This book tells the story — one could almost call it an adventure — of how a 'Europe of education and training' has gradually been constructed. In so doing, and by focusing on this one specific area of policy, it also provides a concrete example of the process of building Europe itself.

European integration may often seem a technocratic business, in the hands of remote institutions responsible for mainly macroeconomic policies whose benefits are not immediately felt by the public at large. The principal merit of this book is to remind the reader that, over the years, a different 'Europe' has also been created, one which connects with its citizens and reaches out directly to a great many people. How widely is it known, for example, that almost 1.5 million students have received an Erasmus grant since the programme began?

The book also explains how this was achieved, thanks to the commitment of all institutional partners at European and national levels and, in particular, the involvement of the world of education out in the field. The Europe of education and training has thus followed a developmental path very much of its own, starting with the first action programme of February 1976 and continuing through a number of major steps such as the first inclusion of education, in 1992, in the Maastricht Treaty. But some of the strategies described in this book also illustrate a dual approach to the building Europe which underlies the European construction process in other areas too: the reader will learn, for example, how the instruments for concrete action — major programmes with increasing budgets (Comett, Erasmus, Lingua, Socrates, Leonardo da Vinci, and so on) — have developed alongside initiatives involving strengthened political cooperation, in particular since the Lisbon European Council of March 2000. From its more detached vantage point, this work thus puts into perspective the impatience of those who feel that Europe is not progressing quickly enough: in fact, a very great deal has been achieved.

Of course, building a Europe of knowledge is not without its problems, and it was clear that no one could have been better placed to describe the different phases of this delicate process than some of those most directly involved. The group set up to accompany the writing of this book comprised people who had been at the cutting edge of this venture. It is therefore founded on very solid experience. The team — and most particularly the author, Luce Pépin — deserve our full appreciation for this important work.
The history of European cooperation in education and training

Europe in the making — an example
Opinions expressed in this publication do not necessarily reflect those of the European Commission.

A great deal of additional information on the European Union is available on the Internet. It can be accessed through the Europa server (http://europa.eu).

Cataloguing data can be found at the end of this publication.

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Printed on white chlorine-free paper
We are not making a coalition of states, but are uniting people

Jean Monnet
KEY DATA ON EDUCATION IN THE EUROPEAN UNION

2003 data (*) (25 Member States of the EU)

Number of pupils and students (in millions)

Pupils and students (all levels) 104.2
- Pre-primary 12.7
- Primary 27.6
- Secondary 45.8
- Higher education 16.9

Education staff (in millions)

- Education staff (total) 13.1
- Number of teachers (schools) 5.6
- Higher education staff 1.1
  - of which university teaching staff (estimate based on national data) 0.2

Number of education institutions

- Schools approx. 340 000
- Higher education institutions (estimate) approx. 4 000
  - (including 700 universities)

Education expenditure (European averages — 2002 data)

- Education budget (as % of public expenditure) 11.0
- Public expenditure on education (as % of GDP) 5.2
- Private expenditure on education institutions (as % of GDP) 0.6
- Expenditure per pupil per year EUR 5 100
- Expenditure per student per year (higher education) EUR 7 900

(*) Sources: Eurostat (UOE data and Community labour force survey); Education and Culture DG’s estimate of the number of schools, higher education institutions and university teaching staff.
Education was belatedly included in the scope of European integration, almost 20 years having passed since the Treaties of Rome were signed in 1957 and before education ministers began to cooperate in a Community context and adopted a first action programme. Today, 30 years later, education and training are closely linked to the economic and social development of the European Union. Education policy is now at the heart of this Europe of knowledge that we are building, and, as illustrated in this important work, we have made impressive progress.

This sector has been a pioneer in implementing the principle of subsidiarity and in developing programmes involving the people of Europe, such as Erasmus, then Socrates, Leonardo da Vinci and Youth. All of those who in the last 30 years have taken action at all levels to support and advance this cooperation have each day demonstrated its validity and its role in closer European integration and in bringing the people of the European Union closer together. On the basis of this important achievement, even closer cooperation may now be envisaged at all levels. The stakes are high. European education and training systems must be allowed to meet in very concrete terms the growing number of joint challenges facing them in an ever-changing knowledge-based society and economy.

Improving the quality of human resources in the European Union is a highly topical issue, particularly since the Lisbon European Council of March 2000. The Heads of State or Government then agreed that it was a prerequisite for Europe’s economic and social success and intellectual influence in the world. European cooperation in education and training has a crucial role to play in this endeavour. This sector’s contribution is indeed essential in ensuring the development of a dynamic, innovative Europe that is close to its people. The Commission’s ambitious proposals in this field for the period 2007-13 were motivated by this belief, and by the wish to involve as many EU citizens as possible in the unique venture that is European integration.

Ján Figel’
Commissioner in charge of education, training, culture and multilingualism
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Introduction

This book tells the story of how a Europe of education and training has developed, as a specific example of ongoing European integration.

