (Harman, 1972) is based on minimizing the non-diagonal elements of the residual correlation matrix; a preliminary selection of the number of factors is carried out.

Alpha factor analysis was developed specifically for the study of psychological data; the conclusions are mainly psychometric, not statistical in nature; the minimum number of common factors is estimated by eigenvalues and community coefficients. Image factorization, unlike classical factor analysis, assumes that the generality of each variable is defined as a linear regression of all other variables.

The listed methods differ in the method of finding a solution to the main equation of factor analysis. Choosing a method requires a lot of experience. However, some researchers use several methods at once, and the factors highlighted in all methods are considered the most stable.

The third stage is the “rotation” of factors in space to achieve a simple structure in which each variable is characterized by the predominant influence of a single factor. There are two classes of rotation: orthogonal and oblique. Orthogonal methods include the “Varimax” methods (Kaiser, 1958) – the spread of squares of factor loads for each factor separately is maximized, which leads to an increase in large loads and a decrease in small ones. “Quartimax” is a simple structure; unlike the previous method, it is formed for all factors simultaneously. In some cases, it is more important to get a simple structure than to preserve the orthogonality of the factors. To achieve this, similar methods of oblique rotation are used: “Oblimin” and “Oblimax”.

All the factor analysis models described above relate to exploratory (search) factor analysis. The real revolution in factor analysis was the invention of confirmatory (confirmatory) factor analysis (CFA). The basic principle of CFA: as a hypothesis, the structure of the expected matrix of factor loads (weights) is formed, which is then superimposed on a given correlation matrix. The hypothesis is subjected to statistical verification, and gradually the researcher comes to the load matrix corresponding to the experimental data, without resorting to the rotation of factors. However, the hypothesis should be based on a serious analysis of the nature of the variables studied and the underlying factors. Often, a preliminary exploratory factor analysis is carried out for this purpose. As a mathematical tool in this model, modeling using linear structural equations is used.

The CFA method allows you to evaluate the validity of tests (constructive, discriminant, convergent). Using multiple indicators for each latent construct makes it possible to imagine the degree to which each variable explains the latent variable. The residual variance is due to random fluctuations. Using the parameters of the measurement model, the internal consistency of the test is determined, according to which it is possible to talk about the level of measurement reliability. Modeling using latent structural equations also allows the analysis of longitudinal study data with multiple indicators (Jöreskog, Sörbom, 1979).

When interpreting factors, you can start by identifying the largest factor loads in this factor. To isolate, you can use techniques similar to the allocation of significant correlation coefficients, that is, to evaluate factor loads by comparing their magnitude with the critical values of the correlation coefficients. There are no formalized techniques for selecting the names of factors, here you can trust your intuition. As a preliminary option, you can use the name of the variable that entered the factor with the highest load.

3.4 Hypotheses testing and analyses

3.4.1 Higher soft skill levels are positively associated with positivity and optimistic future expectations

In order to test our hypothesis, we used IBM SPSS 26 software with Pearson correlation analysis. On Table 15 we can see results of “Higher soft skill levels are positively associated with positivity and optimistic future expectations” hypothesis testing.

Scales	Positivity	Socio-political improvement	Socio-economic deterioration
Trust	,873**	0,044	-,139*
Commitment	,549**	0,077	-0,085
Autonomy	,495**	,125*	-,203**
Leadership	,487**	,116*	-,174**
ProbSolving	,459**	0,048	-0,066
Resilience	,443**	-0,039	-0,045
Collaboration	,395**	0,099	-0,055
Curiosity	,383**	0,081	-0,072
Openness	0,066	0,102	-0,052
Empathy	0,036	,156**	-0,039

*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

**Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 15: “Higher soft skill levels are positively associated with positivity and optimistic future expectations” hypothesis testing results

We can see that:

Trust is positively associated with Positivity but weakly with Socio-political improvement and Social-economic deterioration.

Commitment is positively associated with Positivity but weakly with Socio-political improvement and Social-economic deterioration.

Autonomy is positively associated with Positivity and Socio-political improvement but weakly with Social-economic deterioration.

Leadership is positively associated with Positivity and Socio-political improvement but weakly with Social-economic deterioration

Problem Solving is positively associated with Positivity but weakly with Socio-political improvement and Social-economic deterioration.

Resilience is positively associated with Positivity but weakly with Socio-political improvement and Social-economic deterioration.

Collaboration is positively associated with Positivity but weakly with Socio-political improvement and Social-economic deterioration.

Curiosity is positively associated with Positivity but weakly with Socio-political improvement and Social-economic deterioration.

Openness is weakly associated with Positivity and Social-economic deterioration but positively Socio-political improvement.

Empathy is weakly associated with Positivity and Social-economic deterioration but positively Socio-political improvement.

Thus, we can say that hypothesis “Higher soft skill levels are positively associated with positivity and optimistic future expectations” is partly true.

The impact of self-esteem on the spheres of life

There is no sphere of life in which awareness and the ability to make oneself and one's decisions would not be reflected. The ability to adequately assess oneself is a kind of indicator of development, self-sufficiency and maturity.

First, self-esteem affects relationships with people. As a rule, others perceive us and think about us, as we think about ourselves. This is especially noticeable in the relationship of a man and a woman. If a person does not love and does not respect himself, his time, his abilities and resources, he will be filled with uncertainty, no matter how he hides it. The world treats us the way we allow it. And the relationship with the opposite sex to a certain extent is an indicator of how well we have built relationships with ourselves. If you try to create relationships in a state of scarcity, hoping to increase self-esteem in this way, out of fear of loneliness, fear of dislike - the same person will eventually be attracted, with unprocessed fears and complexes, or a tyrant. Very often, women with low self-esteem become mistresses, because they subconsciously do not consider themselves worthy of a full-fledged relationship.

