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Project Code **2022-1-IT02-KA220-SCH-000084974**

The Report of State of The Art in Türkiye

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1.The state of Art in Turkiye

Turkish art refers to all works of visual art originating from the geographical area of what is present day Turkey since the arrival of the Turks in the Middle Ages.[*citation needed*] Turkey also was the home of much significant art produced by earlier cultures, including the Hittites, Ancient Greeks, and Byzantines. **Ottoman art** is therefore the dominant element of Turkish art before the 20th century, although the Seljuks and other earlier Turks also contributed. The 16th and 17th centuries are generally recognized as the finest period for art in the Ottoman Empire, much of it associated with the huge Imperial court. In particular the long reign of Suleiman the Magnificent from 1520 to 1566 brought a combination, rare in any ruling dynasty, of political and military success with strong encouragement of the arts.[1]

The *nakkashane*, as the palace workshops are now generally known, were evidently very important and productive, but though there is a fair amount of surviving documentation, much remains unclear about how they operated. They operated over many different media, but apparently not including pottery or textiles, with the craftsmen or artists apparently a mixture of slaves, especially Persians, captured in war (at least in the early periods), trained Turks, and foreign specialists. They were not necessarily physically located in the palace, and may have been able to undertake work for other clients as well as the sultan. Many specialities were passed from father to son.[2]

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1.1 Seljuk period



The closer view of the north portal of Divriği Great Mosque and Hospital. Built during the House of Mengüjek, one of the Anatolian beyliks

Seljuk architecture involves the building traditions of the Seljuk dynasty when it ruled most of the Middle East (Great Seljuk Empire) and Anatolia (Sultanate of Rum) between the 11th and 13th centuries. The Great Seljuk Empire contributed significantly to the architecture of Iran and surrounding regions, introducing innovations such as the symmetrical four-iwan layout and the first widespread creation of state-sponsored learning institutions madrasas. Their buildings were generally constructed in brick, with decoration created using brickwork, tiles, and carved stucco.

Most Anatolian Seljuk works are of dressed stone, with brick reserved for minarets. The use of stone in Anatolia is the biggest difference with the Seljuk buildings in Iran, which are made of bricks. This also resulted in more of their monuments being preserved up to modern times.[3] In their construction of caravanserais, madrasas and mosques, the Anatolian Seljuks translated the Iranian Seljuk architecture of bricks and plaster into the use of stone.[4]

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Mihrab of Beyhekim Mosque Konya, 13th century CE, Museum of Islamic Art, Berlin

The architects that the Seljuks built during this period were of great importance in art. Seljuk structures built during the Golden Age of Islam often include geometrical patterns in their motifs. Seljuks used tiles many times in their art and they painted parts of their social life on ceramics. Generally, they used the khatun and the bey gether in their ceramics. At the same time, many depictions of male and female cavalry were found in Seljuk paintings. They frequently used the color turquoise in their works and today it has gained a unique feature.

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1.2 Ottoman Empaire period

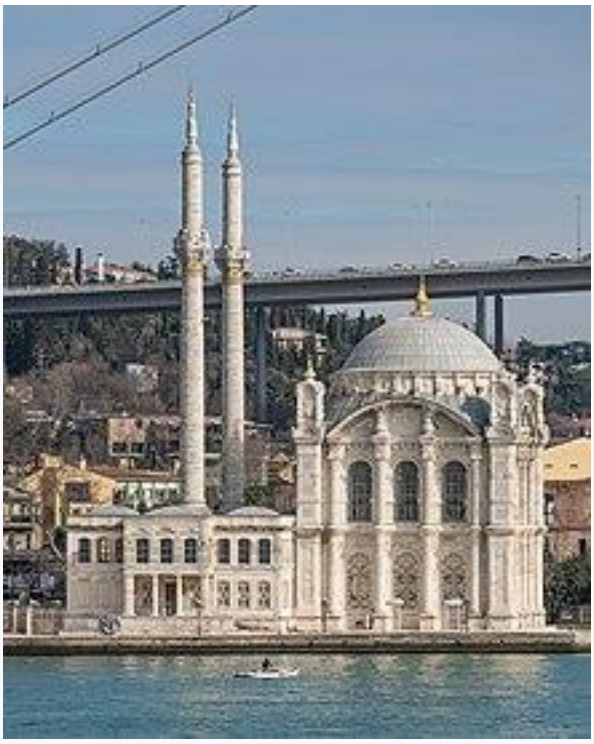


Thuluth script calligraphy of Ali decorating the Hagia Sophia Grand Mosque



Two tiles, circa 1560, fritware, painted in blue, turquoise, red, green, and black under a transparent glaze, Art Institute of Chicago (Chicago, USA)

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Ortaköy Mosque is a neo-baroque example of the Westernization of late Ottoman architecture

Ottoman architecture developed traditional Islamic styles, with some technical influences from Europe, into a highly sophisticated style, with interiors richly decorated in coloured tiles, seen in palaces, mosques and turbe mausolea.[5]

Other forms of art represented developments of earlier Islamic art, especially those of Persia, but with a distinct Turkish character. As in Persia, Chinese porcelain was avidly collected by the Ottoman court, and represented another important influence, mainly on decoration.[6] Ottoman miniature and Ottoman illumination cover the figurative and non-figurative elements of the decoration of manuscripts, which tend to be treated as distinct genres, though often united in the same manuscript and page.[7]

The reign of the Ottomans in the 16th and early 17th centuries introduced the Turkish form of Islamic calligraphy. This art form reached the height of its popularity during the reign of Suleiman the Magnificent (1520–66).[8] As decorative as it was communicative, Diwani was distinguished by the complexity of the line within the letter and the close juxtaposition of the letters within the word. The hilya is an illuminated sheet with Islamic calligraphy of a description of the Islamic prophet Muhammad. The tughra is an elaborately stylized formal signature of the sultan, which like the hilya performed some of the functions of portraits in Christian Europe. Book covers were also elaborately decorated.[9]

Other important media were in the applied or decorative arts rather than figurative work. Pottery, especially İznik pottery, jewellery, hardstone carvings, Turkish carpets, woven and embroidered silk textiles were all produced to extremely high standards, and carpets in particular were exported widely. Other Turkish art ranges from metalwork, carved woodwork and furniture with elaborate inlays to traditional *Ebru* or paper marbling.[10]

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Map of Constantinople in *Hunername*-I, an example of Ottoman miniature



1.3-18th to 20th centuries

In the 18th and 19th centuries Turkish art and architecture became more heavily influenced by contemporary European styles, leading to over-elaborated and fussy detail in decoration.[11] European-style painting was slow to be adopted, with Osman Hamdi Bey (1842–1910) for long a somewhat solitary figure. He was a member of the Ottoman administrative elite who trained in Paris, and painted throughout his long career as a senior administrator and curator in Turkey. Many of his works represent the subjects of Orientalism from the inside, as it were.

20th century and onward

Further information: History of Modern Turkish painting

A transition from Islamic artistic traditions under the Ottoman Empire to a more secular, Western orientation has taken place in Turkey. Modern Turkish painters are striving to find their own art forms, free from Western influence. Sculpture is less developed, and public monuments are usually heroic representations of Atatürk and events from the war of independence. Literature is considered the most advanced of contemporary Turkish arts.

