CROSSOVER

PROMOTING SCHOOL SUCCESS THROUGH SPORT

PRELIMINARY RESEARCH

Co-funded by the Erasmus+ Programme of the European Union

Index

EARLY SCHOOL LEAVING

Importance of preventing early school leaving

Early school leaving is a complex issue and a concern for policy makers, as evidence shows that dropping from school is connected with several forms of individual and social disadvantages, with significant negative consequences for life (Eurydice and Cedefop, 2014). For example, ESL is strictly connected to social exclusion, unemployment and poverty, obstructing productivity and competitiveness. Youngsters who leave early education and training will certainly lack skills and qualifications, and will face serious and persistent problems in the labour market.

Therefore, preventing ESL is a major step towards improving employment opportunities for youngsters and supporting smart, sustainable and inclusive growth. In concrete terms, one of the education headline targets of the Europe 2020 Strategy is the reduction of the average European rate of early school leavers from 15% (in 2010) to less than 10% by 2020.

Regarding ESL in the partnership countries, according to Eurostat data, in 2016, Portugal, Italy, Romania and Turkey were still among the countries with high rates of Early School Leavers (approximately 14%, 14%, 18% and 34% respectively). Concerning Cyprus, it's the only country in the partnership that data shows having achieved in 2016 a rate lower than the EU Average - 8%, although more can be done.

Definitions of early school leaving

Preventing early school leaving is a major priority to achieving key European standards for education. "The objective of the European Union on the problem of school dropout is to achieve a dropout rate in the EU below 10% by 2020. The reduction of early school leaving addresses to both the aims for smart growth by improving education and training levels and the aims for inclusive growth by tackling one of the major risk factors for unemployment, poverty and social exclusion"(Council of the European Union, Recommendation 2011/C 191/01, 2ˆfound at https://eur-lex.europa.eu/).

The Council of the European Union on the recommendation policies to reduce early school leaving states that the term early school leaving is used in connection with **those who leave education and training with only lower secondary education or less, and who are no longer in education and training** (found at https://eur-lex.europa.eu/).

The UNICEF methodology in collaboration with the Institute of Statistics of UNESCO clarifies the status of school exclusion compared to school exclusion and school dropout terminology. According to this approach, the term school exclusion refers to children who are outside educational system and that are actually are excluded from education, while children who are in the risk of school dropout are facing an exclusion from equal learning opportunities (see http://www.unicef.ro/) regardless of the motives. Therefore, the concept of the early school dropout is referring to that sample of pupils who already have a school experience, before dropping out.

In an extended approach school dropout is defined as the percentage of students between the ages of 16 and 24 who are not enrolled in school and who have not obtained a high school degree. (Gil et al, 2018).

Zuilkowski et al (2016) is cited in Gil et al. work as observing how the school dropout is the **complex result of the interaction of environmental conditions and events, including gender, poverty and opportunity costs**. Some researchers agree that leaving school is a widespread phenomenon in developing countries (Elder 2014 cited in Mussida et al. 2016).

Early school leaving is associated with adverse outcomes for individuals in terms of social integration, economic prospects and future health (Fryers et al. 2003).

The school dropout is designated generally as all the behaviours that violate or transgress rules or school values. All these types of behaviours are gathered in school deviance category whhich refers to behaviors that deviate from the norms and values that govern the schools (Diţa & Vîrlan, 2018).

Causes of early school leaving or school dropout

Analyzing the literature in cause we find a configuration of stressors that may be responsible for early school dropout where the most relevant categories are the demographical ones, the school and environment and the individual ones. These factors where tackled to make individuals more vulnerable to school leaving (Dupere et al., 2018 cited in McDermott, 2018). Regarding the most recent and relevant research about present issue we mention McDermott and co. findings which deal with ***Why do students dropout?*** Their approach takes into account the following categories of factors:

Demographic characteristics: low-income families, racial and ethnic minority youth characteristics that are linked to a differential treatment in classroom. These indicators are taken into consideration because they alter the ways in which young people are perceived, socialized, and the types of resources that are available to them (idem).

School engagement and environment: academic performance (e.g., course failure, low test scores, grade retention), academic behaviours (e.g., poor attendance, suspensions and expulsions, not doing homework), and attitudes about academics (e.g., not seeing relevance of school, lack of engagement, low expectations and aspirations)(idem). An important aspect here which may be related to dropout regards teachers' lack of quality and whether the school has a supportive climate (idem).

Family context: parental involvement and expectations around schooling, family financial constraints, and events within the family parent-child relationships, also the acknowledgement of children's friends.

A confluence of factors: Profiles of experience such as patterns of behaviours in school. These patterns of experience align theoretically with other external factors, researchers agree. The causal factors of school dropout are various, but above all the social-economical ones are on top along with the individual ones (difficulties of learning the subject, children's inability to manage new situations and events, low self-esteem and motivation, frustration, lack of interest for personal development etc.) (see Diţa & Vîrlan, 2018).

Review of early school leaving causes

- Individual factors (student, psychological and behavioural factors such as individual and peer involvement in gangs, drug use, and delinquency; personality traits such as different character disorders or negative attitudes formed under the influence of unreliable environmental factors)
- Family factors and characteristics (social relationship, cultural level, expectations of parents, learning environment)
- Demographic factors (community factors, neighbourhood characteristics, job opportunities)
- Social - educational factors (type of school, school's educational resources structure of resources, size of the school, social and academic environment, quality of teaching staff teacher support, class support)
- Economical factors (poor income, poor neighbourhood, country with lower economic status)
- Facing social exclusion
- Minority groups
- Pupils living in rural areas
- Pupils who are failing classes
- Youth and children with special need or with learning difficulties
- Lack of school attendance
- Lack of motivation towards school and learning (Freeman and Simonsen 2015 cited in Gill, 2018)
- School bullying

As a conclusion of these facts we keep in mind that the more risk factors there are in a young person's life, the greater the probability is that they will drop out of school (idem).

Consequences

It may be a common agreement on the fact that few studies have interviewed unemployed young adults in the aftermath of school dropout to understand their experiences with influential factors as Ramsdal et al. is noticing, (Ramsdal et. al., 2018).

The psychological individual dimension is assigned to early school leaving is assigned because it is causing an alteration of the self-image of the student-victim, with losing self confidence, developing a strong fear of failure. And so is impacted the social dimension, because of the permanent school failure that leads to social marginalization with an increased level of deviant and criminal behaviour (Diţa & Vîrlan, 2018). Practically, this emphasizes the links between school failure - bullying and delinquency, where school failure is a trigger, and school dropout is a consequence.

Other literature findings suggest that some learning disorders (reading, calculating, writing, attention difficulties, inadequate stimulus control) so as language disorders and some personality traits are related to school failure and to the next decision of school leaving (Commodari and Guarnera 2005; Robinson and Winner 1998; Noterdaeme et al. 2001; Migali and Zucchelli 2017, Gill et al. 2018). An interesting testing finds a correlation between the student's QI and the school performance (reflected in school grades), as well as with school attendance rates, so it concludes that students with a lower QI score have a higher rate of non-attendance rates, and also lower grades (Decan et al., 2017). Not less important are traumas or negative emotional events which can affect academic success (see Andrew et al. 2008).

Either as a reason, or as a consequence, the negative lifestyle is, in many cases, a feature for youth who drop out school and a large amount of studies findings notice how dropping out of school may reduce access to health-promoting resources. In consequences, these negative outcomes increase the risk of negative health behaviours (the use of tobacco, alcohol, illicit drugs, and suicide attempts (Bachman et al., 2008; Maynard, Sala-Wright, & Vaughn, 2015; Swain, Beauvais, Chavez, & Oetting, 1997; Townsend, Flisher, & King, 2007; Wichstrøm, 1998 cited in Ramsdal, 2018).

Furthermore, researchers connect the short consequences of school dropout to the future adult life of the pupils and notice a multigenerational impact of school leaving, as the children of dropouts are more likely to have poorer health, economic, and educational achievements than children with parents who have graduated from high school and beyond (Bradley & Corwyn, 2002; McDermott, 2018 cited in McDermot et al. 2018).

Research findings point out more severe consequences of the school dropout throughout an individual's life, such as fewer job opportunities and negative impact on individual psychological well-being (Barton 2005, 2006; O'Connell and Sheikh 2009 cited in Gil et al. 2018).

Some findings conclude that the decision to leave school early may be critical in including work outcomes, especially for poorer women (Krogh et al, 2009, cited in Mussida et al., 2018). Also a link was found between early school leaving and poorer economic performances; so that may have detrimental effects on economic development, especially in those countries experiencing a significant increase in the demand for a skilled workforce (Mussida et al., 2018).

Therefore, leaving school also costs society, where these costs are due to subsequent lower tax contributions, higher crime prevalence and dependence on social welfare subsidies (Levin & Belfield, 2007; Rouse, 2007 cited in Ramsdal, 2018). Whatever the reason, early school dropout "prevents the accumulation of human capital, which has been identified as a major driver of development and economic growth" (Hanushek, 2013 cited in Mussida et al., 2018 p.19).

"The reasons for early school leaving differ widely from country to country and also within regions. Policies to reduce early school leaving need to be adjusted to the specific situation within a local area, region or country; there is no single solution for all Member States" states Council of the European Union (in Recommendation 2011/C 191/01, 12^).

Risk factors

Theories about early school leaving:

- **General inconsistency theory:** General inconsistencies appear when the student can not adjust the educationprocess.
- **Inconsistence group membership theory:** The people around dropouts carry the risk of dropping out.They are usually students who are having adjustment problems, drug addiction and low education expectancy.
- **School-socializing theory:** Negative effects of academic base such as lack of discipline in administration,the vagueness of rules and regulations, inconsistent and unjust behaviors of the teachers and administrationand having the tendency of violence can lead to dropping out.
- **Family-insufficient socializing theory:** Having family members who are low educated or dropped out orwho does not support education can lead to dropping out.
- **Structural features theory:** Low socioeconomic levels, gender factors, social and cultural factors canaffect on early school leaving.

There are some common reasons behind the dropouts:

- **Personal reasons:** Gender factors play a huge part on early school dropouts. As the research goes, male students are more likely to left school early than female students.
- **Problems about peers:** A student who is in a friend group where bad habits are common is more likely todrop out.
- **Social reasons:** Student's socioeconomic environment is also important. If the society's perspective ofeducation is rather negative it will affect on student's perspective as well.
- **Problems about family:** If parents do not give the support and attention to student's education, it is morelikely for student to drop out.
- **Reasons about teachers:** Teacher's attitude and behavior is also an important factor on student's view ofeducation.
- **Reasons about school:** Students tend to lose the feeling of commitment towards school if the school has weak education qualities.

Dropouts are likely to suffer from some effects on their social life and mental health. Low social status, working inlow wage jobs, unemployment, social disconnection, having the tendency for crime and suicide are the common effectsof dropping out on people (Eurostat, 2018) .

There are also some long-term effects on society. Students who had continue for a while and then dropped outcause the waste of national resources, therefore, dropping out is an important risk for social consciousness and socialwelfare. To reduce the cost and minimize the waste, countries like Finland, Germany, France, Spain have somerestrictions. Meanwhile Norway, Iceland, Bulgaria do not have any class repetition system (MEB ve UNICEF, 2017) .

Prevention strategies identified

- Organizing adaptation programs for new students.
- To create elective courses at different levels of difficulty that students with different academic capacities canfollow.
- Organizing activities that will strengthen family participation in the school and ensure effective communication and cooperation.
- To create physical spaces within the existing conditions for family participation.
- To redesign the direction of school-family cooperation not only from school to family but also from family toschool.
- To make family visits within the scope of school-family cooperation processes to solve the problem.
- Providing counselling services for families of children within the risk group.
- Reorganizing social, cultural and sporting activities in a way to ensure the participation of all students
- To monitor the academic achievement of all students under the coordination of guidance counselor and therelated assistant manager and to offer compensatory trainings.
- Making the school a living space for all stakeholders, especially students, and creating a safe environment foreveryone.
- To create a positive perception for school, for learning activities and for teacher in school climate.
- Identifying and implementing the school's homework policy (repetition of learnings, projects and social activityassignments).