Secondly, self-esteem affects money and career. There is generally a direct connection. We get as much as we allow ourselves. If we believe that we do not deserve more, there will be no more. If we think that it's okay to plow for a penny, so it will be. If we save on ourselves, our desires, the whole world will save on us. If we don't invest in ourselves, if we think in terms of "it's not for me", "I'm not worthy of it", "I can't afford it" - they all form that ceiling, including financial,

which does not allow us to move higher. Good income and low self-esteem are mutually exclusive concepts. People who love themselves and know their worth - find ways to achieve what they want.

Thirdly, self-esteem affects the quality of life. Sports, health, self-discipline - it's all about self-esteem. Self-love is not only pleasantness, but also the ability to give up harmful things, the ability to get up at 6 in the morning and go for a run no matter what. This is the ability to say "no" to what is not yours. If you realize your value, you will not allow yourself to suffer, suffer, feel pain of your own free will, put yourself in the last place in priorities.

Behavior of a person with a healthy self-esteem

A person with a healthy self-esteem gives freedom to himself to be himself and respects the freedom of others. He allows himself to be different, perhaps a little different, and is not afraid to be misunderstood or funny. In addition, he can be an introvert among extroverts and vice versa, wearing not what is everything and what is fashionable, but what suits him. Without a doubt, a person with a healthy self-esteem knows his personal boundaries and the boundaries of others, so he treats them respectfully. He respects human time and resources. Naturally, he does not manipulate and is not manipulated by others, knows his own worth, knows the price of his work and does not hesitate to voice it.

Most importantly, he does not impose his opinion on anyone, but also does not give in to outside influence. He has a healthy egoism, lives in his own rhythm, in harmony with his inner nature. Of course, he knows what he wants, understands his needs and abilities. Also, he is not afraid to say "No". In his behavior, you will not see envy, stupid jealousy, comparing yourself with others. He is not even afraid to take risks, to make mistakes. Calmly treats criticism and compliments. He knows how to defend his point of view, if necessary, but does not impose it on anyone. Does not get hung up on negativity and is not afraid of failures. Does not need confirmation of its value from the outside. Nevertheless, people around him usually appreciate him. A person with a healthy self-esteem always has time for himself, for himself. He devotes it to his body, spirit, and self-development, invests in himself in every sense.

After all, a person with a healthy self-esteem and self-confidence is charismatic as hell and attractive to others. A long list of advantages, right? Can you show off all of them?

A person with low self-esteem

In real life, everything is far from perfect, because people with adequate healthy self-esteem are in the minority. Most often, people rate themselves either lower or higher than others. An adult with low self-esteem often criticizes and finds fault with himself, depends on public approval and is often justified. He always feels guilty in front of someone, blames the whole world for his problems. Does not

believe in himself and his strength, strives to please everyone at once. Deep down, he considers himself unworthy of good relationships, good earnings and generally a good life. Very often - a pessimist, hostile to the whole world.

A person with an inflated self-esteem

Inflated self-esteem is not less common. But, in fact, it is a perverted idea of oneself and one's capabilities from narcissism to megalomania. Very often such people are arrogant and arrogant, unable to evaluate themselves critically and look at everyone "from above". They really like to prove their case and demonstrate superiority. This condition is especially difficult for a woman. It is it that aggravates the desire to command, dictate conditions, set ultimatums. Therefore, they rarely have a real warm trusting relationship with anyone.

The reasons are the same inferiority complex, childhood injuries, blames others for any problems, and any failure or mistake is perceived too painfully.

Formation of self-esteem

In many ways, self-esteem is determined by upbringing in the first years of life. So far, the child is only aware of himself in relations with the first representatives of society: parents, relatives. In early childhood, the whole world of a child is his parents. And since a small person is not able to objectively assess his abilities, actions, deeds, the attitude of his relatives becomes the determining factor. If he hears constant "no", swearing, prohibitions, criticism, comparison with others, if parents do not support and do not give a sense of security in childhood, support - there is a high probability that he will grow up insecure and insecure.

In youth, in childhood, we make a lot of mistakes. But we don't always draw the right conclusions from them, deciding: "I'm a loser," and dropping our hands. It is the right attitude to failures - as an experience - that distinguishes successful and self-confident people. Failure - whether it's in business or in a relationship - is a springboard to success and not a reason to consider everything lost. But if a person treats them as "everything is gone" - he consciously records himself as a loser in life.

Psychologists have been saying with one voice for many years: a person is social and depends on the environment. We are always somewhat similar to our relatives, friends, acquaintances, because we choose them "for ourselves".

The quality of self-esteem is an important condition for a normal existence in our world. It determines the quality of life, i.e., how comfortable you feel, how happy a person you feel.

Just do not forget that self-esteem needs to be protected, as well as health. What does it mean? This means that you need to be selective in communication, i.e., exclude toxic people from the circle of communication. Don't try to please everyone. Do not forget to listen to yourself, your inner desires and needs, praise

yourself for successes and achievements, even small ones. This is very important for you. Try to develop your talents and abilities. Of course, go in for sports and generally with your body. This is a very effective and fast method of regulating self-esteem: a little shortness of breath and you no longer consider yourself a fitness guru, a dumbbell is heavier and you already feel at the top. You can try to write out your advantages and disadvantages, realize them, accept yourself as you are and start working on your shortcomings. Remember, never compare yourself with anyone. You are unique and individual.

And most importantly - do not shift responsibility for yourself, for your life and for your results to someone else. All that we have at this moment in life is, nothing more or less, what we deserve at this second.