The **history of modern Turkish painting** can be traced back to the modernization efforts in the Ottoman Empire during the Tanzimat period, in the 19th century. This article contains a brief history of Turkish painters and art movements from the mid-19th century to the present.

Mid-19th century to early 20th century[

Turkish painting, in the Western sense, developed actively starting from the mid 19th century.

- Ferik İbrahim Paşa (1815–1891)
- Osman Nuri Paşa (c.1839–1906)
- Osman Hamdi Bey (1842–1910)
- Şeker Ahmet Paşa (1841–1907)
- Halil Paşa (c.1857–1939)
- Hoca Ali Riza (1864–1939)

The very first painting lessons were scheduled at the Mühendishane-i Berri-i Humayun (Military School of Engineering) in 1793 mostly for technical purposes.[citation needed] Artists who formed the 19th-century art milieu were often from Ottoman military schools. Additionally, local Christian and "Levantine" artists, as well as foreign painters who lived in Istanbul and other parts of the

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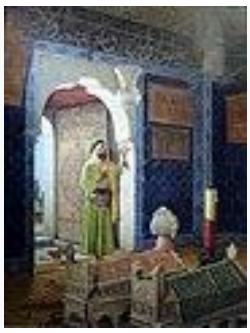
Ottoman Empire, contributed to the art milieu in 19th century Turkey. Some Turkish artists, such as Osman Hamdi Bey, Şeker Ahmet Paşa, Süleyman Seyyid and Halil Paşa were educated in arts abroad. Others, such as Hüseyin Zekai Paşa, Hoca Ali Riza, and Ahmet Ziya Akbulut were educated within the country.

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Two Musician Girls by Osman Hamdi Bey

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The Tortoise Trainer by Osman Hamdi Bey, 1906

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Work by Osman Hamdi Bey

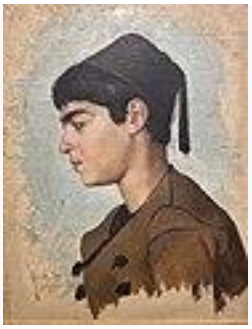
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Arzuhalci by Osman Hamdi Bey

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Woman with Mimosa by Osman Hamdi Bey

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Boy Wearing a Fez (1882) by Osman Hamdi Bey

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Ottoman Navy at Ortaköy in Painting Museum of Dolmabahçe Palace

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Landscape by Hamdi Kenan (19th century)

The "1914 Generation"

- Nazmi Ziya Güran (1881–1937)

Contemporary trends that emphasize figure started to appear gradually in Turkey with the "1914 Generation". Figure and composition entered the Turkish painting for the first time in the Western sense with this generation. The *İnas Sanayi-i Nefise Mektebi* (School of Fine Arts for Girls) was founded for young women in 1914. Mihri Müşfik Hanım, and Feyhaman Duran were the first instructors.

A studio was built with army support in Şişli, a district of Istanbul, with Celal Esat Arseven's attempt in 1917. Hüseyin Avni Lifij's "*Progress*" and "*War Allegory*", İbrahim Çallı's "*Cannon Carrier*", Mehmet Ruhi's "*Stone Breakers*" were the first examples of multi-figured and large dimensional compositions realised prior to and following this period.



Group of Painters (1921) by Feyhaman Duran (1896 - 1970)



Lady in Pink on a Chaise Longue (1904)

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Model for a Male Body by Mehmet Ruhi Arel (1880 - 1931)

- 

Portrait of Marashall Fevzi Çakmak by Hüseyin Avni Lifij

- 

Maskeli Balo (1928) by Ali Avni Çelebi

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Woman Reclining on the Couch (Contemplation) by Namık İsmail (1917)

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Portrait of a Woman by İbrahim Çallı (1882 - 1960)

The Independents (Müstakiller)

The young Turkish artists sent to Europe in 1926 came back inspired by contemporary trends such as Fauvism, Cubism and even Expressionism, still very influential in Europe, and they took a stand against the "1914 Generation" members. The important goals of this new group were, though not very absolute, pictorial design structure and linear foundation rather than impressionist colorism. The activities of the group, under the name of "Association of Independent Painters and Sculptors", expanded with the participation of new artists in 1928.[1] The association's founders were mostly painters, such as:

- Hale Asaf (1905–1938)
- Muhittin Sebati (1901–1932)
- Ratip Aşir Acudoğlu (1898–1957), sculptor



Self-portrait of Hale Asaf (1905–1938)



Portrait: Standing Woman (1927) by Namık Ismail (1890 - 1935)



Details of Veli Efendi Meadow by Cemil Cem (1882 - 1950)

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Details of Veli Efendi Meadow by Cemil Cem (1882 - 1950)

During the 30s

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Peasant Women by Halil Dikmen (1906 - 1982)

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Triptych: Doğu ve Batı Halkının Atatürk'e Şükranı (1933) by Turgut Zaim (1906 - 1974)

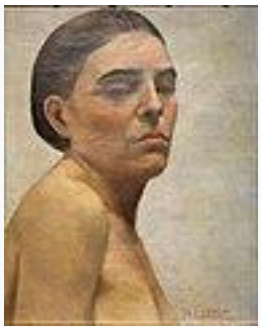
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Triptych: Doğu ve Batı Halkının Atatürk'e Şükranı (1933) by Turgut Zaim (1906 - 1974)

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Woman Taking Floor at the Old Grand National Assembly in 1936 painted by a female artist Melek Celal Sofu (1896 - 1976)



Portrait of a woman by Nevin Edhem Hamdi (1910 - 1931) The painter died of Tuberculosis at the age of 21.

"The Group D"

While the *Müstakiller* (the "Independents") opened the doors of contemporary trends in Turkey, we see a newly founded group in 1933 which would give greater support to these efforts and of which their effectiveness lasted until the 1950s: "Group D".[1]

Group members were:

- Abidin Dino (1913–1993)

The most significant distinction of "Group D" from the "Independents" was perhaps that they had gathered around a certain aesthetics with solidarity in determination to defend the new trends they wanted to bring in. "Group D" had not been representative of any particular view. They were open to anything new except Impressionism. The star of the Çallı generation faded away gradually after the "Independents" and "Group D" members had started to work at the Academy.

- Cemal Tollu (1899–1968)
- Bedri Rahmi Eyuboğlu (1911–1975)

Besides all this progress, from the beginning there had also been independent artists. Among these

- Fikret Mualla
- Adnan Coker (born 1927)
- Fahrunissa Zeid (1901–1991)
- Burhan Doğançay (1929–2013)
- Turan Erol (1927-2023)

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Yahşi Baraz in front of Burhan Doğançay's work

1.4-The Group Ten (On'lar Grubu 1947-1955)

The Group Ten was a group of painters founded by the students of Bedri Rahmi Eyüpoğlu, active between 1947 and 1955.

The group was established with the aim of bringing a unique style to Turkish painting and encouraging the public to art by blending the art of the West with Turkish motifs. Elif Naci's "The sources of Turkish painting should not be sought beyond the Alps, but at the foot of the Taurus Mountains." His word was the band's motto. At the entrance of the first exhibition held in the Academy's hall, the reproduction of a painting by El Greco on one side and the Anatolian rug embroidery on the other reveals the general tendency of the group.