References

- Decan, M. (2017). Aspecte psihologice ale absenteismului şcolar. Studia Universitatis Moldaviae-Ştiinţe ale Educaţiei, (9 (99)
- Diţa, M., & Vîrlan, M. (2018). Diminuarea abandonului şcolar prin activităţi socio-psiho-educative. Journal of Psychology. Special Pedagogy. Social Work (PSPSW) e-ISSN: 1857-4432, p-ISSN: 1857-0224, Volume 50, Issue 1
- Elana R. McDermott, Alice E. Donlan & Jonathan F. Zaff (2018): Why do students drop out? Turning points and long-term experiences, The Journal of Educational Research, DOI: 10.1080/00220671.2018.1517296
- Gil, A. J., Antelm-Lanzat, A. M., Cacheiro-González, M. L., & Pérez-Navío, E. (2019). School dropout factors: a teacher and school manager perspective. Educational Studies, 45(6)
- Ramsdal, G. H., Bergvik, S., & Wynn, R. (2018). Long-term dropout from school and work and mental health in young adults in Norway: A qualitative interview-based study. Cogent Psychology, 5(1), 1455365.
- Mussida, C., Sciulli, D., & Signorelli, M. (2016). Early School Leaving and Work Outcomes in Developing Countries. Quaderni del Dipartimento di Economia, Finanza e Statistica 26/2016, University of Perugia, Department of Economics.
- McDermott, E. R., Donlan, A. E., & Zaff, J. F. (2019). Why do students drop out? Turning points and long-term experiences. The Journal of Educational Research, 112(2)
- https://eur-lex.europa.eu/
- http://www.unicef.ro/

National statistics

Turkey

When we look at the change in the rate of leaving education over the years, it is seen that this rate has decreased since 2007. The highest rate of early withdrawal is seen in 2007 with 46.9% and the lowest in 2017 with 32.5%.

The first year of secondary education is the most important class in terms of school dropout and repetition in terms of the "repetition of secondary education and reasons for dropping out school conducted by MEB in cooperation with UNICEF.
Participation rates are important indicators for school dropout. According to 2016 data, 96% of 15-17-years old from EU participate in education. In Turkey, this rate is 71,8%. From this rate, we can assume that Turkey has a serious problem of dropout.

Dropout rates are also important for school dropout. According to 2016 data, 13,5% of 15-17-year-olds from EU dropout, meanwhile in Turkey, this rate is 41,9%. High school graduation rates are also important for school dropout. According to 2011-2012 data, the average graduation rate for OECD countries is 84% while it is 54% for Turkey. The best rate for OECD countries is Japan with 96%, then UK and South Korea with 94%, then Finland with 93%, then Israel with 92%, then Germany with 87%, then Canada with %81 and USA with 77%. The lowest graduation is Mexico with 47%. According to these, Turkey has a negative place in OECD countries.

One of the primary data to be considered when examining the current situation in terms of school drop-out is the difference between student enrollment and graduation rates. For example, the number of students enrolled in secondary education in 2006-2007 is 1.151.599. The number of graduates in 2009-2010 is 662,884. This means that 57.56% of the students enrolled in this term have graduated. In 2007-2008, the number of students enrolled in secondary education was 934,752, whereas in 2010-2011 the number of graduates was 706,502. 75.58% of the students graduated during this period. According to these figures, although it is observed that the rate of drop-out and grade retention decreased to a certain extent, it is still an important problem.

Portugal

Concerning Early School Leaving in Portugal, PORDATA (2019a) reported that, in 2018, the percentage of people aged 18 to 24 who left education and training without attaining secondary qualification or equivalent was 11.8%. This result confirms the tendency for ESL to decrease in Portugal: since 1992 (first year of recording such data), ESL decreased from 50.0% to the current value of 11.8%.
Besides, such decrease was evident in the last decade: ESL levels went from 28.3%, in 2010, to 11.8%, in 2018. This positive trend can be explained through the increase in the compulsory school age (up to the age of 18), the launch of the national programme for school success in 2016, the autonomy and curricular flexibility process launched in 2017, along with the gradual increase in parents' education levels (European Commission, 2018). However, the 2018 rate of ESL still remains slightly above the EU mean, which corresponds to 10.6% (PORDATA, 2019b). Furthermore, as seen in previous years, ESL was higher with male students (14.7%), when compared with female students (8.7%) (PORDATA, 2019a).

Years	Portugal			EU28		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1992	50.0%	56.2%	44.2%	-	-	-
2010	28.3%	32.4%	24.0%	13.9%	15.8%	11.9%
2018	11.8%	14.7%	8.7%	10.6%	12.2%	8.9%

(PORDATA, 2019a, 2019b)

Regarding the sociodemographic characterization of early school leavers, according to a report from the European Union (European Commission, 2018), in 2017, the percentage of early school leavers was higher in foreign-born students (13.9%), when compared with native-born students (12.5%). This means that students whose mother tongue is not Portuguese have a greater risk of ESL. The other students with greater risk of being early school leavers are students with (Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency; EACEA, 2019):

- **Learning difficulties**;
- **A history of learning difficulties** – in particular, lack of motivation, high rate of absenteeism, low self-esteem, low expectations regarding learning and their future life, as well as a mismatch between school culture and family culture;
- **Several problems of integration into the school community.**

Romania

Romania has been ranked the third place in Europe, as far as Early School Leaving is concerned, and the data from the National Statistics Institute and Eurostat suggest an increasing tendency. Based on the most recent data from Eurostat, released on April 26th 2019, Romania is currently on the third place in the European Uniunion regarding early school leaving. According to this European organization, 18,9% of the Romanian young people aged between 18 and 24 quit school. In the European Union, we are surpassed only by Spain, with 20,3%, and Malta, with 20,1%. When we refer to gender, sadly, 18,3% of the Romanian girls abandon school, this percentge being significantly bigger than in Spain or in Bulgaria.

A most worrying fact is that school dropout is increasing in Romania, whereas in the European Union, the general tendency is to decrease. Equally preoccupying is the fact that an important percentage of these young persons refuse to access the work market after abandoning their education. Approximately one fifth of the Romanian students are content with graduating eighth grade, and 75% of the Romania children do not succeed in graduating lower-secondary school, that is classes 5-8.

Based on the latest country report, the main cause is the official faulty politicies. The early school leaving rate remains high because of a number of factors, among which lack of attention to addressing to this phenomenon, the insufficient actions meant to identify the main causes which have led to this situation and also active and efficient measures to prevent poverty, which is a major threat upon a significant number of families. Also the accomodation of school policies with the real social and economic needs has had an important role upon these outcomes.

In rural areas the rate of early school leaving is significantly higher than in the urban ones, and the affected young people are Rroma and children from socially and economically disadvantaged families. Furthermore, the report underlines the fact that the decision-makers do not support sufficiently the teachers who work with the children at risk. Although a strategy aimed at stopping and preventing early school leaving was adopted in 2017, it hasn't been put into practice yet.

The consequences which the early school leavers face, are predictably unemployment, poverty and social marginalization, with high costs for the entire society. The data provided by the National Statistics Institute depict a saddening reality, that almost 30% of the Romanian children aged up to 18 have dropped out (as according to the law, education is compulsory until the age of 18), 10% higher than in 2015, and 7% more as compared with the European percentage. As stated above, approximately one fifth of the Romanian students face the situation to graduate only 8 classes, whereas 75% of the Rroma students abandon school before 14. 37% of the young people aged 15 are functionally illiterate, and 43% of the students with special needs are not enrolled in any form of schooling. For all these young people who abandon school the future seems bleak, since the consequences are unemployment, poverty and marginalization.

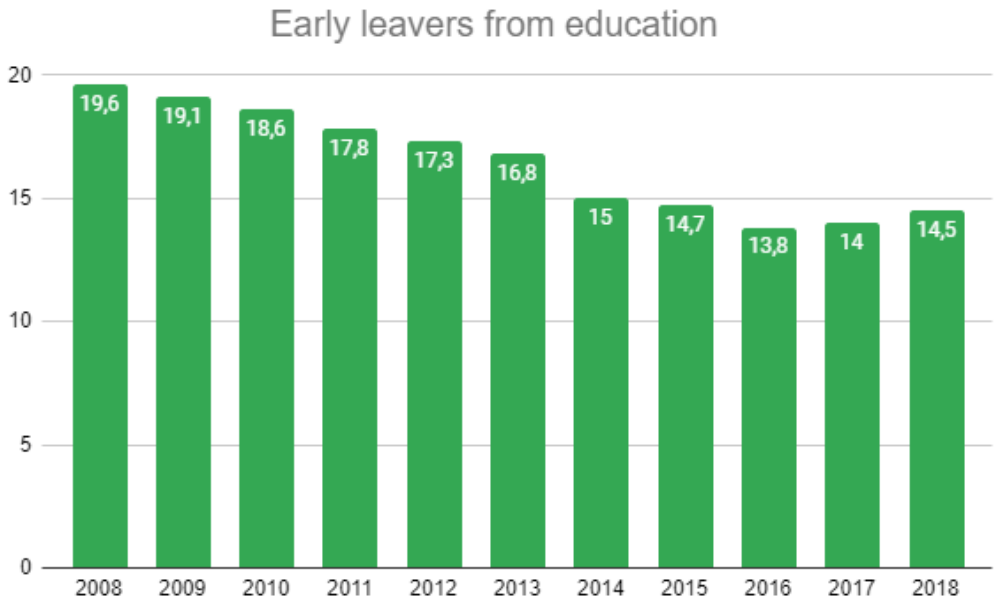
Italy

Early leavers from education and training denotes the proportion of the population aged 18 to 24 with at most a lower secondary education (ISCED1997 levels 0, 1, 2 or 3c short; ISCED2011 levels 0,1,2) who are no longer in education or training. National data document that the phenomenon of early school leaving is more intense at the geographical region of south Italy.

Region	2018		
	male	female	total
Italy	16,5	12,3	14,5
North	14,1	10,1	12,2
North-west	15,9	10,6	13,3
Piemonte	15,6	11,5	13,6
Valle d'Aosta / Vallée d'Aoste	16,7	13,6	15,2
Liguria	13	12,6	12,8
Lombardia	16,4	9,9	13,3
North-east	11,7	9,4	10,6
Trentino Alto Adige / Südtirol	9,9	8	8,9
Bolzano / Bozen	10,6	11,4	11
Trento	9	4,3	6,7
Veneto	11,4	10,6	11
Friuli-Venezia Giulia	10,8	6,9	8,9
Emilia-Romagna	12,7	9,1	11
Center	12,7	8,6	10,7
Toscana	11,3	9,8	10,6
Umbria	9,6	7,1	8,4
Marche	12,9	6,8	10
Lazio	13,9	8,5	11,3
Mezzogiorno	21	16,5	18,8
Abruzzo	10,6	6,9	8,8
Molise	13,7	8	11
Campania	18,4	18,7	18,5
Puglia	21,7	13	17,5
Basilicata	14	8	11,1
Calabria	25,5	14,7	20,3
Sicilia	23,4	20,7	22,1
Sardegna	28,9	16,5	23