3.4.2 Higher positivity is positively associated with positive future expectations

In order to test our hypothesis, we used IBM SPSS 26 software with Pearson correlation analysis. On Table 16 we can see results of “Higher positivity is positively associated with positive future expectations” hypothesis testing.

Scales	Socio-political improvement	Socio-economic deterioration
Positivity	0,044	-,119*

*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 16: “Higher positivity is positively associated with positive future expectations” hypothesis testing results

We can say that Positivity is weakly associated with Socio-political improvement and Social-economic deterioration.

Thus, we can say that hypothesis “Higher positivity is positively associated with positive future expectations” is not true.

Fantasizing about your wonderful future is great, however, with some reservations. Positive thinking can be dangerous but a person at the same time should remain an optimist without harming yourself.

The idea of positive thinking is that a person who applies its methods increases his satisfaction and quality of life through the constant positive impact of his thoughts (for example, affirmations or meditative visualizations). Positive thinking implies personal responsibility for everything that happens to us and the ability to influence the course of events. Although positive psychology, popularized by Martin Seligman in the 1970s, appeared later than positive thinking, adherents of the latter like to refer to the main figures of this movement, seeing in their works a theoretical justification for their concepts (Seligman, 1975).

So, what is the danger of positive thinking?

Let's omit its influence on people with a lack of critical thinking, whom the practice of positive thoughts can lead to loss of contact with reality, and talk about how positive thinking in the form that self-improvement gurus like to promote affects even those who are able to doubt the information received.

Positive thinking and low productivity

To put it as simply as possible, the more people fantasize about the positive outcome of a situation, the less likely they are to act to achieve this goal in reality. Thus, people who fantasize about losing excess weight lose less over time than they could, and people who fantasize about how they will invite the object of their adoration to a date are the least likely to do it in real life. These conclusions were made by sociologist Gabrielle Oettingen based on the results of numerous studies conducted by her over twenty years in different countries, with participants of different ages and different backgrounds, and on different topics (Oettingen, Pak, Schnetter, 2001).

Positive fantasies deprive us of energy

In another study, Oettingen and her colleagues first asked the participants to fantasize about the future for just a few minutes, and then measured their systolic blood pressure — a standard measure of a person's energy level. So, positive fantasies reduced the energy level significantly more than fantasies in which the desired future was questioned, as well as negative and neutral fantasies. Such relaxation occurs because positive fantasies mislead our brain, convincing us that the desired goal has already been achieved — psychologists call this phenomenon "mental achievement" (Oettingen: Stephens, 2009)

Positive fantasies increase the risk of depression in the future

Oettingen and colleagues conducted a series of experiments in which they found such a connection between positive thinking and our state of mind. They were able to prove that although positive fantasies weaken depressive feelings at the moment, after a certain period (from one to several months), the symptoms of depression on the contrary increase. This is probably due to the fact that positive fantasies prevent us from achieving our goals, and for a person who is already close to depression, the discovery that the goal has not been achieved can be a sufficient trigger to start seeing life in a particularly gloomy light (Oettingen, Pak, Schnetter, 2001)

"Victim blaming"

Since positive thinking is tied to the idea that we ourselves are responsible for what is happening, infatuation with it can lead to unpleasant situations. For example, a person begins to blame himself exclusively for the lack of success, personalizing all his failures and ignoring objective reality, including, for example, the economic situation. Some go so far as to blame themselves for the trauma that has fallen on

them or a serious illness. The reverse side of this coin can be mental callousness towards others, whom the adept of excessively positive thinking considers to be to blame for all his troubles.

Suppression of feelings

We have already written that it is necessary to be open to all your feelings and emotions and allow yourself to live them. It is by living any, even the most unpleasant emotions, that we get rid of them faster, because emotions are an unstable and temporary state. However, people who are passionate about positive thinking may believe that it is necessary to be optimistic in everything and always look for positive moments. This forces them to suppress unpleasant emotions, which are an inevitable part of any person's life. By suppressing emotions, we do not get rid of them, but only accumulate them — and as a result, this leads to an explosion at some point, because there is no more room for them. Well, besides, without having worked and lived unpleasant emotions, we cannot move forward, but "hang" in the situation that caused them.

Does all of the above mean that positive thinking is an exceptionally harmful and dangerous philosophy? No, not necessarily. Positive thinking can be put at your service if you combine positive fantasies and reality, following the formula proposed by Oettingen. This formula is called WOOP and stands for as follows (Oettingen, 2014):

W — wish

O — outcome

O — obstacles

P — plan

Positive thinking is not enough to realize our fantasies, but it can be adapted to achieve our goals. To do this, you need to act like this:

First, formulate your desire — for example, to learn a new foreign language.

Then imagine the result that you will get after fulfilling your desire — for example, to go to the country of the language you are studying, go to the market there (because you really like big noisy markets), bargain there with the locals in their language, and not pay exorbitantly as tourists.

Now imagine the obstacles that may arise in the process of implementing your wish, it will be difficult for you, you will periodically want to go to bed, and not to learn another group of verbs, you may run out of money for classes. This technique is called "mental juxtaposition".

Having realized what obstacles may arise, plan the path to your desire and result, taking into account these difficulties. Make a schedule in which you allocate time

for classes. Set aside the money you need to pay for lessons. Come up with something to reward yourself with when you reach the next milestone. By the way, it may happen that when you make a plan, you realize that the obstacles are too difficult (at this moment in your life or in general). This realistic assessment will help you to give up unattainable fantasies, instead of continuing to fill your head with them.

There is nothing wrong with a share of healthy optimism, and dreaming, imagining a wonderful future, is also possible and necessary. Just don't forget to check these dreams for reality — and remember that no one realizes these dreams for you.