The Group Ten was founded in 1942 by ten students from Bedri Rahmi Eyüboğlu's workshop. These ten students were Ivy Stangali, Leyla Gamsız, Hulusi Sarptürk, Mustafa Esirkuş, Nedim Günsür, Fahrünnisa Sönmez, Turan Erol, Orhan Peker, Mehmet Pesen and Fikret Otyam.[1] After the first exhibition, the artists who joined the group, whose members reached thirty within a year; Adnan Varince, Nevin Demiryol (Cokay), Perihan Ege, Özden Ergökçen, Naim Fakihoğlu, Fuat İgbelli, Remzi Raşa, Gönül Tiner, Hayrullah Tiner, İlhan Uğhan, Sedat Uslu, Cafer Yazdıran, Sema Akdağ, Necmi Başkurt, Cezmi Çelebioğlu, Aliye Kara , Osman Yenisey and Ilkay Üçkaya.[1]

Established with the encouragement of Bedri Rahmi, they are the first group in Turkish painting to gather around a certain artistic understanding and try to create a common art style, and have gone far beyond a student movement and have gained an important place in the history of Turkish painting. Having held exhibitions for eight years, the group disbanded in 1955.

The Newcomers Group (Yeniler Grubu) (late 1930s)

The Newcomers Group, (Yeniler Grubu) was formed by those who had a social realist understanding. After they opening of their "Harbour Paintings Exhibition", they had been remembered as the "Harbour Painters".

- Avni Arbaş (1919–2003)

Other[edit]

- Abidin Elderoğlu
- Ercument Kalmik
- Nese Erdok
- Eren Eyüboğlu
- Sabri Berkel

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Ercument Kalmik mosaic in 4.Levent Istanbul

During the 50s

Turkish painting has continued to flourish since the 1960s, with an increasing rate of development, as evidenced by many new artists in many different styles.



Ütü Yapan Kadın (1950) by Nuruhllah Berk (1906 - 1982)



Harman (1956) by Cevat Dereli



Balıkçılar (1958) by Halil Dikmen (1906 - 1964)

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Tarihi Neyzen (1961) by Maide Arel (1907 - 1997)



Atom by Hamit Görele (1894 - 1980)

During the 60s

The Siyah Qalam Group Siyah Kalem group founded in 1960 in Ankara. They influenced by the 14th and early 15th century painter Siyah Qalam.

- İhsan Cemal Karaburçak
- Cemal Bingöl
- İsmail Altınok
- Ayşe Sılay
- Selma Arel
- Lütfü Günay
- Asuman Kılıç
- Solmaz Tugaç



From Kızılcahamam by İshan Cemal Karaburçak (1987 - 1969)

The 1968 Generation

- Alaettin Aksoy
- Gürkan Coşkun
- Mehmet Güleryüz

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- Neşe Erdok
- Nevhiz Metin
- Ömer Kaleşi
- Utku Varlık



Devil and Three Operas (1962) by Reşat Atalık (1935 - 2013)



Salome (1961) by Özdemir Altan



Tomb Stones (1967) by Cihat Burak (1915 - 1994)



Festival Ground (1961) by Nedim Günsür (1924 - 1994)



Chimneys (1960) by Nedim Günsür (1924 - 1994)

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Lumberjacks (1961) by Neşet Günal (1923 - 2012)

- 

Painting by Neşet Günal (1923 - 2012)

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Painting by Neşet Günal (1923 - 2012)

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Korkuluk by Neşet Günal (1923 - 2012)

During the 70s

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Suda Üç Figur (1970) by Gürkan Coşkun (Komet)

- 

Blue Bird (1977) by Utku Varlık

- 

Komposizyon (1979) by Cihat Aral

- 

Mağdenciler by Yılmaz Demirağ

Social Realists[

- Seyyit Bozdoğan
- Cihat Aral
- Kasım Koçak

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- Aydın Ayan
- Kemal İskender
- Hüsnü Koldaş
- Nedret Sekban
- TurgutAtalay
- Mehmet Aksoy



Figure by Turgut Atalay (1918 - 2004)



Pazarda Arabacılar (1967) by Nevzat Akoral (1926 - 2016)

During the 70s and after[

Predominant painters with Fantastic tendencies:

- Balkan Naci İslimyeli
- Ergin İnan
- Burhan Uygur



Circus of Dreamland by Mevlüt Akyıldız

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Motorcu (1986) by Hüsnü Koldaş

- 

Çemberde Niyet (1980) by Kemal İskender

- 

Endüstriyel Yüz Manzarası (1987) by Seyyit Bozdoğan

- 

Silüet by Zekai Ormancı (1949 - 2018)

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İsimsiz by Temür Köran

Contemporary Painters:

- Haluk Akakce (born 1970)
- Bedri Baykam (born 1957)
- Setenay Ozbek (born 1961) writer, artist and documentary maker.
- Genco Gulan (born 1969) contemporary conceptual artist and theorist.
- Nedim Günal
- Nedim Gürsür
- Hayal Pozanti (born 1983) painter of data visualization, based in the United States.[2]
- Sevil Soyer (born 1950) figurative painting and glass artist.

2.INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IN TÜRKİYE

Definition The concept of inclusive education is identified as follows in Ministry of Education (MONE) Special Education Regulations: "Inclusive education is a special education practice based on the principle that the education of individuals with special education needs (SEN) continue their education with their peers without disability in the official and private schools at pre-school, primary education, secondary education and adult education level by providing them educational support services" (MONE, 2006).

A. Policy, Legislation and Strategies

After the legislation and regulations made in 1983, 1997, 2004 and 2006 (MONE, 1983, 1997, 2004, 2006), education for children with SEN has been improved in Turkey. The basic principles of special education in line with the general objectives and basic principles of Turkish National Education are; all individuals with SEN benefit from special education services in accordance with their needs, interests, abilities and competencies; individuals with SEN start their education at an early age; planning and execution of special education services of the individuals with SEN, as much as possible without altering their social and physical environment; giving preference to the education of individuals with SEN together with their peers, considering their educational performance and making adaptations in the purpose, content of teaching process and evaluation; collaboration with organizations and institutions who provide rehabilitation services to the individuals with SEN, to maintain their education at

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all levels and in all types; developing individualized education plans and implementing the education programs according to the needs of individual considering the competencies of them, the characteristics in all developmental areas and competencies in different academic areas (MONE, 2006)

Special education services in early childhood

Early childhood education covers the education of individuals aged between 0-36 months. Local education authorities may open early childhood education units in special education centers (schools) in order to provide educational services for the children with SEN in accordance with the recommendation of the Board of Special Education Services. Early childhood education is planned taking into account the importance of early intervention in achieving the desired goals for the later stages of education. In early childhood education besides the education of the individual, his family is also informed and supported for their contribution of the education of the individual. Early childhood education services are carried out in the schools and institutions and when needed at home. Planning and coordination of early childhood education services for special education are made by the Board Special Education Services. Measures are taken and necessary arrangements are done to provide education for individuals with SEN with their peers without SEN. It is also possible that education services may also be provided in independent educational units. Ministry of Education makes cooperation and collaboration with the associated organizations and institutions to identify and detect individuals with SEN and to carry out the education provided for these individuals. For example, with a program of Ministry of Health the mothers are monitored starting from their pregnancy period and this monitoring is continued after the baby is delivered until the age of 6. If a problem is detected in the child, necessary precautions are taken and the child is directed to the associated institutions such as hospitals, guidance and research centers.