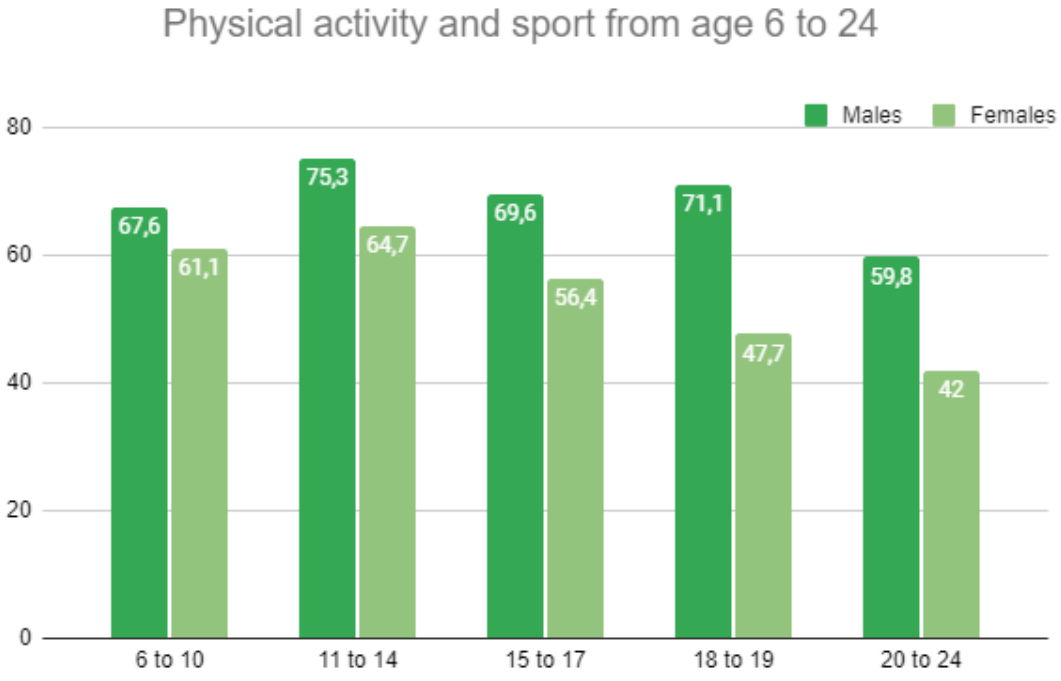
(Istat)

Early leavers from education and training denotes the percentage of the population aged 18 to 24 from 2008 to 2018, having attained at most lower secondary education and not being involved in further education or training. The numerator of the indicator refers to persons aged 18 to 24 who meet the following two conditions: (a) the highest level of education or training they have completed is ISCED 2011 level 0 (less than primary education), 1 (primary education) or 2 (lower secundary education) and (b) they have not received any education or training (i.e. neither formal nor non-formal) in the four weeks preceding the survey. The denominator in the total population consists of the same age group, excluding the respondents who have not answered the questions 'highest level of education or training successfully completed' and 'participation in education and training'.



Early leavers from education (aged from 18 to 24) and training by sex and labour status, Eurostat

In 2015, over 20 million people aged 3 and over practiced one or more sports continuously (24.4%) or occasionally (9.8%) in Italy. The national data show physical activity and sport among people 6 years old to 24. Sports practice was high among children at the first years and showed the tendency to decrease with age. It is possible to observe statistically significant differences with respect to the sex.



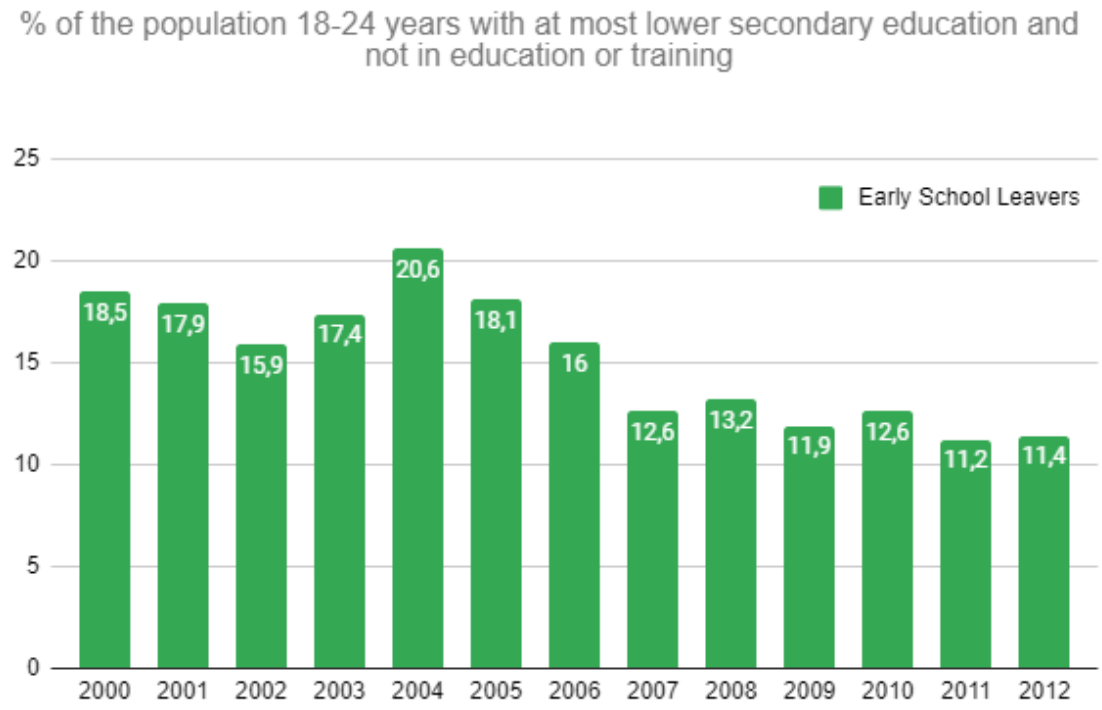
(Istat)

Cyprus

Based on EACEA NATIONAL POLICIES PLATFORM of (2019) there is no special national strategy tackling ELET in Cyprus. However, a special mention of the topic was made in the National Strategy for Lifelong Learning 2014-2020 of the Republic of Cyprus. The National LLL Strategy was developed by the Directorate General for European Programmes, Coordination and Development (DG EPCD) in cooperation with the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport and Youth, the Ministry of Labour, Welfare and Social Insurance (MLWSI), the Human Resource Development Authority (HRDA) and the Cyprus Productivity Centre (CPC) and was approved by the Council of Ministers in June 2014. The Strategy targets all age groups of the Cypriot population.

The definition of early leavers from education and training used in Cyprus is the same as the EU definition (% of population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education and not in further education). The data source is the Labour Force Survey, LFS conducted every quarter in all EU member states.

The percentage of early school leavers in Cyprus has decreased from 18,5% in 2000 to 11,4% in 2012. The EU27 average in 2012 was 12,8% and the EU2020 target is to reduce the dropout rate to 10% by 2020. Therefore, Cyprus performs better than the EU average in the area of early school leavers. A significant decrease of 38% in the number of early school leavers was observed between 2000 and 2012, reflecting an active policy in this field. It is also noted that Cypriot students abroad and soldiers aged 18-20 years are not included in the LFS sample, while temporary foreign workers usually of low educational attainment are included. If students abroad, soldiers and foreign workers are all taken into account the estimated percentage drops below 10%.

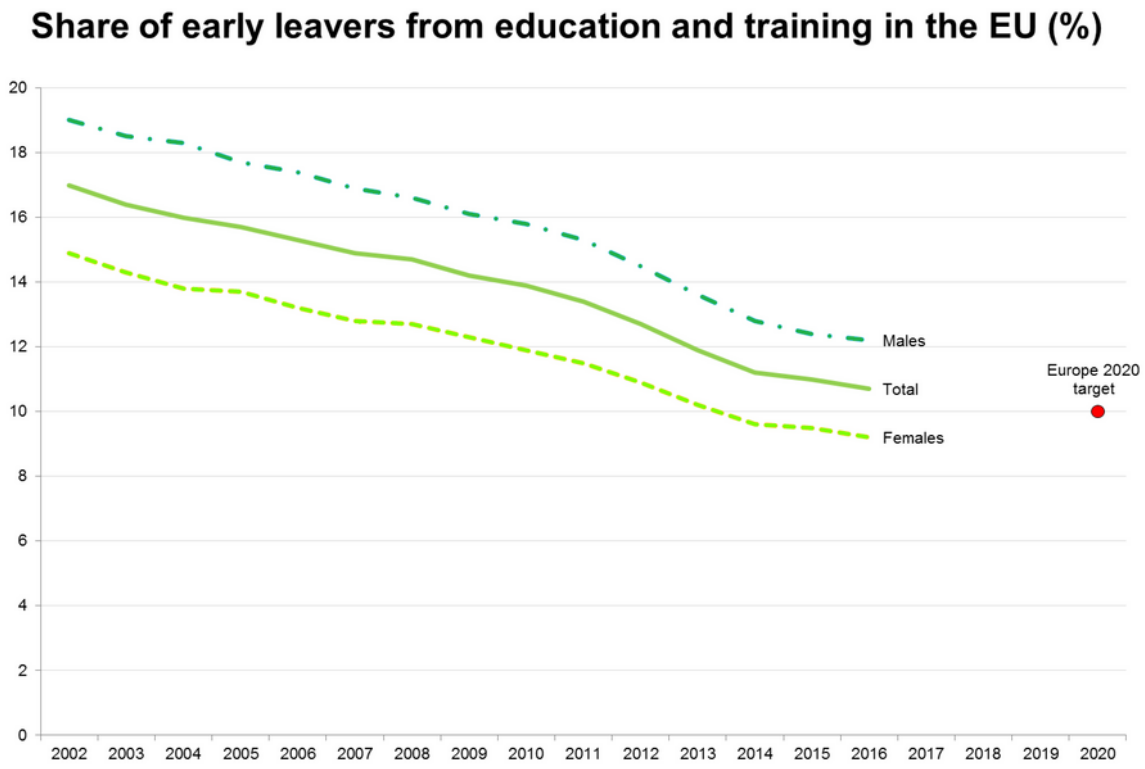


(Statistical Service of Cyprus, LFS)

Regarding the Education and Training Monitor 2019 Cyprus according to a report from the European Union (European Commission, 2019), in 2019, the percentage of early school leavers was higher in foreign-born students (13.9%), when compared with native-born students (6.2%). This means that students whose mother tongue is not Greek have a greater risk of ESL.

European statistics

Early school leaving is an obstacle to economic growth and employment. It hampers productivity and competitiveness, and fuels poverty and social exclusion. With its shrinking workforce, Europe has to make full use of its human resources. Young people who leave education and training prematurely are bound to lack skills and qualifications. They face a higher risk of unemployment, social exclusion and poverty. The Europe 2020 strategy has set the goal of reducing the proportion of 18 to 24-year-olds leaving education and training early to below 10%. In 2016 there were still more than 4 million early school leavers across Europe. Only around 45% of them are employed. Young people with a migrant background face a higher risk of leaving school early. The risk is especially high for Roma and other disadvantaged minorities. The recent steep rise in the inflow of refugees and migrants has heightened the challenge of integrating pupils from a migrant background and so helping them to acquire the necessary skills and competences.

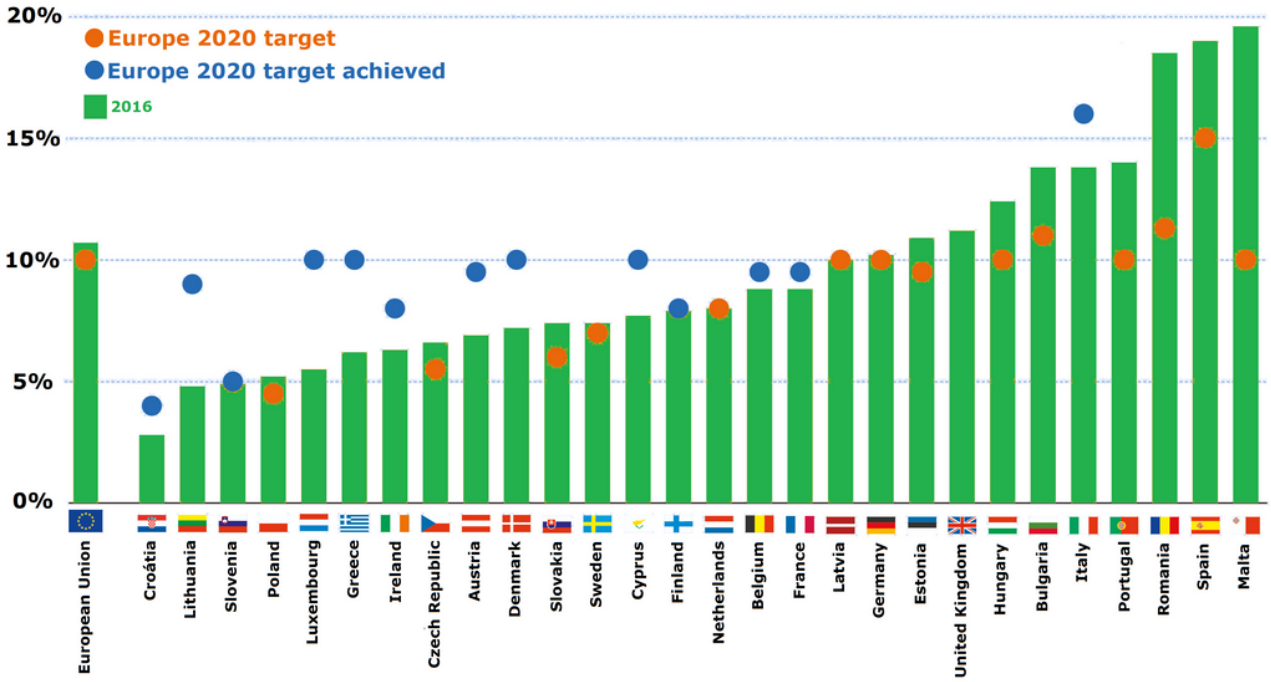


(ec.europa.eu/eurostat)

Based on Eurostat, the share of early leavers from education and training (aged 18 - 24) – colloquially referred to as 'early school leavers', has steadily decreased in the European Union (EU) over the past years, from 17.0% in 2002 to 10.7% in 2016. Fewer young women (9.2% in 2016) leave education and training earlier than young men (12.2%). The Europe 2020 target is to reduce the rates of early school leaving in the EU to below 10% by 2020.