3.4.3 Across cultural background and gender, participants differ in their way to perceive future

In order to test our hypothesis, we used IBM SPSS 26 software with 2-way ANOVA analysis. On Table 17 we can see results of “Across cultural background and gender, participants differ in their way to perceive future” hypothesis testing.

Gender	Male		Female		ANOVA sig.
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation	
Scales					
Socio-political improvement	2,45	0,91	2,67	1,07	0,12
Socio-economic deterioration	3,91	0,88	3,71	0,93	0,12
Positivity	3,87	0,74	3,68	0,97	0,12
Trust	4,06	0,96	3,77	1,16	0,05
Empathy	4,00	0,80	4,10	0,75	0,33
Curiosity	3,99	0,80	4,03	0,82	0,68
Leadership	3,66	0,98	3,54	1,06	0,38
Openness	3,99	0,76	3,95	0,80	0,71
Collaboration	4,10	0,81	3,81	0,92	0,02
Autonomy	4,47	0,61	4,31	0,83	0,13
Commitment	3,95	0,77	3,87	0,93	0,53
ProbSolving	4,24	0,76	4,08	0,89	0,18
Resilience	3,75	0,90	3,19	1,03	0,00

Table 17: “Across cultural background and gender, participants differ in their way to perceive future” hypothesis testing results

Females have higher Socio-political improvement level than males.

Males have higher Socio-economic deterioration level than females.

Males have higher Positivity level than females.

Males have higher Trust level than females.

Females have higher level Empathy than males.

Females have higher level Curiosity than males.

Males have higher level Leadership than females.

Males have higher level Openness than females.

Males have higher level Collaboration than females.

Males have higher level Autonomy than females.

Males have higher level Commitment than females.

Males have higher level Problem Solving than females.

Males have higher level Resilience than females.

Thus, we can say that hypothesis “Across cultural background and gender, participants differ in their way to perceive future” is true.

Speaking about social perceptions of men and women, as a rule, the norms of their social behavior are affected, as well as how men and women should differ from each other in their social and psychological qualities (Kletsina,1998).

Summarizing many previously existing traditional ideas about the purpose of men and women in society, R. R. Verma notes that most often the essence of a woman was characterized by the following features: 1) a woman is an inferior and, in essence, a dependent being; 2) a woman is an inferior being compared to a man, since she is characterized by extreme limitation and weakness; 3) in her inner essence, she does not represent value; 4) her main purpose is to serve a man and be useful to him, outside the system of sexual partnership and motherhood, her existence is meaningless and of secondary importance; 5) a woman herself is selfless, loving, tolerant, tender and sentimental, which are her highest virtues (Verma, 1993). According to this conclusion, the woman "does not need another one." The man is the "breadwinner", in the family he carries out general management and bears the main responsibility for what is happening in the house, and the woman must fulfill family and household duties and provide warmth and comfort at home. Already according to this list, it is clear that it is not just about the distribution of functions between men and women, but also about hierarchy, subordination of a woman to a man (Ilyin, 2006).

Currently, many of these ideas have lost their force, i.e., they have become prejudices. Prejudice is an unjustifiably negative assessment of a group or its individual members. However, the question of the purpose of men and women in itself has not lost its sharpness. So, the question of whether a woman can perform the role of an effective leader in the family and a manager at work is still being debated. Existing gender stereotypes in society hinder the objective solution of this issue.

The concept of "gender" is a psychological concept that encompasses a social, cultural and historical context; it characterizes social ideas about a man and a woman, about their psychological characteristics. In our daily life, we are unlikely to hear the expression "gender characteristics", we will rather talk about gender stereotypes. This means that we, as a rule, tend to attribute to one or another gender, that is, men and women or boys and girls.

Gender stereotypes often determine the status characteristics of men and women, while consolidating the dominant position of men and discriminatory practices against women, and also often act as unquestioning social norms that people try to conform to, as well as to conform to gender roles in order to gain social approval from the outside and avoid social censure.

As a result, the pressure of gender stereotypes distorts the social consciousness of the individual, causes great damage to the psychological health of people.

Let's list some of the stereotypes we know, first dividing them into groups:

□ Qualities related to activity and activity. Men are attributed to determination, perseverance, nonconformity, thirst for adventure, courage, self—control, self-confidence, the desire for originality, the ability to build a business; in contrast, women - passivity, indecision, caution, concern about compliance, conformity.

□ Characteristics correlated with positions of power and management. Masculine qualities are considered to be the desire for leadership, ambition, authority, strength; feminine — submission, helplessness, dependence, irresponsibility, weakness.

□ Qualities that characterize the cognitive sphere. Logic, rationality, a tendency to think, objectivity and criticality of perception are attributed to men; intuition, irrationality, illogicality, uncritical perception and even stupidity are attributed to women.

Characteristics of the emotional sphere: "male" composure, restraint, the ability to separate rational arguments from emotional ones are contrasted with "female" emotionality, receptivity, suggestibility, sensitivity, the ability to compassion.

Characteristics related to the process of interpersonal interaction. Both positive qualities (responsiveness, kindness, caring, friendliness, tact, gentleness, tenderness, love for children) and negative (grumpiness, cunning, cunning, etc.) are considered feminine. In the male stereotype, there is both directness and tactlessness correlating with it, sharpness, both self-control, reasonableness of judgments, justice, and selfishness, insensitivity and even cruelty.

Social roles of men and women. Masculinity is traditionally associated with the public sphere, with participation in the life of society, femininity — with private (family, home, parenting, life). A man is perceived, first of all, as a breadwinner,

and a woman is perceived as a mother and keeper of the family hearth (Ryabova, 2003).