Special education services in pre-school education

Pre-school education is compulsory for the individuals with SEN between 37-66 months. The preference is to have the individuals with SEN continue their education in inclusive classrooms with their peers in mainstream schools. However it is also possible to continue their education in special education pre-schools for 37-66 month-old children and open special education classes for 48-66 month-old children in mainstream schools. The preschool education for individuals with SEN may be extended to 78 months with the report of Special Education Assessment Committee and the written consent of the parents (MONE, 2006).

Special education services in primary education

The main preference is to have the individuals with SEN continue their education in mainstream schools with their peers. However, the individuals who are not able to achieve the

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general goals in educational programs maintain their education in special need schools and institutions where educational plans are prepared considering the performance levels of individuals in developmental areas (MONE, 2006).

B. Implementation of the Policy

In the diagnostic process of individuals who need special education, developmental characteristics and educational qualifications of the individual for educational purposes are identified and the least restricted educational environment and the special education services that will be provided for the individual are decided. Educational assessment and diagnostics of individual is done in the Guidance and Research Center by the Board of Special Education Evaluation Committe with objective standardized tests and the individual characteristics measurement tools. In diagnostics; the health report taken from the hospital related with the disability of the individual; mental, physical, psychological, social development characteristics; competency in the academic fields, educational performance and needs and individual development report are taken into consideration. National education authorities, formal and non-formal educational institutions, health care institutions, universities, units affiliated to Social Services and Child Protection Agencies and units of local government share the responsibility in diagnosis and evaluation of individuals with SEN under the steering of

Guidance and Research Centers.

The main principle in special education is to provide education for individuals with SEN in inclusive classes in mainstream schools. The points considered in implementation of inclusion can be explained as follows (MONE, 2006): Preference is to have individuals with SEN continue their education in the same institutions with their peers without disabilities. Individuals with SEN may be in mainstream schools for full-time or in special classes for part-time. Part-time inclusion can be carried out through participation of the individual with SEN in some classes or extracurricular activities together with their peers without disability. Pupils with SEN who continue their education through mainstreaming follow the teaching program implemented at the school. Additionally, individualized education program for the inclusion pupils is prepared based on the teaching program they follow, in line with the needs and educational performance of the pupils. The schools with inclusive classes make physical, social, psychological environmental arrangements in line with the pupil disabilities. For these schools special educational materials are provided and supportive educational rooms are opened to implement effective and efficient educational services. In the support education rooms, teachers for education of different special needs (e.g. visual, hearing, mental retardiness), primary school teachers and subject teachers are appointed. In support education rooms, one-to-one education is provided considering the individualized education program to ensure the maximum benefit. In inclusive classrooms, maximum 2 pupils with SEN may be placed. The maximum number of pupils in inclusive classrooms are arranged as; 10 if there are 2 inclusive pupils and 20 if there is 1 inclusive pupil in pre-schools; and 25 if there are 2 inclusive pupils and 35 if there is 1 inclusive pupil in primary school classes. Required

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arrangements are done through taking necessary measures related with teaching materials, teaching methods and evaluation and assessment in accordance with the type of disability and educational performance and need of the individual. Reverse inclusive education, which is the education of individual without SEN in the same class with the pupils with SEN, may also be implemented. This could be possible in the same classes or in the classes opened in the special education schools. The class size may be maximum 14 in the pre-school classrooms and 20 in primary school classes, when there are 5 pupils with SEN in the class.

Teacher education

Some universities have departments for teaching of different types of special needs; namely visual impairment, hearing impairment, giftedness, mentally retardation and a general teacher education department on special needs education. In pre-school and primary teacher education departments have a course on special needs as a must course, while secondary teaching departments simply offer the course as an optional elective. In our university, although it is one of the largest education faculties in Turkey, the pupil teachers at pre-school and primary teacher education departments have only one special education lesson and they learn about the concept of inclusion theoretically. In the courses for special needs, it is seen that the main focus is on inclusive education when the syllabus of these lessons examined. The content of the courses include the following components: Fundamentals of inclusive education (definition of inclusive education, key concepts, and the history of the inclusive education movement); Overview of children with SEN; How to create an Individual Education Plan; How to design and adapt activities for children with SEN; How to assess learning outcomes of children with SEN.

C. Needs and Challenges

Many research studies, articles, master's and doctoral theses that examined inclusive practices have been prepared since the beginning of inclusion practices in Turkey. In these studies, concept and principles of inclusion, attitudes towards the inclusive education and individuals with SEN, information and opinions about inclusive education and individuals with SEN, and characteristics of inclusive pupils were generally examined (Eğitim Reformu Girişimi [ERG] & [Tohum Otizm Vakfı] TOHUM, 2011). In the studies about concept and practice of inclusion in Turkey, the necessity of inclusive education was defended, the principles of inclusive education and support services necessary for a successful inclusive education were described (Batu, 2000; Baydık, 1997; Eripek, 1984, 1986; Tüfekçioğlu, 1997; Kırcaali-İftar, 1997, 1998). The class size, providing the requirements for pupils with SEN, the implementations of the Individualized Education Programmes, the cooperation between teachers and families for inclusive education in Special Education Services Regulation were not performed enough in the real implementation (Sucuoğlu, 2004). The importance of having sufficient knowledge and skills in this area and having a positive attitude toward the inclusion pupils by teachers were emphasized in many studies in Turkey (Kırcaali-İftar, 1992). According to the studies, the teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education and pupils with SEN, varied according to whether they feel themselves enough about the inclusive education model or not (Sucuoğlu, 2004). Teachers feeling themselves inadequate in this regard might be reluctant to apply the model of inclusion (Sucuoğlu, 2004). In the field research studies, it

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was emerged as a result that teachers supported the inclusive education provided that the support for special education was given to them (Sucuoğlu, 2004). In a research conducted by Özaydın & Çolak (2011), most of the teachers stated that they did not have any support from the families and the school management for their inclusive classrooms, and they have very crowded classes. Sucuoğlu & Kargın (2008) stated that no special training support for teachers and pupils were provided and the teachers facing the problems were helpless in the classroom implementing inclusive education. Teacher education is an important point for improvement of inclusive education. Since the courses teachers take during their undergraduate years do not prepare them for working with children with disabilities, teachers, who are the most important factor of inclusion (Batu, 2010), often graduate without gaining knowledge or experience working in inclusive classrooms. Hence, teachers generally face serious difficulties regarding inclusion, and inclusion practices may not yield the desired outcomes (Batu, 2010), Indeed their need for knowledge about inclusion and children with SEN is frequently emphasized in the literature (Akalın, Demir, Sucuoğlu, Bakkaloğlu, & İşcen, 2014; Batu, 2010; Sucuoğlu, Bakkaloğlu, Karasu, Demir, Akalın, 2014). In conclusion, at the governmental level, the regulations and legislations are well organized but studies show that there are some barriers to the inclusion: majority of the individuals with SEN are oriented to the special education schools, since physical conditions of other schools are not suitable for the disabled individuals; negative attitudes of the school staff, pupils and parents; inadequate information and furnishings in special education; lack of appropriate tools and materials for the individuals with SEN; lack of a standard school model where each pupil whether he/she is disabled or not benefits from the educational opportunities equally; inadequacy of developing inclusion policy in special education about raising awareness related with inclusion of the disabled in the society; inadequacy in increasing the vocational competences of teachers for special education.