Compared with 2006, the proportion of early leavers from education and training decreased in 2016 in all Member States for which the time-series is available, except in the Czech Republic, Romania and Slovakia. In 2016, the lowest proportions of early leavers from education and training were observed in Croatia (2.8%), Lithuania (4.8%), Slovenia (4.9%), Poland (5.2%) and Luxembourg (5.5%), while the highest shares were recorded in Malta (19.6%), Spain (19.0%) and Romania (18.5%). Fifteen Member States have already met their 2020 national targets for this indicator: Belgium, Denmark, Ireland, Greece, France, Croatia, Italy, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Austria, Slovenia and Finland.

In 2016, the share of early leavers from education and training was lower for women than for men in every EU Member State, except in Bulgaria, the Czech Republic and Romania.The indicator early leavers from education and training is defined as the percentage of the population aged 18-24 with at most a lower secondary education and who were not in further (formal or non-formal) education or training during the four weeks preceding the survey. 'At most lower secondary education' refers to ISCED (International Standard Classification of Education) 2011 level 0-2 for data from 2014 onwards and to ISCED 1997 level 0-3C short for data up to 2013. The change of ISCED has no impact on the comparability over time of this indicator for all Member States, except Estonia.



(Eurostat)

The strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training was adopted by the Council in May 2009. It sets out four strategic objectives for education and training in the EU: making lifelong learning and mobility a reality; improving the quality and efficiency of education and training; promoting equality, social cohesion and active citizenship; and enhancing creativity and innovation (including entrepreneurship) at all levels of education and training. This strategy set a number of benchmarks to be achieved by 2020, including that the EU share of early leavers from education and training should be not more than 10 %. This benchmark is also one of the Europe 2020 strategy targets and previously formed part of the European employment strategy (subsequently incorporated into the Europe 2020 strategy), which specifies that the share should be below 10 %.

References

Turkey

- Eurostat, 2018ahttps://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/lucas/data/primary-data/2018
- MEB ve UNICEF, 2017http://www.unicef.org.tr/basinmerkezidetay.aspx?id=32801
- MEB Milli Eğitim İstatistikleri Örgün Eğitim (Statistics of Ministry of Education) 2006-2007/2007-2008/2011-2012
- https://www.researchgate.net/publication/254965026_The_Complexity_of_Non-Completion_Being_Pushed_or_Pulled_to_Drop_Out_of_High_School

Portugal

- EACEA. (2019). Preventing early leaving from education and training (ELET). Available at: https://eacea.ec.europa.eu/national-policies/en/content/youthwiki/63-preventing-early-leaving-education-and-training-elet-portugal European Commission. (2018). Education and training: Monitor 2018: Portugal.
- Available via European Commission at: https://ec.europa.eu/education/resources-and-tools/document-library/education-and-training-monitor-2018-portugal-report_en PORDATA. (2019a).
- Taxa de abandono precoce de educação e formação: total e por sexo. Available at: https://www.pordata.pt/Portugal/Taxa+de+abandono+precoce+de+educa%C3%A7%C3%A3o+e+forma%C3%A7%C3%A3o+total+e+por+sexo-433 PORDATA. (2019b).
- Taxa de abandono precoce de educação e formação: total e por sexo. Available at: https://www.pordata.pt/Europa/Taxa+de+abandono+precoce+de+educa%C3%A7%C3%A3o+e+forma%C3%A7%C3%A3o+total+e+por+sexo-1350

Romania

- https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/2995521/9751510/3-26042019-AP-EN.pdf/49c38a50-52b5-4f97-95f7-483a570fbb36
- https://ec.europa.eu/education/sites/education/files/document-library-docs/et-monitor-report-2018-romania_ro.pdf
- https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/tgm/table.do?tab=table&init=1&language=en&pcode=sdg_04_10&plugin=1
- http://tribunainvatamantului.ro/abandonul-scolar-un-fenomen-care-face-ravagii-in-invatamantul-romanesc/
- https://www.edupedu.ro/abandonul-scolar-a-scazut-la-164-in-2018-minimul-ultimilor-10-ani-ramane-foarte-ridicat-in-sate-si-in-randul-copiilor-romi-anunta-comisia-europeana/

Italy

- Istat.it

Cyprus

- EACEA. (2019). Preventing early leaving from education and training (ELET). Available at: https://eacea.ec.europa.eu/national-policies/en/content/youthwiki/63-preventing-early-leaving-education-and-training-elet-cyprus-0

- EACEA. (2019) National Strategy for Lifelong Learning 2014-2020 Republic of Cyprus. Available at: http://www.dgepcd.gov.cy/dgepcd/dgepcd.nsf/499A1CB95981643FC2257C7D00486172/%24file/National%20%20Lifelong%20Learning%20Strategy%20in%20English%20(Summary).pdf
- Human Resource Development Authority (2018). *Vocational education and training in Europe: Cyprus 2018. Early leaving from vocational education and training Cyprus.* Available at: http://www.refernet.org.cy/images/media/assetfile/CY%20Article%20Early%20leaving%20from%20VET.pdf
- European Commission (2019). *Education and training: Monitor 2019: Cyprus* . Available at: https://ec.europa.eu/education/sites/education/files/document-library-docs/et-monitor-infographics-2019-cyprus_en.pdf

Europe

- EACEA.EUROSTAT (2017). Decrease in 'early school leavers' in the EU continues. Available at: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/products-eurostat-news/-/EDN-20170908-1
- EUROPEAN SEMESTER THEMATIC FACTSHEET (2017). EARLY SCHOOL LEAVERS Available at: https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/info/files/european-semester_thematic-factsheet_early-school-leavers_en_0.pdf EACEA -
- EUROSTAT (2019). Early leavers from education and training - Statistics Explained. Available at: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/pdfscache/1150.pdf
- EUROSTAT (2019) Early leavers from education and training by sex and labour status. Available at: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/products-datasets/-/edat_lfse_14

SOFT SKILS

Soft skills that promote school sucess: self-esteem, self-regulation and school engagement

Definition of the concept of soft skills

Soft skills refer to character traits, attitudes and behaviors (Robles, 2012), which enhance a person's interactions, job performance and career prospects. Thus, such skills are interpersonal and broadly applicable (Parsons, 2008).

Regarding this topic, a distinction is made between *Self-oriented/Intrapsychic* and *Other-oriented/Interpersonal* Skills. While Self-oriented skills refer to what the person must understand and develop by herself, Other-oriented skills refer to what the person can develop through relating with other people. However, this distinction may also be made in terms of *Personal* and *Social* Skills: Personal skills correspond to cognitive skills (such as knowledge, the ability to plan and achieve goals...), while Social skills correspond to relationships with other people (such skills include communication, networking, problem solving...) (Cimatti, 2016).

Soft skills are extremely important, particularly with students, since giving them the opportunity to develop this kind of skills could make the difference in their being hired for a job in their field (Evenson, 1999). On the other side, the lack of soft skills can undermine the career prospects of someone with technical ability and professional expertise, but no interpersonal qualities (Klaus, 2010).

This way, it is crucial that students appreciate the value of soft skills and, consequently, make deliberate efforts to acquire them (Majid, Liming, Tong, & Raihana, 2012).

Self-esteem

Self-esteem is related to how people value and perceive themselves, and it can have a great impact on several aspects of their lives (e.g., on the ability to make decisions, to recognize strengths, to try new or difficult things...) (Mind, 2019). This way, self-esteem is particularly important to adolescents, since they are experiencing a process of identity development (Brewer & Kerslake, 2015) and may, therefore, construct a "favourable or unfavourable attitude towards the self" (Rosenberg, 1965 p. 15).

Higher self-esteem individuals are, usually, more proactive, optimistic, and present higher levels of social and civic activity, when compared with lower self-esteem individuals (Owens and McDavitt, 2006). Although the benefits of self-esteem are still a very debated topic, most of the literature states that higher self-esteem people tend to achieve more positive outcomes in life and work, due to believing that they are valued in the world (Salomon, 2006).

Specifically concerning the relation between self-esteem and academic performance, several studies have demonstrated there was a positive correlation between these variables (e. g., Ross and Broh, 2000; Wong and Watkins, 2001; Bankston and Zhou, 2002). Körük (2017) explains that individuals with high self-esteem exhibit more motivation to be successful in the academic field, "since they are able to shape their future goals and expectations according to the abilities and interests they have" (p. 248). Furthermore, a previous study by Wiggins, Schatz and West (1994) showed that, when compared with lower self-esteem students, students who felt positive about themselves exhibited different advantages: had fewer sleepless nights, succumbed less easily to pressures of conformity by peers, were less likely to use drugs and alcohol, more persistent at difficult tasks, happier and more sociable, and performed better academically.

This way, it is clear that self-esteem and academic achievement are positively correlated, since higher self-esteem levels result in several benefits for students.

Self-regulation

Self-regulation corresponds to the ability to adaptively regulate one's own cognition, emotions and behaviour, in order to effectively respond to internal and environmental demands (McClelland & Cameron, 2012; Raffaelli, Crocket, & Shen, 2005). This is a fundamental competence to successful accomplishment of adaptive developmental tasks at all stages of life (McClelland et al., 2018).

When it comes to examining the relation between self-regulation and academic achievement, Blair (2002) states that self-regulatory skills are essential for successful school performance and adaptation, due to the fact that they help children direct and control their behaviour and attention. Furthermore, some authors have argued that early attentional and behavioural regulatory skills help construct a foundation for successful classroom functioning, which, in turn, makes room for opportunities crucial for achieving an optimal academic performance throughout school (Kuhl & Kraska, 1989; Howse, Calkins, Anastopoulos, Keane, & Shelton, 2003). On the other hand, students with difficulty in regulating their attention tend to exhibit low achievement (Howse, Lange, Farran, & Boyles, 2003).

So, according to the literature, it is extremely important for students to have the ability to self-regulate. However, such ability must be complemented by students' motivation to effectively use their developed or newly acquired self-regulation strategies (Matuga, 2009).

School engagement

School engagement is a multifaceted concept, composed of three dimensions: behavioural, emotional and cognitive engagement. Behavioural engagement concerns students' participation, namely their involvement in academic and social or extracurricular activities. Emotional engagement is related to students' reactions towards teachers, classmates, academics and school. Finally, cognitive engagement encompasses the idea of investment: students' effort to understand complex ideas and master difficult skills (Fredricks, Blumenfeld, & Paris, 2004).

According to Fredricks, Blumenfeld and Paris (2004), behavioural engagement (which includes students' participation, conduct...) is positively correlated with academic achievement, across several samples and ages. The same happens with emotional engagement and academic achievement: however, such correlation comes mainly from specific constructs, such as students' interest and value.