Gender stereotypes have a number of properties. Firstly, they are quite stable. However, it is necessary to note a significant evolution of social perceptions and norms. No one will say that the only earner and the head of the family is exclusively a man, since a modern woman manages to raise children and work and at the same time take care of herself and not forget about her husband. Secondly, gender stereotypes are evaluative. Value judgments are judgments about female weakness or male strength, female sensitivity or male self-control. At the same time, there is an androcentrism of perception: qualities defined as masculine are evaluated as more positive compared to those defined as feminine. At the same time, the image of a woman is ambivalent: it contains not only a negative, but also a positive assessment. Namely, the differences between women's cognitive abilities and men's are regarded both as a disadvantage, for example, female illogic, and as a virtue (female intuition). The third property is schematicity (only the main features of gender representatives are recorded). And finally, gender stereotypes are shared within stereotyping groups. Any idea can be considered a stereotype only when it is shared by at least 75% of the group members (Deaux; Lewis, 1984). And finally, they are polar, since they reflect the interaction of only two groups — men and women. Binary coding of male and female (for example, emotional and rational, intuition and logic, softness and hardness) is one of the basic principles of perception of gender differences (Deaux; Lewis, 1984).

With an adequate self-assessment, the subject of social interaction correctly (realistically) correlates his capabilities and abilities, is quite critical of himself, sets real goals for himself, is able to predict the adequate attitude of others to the results of his activities. The behavior of such a subject is basically non-conflict, in conflict it behaves constructively. He is weakly susceptible to intrapersonal conflicts. A person with adequate self-esteem feels good and, as a result, believes in his success. He sets many goals and chooses adequate means to achieve them. Responsibility does not frighten him, and faith in success allows him to ignore temporary failures and mistakes.

Inadequate self-esteem (overestimated or underestimated) interferes with communication, hinders self-realization. A person with inadequately low self-esteem (underestimated) is also characterized by anxiety, but he is characterized by a high need for achievement and a high ideal Self (Molchanova, 2010).

Overestimated self-esteem ("megalomania") is an overestimation of oneself and one's capabilities, self-affirmation at the expense of other people's achievements. A person with an inflated self-esteem always believes that he is right and that others should obey him. With low self-esteem ("inferiority complex"), a person does not believe in his own success, does not take steps to achieve the goal. With low self-esteem, manipulation appears: "I can't cope-help me!"

Overestimated self-esteem is just as harmful as underestimated. With an inflated self-esteem, high self-demands are formed, unrealistic goals are set, if they are not achieved, a person becomes ill. A person has a wrong idea of himself, an idealized image of his personality. He overestimates his capabilities, is always focused on success, ignores failures. His perception of reality is often emotional, he regards failure or failure as a consequence of someone's mistakes or unfavorable circumstances. He perceives fair criticism of himself as carping.

A person with low self-esteem feels bad and unworthy of success. Lack of self-belief hinders the achievement of goals, making them modest, but more achievable. Responsibility is very disturbing. Uncertainty leads to less productivity, and positive events bring less joy. Low self-esteem does not allow a person to fully use his energy, which results in increased anxiety and various addictions. With low self-esteem, a person has an inferiority complex. He is insecure, timid, passive. Such people are characterized by excessive demands on themselves and even more demanding of others. They are boring, whining, they see only flaws in themselves and others. Such people are conflicted. The causes of conflicts often arise from their intolerance of other people.

Having a high self-esteem, a person respects himself, is satisfied with himself, he has a developed sense of self-worth, but knows his weaknesses and strives for self-improvement, self-development.

Conclusions and perspectives

Before we can draw our final conclusion about the perspectives of our research, we should say about objectives fulfilled or not.

- 1) Cultural adaptation and validation of the questionnaire on students' future expectations to the Russian educational context.

The cultural adaptation and validation were performed well throughout our research with committee approach and means of IBM SPSS exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses. But if EFA showed good values in both preliminary and main study then CFA showed unsatisfactory results. Thus, we can't say that we have Russian version of this questionnaire. But in future perspective studies it can be tested on a larger sample to receive satisfactory results in CFA to be used in Russia as fully validated instrument to study future expectations of students.

- 2) Cultural adaptation and validation of the soft skill self-evaluation questionnaire (3SQ) to the Russian educational context.

The cultural adaptation and validation of soft skill self-evaluation questionnaire (3SQ) procedure was the hardest one because of its multidimensional structure and quantity of items included. It also required second tryout and committee approach to modify, correct the items of some scales because they didn't show good analyses results in IBM SPSS. But this long and complicated procedure allowed us to receive a Russian version of questionnaire because of CFA in main study showed satisfactory results. Thus, we can say that Soft-skill self-evaluation questionnaire (3SQ) can be used in future studies in Russia.

- 3) Cultural adaptation and validation of the positivity scale (P-scale) to the Russian educational context.

The process of adaptation and validation was performed well throughout our research with committee approach and means of IBM SPSS exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses. But if EFA showed good values in both preliminary and main study then CFA showed unsatisfactory results. Thus, we can't say that we have Russian version of this questionnaire. But in future perspective studies it can be tested on a larger sample to receive satisfactory results in CFA to be used in Russia as fully validated instrument to study positivity of students.

- 4) Investigate how higher soft skill levels are positively associated with positivity and optimistic future expectations.

The analyses in IBM SPSS showed that partial positive association between higher soft skill levels, positivity and optimistic future expectations. As it was mentioned above mentality of Russians didn't allow to say about full association. In some cases, it seems that they separate, segregate or stay aloof from in their personal

way to perceive interdependence or relation between self-evaluation, positivity and optimistic future expectations.

- 5) Investigate how higher positivity is positively associated with positive future expectations.

Testing this hypothesis, we discovered that there's no relation or weak association between higher positivity and positive future expectations in Russia. We can relate it to the same peculiarity of Russian mentality.