European integration sometimes appears to be technocratic, in the hands of remote institutions responsible for mainly macroeconomic policies whose benefits are not immediately felt by the people of Europe. The principal merit of this work is to remind the reader that over the years a 'people's Europe' has been created, one which directly involves a great many people; for example, did you know that almost 1.5 million students have now received Erasmus grants? This book explains why Europe, which began its existence as a coal and steel community, has gradually become a Union that plays a part in the policies affecting its citizens.

It also explains how this was achieved. Since the beginning, the story of European integration has consisted of bold projects which were then converted into concrete action taking into account the nature of the various sectors in the Union’s sphere of activity; the Europe of knowledge has thus followed its own development plan. However, some of the methods described in this book illustrate a type of European integration that also inspires integration in other areas: the reader will learn for example how practical measures evolved, via programmes with increasing budgets, in parallel with initiatives involving political cooperation in the field.

With the benefit of hindsight, this work puts into perspective the impatience of those who feel that Europe is not progressing quickly enough; we have achieved so much!

Of course building a Europe of knowledge inevitably presents difficulties. No one is better placed to describe the different phases than some of those directly involved, which is why the Commission’s Secretary-General (2000–05) David O’Sullivan suggested that Domenico Lenarduzzi, honorary Director-General, who spent most of his career in the education sector, coordinate the drafting of an original account of this cooperation. I readily supported this proposal, to which Domenico Lenarduzzi agreed after leaving the Commission. The team which he formed comprised people who had been at the cutting edge of this venture, so the book, drafted with their guidance, is founded on very solid experience. This team deserves our full appreciation for this important work, in particular its author, Luce Pépin.

Many works have already been written on the history of European integration. Works which look at how this venture is progressing in one sector or another are much less common, however, and this book is the first such work on education. I am confident that this history of European cooperation will be of great interest to the reader thus introduced to the heart of the Community system created in response to Jean Monnet’s entreaty that the people of Europe be brought closer together.
### Members of the Group

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<td>Former Director-General (acting and deputy) for Employment and Social Affairs; former Head of the Task Force for Human Resources, Education, Training and Youth. Responsibilities in education at Community level from 1973 to 1993.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Raymond Georis</td>
<td>Secretary-General of the European Cultural Foundation from 1973 to 1995.</td>
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<td>Lesley Wilson</td>
<td>Secretary-General of the European University Association (EUA). Former Head of the Tempus Office. Involved in education at European level since 1988.</td>
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Methodology and content

I. INCEPTION AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE WORK

In July 2000 the Commission's Secretary-General (2000–05) David O'Sullivan suggested to the Director-General (2000–05) for Education and Culture, Nikolaus van der Pas, that a book be written on the history of Community cooperation in education and training, underlining how original this was: ‘In many ways, the development of Community education and training policy over the past 30 years provides an excellent case study of the broader developments in the EU over the same period’.

Domenico Lenarduzzi, honorary Director-General of the Commission, then brought together a group of people who had been particularly involved in this history or offered knowledge and experience of important aspects of it.

Luce Pépin, former Head of the Eurydice European Unit, is the author of the work, which was re-read by the members of the group and their contributions added.

The Commission financed its publication.

II. CONTENT AND NATURE OF THE WORK

Community focus

While reference is also made to developments which took place within bodies of an intergovernmental nature, in particular the Council of Europe, the history of European cooperation in education and training which is of interest here took place in a Community context. ‘Community cooperation’, therefore, means the cooperation undertaken over the years within the European Economic Community (EEC), which was founded in 1957 by the Treaty of Rome and became the European Community, part of the European Union, following the signature of the Maastricht Treaty in 1992.

Focus on education

Given the special nature of education and its absence from the Treaty of Rome in 1957, it is above all the developments in this field that are of most interest and are analysed most thoroughly. The history of Community cooperation in education is however inextricably linked to developments in vocational training and, more generally, social policy: areas explicitly recognised in the Treaty of Rome. For this reason we recount the main events which punctuated the evolution of Community policy on vocational training and highlight the links which existed between this sector and the education sector, arriving at a point today where both areas are integrated within the concept of lifelong learning. However, this work by no means provides exhaustive information on Community cooperation in vocational training. As youth policy has always been close to these two areas, it too is touched upon but is not analysed in depth.
A source of information

This work sets out the developments which have marked the history of Community cooperation in education and training and outlines their significance in the context of Community integration. It is intended in particular to give an account of this history and the events which have marked it, thus providing the reader with a source of information and references compiled for the first time in a single work, thus opening avenues for further study. It does not claim to be exhaustive and, while some areas have been dealt with in less detail than others, this should not be taken to mean that they are any less significant.

The first stage of producing this work was to draw up a detailed chronology (Annex 5). This chronology provides a useful overview of the development of cooperation over the years, particularly in terms of the ever greater number of texts adopted by the Education Council on increasingly diverse topics. It also enables the reader to follow this evolution in relation to the main events of Community integration, which were, as the analysis itself endeavours to illustrate, increasingly favourable to the inclusion of education and training.