Keeping in mind the findings from the literature, that suggest a positive relation between engagement and achievement, other authors state that students who are engaged in school – who attend school regularly, concentrate on learning, avoid disruptive behaviours, and adhere to the school's rules – generally achieve a better academic performance (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprar, & Pastorelli, 1996; Finn & Rock, 1997; Caraway, Tucker, Reinke, & Hall, 2003). The opposite happens with students who are disengaged from school and learning, since they generally perform poorly and engage in problematic behaviours, such as dropping out of school (Finn & Rock, 1997).

References

- Cimatti, B. (2016). Definition, development, assessment of soft skills and their role for the quality of organizations and enterprises. *International Journal for Quality Research, 10*(1), 97-130. doi: 10.18421/IJQR10.01-05
- Evenson, R. (1999). Soft skills, hard sell. *Techniques: Making Education & Career Connections, 74*(3), 29-31.
- Klaus, P. (2010). Communication breakdown. *California Job Journal, 28*, 1-9.
- Majid, S., Liming, Z., Tong, S., & Raihana, S. (2012). Importance of soft skills for education and career success. *International Journal for Cross-Disciplinary Subjects in Education, 2*(2), 1036-1042.
- Parsons, T. L. (2008). *Definition: Soft skills*. Retrieved from http://searchcio.techtarget.com/ definition/soft-skills.
- Robles, M. M. (2012). Executive perceptions of the top 10 soft skills needed in today's workplace. *Business Communication Quarterly, 75*(4), 453-465. doi: 10.1177/1080569912460400
- Bankston, C. L. III, Zhou, M. (2002). Being well vs. doing well: Self-esteem and school performance among immigrant and non-immigrant racial and ethnic groups. The International Migration Review, 36(2), 389-415.
- Brewer, G., & Kerslake, J. (2015). Cyberbullying, self-esteem, empathy and loneliness. Computers in Human Behavior, 48, 255–260. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2015.01.073
- Körük, S. (2017). The effect of self-esteem on student achievement. In E. Karadağ (Ed.), The factors effecting student achievement: Meta-analysis of empirical studies (pp. 247-257). Cham, CH: Springer International Publishing.
- Mind. (2019). Self-esteem. Retrieved October 24, 2019, from https://www.mind.org.uk/information-support/types-of-mental-health-problems/self-esteem/#.XbHACOhKjIV
- Owens, T. J., & McDavitt, A. R. (2006). The self-esteem motive: positive and negative consequences for self and society. In M. H. Kernis (Ed.), Self-esteem issues and answers (pp. 398-401). New York: Psychology Press.
- Rosenberg, M. (1965). Society and the adolescent self-image. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Ross, C. E., & Broh, B.A. (2000). The roles of self-esteem and the sense of personal control in the academic achievement process. Sociology of Education, 73(4), 270-284. doi: 10.2307/2673234
- Salomon, S. (2006). Self-esteem is central to human well-being. In M. H. Kernis (Ed.), Self-esteem issues and answers (pp. 254-266). New York: Psychology Press.
- Wiggins, J. D., Schatz, E. L., & West, R. W. (1994). The relationship of self-esteem to grades, achievement scores, and other factors critical to school success. School Counselor, 41(4), 239–244.
- Wong, M. S. W., Watkins, D. (2001). Self-esteem and ability grouping: A Hong Kong investigation of the big fish little pond effect. Educational Psychology: An International Journal of Experimental Educational Psychology, 21(1), 79-87.
- Blair, C. (2002). School readiness: Integrating cognition and emotion in a neurobiological conceptualization of children's functioning at school entry. American Psychologist, 57, 111–127.
- Howse, R. B., Calkins, S. D., Anastopoulos, A. D., Keane, S. P., & Shelton, T. L. (2003). Regulatory contributors to children's kindergarten achievement. Early Education and Development, 14, 101–119.
- Howse, R. B., Lange, G., Farran, D. C., & Boyles, C. D. (2003). Motivation and self-regulation as predictors of achievement in economically disadvantaged young children. Journal of Experimental Education, 71, 151– 174.
- Kuhl, J., & Kraska, K. (1989). Self-regulation and metamotivation: Computational mechanism, development and assessment. In R. Kanfer, P. L. Ackermann, & R. Cudeck (Eds.), Abilities, motivation and methodology: The Minnesota symposium on learning and individual differences (pp. 343–374). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Matuga, J. M. (2009). Self-regulation, goal orientation, and academic achievement of secondary students in online university courses. Educational Technology & Society, 12(3), 4–11.
- McClelland, M., Geldhof, J., Morrison, F., Gestsdóttir, S., Cameron, C., Bowers, E., ... Grammer, J. (2018). Self-regulation. N. Halfon, C. B. Forrest, R. M. Lerner & E. M. Faustman (eds.), Handbook of Life Course Health Development (pp. 275-298). Cham, Switzerland: Springer International Publishing.
- McClelland, M., Cameron, C. (2012). Self-regulation in early childhood: Improving conceptual clarity and developing ecologically valid measures. Child Development Perspectives, 6(2), 136–142. doi: 10.1111/j.1750-8606.2011.00191.x

- Raffaelli, M., Crockett, L., & Shen, Y. (2005). Developmental stability and change in self-regulation from childhood to adolescence. The Journal of Genetic Psychology, 166(1), 54-76. doi: 10.3200/GNTP.166.1.54-76.
- Bandura, A., Barbaranelli, C., Caprar, G. V., & Pastorelli, C. (1996). Multifaceted impact of self-efficacy beliefs on academic functioning. Child Development, 67, 1206-1222.
- Caraway, K., Tucker, C. M., Reinke, W. M., & Hall, C. (2003). Self-efficacy, goal orientation, and fear of failure as predictors of school engagement in high school students. Psychology in the Schools, 40, 417-427.
- Finn, J. D., & Rock, D. A. (1997). Academic success among students at risk for school failure. Journal of Applied Psychology, 82, 221-234.
- Fredericks, J. A., Blumenfeld, P. C., & Paris, A. H. (2004). School engagement: Potential of the concept, state of the evidence. Review of Educational Research, 74(1), 59-109.

SPORTS & PHYSICAL ACTIVITY

Sport and physical activity

Definition of sports and physical activity

Physical activity is universally acknowledged to be an important part of healthy functioning and well-being. Physiologically is defined as any bodily movement produced by skeletal muscles, that results in energy expenditure. Physical activity increases the secretion of endorphins (hormones within the brain and nervous system). This effect has since been linked to a variety of psychological changes, such as: positive mood state changes and euphoria; physical changes to the brain, such as increased cerebral blood flow; growth of nerve cells in the brain's center of learning and memory (Harber and Sutton 1984). Physical activity can be categorized in a variety of ways and can occur spontaneously (leisure/work/transport) or organized and be divided according to purpose: physical exercise is aimed primarily at improving health and physical capacity. Physical training is aimed primarily at increasing the individual's maximum physical capacity and performance [1]. Beyond the physical benefits, physical activity affects individuals on a social and emotional level. People who engage in physical activity gain self-esteem, independence and they improve their social skills through interaction with others. According to researches young people who undertake regular physical activity receive increased confidence, peer acceptance, leadership skills, and empathy. Physical activity and exercise
play an important role in developing the brain and supporting essential mental functions. Furthermore, regular moderate intensity exercise can increase the size of the hippocampus, an area of the brain involved with learning and memory, better thinking and problem solving, stronger attention skills and improved learning. These benefits are amplified throughout the community at large through socialization and integration.

Sport covers a range of physical activities, which aims at expressing or improving physical fitness and mental well-being, forming relationships or obtaining results in competitions at all levels (Council of Europe's European Sports Charter, 2001). Sport, can also be spontaneous and defined as a subset of exercises providing entertainment to participants, and in some cases, spectators [2]. Hundreds of sports exist, from those requiring only two participants, through to those with plenty of simultaneous participants, either in teams or completing as individuals. Sport is generally recognised as activities which are based in physical athleticism or physical dexterity, with the largest major competitions such as the Olympic Games admitting only sports meeting this definition, and other organisations such as the Council of Europe using definitions precluding activities without a physical element from classification as sports. Sport's main purposes are to promote physical activity and improve motor skills for health and performance and psychosocial development [3]. In addition, sport is a major source of entertainment for non-participants, with spectator sports drawing large crowds to venues, and reaching wider audiences through sports broadcasting.

Participants also gain a chance to be part of a community, develop new social circles, and create social norms, self-development and attitudes. Furthermore, is an important enabler of sustainable development. According to UN the growing contribution of sport to the realization of development and peace in its promotion of tolerance and respect and the contributions it makes to the empowerment of individuals and communities as well as to health, education and social inclusion objectives. Plenty of beneficial consequences are claimed such as enhanced confidence, increased social integration, cooperation and productivity. In healthy individuals, and patients with mental illness, sport participation has been shown to provide individuals with a sense of meaning, identity, and belonging [4, 5].

Benefits and contributions for children

There is substantive evidence of many different psychological and social health benefits of participation in sport by children and adolescents. Physical education helps children to develop respect for the body—their own and others', contributes toward the integrated development of mind and body, develops an understanding of the role of physical activity in health, positively enhances self-confidence, self-esteem, social and cognitive development and academic achievement [6]. Furthermore, there is a consensus that participation in sport for children and adolescence is associated with improved psychological and social health, above and beyond other forms of leisure-time PA. More specifically, there are reports that participation in team sports provides children with the opportunity to socialize with others and gain different skills such as communication, tolerance, trust, empathy and respect for others. They also learn positive team skills including cooperation, leadership, cohesion and responsibility. Students who play sports or participate in other physical activities experience a variety of emotions and learn how to cope better in stressful, challenging or painful situations. According to Goudas and Giannoudis (2008), one of the reasons that physical activity and sport are suitable contexts for learning these skills is the transferability of these skills to other domains in life. For example, in physical education and sports children can, under the right pedagogical circumstances (Bailey et al., 2009), learn how to solve problems and to communicate and work as a team, which are skills they will also need in daily life, for example, at home or at work. The effects of participation in organized sports for children and young people are directly linked to physical activity, with long-term secondary effects; an active lifestyle at a young age fosters a more active lifestyle as an adult.

Benefits and contributions for educational systems

An historical overview of the development of physical activity and sport points to the origins of claims made in five broad domains: physical, social, affective and cognitive, lifestyle [7]. Physical activity and sport have the potential to make significant contributions and can have a positive and profound effect to the educational system and development of children. Regular participation in such activities is associated with a longer and better quality of life, reduced risk of a variety of diseases, and many psychological and emotional benefits [8]. In the social domain, numerous studies have demonstrated that regular physical activity and sport can contribute to the development of values and prosocial behavior, and can even combat antisocial and aggressive behaviors in youth. In the affective domain, too, engagement in physical activity has been positively associated with many dimensions of psychological and emotional development. When it comes to cognitive domain, researchers have suggested that physical activity can enhance academic performance by increasing the flow of blood to the brain, enhancing mood, improving children's concentration and self-esteem [9]. Studies have found that school-based programs can contribute to physical activity levels, both during youth and later in life. There is some evidence that health-related behaviors learned in childhood are maintained into adulthood [10]. Finally, it has been argued that the potential psychological and social benefits of physical education, physical activity and sport may indirectly enhance academic performance by enhancing mental health, improving feelings of connectedness with school and by enhancing positive social behaviors (Trudeau and Shephard, 2008, 2010).

Sport and Physical Activity in the promotion of Self-esteem, Self-regulation and School Engagement

Sport participation during adolescence predicts better functioning in several domains, thus allowing adolescents to reap a variety of psychological, behavioural and social benefits (Simpkins, Fredricks, Davis-Kean, & Eccles, 2006). Furthermore, it is suggested that the sport environment can provide socialization opportunities and adaptive demands, similar to those of other important life settings (Smith & Smoll, 1991).

According to some authors, participation in sporting activities has positive effects on self-esteem (Erkut & Tracy, 2002; McHale et al., 2005; Bowker, 2006). However, such effect may be mediated by some variables, such as physical competence and physical self-esteem (Richman & Shaffer, 2000; Bowker, 2006).