3.History of Physical Education in Turkiye and Development of Physical Education and Sports

3.1The Present Status of the Sports Policy in Turkey

Turkey, recording immense improvements in the field of sports in 2000s, unfortunately, came to the edge of the period of regression. Unfortunately, originating from the question of how and from where to provide financial resources, the attempts already started to improve infrastructure and all other services were replaced by cancellation of national and international contests, and many training and sport camp programs. B ut, in the last 5-year period, a great improvement has been made in the amount of the budget provided by the sport federations. Also, candidatures for big organizations were in hand, and those were achieved successfully. The most conspicuous ones are Europe Championship Leaguge, Summer Universiade, and Europe and World Basketball Championship. Turkey, which has a good place in summer games, also, was assigned to organize the 2011 Universiade Winter Games. However, new facilities for many kinds of winter games have already began to be constructed. Such work has provided opportunities to train new professional athletes for many

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new branches of sports such as ski- jumping, curling, short track, and ice- hockey. These investments will have immense impact in the short run, but their best contributions will certainly be benefited in the long run. In Turkey, with the youngest population of Europe, the more we get children and teenagers to engage in sport activities, the healthier generations we can have. ‘Sports’ is ‘over’ politics, and its solemn principle is to serve the public. The percentage of the youngbetween 12 years and 24 years old- in the total population of the country is about 30%, in our country while all developed countries strive to increase the percentage of the young people in their population, which is becoming lower day by day. The main objective of our country is to determine to get its potential population ready for the years to come, and to provide them with opportunities of putting these years into good use. (DPT. 2000)

3.2Physical Education at Different Levels of School

For a better understanding I will give a brief outline of the Turkish educational system. Aged 3 to 6 years children go to kindergarten which is often a private institution. Afterwards there are 8 years of primary education (children of 7 to 14 years) leading up to 3 years of high school education. In case students wish to go on to university at the end of high school they have to pass an entrance examination as the university only have a limited capacity to accept students [5]. Physical education does already start in kindergarten, yet it is not taught by professional instructors. A sports lessons takes about 40 to 45 minutes. At the high schools education is focused on the preparation of students for the entrance examination so that physical education is not made compulsory for high school students. In general sports lessons are held by physical education teachers and they are seldom cancelled as even teachers of other subjects like physical instruction because they consider it an easy job.

Primary education class

1–5: 2 hours compulsory class 6–8: 1 hour compulsory

High school class

1: 2 hours compulsory class 2–3: 2 hours optional First year of vocational schools

1 hour compulsory Universities

3 hours optional.

Opinions on Diminishing Physical Education at Schools

There has been a study on this subject two years ago which has led us to the present situation. However, some studies could be made on the subject at any given time which is obvious if you look at the many alterations that have been made to the system of physical education in

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the past. Yet I do not believe physical education courses to be cut in the near future because at present people are very conscious of the importance of this subject to motivate students to life-long physical exercise. Furthermore physical education is a way of physical compensation of the brain work done in other subjects. Finally these courses give students the opportunity to figure out which kind of sports they like most. Thus for the reasons mentioned above I do not believe there will be less physical education lessons per week in the future.

The philosophy of inclusive sport activities

Inclusive physical education should enable all children - with/without physical/cognitive impairment or chronic illness - to fully and actively participate in physical education. Inclusive physical education classes enrich us all and highlight potentials of each pupil. The diversity of each individual in a group is understood as a stimulus and enrichment for learning and development processes of the whole group. A pupil's wheelchair, for example, can take on a whole new meaning as an interesting, mobile, and fast piece of sports equipment that opens up new possibilities for mobility. The individual view of each participant and the knowledge of the range of their diverse motor, cognitive and social-emotional preconditions shows that a diverse repertoire of methodological approaches is necessary to make joint active sports activities possible for all participants
It is of decisive importance to understand the heterogeneity of a group of pupils and rethink sporting activities in various fields of movement. The six pedagogically significant perspectives of sport - performance, togetherness, impression, expression, risk, and health - should develop equally and side by side in a lesson to allow the development of a broader perspective. That way, pupils should get to know different attributions of meaning and thus different approaches to sport and be able to discover them by themselves. Including different perspectives can lead to introducing new approaches to movement and sport activities and addressing the diverse needs of children and young people in inclusive sport settings. All children have the right, regardless of their physical and cognitive possibilities and limitations, to learn about the equally important perspectives of inclusive sport.

INCLUSION in School Physical Education and Physical Activity

Inclusive physical education and physical activity programs in schools provide equal opportunities for all students, including those with disabilities. All students, regardless of ability, should get the recommended 60 minutes or more of daily physical activity. Schools can help them meet this recommendation. Creating an inclusive culture for physical education and physical activity helps all students learn to lead a healthy and active lifestyle. This brief is for state education and health leaders. It defines inclusion, identifies relevant federal policies, describes the current status of inclusion in the United States, and suggests ways to promote inclusion.

Inclusive physical education and physical activity:

Includes students with disabilities in regular physical education classes. Specifically, teaching strategies, equipment, environments, and assessments have been adapted to meet the needs of all students. Supports students with disabilities who want to participate in other

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physical activities before, during, and after school. Encourages students with disabilities to have the same roles and experiences as their peers who do not have a disability during physical education and other physical activities.

The framework for inclusive physical education at schools

Pupils with disabilities can and should be actively involved in physical education, because their participation can make physical education more dynamic. People with intellectual disabilities, for example, are often more emotionally open, show their joy directly and are often very empathetic. Dealing with pupils with impairments offers a broader perspective that promotes social skills of all pupils. Instead of performance orientation, the focus is on the experience of movement and the joy of movement.

Inclusive physical education requires an organisation that corresponds to needs, interests, and prerequisites of every pupil. Teachers are expected to assess the initial situation, find adequate contents and offers, and select optimal ways of learning and communication, so that pupils are not underperforming. Different learning requirements and behaviour should not lead to negative labels but should be used as a welcoming opportunity to develop support measures for heterogeneous groups of pupils. Physical education in particular offers a good opportunity to playfully promote social interaction, consideration, fairness, and (competitive) struggle. Trained teachers can achieve this with relatively little help and a little creativity.