- 6) Investigate how across cultural background and gender, participants differ in their way to perceive future.

This hypothesis was well tested and we can say that Russian cultural background and gender of students affect their way to perceive future. We can say that this statement is true for the people in Russia based on our sample analyses using IBM SPSS software. Males have higher level than females except Socio-political improvement, Empathy and Curiosity.

- 7) Make conclusions about future perspectives of research in Russia to study image of future, soft-skills self-evaluation and positivity association.

There are certain perspectives to study image of future, soft-skills self-evaluation and positivity. We can say by firstly not fully validated instruments of future expectations and positivity that maybe will need additional inspection and larger sample. Only soft skill self-evaluation questionnaire (3SQ) can be used in Russian context for now. Thus, researchers will need to complete the procedure of adaptation and validation to study the interdependence in Russia. Secondly, it's reality and constantly changing people of Russia, possible difficulties in sample acquisition as well as domestic laws that can impede research. The third one is the political situation that severely changed in February of 2022 that affected not only our study but the whole world. Thus, we can say that perspectives do exist but its realizations are under threat of failure.

On image of future and expectations perspectives of study

We cannot fully agree with the authors who claim that there are no images of the future in modern Russia. Although it is impossible not to recognize the vagueness and blurriness of these images, we can distinguish three more or less drawn images of the future. In order of decreasing the degree of optimism, they can be arranged in the following sequence: "Russia - the New Middle Ages", "The Inner Empire".

We borrowed the term "New Middle Ages" from U. Eco, who applied it to characterize the post-industrial world of the West. It seems to us to be successful, since it emphasizes such aspects of the political system as the decentralization of

power, the coexistence of its various forms, a high degree of social hierarchy, and the significant influence of the Church on private and public spheres of society. In the image of the future "Russia - the New Middle Ages", the country retains cultural unity with the political and economic autonomy of individual regions. This image is focused on Russia's loss of the status of a single state, despite the fact that local states emerging on the territory of the Russian Federation retain a high proportion of mutual integration. In this version of the future, the post-Russian states are actively involved in the global process, open to both the West and the East in the field of trade and in the field of joint political projects. There is a twofold attitude to the possible future disintegration of Russia, determined by the region of residence of our contemporaries, although negative emotions clearly prevail over the positive perception of this situation.

The image of Russia's future "New Middle Ages" is very little focused on traditional European political values: freedom, the rule of law, democracy. There is even less respect for such personal qualities as dignity, independence, responsibility. In the image of "Russia - the New Middle Ages", there is practically no orientation to such civil rights as freedom of conscience, freedom of speech and assembly, equality of all before the law, the right to privacy. The situation in this image of the future is ambiguous with the social sphere.

The attraction of the majority of modern Russians to social protection by the state does not imply a desire for social equality, on the contrary, the social hierarchy causes obvious sympathy. The paternalism of the government justifies its strengthening and attack on civil liberties and at the same time increases the degree of its legitimacy. This image of the future presupposes the strengthening of the role of the army in the structure of state policy and does not exclude local conflicts between post-Russian states.

The image of the "Inner Empire" has something in common with the "New Middle Ages", but is focused on foreign policy isolationism and strengthening of the central government. It is obviously shared by those Russians who perceive political decentralization as a national catastrophe. The government in this variant not only has a high level of legitimacy, regardless of the policy pursued, but also shows clear signs of totalitarianism. The principles of succession of authorities, accountability, electability, limitation of powers is almost completely leaving this image of the future. If in the "New Middle Ages" the strengthening of power was justified by concern for citizens, then supporters of the image of the "Inner Empire" choose autocracy, hoping to avoid the collapse of a single state. The degree of government intervention in non-governmental spheres, primarily the economy, allows us to talk about statism in its worst manifestations, since the principle of any equal distribution or integrated planning is not assumed.

In society, the class structure is even stronger than in the "New Middle Ages". As a result of the policy of isolationism, the level of consumption of the lower and middle strata of the population is noticeably decreasing. On the contrary, the level

of consumption of the upper strata increases. Ostentatious luxury, emphasizing status differences, becomes an integral element of public life. In this situation, the strengthening of the role of the Church is explained by its legitimizing functions. The Church, on the other hand, assumes ideological and moralizing-supervisory functions, noticeably displacing science and law.

In the image of the future "Inner Empire", Russia tends not only to the police, but also to the paramilitary state. Army principles are included in various spheres of society, but especially in the education system. The approach of power structures to elite positions is explained both by the lack of social guarantees and the general decline in the level of culture of Russians.

In favor of preserving state unity, not only civil liberties are sacrificed, but also social standards that have become traditional for Russia: budget financing in the field of education, medicine, culture, and sports. Accordingly, this image of the future does not imply any significant progress in these areas, assigning them the functions of providing leisure for the power elite.

In order not to end our review of the images of the future of modern Russia on a pessimistic note, we repeat that the image of the future is not a scientific forecast, it does not show what awaits us in the future, does not pretend to be reliable. The image of the future is the self-perception of the present, the assessment by society of what is worthy in the present to continue into the future and what will happen if the trends assessed as dominant today find their continuation tomorrow. In favor of the short duration of the described images of the future, their blurriness, indistinctness speaks, which may indicate their imminent change. However, it should be remembered that the images of the future will not change before the present changes.

On self-evaluation perspectives of study

The value of a person is measured to a greater extent by what, how and for what a person can do. Proper awareness of one's skills and actions are not only a means and condition for successful learning, but also has great educational significance as a factor in the formation of the best qualities of a person. High school student becomes independent and more independent from adults. His relationships with others are expanding and becoming more complicated. This makes it possible to more fully and deeply understand himself and evaluate.