Furthermore, sport programs are believed to help promote positive development among youth, namely through teaching youngsters how to regulate their emotions (Holt & Jones, 2008). In fact, regarding the evidence in the literature, most authors state that participation in sports promotes the increase of self-regulation levels (Hansen, Larson, & Dworkin, 2003; Larson, Hansen, & Moneta, 2006). This may be explained, since sport is a context in which youngsters must learn to deal with stress, in order to perform in an effective manner (Nicholls, Holt, Polman, & James, 2005).

Concerning the relation between participation in sports and school engagement, some authors found that students' involvement in extracurricular activities (including sport activities) is related to their engagement in academic activities (Juvonen, Espinoza, & Knifsend, 2012) and protects against absenteeism and dropout (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). However, there are some factors that should be taken into consideration. Firstly, as stated by Gayles and Hu (2009), the influence of the participation in sports on students' cognitive outcomes depends on the type of sport in which the student is involved.

Regarding differences between types of sports, Smith and Smoll (1991) stated that organized sport – a specific type of physical activity, usually competitive and that can be played with a team or as an individual (Eime, Young, Harvey, Charity, & Payne, 2013) – influences the development of crucial behaviours, such as cooperation, stress management, perseverance, and the ability to tolerate frustration. However, despite the positive impact of organized sport, a study by Segrave and Hastad (1982) found that sports that were highly publicized and physically aggressive were positively related to delinquency: students who played more sports with such characteristics were involved in more antisocial delinquent acts, when compared with those who participated less in the aforesaid type of sports.

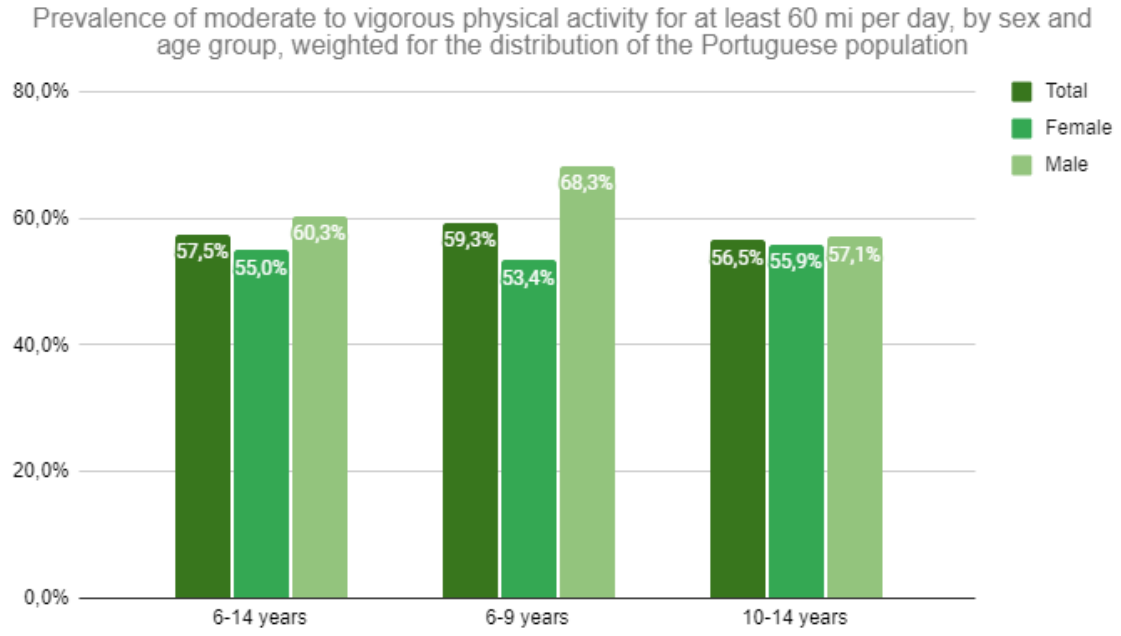
Concerning students' participation in formal sport (organized by schools or clubs), higher levels of such participation were related to higher levels of perceived behavioural competence, which means that these students perceive themselves to be acting in a competent and appropriate way. Furthermore, the more formal sports participation, the lower the scores on several variables, such as Externalizing, Social, Aggression and Delinquency Problems, and the lower the levels of anxiety and depression-related problems (Donaldson & Ronan, 2006).

Finally, the longer the participation in sporting activities, the greater the students' emotional health and psychological well-being (Ragheb & McKinney, 1993; Astin, 1993). Besides, according to a study by Astin (1993), the more hours spent in sports or exercise, the lower the students' feelings of being overwhelmed and depressed. This variable also has a positive impact on self-esteem (e.g., Dattilo, Dattilo, Samdahl, & Kleiber, 1994; Hultsman, 1995).

National statistics

Portugal

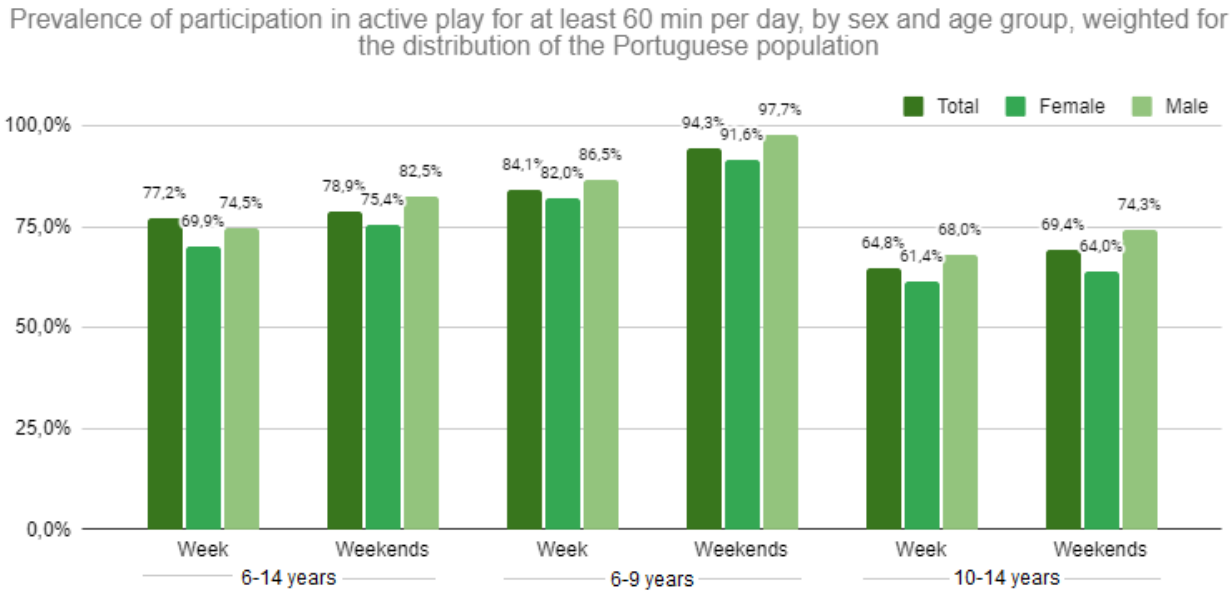
According to the results from the National Food and Physical Activity Survey 2015-2016 (Lopes et al., 2017), the prevalence of the population aged 10 to 14 years that met the recommendations of 60 minutes of moderate to vigorous physical activity was of 56.5% - the lowest value of the age groups examined.



(Lopes et al., 2017)

Another interesting data from the National Food and Physical Activity Survey 2015-2016 (Lopes et al., 2017) is the prevalence of the population aged 6 to 14 years old that spends more than 60 minutes a day on active play. As would be expected, that prevalence is more significant during weekends, when compared with the weekdays. Furthermore, it is clear there exists a significant decrease in active play prevalence with age, and this is particularly evident with girls. Concerning the types of sport most youngsters practice (Matos et al., 2018), football/futsal are at the top of the list (30.3%), followed by swimming (15.9%), basketball (13.6%), gymnastics (13.2%), volleyball (12.1%), athletics (8.7%), cycling/mountain bike (8%), and handball (6.8%).

Furthermore, through examining a study by the Health Behaviour in School-aged Children network (Matos et al., 2018), regarding the year of 2018, we can see that most children from the sixth, eighth and tenth grades exercised in 1-3 days of the week (52.8%), while 43.1% exercised in more than 3 days and only 4.1% did not exercise at all. According to the same study, regarding the last 6 months, 18.5% of the children in the sample did not practice sports, which is a significant percentage. The proportion of children who still practiced sports on a regular basis was of 52.8%, while 28.7% had practiced sports some time during those 6 months, but were not currently practicing.



(Lopes et al., 2017)

Turkey

In today's modern societies sport is gain meaning as an indicator of culture, welfare and all aspects of social ife. Another dimension of sport is play one of the most important role in creating a peaceful society (4). Sports is a phenomenon that improves the organic and psychological health of individuals and regulates their social behaviors. In our age, socio-economic structure plays an important role in influencing peoples lifestyle and determining social status in society. There are groups that enjoy different tastes and cultures. This is in line with socio-economic opportunities (5) .

Physical education and sports activities should promote the development of the individual as a whole; In other words, it serves human health and productivity as it provides physical, mental and social development. The individuals ability to benefit from physical education and sports activities varies from person to person and from group to group in each society. This difference between individuals is due to differences in socio-economic structures. Because the differences in socio-economic structure include the environment in which people are born from birth and the economic conditions of that environment (6) .

	GIRLS		BOYS	
FEATURES	DO SPORTS	NOT DO SPORTS	DO SPORTS	NOT DO SPORTS
Father Education	%	%	%	%
Primary	25,9	25,8	21,7	21,8
Secondary	21,6	26,7	19,3	20
High School	28,4	26,7	33,6	29,4
Faculty	20,7	20,8	23,9	27,1
Post Gra.	3,4	0	1,5	1,8
Father Occupation				
Officer	20,7	9,2	24,8	16,5
Worker	18,2	21,7	22	20
Retired	13,6	16,7	8,9	11,8
Self-Employment	45,4	47,5	42,8	49,4
Not-working	2,2	5	1,5	2,4
Mother Education				
Primary	42	36,7	32,7	28,8
Secondary	16	12,5	20,8	17,6
High School	27,5	27,5	26,6	34,1
Faculty	11,7	22,5	18	18,2
Post Gra.	2,7	0,8	1,8	1,2
Mother Occupation				
Officer	9	10,8	11,6	11,1
Worker	7,7	11,7	6,7	6,5
Retired	5,6	7,5	5,5	2,9
Self-Employment	9,6	15,8	6,7	7,1
Not-working	2,5	5,8	1,8	4,1
Housewife	65,7	48,3	67,6	68,2
Family Income				
High	48,1	48,3	42,5	52,4
Average	48,8	47,5	54,4	47,1
Low	3,1	4,2	3,1	0,6

Romania

In Romania, The National Education Law Nr.1/2011 establishes the contexts in which the Physical Education classes are taught by PE teachers at primary and lower-secondary levels/grades as it follows:

P.E.	Primary Cls. 0	Primary Cls. 1	Primary Cls. 2	Primary Cls. 3	Primary Cls. 4	Secondary Cls. 5	Secondary Cls. 6	Secondary Cls. 7	Secondary Cls. 8
Nr. of classes/week	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1

*An extra class is taught by class teachers at primary level within *Music and movement* or *Games and movement* class.

Statistics shows that in 2015 there is a population aged 3 to 18 of approximately 3.4 million, representing 17% of the total population, which is decreasing.

Researches on practising sports by the Romanian children in urban area highlight **the contextual factors which prevent children from practising sports** (Quantix Marketing Consulting, Sport Insights 2014, 2015):

- *insufficient time and money.* Lack of time is experienced both by children and parents. Apparently, according to the survey, it is school to be blamed for children not having time to practise sports, whereas parents consider their job restraints impeding upon the possibility to care for allotting time for children to either do sports together or to take them to/from training. Also, some sports are perceived as being costly and an important number of parents appreciate that they are not affordable, especially when they have more children. These expenses refer to equipment, coaches, competitions etc.

- *few PE classes in school* (together with the low interest towards PE classes from policy makers), *insufficient specific facilities*, that is sports fields and material resources, a small number of clubs for children, together with insufficient well-trained instructors, and inconsistency in stimulation and selection of future performers.

- *technological context,* children tend to find digital environment more appealing in the detriment of sport and physical activity.