In order to adapt physical education to the individual needs, skills and competences of the pupils, it is useful to analyse the group of pupils in advance. The choice of support depends on what kind of contribution is needed - in case of physical conditions/impairments, different types of movement must be chosen than in the case of cognitive or social-emotional disabilities. In case of physical impairments, it is more important to make spatial changes; in the case of mental and emotional-social impairments, it is primarily the learning concept and structures that need to be changed. To create a shared sense of achievement in physical education, a didactic-methodological concept of physical education that focuses on diverse forms of independent, self-determined, and social learning is necessary. That way, the learning process is based on pupils' needs. Such individual learning support is oriented towards the perspective of strengths

To enable joint action, the focus should be on the respective abilities and potentials of the pupils - not on the impairment. As a result, the ability of each pupil to participate can be further strengthened. With regard to the quality of the content and methods of physical education, joint physical education is successful when the following aspects are fulfilled:

- Do the exercises and tasks challenge encourage all pupils to independently take part in the activities?
- Do the exercises and tasks ensure that the various objectives of physical education are communicated to everyone to the same extent?
- Do all pupils understand the meaning of the task?
- Can all pupils have experiences contrary to their attitudes?

Is there a possibility to critically rethink these attitudes and, if necessary, to act differently?

That way, a pupil with an intellectual impairment could not only act as a helper but distinguish himself in unsuspected performance strength.

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If inclusive physical education shall be implemented in schools in a sustainable way, it is worth considering the following recommendations when designing inclusive physical education lessons:

℘ **Focus on the potentials and strengths of the pupils**: Special educational diagnoses should not be the focus, but the strengths. Partial performance strengths and special talents of the pupils should be picked up and promoted so that the children can experience success. A child with autistic behaviour who can run particularly fast, for example, can emerge victorious in sprints.
℘ **Individual performance and performance feedback:** Children should be encouraged and challenged to perform according to the limits of their abilities. Here however the individual reference standards should be placed in the forefront and process-oriented, dialogue-based forms of performance assessment should be used. Individual development reports or portfolios are suitable for this purpose, for example - but performance and performance feedback should not be dispensed in inclusive sport.

℘ **Accompanying individual learning:** Individualised learning is a highly complex model that cannot be mapped in the grid of "normal" and '"impaired" learners. To appropriately recognise the abilities of the pupils, it is advisable to actively involve pupils in the learning processes. For this purpose, open, game, and activity-oriented tasks that can combine self-directed and social learning should be used.
℘ **Learning in a peer group:** Learning with and from each other is an excellent method to promote social competencies in the learning group. Communicative and actionoriented learning scenarios are particularly suitable for this purpose, in which new knowledge can be developed through joint discussion.
℘ **Role of the teacher**:The main goal must be to create a positive atmosphere in the class. The lesson design should be characterised by content-related tasks that the whole group is responsible to solve. The didactics and methodology of inclusive physical education are guided by the objective of introducing relevant teaching and learning processes, promoting autonomy, and are empowerment-oriented. The task is primarily to prepare for the pupils different contents (exercises, tasks, movement games) of physical education in a developmental and actionoriented way – differences in performance should be normalised. Certain methodological principles should be taken into account for the structure and sequence of exercises, tasks, and games. The individual steps should always be guided by the following principles: ℘ From easy to difficult ℘ From simple to complex
℘ From known to unknown The following teaching methods are particularly suitable for inclusive physical education:
℘ Demonstrating and showing movement;
℘ Describing and explaining movements;
℘ Setting a movement task;
℘ Providing movement support, 'leading' movement; ℘ Observing and commenting, analyzing and correcting mistakes, conducting class discussions, and using various support materials.

4.Soft Skills. A State of the Arts and Sports

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A definition for Soft Skills?

In the first place, the “catalog of soft skills varies a lot from one study or intervention to another and includes a wide range of attributes”, This is the comment of the research team led by Chamorro in 2015 with the title *Soft skills in higher education*. As we will see later, this is the main problem with Skills today, not only does their importance vary in terms of which are more relevant depending on the time we live in, but depending on the organization , group or even nation, these are going to be named and defined in non-standard ways. Names, descriptors and even indicators are completely different over time and the organization that states them.

The issues related to the definition and training in key soft skills or transversal skills are not new, in 1996 Sonia Blisset and Robert McGrath in an investigation on the relationship between skills Creativity and Problem Solving indicates that these are complementary skills to each other and that the related literature was almost always related to therapeutic contexts. In the case of Creativity, they mention incipient works from the 60s, 70s and 80s where this skill is linked to Problem Solving. Both authors carry out an experiment with 74 university students, so it seems obvious that these skills have been chosen by them in the experiment as a reflection of the need to academically implement the training of mentioned skills within a formal education framework.

The issues related to the definition and training in key soft skills or transversal skills are not new, in 1996 Sonia Blisset and Robert McGrath in an investigation on the relationship between skills (skills in the original in English) Creativity and Problem Solving indicates that these are complementary skills to each other and that the literature on training in these was almost always related to therapeutic contexts. In the case of Creativity, he mentions incipient works from the 60s, 70s and 80s where he connects this competence with that of Problem Solving. Both authors carry out an experiment with 74 university students, so it seems obvious that these skills have been chosen by them in the experiment as a reflection of the need to academically implement their training in a formal education framework.

Cukier et al. review different descriptions in their *Soft Skills are Hard. A 2015 Review of the Literature*: Perrault (2004) defines soft skills as “personal qualities, attributes or the level of commitment of a person that distinguishes them from other people who may have similar education and experience”; James and James (2004) “Soft skills are a new way of describing a set of skills or talents that a person can bring to the workplace, including professional attributes such as team skills, communication skills, leadership skills, customer service management skills and problem solving skills “; finally it is explained that “in the Canadian context, soft skills are generally understood to include writing skills, oral communication skills, presentation skills, interpersonal skills, priority and goal setting, and learning skills throughout life” (Canadian Chamber of Commerce, 2014). The text emphasizes some key soft skills, such as leadership skills, critical thinking, problem solving, information management skills and entrepreneurship. This paper also highlights the fact that unfortunately there is very little consensus for a list of soft skills, even in their nomenclature. It is also noteworthy that, in many cases, we do not find the term soft skills but the mention of generic and professional skills.

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We deduce from all these descriptions by different authors that soft skills are all non-technical skills / competencies, that is, those that do not come from practical execution as a result of the knowledge acquired through formal / non-formal education and that have an important role in our job or when starting a personal or collective company as entrepreneur. We talk about skills and abilities that make the difference between profiles with similar levels of hard / technical skills. Of course, there is a whole list of these skills to be typified; for example, we would have soft skills related to our own physical, mental or emotional capacities and, on the other hand, we would have those related to our social / communication capacities. These competences act transversally to the specific technical knowledge learned during our formal education.

Getting back to the example of Yuval Harari's talk about a truck driver: this person has learned a series of hard skills based on technical knowledge about driving heavy vehicles, things that he/she is not able to learn innately or that involve a high cost in terms of self-learning. This technical knowledge is connected with soft skills such as: Cognitive Flexibility, to help him/her to identifying unexpected driving situations that could be potentially dangerous and about which he/she did not receive specific training; Spatial Relationships, which will help he/she to feeling the volume of the vehicle and handling it even when there are space restrictions; o Time Management, to know when to stopping and when to continuing driving to maximize his/her productivity and avoiding fatigue. What do international organizations in education and economics think about these soft skills?