The whole mental life of a child develops under the influence of the assessments of others; every new experience, new knowledge, skill acquired by a child is evaluated by others. And soon the child himself begins to look for an assessment of his actions, reinforcement of the correctness or incorrectness of the reality he knows.

Knowing the evaluation and self-evaluation actions of a high school student is very important for establishing a relationship with him, for normal communication, in which the child is included. With age, the child distinguishes with increasing certainty between his actual achievements and what he could achieve with certain personal qualities. Self-evaluation reflects what the child learns about himself from others, and his increasing own activity aimed at awareness of his actions and personal qualities. Like all other personality traits, his self-evaluation develops in the process of upbringing, in which the main role belongs to the family and kindergarten. In addition to realizing their qualities, high school students are trying to comprehend the motives of their own and others' actions. They begin to explain their own behavior based on knowledge and ideas gleaned from an adult, and their own experience.

Currently, most people live in conditions of constant stress, which cannot but affect their perception of the world and themselves. The negative factors influencing self-perception is the popularization by the mass media of images of "beautiful life", which for a thinking and feeling person cannot become a source of inspiration, but only a source of disappointment, because the myth about life as an exclusively source of pleasure is only a myth. The real life, the life of anyone who is not a member of the "consumer society" consists both in pain and in moral suffering, which are an integral element of personality formation. The contradiction in the massive attack on the consciousness of the image of carefree and happy people and their own feelings, the complete discrepancy between real life and those broadcast in reality shows, TV series, films, glossy magazines can form a low self-evaluation in most people. The ability to properly evaluate oneself is laid down in early childhood, and its development and improvement occurs throughout a person's life, therefore, one should be especially sensitive to the dynamics of self-evaluation - it should not be overstated or understated; therefore, the study of self-evaluation problems is very important both for an individual and for society as a whole.

Summarizing the results of the above, we can say everything that has developed and settled in the personality, arose through joint activities with other people and in communication with them and is intended for this. A person includes essential guidelines for his behavior in his activities and communication, constantly checks what he is doing with what others expect from him, copes with their opinions, feelings and requirements. Cognizing the qualities of another person, a person receives the necessary information that allows him to develop his own assessment. The already established assessments of one's own are the result of comparing what a person observes in himself with what he sees in other people. A person, already knowing something about himself, looks closely at another person, compares himself with him, assumes that he is not indifferent to his personal qualities, actions, manifestations; all this enters into the self-evaluation of a person and determines her psychological well-being.

According to the works carried out by the listed authors, it can be concluded: self-evaluation is the central link of arbitrary self-regulation, determines the direction and level of human activity, his attitude to the world, to people, to himself; acts as an important determinant of all forms and types of human activity and social behavior. It performs regulatory and protective functions, influencing the development of personality, its activities, behavior and relationships with other people. Reflecting the degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with oneself, the level of self-evaluation, self-evaluation creates the basis for the perception of one's own success or failure, achieving goals of a certain level, i.e., the level of personal claims.

People with adequate or high self-evaluation are more optimistic than those with low self-evaluation; they successfully solve the tasks they face, because they feel confident in their own abilities. Such people are less susceptible to stress and anxiety, they perceive the world around them and themselves kindly.

True self-evaluation gives a person moral satisfaction and supports his human dignity.

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The “Positivity scale” – P-Scale (Caprara, Alessandri & Eisenberg, 2012)

Ho una grande fiducia nel futuro.	Я сильно уверен в будущем
Sono soddisfatto della mia vita.	Я доволен своей жизнью
Quando ne ho bisogno, solitamente ho qualcuno sul quale posso contare.	Когда мне это нужно, у меня обычно есть кто-то, на кого я могу положиться
Guardo al futuro con speranza ed entusiasmo.	Я смотрю в будущее с надеждой и энтузиазмом
Complessivamente sono soddisfatto di me stesso.	В целом я доволен собой
A volte il futuro mi sembra davvero oscuro.	Иногда будущее кажется мне действительно мрачным
Penso di avere molto di cui essere fiero.	Я думаю, мне есть чем гордиться
Generalmente ho molta fiducia in me stesso/a.	Как правило, я очень верю в себя

The “Questionario Visione giovani” (Lucisano & du Mérac, 2019)

Interaction with society	La società attuale considera la voce dei giovani.	Современное общество прислушивается к голосу молодежи.
	La società attuale offre ai giovani la possibilità di far vedere di cosa sono capaci.	Современное общество дает молодым людям возможность показать, на что они способны.
	La società attuale offre possibilità ai giovani.	Современное общество предлагает возможности для молодежи.
Confidence	Il mio futuro sarà migliore di quello dei miei genitori.	Мое будущее будет лучше, чем у моих родителей.
	Ho una visione positiva del mio futuro.	У меня позитивный взгляд на мое будущее.
	Il futuro dei miei figli sarà migliore del mio.	Будущее моих детей будет лучше моего.
	Sono io a determinare il mio futuro.	Я определяю свое будущее.
	Posso partecipare a far cambiare la società.	Я могу участвовать в изменении общества.