However, there have been initiatives in Romania in recent years to increase the minimum number of PE classes in schools. More clubs have been opened and competitions for children to compete have been initiated, mainly by private investors; it has become visible the interest and activity of former outstanding sporting personalities who have developed or supported programmes aimed at encouraging younger generations to practise sports and do physical activities. Also, an increasing number of adults have started practising different sports, as a response to new tendencies in modern society to live healthy and active lives, which has had an educational impact reflected in families. The average income has significantly increased for large categories of population, more sports fields have been built, both in the country and in schools and parks or green areas, more retailers in sporting equipment have appeared on the market, and thus, facilitating in a positive way the adoption of an interest in sport. Other factors which have had a contribution to the recent changes are the involvement of famous sporting brands, companies and NGOs in developing sports and physical activity both at mass and performance levels.

The studies have also shown that approximately 30% of the adults from urban area have children aged 3 to18, about a quarter of whom with more than one child. Among these children, **71% practise sport**. Boys practise more sport than girls (76% of the boys aged 3 to 18 practise a sport, as compared to 66% in the case of girls).

On the whole, the most practised sports or physical activities for young people aged 3 to 18 are: dancing, football, martial arts (different styles) and swimming.

Football is mainly preferred: one of three boys plays football, that is 31%, martial arts (22%) and then swimming (13%). As for girls, they prefer dancing (25%), swimming (13%) and athletics (11% - including running).

The balanced presence of swimming in both genders among the most practised sports is interesting. Parents' attitude towards swimming is a favourable factor in this context, as swimming is seen as very beneficial for children's harmonious development. It can also be practised from early ages.

Only 2% of the girls practise martial arts, although they are considered also very beneficial for children's both physical and mental development. Girls' options go mainly towards dancing (somehow naturally) and gymnastics. It is worth mentioning their interest in athletics and running.

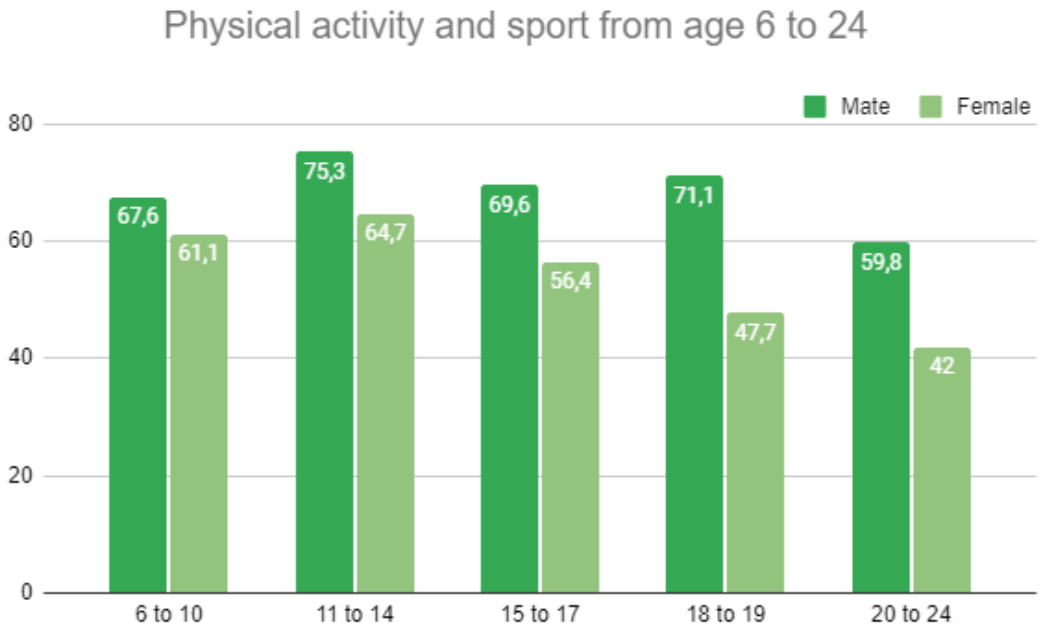
In other sports like rollerskating, chess, handball, ice-skating or even ski, there has been a more noticeable interest in practising them by girls rather than boys. As for tennis, volleyball, cycling, going to the gym for aerobic or fitness or table tennis there is a balanced ratio both for boys and girls. Among children who practise a sport, 28% do it regurarly and in an organized way, at a club or with a trainer or instructor. It is estimated that a child practises a sport on the average a little more over 4 hours a week, irrespective of the place where

they practise it. Still, there is a significant difference between those who do a sport as amateurs, in an unorganized way (3.4 hours a week) as compared with those who do it at a club or with a trainer or instructor (6.4 hours a week).

As seen above there isn't any reference to the situation in rural areas, since there has not been any official analysis based on updated data in recent years.

Italy

Italy uses the international cut-off point for children and adolescents reaching the recommended physical activity levels, as endorsed in WHO's Global recommendations on physical activity for health (2010) (5). The national data from 2010–2013, collating together the data for children and adolescents, show that 43% of children and adolescents (6–17 years) meet the WHO recommended physical activity levels, with more boys (46%) being physically active than girls (44%).



Cyprus

Based on the European Commission and World Health Organisation about the Physical activity in children and adolescents in Cyprus, no data are available on physical activity levels among Cypriot children and adolescents. Neither the Health Behaviour in School-aged Children (HBSC) study nor the WHO GHO 2010 data contained information for these population groups in Cyprus.

Cyprus is currently in the initial stages of drafting national recommendations on physical activity and health which are envisaged to be implemented by the end of 2015. It is anticipated that these national recommendations will be based on the WHO's *Global Recommendations on Physical Activity for Health* (2010) and those of the American College of Sports Medicine .

In 1985, the Cyprus Sports Organisation adopted a Sports for All policy. This specifically addresses Sports for All promotion. The programme involves more than 300 sports centres and has 11 000 members from all age groups. It is intended to encourage people to become more involved in sports, to promote health "for joy, sensibility, recreation, fitness and health purposes" . While much of the work of the programme is carried out in preschools to encourage fitness from an early age, specialized programmes also exist, including rhythmic gymnastics and judo, as well as swimming classes. There is also provision for preschool education, adults, older adults and individuals with special needs.

Summary of key physical activity initiatives in Cyprus:

Health	Sports	Education	Transport	Monitoring	Guidelines
Counselling on physical activity as part of primary health care services	Existence of a national Sports for All Policy(ies)	Mandatory physical activity in primary and secondary schools	National or subnational schemes promoting active travel to school and/or workplace	Physical activity included in the national heath monitoring system or separate routine survey	Existence of national recommendation on physical activity
No	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes

Sports in schools . It is compulsory for primary schools to provide at least 90 minutes of scheduled physical education (PE) per week. In secondary schools this increases to 135 minutes of PE per week (on average). Successful approaches in Cyprus:

- Programmes for children with special needs

The Cyprus Sports Organisation ensures the implementation of special programmes for people from the Cyprus School for the Blind and students of Nicosia, Larnaca and Famagusta special schools, putting into practice its Sports for All policy and philosophy with a view to offering equal sporting opportunities to all individuals, irrespective of their gender, age, social position or any form of disability.

- Cyprus Sports Medicine and Research Centre

Cyprus Sports Medicine and Research Centre is the only scientific centre for sport research in Cyprus and is run by the Cyprus Sport Organisation. It focuses on the development of scientific research in the field of sports medicine, sports science, physical activity and PE. The centre works closely with many academic institutions and scientific centres, both locally and abroad, examining and evaluating through its research the physical fitness of the adult population of Cyprus. Studies have included cardiovascular capacity, muscle strength and power, body composition and flexibility.

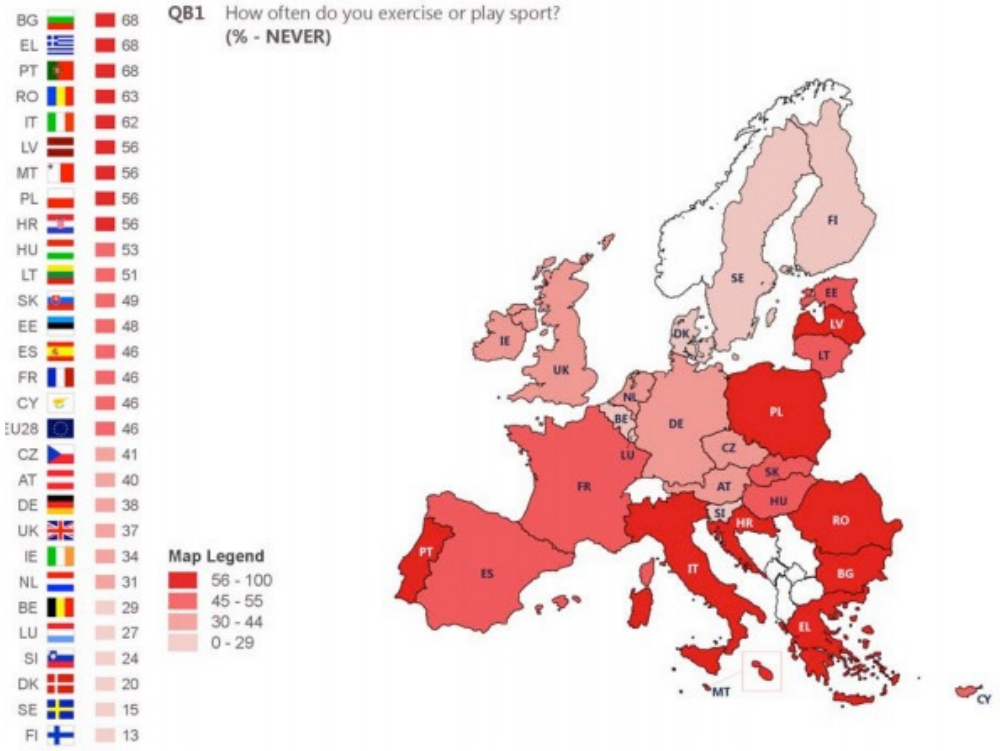
The centre has also conducted research into factors that might encourage greater levels of physical activity among the population. The results suggest that such measures could include the construction of more sports facilities (both indoor and outdoor), the construction of pedestrian pathways and cycle paths, more organized and supervised exercise programmes, more information concerning the effects and benefits of physical activity and exercise, and measures to reduce the cost of using sports facilities.

European Statistics

Regular practice of physical activity helps people to build and maintain healthy bones, muscles and joints, helps control body weight, helps reduce fat and develop efficient function of the heart and lungs. Regular physical activity provides people with substantial physical, mental and social health benefits. It facilitates developing the skills of movement and helps prevent and control the feelings of anxiety and depression. Engagement in play and sports gives people opportunities for natural self-expression, self-confidence, relief of tension, achievement, social interaction and integration as well as for learning the spirit of solidarity and fair play. The most obvious dimension is of course the physical learning (how to run, jump, climb, maintain balance, coordination, etc.) however there are also a variety of social learning processes taking place (for example learning to be part of a team, to cooperate, to trust, fair-play and so on.).

Even today, some of the biggest social challenges we face include social isolation or bullying in schools, for which social skills are important mediators. Research shows that physical education is a crucial forum for promoting face-to-face social interactions among students. Trust, a sense of community, empathy, co-operation and positive attitudes towards school are some of the social outcomes where physical education has been shown to play an important role. Countries and jurisdictions explicitly promote a greater range of social

outcomes than any other outcome areas in health and physical education curricula. However, research shows PE/HE can best foster social outcomes when co-operative and student-focused teaching methods (rather than teacher-directed approaches) are leveraged (Haugen, Safvenbom and Ommundsen, 2013; Macdonald-Wallis et al., 2011).



Based on Special Eurobarometer 472 - December 2017 published by European Commission the proportion of Europeans that never exercise or play sport continues to increase. Almost half of Europeans (46%) say that they never exercise or play sport, while 14% only do so seldom. Conversely, 40% of them exercise or play sport with at least some regularity, including 7% who exercise or play sports regularly. Compared to 2013, the proportion of those who never exercise or play sport has increased (+4 percentage points, from 42% to 46%), while the proportion that does so seldom has decreased (from 17% to 14%). This continues the longer-term trend since 2009, when 39% said that they never exercised or played sports.