5.2 International Organizations and Soft Skills

OECD

The OECD in its 2017 *Skills for Job Indicators* report already indicates that "growth in employment has been stronger in those jobs where cognitive skills and soft skills were required", some of which are defined as "Leadership and Adaptability" in the same paragraph. In fact, it stands out that there is a shortage of these skills, especially the shortage is greater in countries where there is a lower proportion of jobs in mechanical or routine jobs, thus producing a significant gap between workforce and job positions (p.9, 19). Later in the report we even find statements like this: "According to the literature on labor market polarization, the results suggest that abstract and soft skills are more in demand than routine skills, and this gap has increased in recent years." (p. 49), we find similar ideas shared by other researchers such as Cinque (2015) or Cimatti (2016, p. 112).

For the OECD, each individual as a future employee or entrepreneur needs to develop not only a set of "technical skills", for success in his/her workplace or projects certain soft and social skills must be developed, in part because these skills – unlike the techniques – cannot be automated (yet). Finally, it affects the fact that such soft skills are required in all jobs, although the demand may "differ significantly depending on the sector / position" (p. 78). The list of soft skills now continues with a graph of shortage / demand for them by country: Adaptability (shortage in Ireland, Estonia and Finland), Attention to Detail (Finland, Luxembourg and Austria), Leadership (Ireland, Iceland and the Netherlands), Persistence (Finland, Luxembourg and Spain). This report concludes on these soft skills:

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"Employment in occupations consisting of tasks that are complementary to automation, and often require non-automatable soft skills, has been on the rise […] finding particularly strong growth in jobs combining cognitive and soft skills" (p. 80, 82).

In other words, three years before the Harari conference, the OECD had already detected the trend changes in the labor market, placing emphasis on the training / learning of soft skills as keys to the world of work.

World Economic Forum

A year after Harari's talk and in the same Davos Forum (also known as the World Economic Forum) a report called *Building a Common Language for Skills at Work* (2021) was published indicating that 50% of employees worldwide will need a "reskilling" by 2025 and that 40% of the "skills cores" of these same employees will change in the next 5 years. WEF experts define Competences as "Collection of skills, knowledge, attitudes and abilities that allow a person to perform job functions". Within these Competencies we find Skills and Knowledge, Attitudes and Abilities, all under the protection of what they call Competencies.

This report generates some confusion, because when the most key "skills" are analyzed according to the different sectors / profiles, all these Competencies end up being called Skills. For example, in the Consumer Industry sector, the following skills are indicated as necessary: Complex Problem-Solving, Analytical Thinking and Innovation, Active Learning, Creativity and Technology Use; just to mention a few. In other words, based on the WEF's own definition of Skills, Attitudes and Abilities, we could say that Active Learning is more of an Attitude than a Skill itself. More confusion is caused when the key Skills for Data and AI positions are stated, mentioning Data Science and Development Tools that, in fact, are closer to what the document itself defines as Knowledge than as Skill itself. I have to say that this WEF approach to generating a global taxonomy is, to say the least, superficial and confusing and, therefore, not very operational in terms of setting up a standardization that allows us to define a soft skill and, even less, to certify it.

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Competencies — Collection of skills, knowledge, attitudes and abilities that enable an individual to perform job roles

Skills and Knowledge

Skills are the capabilities needed to complete a task, and therefore a job.

Knowledge is the body of facts, principles and theories that are related to a field of work or study, and that can be further split into dependent knowledge (practical and procedural) and context-independent or theoretical knowledge.

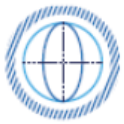
Attitudes

Learned behaviours, emotional intelligence traits and beliefs that individuals exhibit that influence their approach to ideas, persons and situations.

Abilities

Possession of the physical, psychomotor, cognitive and sensory means to perform a job.

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Global Top 5 skills of 2025

1. Analytical thinking and innovation
2. Active learning and learning strategies
3. Complex problem-solving
4. Critical thinking and analysis
5. Creativity, originality and initiative



Country Profile: Canada's Emerging Skills

1. Analytical thinking and innovation
2. Active learning and learning strategies
3. Technology design and programming
4. Critical thinking and analysis
5. Complex problem-solving



Industry Profile: Consumer Industry's Emerging Skills

1. Complex problem-solving
2. Analytical thinking and innovation
3. Active learning and learning strategies
4. Creativity, originality and initiative
5. Technology use, monitoring and control



Data and AI

EMERGING JOBS

1. Artificial Intelligence Specialist
2. Data Scientists
3. Data Engineer
4. Big Data Developer
5. Data Analyst

TOP 5 SKILLS

1. Data Science
2. Data Storage Technologies
3. Development Tools
4. Artificial Intelligence
5. Software Development Lifecycle (SDLC)

The European models

ESCO

In Europe we have a classification of skills / competences, qualifications and occupations (ESCO for its acronym in English), dependent on the European Commission. In the ESCO model, the Competencies are divided into four, in a very similar way to how the WEF mentioned above does: Attitudes and Values (A), Knowledge (K), Linguistic Competences and Knowledge of Languages (L) and Skills (S). Of all these elements, only the specific definition of one of them is exposed: Attitudes and Values, which are "Individual work styles, preferences and work-related beliefs that underpin behaviour so that knowledge and skills are applied effectively".

We would also have liked a description for the Skills. We can presume that the Skills in the ESCO model are neither more nor less than the ability we have to use our technical-academic knowledge in an executive way, that is, if we have an S7.3 Skills (install interior

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or exterior infrastructure) it is because we have surely received a training on (K) Knowledge in civil engineering or construction. However, this does not connect very well with Skills of type S1 (communication, collaboration and creativity), which are not related to any of the branches of Knowledge, with the exception perhaps of the Arts and Humanities but it is understood that these Skills must be developed in and for other sectors, not only in and for the Arts and Humanities one.