The “Questionario sul futuro” (Lucisano & du Méric, 2019)

Socio-political improvement	Lo studio sarà più riconosciuto.	Образование получит большее признание
	Ci sarà più partecipazione politica.	Общество будет политизированнее
	Il livello culturale sarà più alto.	Культурный уровень станет выше
	L'informazione sarà più libera.	Информация будет более доступной
	Ci sarà più rispetto per gli anziani.	Будет больше уважения к пожилым людям
	Ci saranno più attenzioni per i bambini.	Будет больше внимания детям
	Ci sarà più giustizia.	Будет больше справедливости.
	Ci sarà più felicità.	Будет больше счастья.
Socio-economic deterioration	Ci sarà più violenza.	Будет больше насилия.
	Ci saranno più guerre.	Будет больше войн.
	Ci sarà più corruzione.	Будет больше коррупции.
	Ci sarà più razzismo.	Будет больше расизма.
	Saremo più soli.	Мы будем более одиноки.
	L'Italia avrà più problemi economici.	У России будет больше экономических проблем.
	Ci saranno più poveri.	Будет больше бедных.
	Ci sarà più inquinamento.	Загрязнение окружающей среды возрастет.
Political and economic stability	Sarà più facile trovare lavoro in Italia.	Будет легче найти работу в России.
	Sarà più facile fare il lavoro che si vuole.	Будет легче получить работу, которая нравится.
	Sarà più facile trovare lavoro.	Будет легче найти работу.
	Ci sarà una distribuzione della ricchezza più giusta.	Будет более справедливое распределение благ.
	Ci sarà più stabilità politica.	Будет больше политической стабильности.

The “Soft Skill Self-evaluation Questionnaire” – 3SQ (Lucisano & du Mérac, 2019)

Trust	Sono fiero/a di me stesso/a.	Я горжусь собой.
	Sono soddisfatto di me stesso/a.	Я доволен/а собой.
	Credo in me stesso/a.	Я верю в себя.
	Credo nelle mie capacità.	Я верю в свои способности.
Openness	Prendo in considerazione l'opinione altrui.	Я принимаю во внимание мнение других людей.
	Prendo in considerazione le proposte espresse dagli altri.	Я принимаю во внимание предложения, высказанные другими людьми.
	Tendo ad accogliere i punti di vista degli altri.	Я склонен учитывать точку зрения других людей.
	Valorizzo i contributi espressi dagli altri.	Я ценю словесную поддержку, выраженную другими.
Collaboration	Mi piace realizzare delle cose insieme ad altri.	Мне нравится реализовывать задачи вместе с другими людьми.
	Partecipo volentieri a iniziative di gruppo.	Охотно поддерживаю групповые инициативы (предложения, выдвинутые для обсуждения).
	Mi è facile lavorare insieme ad altri.	Мне легко работать с другими людьми.
	So organizzarmi con altri per far delle cose insieme.	Умею коммуницировать с другими людьми, чтобы эффективно выполнять проекты совместными усилиями.
Leadership	So coordinare un'attività di gruppo.	Я знаю, как управлять групповой деятельностью.
	So organizzare il lavoro degli altri.	Я знаю, как организовать работу других людей.
	Ci sono attività in cui guido gli altri.	Существуют сферы деятельности, в которых я управляю другими людьми.
	So assegnare responsabilità all'interno di un gruppo.	Я умею распределять ответственность внутри группы.
	Gli altri mi affidano responsabilità.	Мне доверяют принимать ответственные решения.
Empathy	Mi immedesimo nelle vicende altrui.	Я способен понять состояние человека и отнестись к нему со вниманием и участием.
	Quando viene fatto un torto a qualcuno provo le sue stesse emozioni.	Когда с кем-то поступают несправедливо, я испытываю его (ее) эмоции.
	Mi sento coinvolto da quello che succede agli altri.	Чувствую свою сопричастность к тому, что происходит с другими людьми.
	Cerco di mettermi nei panni degli altri.	Пытаюсь войти в положение других людей/представить себя на их месте.
Commitment	Quando svolgo una attività sono determinato nel portarla a termine.	Когда берусь за какую-то деятельность, настроен довести дело до конца.
	Quando faccio le cose ce la metto tutta.	Когда что-то делаю, прикладываю максимум усилий.
	Faccio le cose in modo accurato.	Я все делаю аккуратно и точно.

	Eseguo con attenzione le attività necessarie per raggiungere un risultato.	Я тщательно выполняю все действия, которые необходимы для достижения результата.
Autonomy	So prendere decisioni da solo.	Я могу самостоятельно принимать решения.
	So fare le mie scelte.	Я способен сделать свой выбор.
	Penso in modo autonomo.	Я думаю самостоятельно.
	Scelgo da solo le mie attività.	Я самостоятельно выбираю свою деятельность.
Curiosity	Tendo a documentarmi.	Я склонен тщательно изучать, конспектировать.
	Mi piace approfondire gli argomenti.	Мне нравится углубленный подход к аргументации.
	Cerco attivamente nuove informazioni.	Активно ищу новую информацию.
	Tendo a fare domande per saperne di più.	Я склонен задавать вопросы, чтобы узнать больше.
Problem solving	Di fronte a un ostacolo rifletto sui diversi modi di superarlo.	Столкнувшись с затруднительной ситуацией, продумываю различные способы выхода из нее.
	Quando affronto un problema esamino le diverse soluzioni possibili.	Для решения сложных задач, рассматриваю все возможные пути решения.
	Trovo più soluzioni possibili ai problemi che incontro.	Нахожу максимум возможных решений проблем, с которыми сталкиваюсь.
	Quando affronto una difficoltà cerco strategie per uscirne.	Находясь в затруднительном положении, разрабатываю стратегии выхода из него (из сложившейся ситуации).
Resilience	Mi riprendo facilmente da una delusione.	Я легко справляюсь с разочарованием.
	Ritrovo facilmente il buon umore dopo la rabbia.	С легкостью возвращаюсь в хорошее настроение, после вспышки гнева.
	Rimango positivo/a di fronte alle difficoltà.	Остаюсь реалистом и сохраняю позитивный настрой столкнувшись с трудностями.
	Nelle situazioni di crisi mantengo la calma.	В кризисных ситуациях сохраняю спокойствие.