There are 11 countries in which more than half of respondents never exercise or play sport. Respondents in Bulgaria, Greece and Portugal (all 68%) are the most likely to never exercise or play sport, followed by respondents in Romania (63%) and Italy (62%). In the Nordic countries, only small proportions of respondents never exercise or play sport: Finland (13%), Sweden (15%) and Denmark (20%). These are also the countries where respondents are most likely to exercise or play sport regularly or with some regularity: 69% in Finland, 67% in Sweden and 63% in Denmark. There have been some large changes since 2013 in the proportions of people in different countries that never exercise or play sport. The largest increases can be seen in Croatia (+27pp), Latvia (+17pp), Austria (+13pp) and Estonia (+12pp). There are only six countries that have seen a decrease in the proportion that never exercises or plays sport. The largest decreases are found in Malta (-19pp), Bulgaria (-10pp) and Cyprus (-8pp).

References

- Publich Health Agency of Sweden . Vad är Fysisk Aktivitet? [What Is Physical Activity?] Volume 2016 Publich Health Agency of Sweden; Solna, Sweden: 2016
- Khan K.M., Thompson A.M., Blair S.N., Sallis J.F., Powell K.E., Bull F.C., Bauman A.E. Sport and exercise as contributors to the health of nations. Lancet. 2012;380:59–64. doi: 10.1016/S0140-6736(12)60865-4
- Holt N.L., Neely K.C., Slater L.G., Camire M., Cote J., Fraser-Thomas J., MacDonald D., Strachan L., Tamminen K.A. A grounded theory of positive youth development through sport based on results from a qualitative meta-study. Int. Rev. Sport Exerc. Psychol. 2017;10:1–49. doi: 10.1080/1750984X.2016.1180704
- Soundy A., Freeman P., Stubbs B., Probst M., Roskell C., Vancampfort D. The Psychosocial Consequences of Sports Participation for Individuals with Severe Mental Illness: A Metasynthesis Review. Adv. Psychiatry. 2015;2015:8.
- Hassmen P., Koivula N., Uutela A. Physical exercise and psychological well-being: A population study in Finland. Prev. Med. 2000;30:17–25
- Talbot M. The case for physical education. In: Doll-Tepper G, Scoretz D, eds. World Summit on Physical Education. Berlin, Germany: ICSSPE; 2001:39-50Physical Education and Sport in Schools: A Review of Benefits and Outcomes
- Physical Education and Sport in Schools: A Review of Benefits and Outcomes, Richard Bailey
- Sallis J, Owen N. Physical Activity and Behavioral Medicine. Thousand Oaks, Calif: Sage; 1999
- Hills A. Scholastic and intellectual development and sport. In: Chan K-M, Micheli L, eds. Sports and Children. Champaign, Ill: Human Kinetics; 1998:76-90
- Kelder S, Perry C, Klepp K, Lytle L. Longitudinal tracking of adolescent smoking, physical activity and food choices behavior. Am J Public Health. 1994;84:1121-1126

Portugal

- Astin, A. W. (1993). *What matters in college?: Four critical years revisited*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Bowker, A. (2006). The relationship between sports participation and self-esteem during early adolescence. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science, 38*(3), 214–229. https://doi.org/10.1037/cjbs2006009
- Dattilo, J., Dattilo, A. M., Samdahl, D. M., & Kleiber, D. A. (1994). Leisure orientations and self-esteem in women with low incomes who are overweight. *Journal of Leisure Research, 26*, 23-28.
- Donaldson, S. J., & Ronan, K. R. (2006). The effects of sports participation on young adolescents' emotional well-being. *Adolescence, 41*(162), 369-389.
- Eime, R. M., Young, J. A., Harvey, J. T., Charity, M. J., & Payne, W. R. (2013). A systematic review of the psychological and social benefits of participation in sport for children and adolescents: informing development of a conceptual model of health through sport. The International Journal of Behavioral Nutrition and Physical Activity, 10(98), 1-21.
- Erkut, S., & Tracy, A. J. (2002). Predicting adolescent self-esteem from participation in school sports among Latino subgroups. Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 24(4), 409–429. https://doi.org/10.1177/0739986302238212
- Gayles, J. G., & Hu, S. (2009). Athletes as students: Ensuring positive cognitive and affective outcomes. New Directions for Higher Education, 148, 101-107. doi: 10.1002/he.373
- Hansen, D. M., Larson, R. W., & Dworkin, J. B. (2003). What adolescents learn in organized youth activities: A survey of self-reported developmental experiences. Journal of Research on Adolescence, 13(1), 25–55. https://doi.org/10.1111/1532-7795.1301006
- Holt, N. L., & Jones, M. I. (2008). Future directions for positive youth development and sport. In N. L. Holt (Ed.), Positive youth development through sport (pp. 122-132). London: Routledge.
- Hultsman, W. Z. (1995). Recognizing patterns of leisure constraints: Results from alternative analyses. Journal of Leisure Research, 27, 228-244.

- Juvonen, J., Espinoza, G., & Knifsend, C. (2012). The role of peer relationships in student academic and extracurricular engagement. In S. L. Christenson, A. L. Reschly, & C. Wylie (Eds.), *Handbook of research on student engagement* (p. 387–401). Springer Science + Business Media. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4614-2018-7_18
- Larson, R. W., Hansen, D. M., & Moneta, G. (2006). Differing profiles of developmental experiences across types of organized youth activities. *Developmental Psychology, 42*(5), 849–863. https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.42.5.849
- Lopes, C., Torres, D., Oliveira, A., Severo, M., Alarcão, V., Guiomar, S., ... Ramos, E. (2017*). Inquérito Alimentar Nacional e de Atividade Física, IAN-AF 2015-2016: Relatório de resultados.* Available via Universidade do Porto at: www.ian-af.up.pt
- Matos, M. G., & E quipá Aventura Social. (2018). *Dados nacionais 2018 - a saúde dos adolescentes portugueses após a recessão.* Available via Health Behaviour in School-aged Children (HBSC) at: http://www.hbsc.org/membership/countries/portugal.html
- McHale, J. P., Vinden, P. G., Bush, L., Richer, D., Shaw, D., & Smith, B. (2005). patterns of personal and social adjustment among sport-involved and noninvolved urban middle-school children. *Sociology of Sport Journal, 22*(2), 119-136.
- Nicholls, A. R., Holt, N. L., Polman, R. C. J., & James, D. W. G. (2005). Stress and coping among international adolescent golfers. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 17*(4), 333–340. https://doi.org/10.1080/10413200500313644
- Ragheb, M. G., & McKinney, J. (1993). Campus recreation and perceived academic stress. *Journal of College Student Development, 34*(1), 5-10.
- Richman, E. L., & Shaffer, D. R. (2000). "If you let me play sports:" How might sport participation influence the self-esteem of adolescent females? *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 24*(2), 189–199. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1471-6402.2000.tb00200.x
- Segrave, J. O., & Hastad, D. N. (1982). Delinquent behavior and interscholastic athletic participation. *Journal of Sport Behavior, 5*, 96-111.
- Simpkins, S. D., Fredricks, J. A., Davis-Kean, P. E., & Eccles, J. S. (2006). Healthy mind, healthy habits: the influence of activity involvement in middle childhood. In A. C. Huston & M. N. Ripke (Eds.), Cambridge studies in social and emotional development. Developmental contexts in middle childhood: Bridges to adolescence and adulthood (p. 283–302). Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511499760.015
- Skinner, E. A., & Pitzer, J. R. (2012). Developmental dynamics of student engagement, coping, and everyday resilience. In S. L. Christenson, A. L. Reschly, & C. Wylie (Eds.), Handbook of research on student engagement (p. 21–44). Springer Science + Business Media. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4614-2018-7_2
- Smith, R. E., & Smoll, F. L. (1991). Behavioral research and intervention in youth sports. Behavior Therapy, 22, 329-344.

Turkey

- Tayh, A. (2008), Ön. Ver
- Eurydice, (2001). Ön. Ver
- MEB Milli Eğitim İstatistikleri Örgün Eğitim (Statistics of Ministry of Education) 2006-2007/2007-2008/2011-2012
- Çolakoğlu T: Sporun Topluma Yaygınlaştırılması Açısından Okul Sporları (Beden Eğitimi Öğretmenlerinin Görüşleri Üzerine Bir Araştırma).
- Doktora Tezi, Gazi Üniversitesi Sağlık Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Anabilim Dalı, Ankara, 2004, s 2.
- Seven N: Amatör Sporcularda Sosyo-Ekonomik Düzeyin Belirlenmesi (Samsun İli Örneği). Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Selçuk
- Üniversitesi Sağlık Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Anabilim Dalı, Konya, 2003
- Watkins D, Regmi M: Participation in sport: a Nepalese investigation. Percept Mot Skills 69: 657-8, 1989.
- “Sport in Romania 2014. Legatura intre branduri, companii si sport”
- “Sport in Romania 2015. Focus pe alergare”
- The researches on practising sports in Romaniaare made by Quantix Marketing Consulting via the research and consulting platform Sport Insights. The project is developed in partnership with SMARK and with the support of Daedalus Online. The data about children are collected from parents living in urban area for the target group aged 3 to 18.
- https://www.smark.ro/articol/33912/copiii-si-sportul-in-romania
- https://www.facebook.com/pg/sportinsights/

Italy

- https://ec.europa.eu/assets/eac/sport/library/factsheets/italy-factsheet_en.pdf

Cyprus

- European Commission and World Health Organisation (2016) Physical Activity Factsheet. Available at: https://ec.europa.eu/assets/eac/sport/library/factsheets/cyprus-factsheet_en.pdf
- Global Recommendations on Physical Activity for Health (2010). Geneva: World Health Organization; http://whqlibdoc.who.int/publications/2010/9789241599979_ eng.pdf accessed 5 June 2015
- American College of Sports Medicine (ACSM) (2011) , AHA support federal physical activity guidelines [website]. Indianapolis: American College of Sports Medicine; 2011. https://www.acsm.org/about-acsm/media-room/acsm-in-the-news/2011/08/01/acsm-aha-support-federal- physicalactivity-guidelines accessed 5 June 2015
- Sports for All [website]. Nicosia: Cyprus Sports Organisation; (2012). http://cyprussports.org/en/index.php/ template/lorem-ipsum-ii/national-programs/sports-for- all, accessed 13 July 2015.
- Sports Medicine (ACSM),(2011) AHA Support Federal Physical Activity Guidelines [website]. Indianapolis: American College of Sports Medicine; https://www.acsm.org/about-acsm/media-room/acsm-in-the- news/2011/08/01/acsm-aha-support-federal-physical- activity-guidelines, accessed 5 June 2015.

Europe

- EACEA. (2018). Special Eurobarometer 472 survey Report 2018 Available at: https://ec.europa.eu/sport/news/2018/new-eurobarometer-sport-and-physical-activity_en
- EACEA. EUROSTAT (2018). Sport statistics. Available at: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/4031688/8716412/KS-07-17-123-EN-N.pdf/908e0e7f-a416-48a9-8fb7-d874f4950f57
- OECD (2019) OECD FUTURE OF EDUCATION 2030.Making Physical Education Dynamic and Inclusive for 2030. Available at: https://www.oecd.org/education/2030-project/contact/OECD_FUTURE_OF_EDUCATION_2030_MAKING_PHYSICAL_DYNAMIC_AND_INCLUSIVE_FOR_2030.pdf

CROSSOVER PROJECT CONSORTIUM

Associação Animam Viventem
Project coordinator | Cascais, Portugal

PlanBe Plan it Be it
Partner | Nicosia, Cyprus

S.S.D. ar.l. L'Orma
Partner | Milan, Italy

Scoala Gimnaziala Nr. 11
Partner | Oradea, Romania

Etimesgut Sehit Halil Hamuryen Ortaokulu
Partner | Ankara, Turkey

Contact information Project Coordinator:
Associação Animam Viventem
Contact Person: Ms. Inês Gomes Calado
Email: animam.viventem@gmail.com

This project has been funded with support from the European Commission. This publication reflects the views only of the author, and the Commission cannot be held responsible for any use which may be made of the information contained therein.

2022 | Consortium of Crossover Project