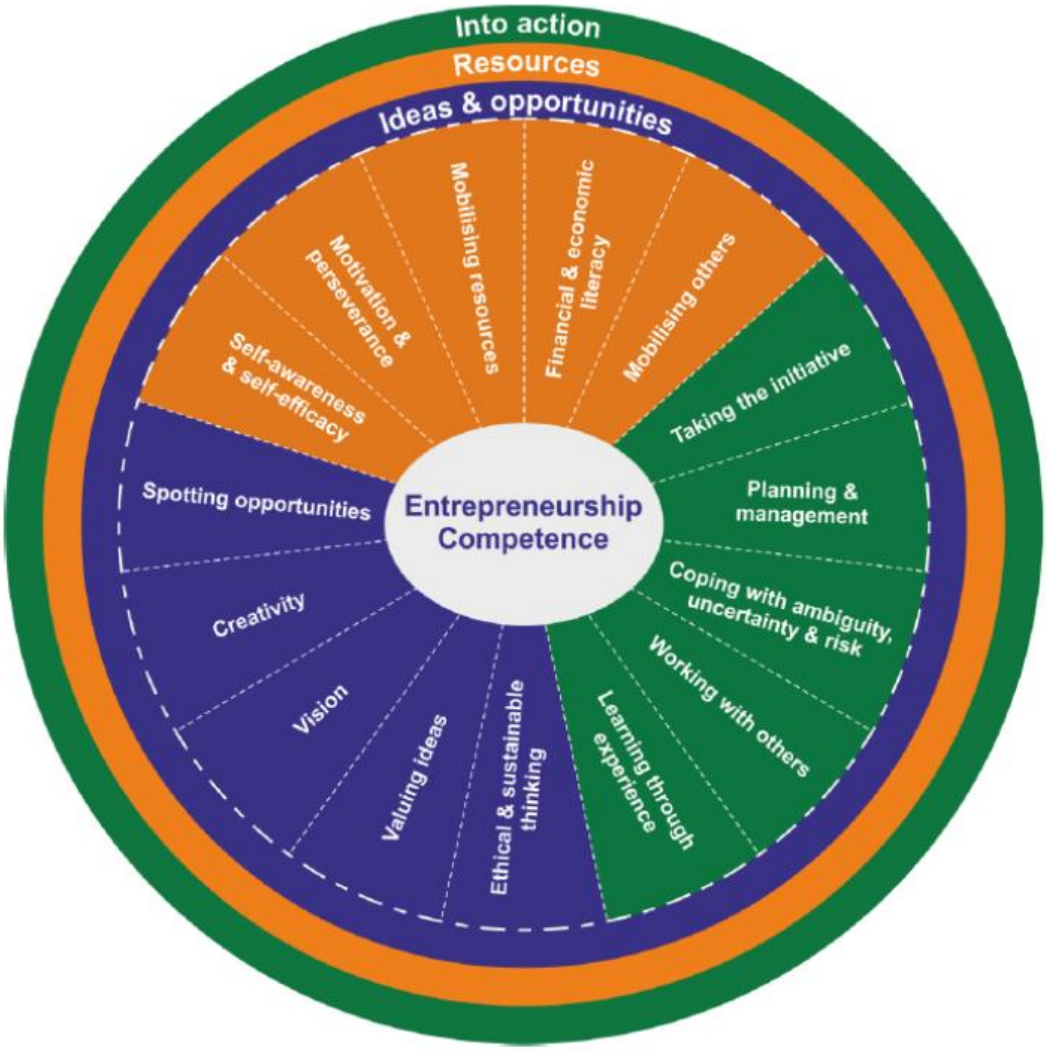
Thus, according to the ESCO model we have Attitudes and Values (A) such as Adapting to Change, Paying Attention to Detail, Controlling Frustration or Persevering, not related to any Knowledge (K) or training but it almost seems to indicate that they come like standard within each one of us. However, Skills (S) such as Creativity, Problem Solving, Negotiation or Management Capabilities are also mentioned that are not related to specific Knowledge (K) and that seem to be related to and even being part of Attitudes and Values (A) such as Showing Curiosity, Showing Enthusiasm, Managing Quality, or Coping with Uncertainty. ESCO, in this way, does not divide Skills (S) between hard (related to Knowledge) and techniques acquired in formal / non-formal education), and soft (the personal traits that allow us a productive performance of the hard Skills in any context / circumstance).

ENTRECOMP

Another framework related to competences and work is the EntreComp framework, which treats entrepreneurship (not only at an economic level, but also culturally and socially) as an essential competence to be developed in the European context. This framework attempts to “build bridges between the worlds of work and education.”

In this framework, the Entrepreneurship competence (or meta-competence) is in turn splitted into other competencies that are part of three families or areas: Ideas-Opportunities, Resources and Actions. Somehow it seems like a division between mental, emotional, social and executive competencies.

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To put some examples (see chart above):

- Ideas and Opportunities we find:
  - Creativity
  - Vision
  - Ideas Evaluation
- Among the Resources:
  - Motivation and perseverance
  - Mobilization of Others
  - Resource Mobilization
- Into Action:
  - Take the initiative
  - Plan and Manage
  - Work with Others.

In addition, this framework has different levels of Proficiency: Basic, Intermediate and Advanced, each one of them, with very precise descriptors of each of these levels that, in addition, are divided into two scales each.

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The EntreComp framework is a good example of Competences analysis that, in many ways, we could call “soft”. The methodology of the EntreComp framework is very interesting from the fact that it uses this figure of entrepreneur to make an a posteriori analysis of the Competences (divided into families), although for them Competencies includes both Knowledge, Skills and Attitudes. The diagram on page 11 of the report is very revealing, since Attitudes and Skills are almost exclusively included here, however Skills are defined according to the 2008 European framework (p. 21), thus inheriting the deficiencies of that framework, in our humble opinion, still premature.

Soft Skills and Education

What can we say about Formal Education?

‘Over eight in 10 teachers (83%), parents (82%), superintendents (82%), and principals (83%) say it is equally important to assess both academic skills and nonacademic skills such as teamwork, critical thinking, and creativity (….), although only about one in 10 teachers say that the formal and informal assessments used by their schools to gauge nonacademic skills measure them “very well’. These are the hard results of a joint work between NWEA (Northwest Evaluation Association) and the Gallup consultancy in 2018 (p. 2).

In 2017 PDK Poll had already revealed that American citizens wanted colleges to focus more on areas other than exclusively academic ones. 82% of respondents indicated that it is very important that schools help students develop interpersonal skills such as knowing how to cooperate, be respectful with others and persistent in solving problems. The survey also found that 82% support job and career skills classes, even if that means students should spend less time in academic classes (p. 3).

However, and although it seems that at a teaching and family level there is a clear awareness of the need to train these skills in some way, the outlook is quite bleak even in the US, not only in the matter of measuring these skills, which, in most cases are “trained by themselves”, that is, informally and without control, but the curriculum design itself does not include them. In this sense, one of the main directors who participated in the research commented that “We don’t have the time that we need to

reach out to the kids that are struggling the most with the nonacademic skills”, and several teachers recommended a change in the curriculum focused on learning based on projects as a way to develop critical thinking and problem solving skills (p. 8).

Another famous North American researcher and teacher, Tony Wagner, also highlighted the shortcomings of the formal educational system regarding certain competencies in his book *The Global Achievement Gap* (2008). In it he lists a series of competencies, called “survival skills” that should be present in the curricular programs of schools and high schools in the United States:

- Critical Thinking and Problem Solving
- Collaboration through Networks and Leadership by Influence
- Agility and Adaptability
- Initiative and Entrepreneurship
- Effective Oral and Written Communication

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- Information Access and Analysis Capacity
- Curiosity and Imagination.

That is to say, for Tony Wagner, these competencies are so key that it even indicates that the survival of the economy and the work of his country would be threatened if a change is not carried out at the pedagogical level that includes these 'survival skills' within schools and institutes curricula. Some of these competencies can be, to some extent, easily trainable, as is the case of Effective Oral and Written Communication. In other cases there is a close relationship with Digital Competences, as it happens when he talks about Access Capacity and Information Analysis. For the rest of the competences, such as Agility, Leadership, Problem Solving, Adaptability, etc., there is no specific curricular design, there is hardly a definition, much less a formal or informal training and evaluation system. A statement in this regard helps us to ground the current situation: "The exceptions to the rule – teachers who use academic content as a way to teach their students how to communicate, reason and solve problems – are very rare, less than one for each twenty in our experience. His lessons stand out in stark contrast to what is usually seen in most classes. " (p.65)

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