III. APPROACH CHOSEN

Presentation of 30 years of history

There were two possible approaches, each with its own advantages and disadvantages. The first, a thematic approach, would have analysed the evolution of each of the most salient aspects and topics over the course of these more than 30 years of history, thus providing a diachronic overview of each issue. But so many interdependent aspects were involved that this would have run the risk of promoting a fragmented view of history.

The other approach, chosen here, was to divide the history into key phases in order to gain a better understanding of the particular progress which marked the period in question and to be able to retain an overview of the action taken in each phase. The principal disadvantage of this approach is that it gives the impression of dividing up history, and the sense of continuity is lost. We have tried to correct this by including in the text, where necessary, references to sections which have already dealt with these aspects in a previous historical phase or by mentioning briefly a point which will be raised subsequently. In addition, a detailed index is included at the end of the work, setting out by specific subject or aspect the various points where these are discussed. While this factual analysis may involve a degree of repetition, it was selected as the more appropriate approach as it is better suited to a history which, since the 1990s, has witnessed ever closer convergence between cooperation in education and cooperation in vocational training and ever more pronounced integration of these areas in the economic and social strategy of the EU as a whole. A thematic approach could not have taken account of this trend or of the successive milestones which have marked it.
Key phases

History could also have been divided up in various ways, for example using more or fewer phases. We have decided on five phases, taking into account both the progress made by the cooperation itself but also the general context of Community integration and the events at this level which constantly influenced the evolution of cooperation. The analysis covers the period up to May 2005.

- **1948-68**: A brief look at *pre-history* and the 20 years between the Second World War and Community involvement in education and training. This chapter describes cooperation in education and culture during that period, the circumstances under which the Community finally intervened and the factors which led to this.

- **1969-1984**: The founding years. As these included the first meeting of education ministers at Community level in 1971, the first resolution laying down the principles of cooperation in 1974, the formal adoption in 1976 of the first Community action programme on education and the main years of its implementation up to 1984, there is no doubt that this period will remain crucial to the history of Community cooperation. The decisions made and actions taken would profoundly influence subsequent cooperation, which was to make significant progress as of 1985.

- **1985-92**: Development of major programmes and the path towards enshrining education in the treaty. This period of key events for this sector (Single European Act; emergence of the 'people's Europe') and for Europe as a whole (fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989) falls between two pivotal dates in the history of Community cooperation in education. 1985: The Single European Act and the 'people's Europe' were on the political agenda; the Court of Justice included higher education in the treaty's sphere of application, thus paving the way for the adoption of Community programmes whose scope and nature offered much greater possibilities than the 1976 resolution. From 1985 onwards the Commission proposed draft decisions to the Council, first for Comett and Erasmus in 1985, and later PETRA, FORCE, Lingua, etc. This programming approach, together with far greater funding than previously allocated to education and vocational training, marked a major turning point in Community action. This was also a period when the social dialogue gained in importance, with the Treaty of Maastricht allowing for relations based on agreement to be developed at EU level. 1992: Education (both higher and school education) was for the first time laid down in the Maastricht Treaty. By taking away the 'semi-clandestine' status of this sector, legislators recognised its importance in the building-up of Europe and put an end to the legal ambiguities and disputes which threatened to undermine the quality of cooperation.

- **1993-99**: Paths towards a knowledge-based society and an ever closer link between education and training: The 1990s, culminating in the crucial Lisbon European Council in the year 2000, saw the emergence of concepts such as the knowledge-based society and lifelong learning. The adoption by the Commission of a White Paper ‘Teaching and learning: towards the learning society’ (November 1995) was a decisive step in this process. By launching this forward-looking discussion,
following on from the second generation of its programmes (Socrates, Leonardo da Vinci), the Commission placed itself firmly behind what has become a major focus of economic development and social cohesion, namely the emergence of the concepts of the knowledge-based society and economy, and the importance of human resources. While it was still very much theoretical, a new integrated framework for Community action in education and training was beginning to form around these concepts. The Community tried gradually to adapt to these new circumstances and requirements, not only by means of discussion but also by overhauling its programmes, which were also the first to be open to the countries of central and eastern Europe. The creation of the European area of higher education experienced an unprecedented boost (Bologna process).

2000–05: Education and training at the heart of the EU’s economic and social strategy for 2010. In March 2000, the European Council set out a new economic and social strategy for the EU for the next 10 years. It was to become the most dynamic and competitive knowledge-based society in the world. Education and training were suddenly at the centre of this new strategy, which required more integrated action and placed them more firmly than ever before within the development of the Union as a whole. There they gained visibility, continuity and new working methods. For the first time in the history of cooperation, the education ministers agreed on common objectives for 10 years and a working method to facilitate greater convergence of their systems. Lifelong learning became the guiding principle for this closer political cooperation and for the integrated programme for education and training proposed by the Commission in 2004 for the period 2007–13. It was also at the heart of the EU’s structural policies. Thus began a new era of cooperation with great potential. Its success would depend on the actual commitment of Member States in particular to implementing at national level the common objectives which they had set themselves at European level. The role of education and training within the Lisbon strategy would also need to be consolidated in order to strengthen the social and citizenship dimensions.
IV. SOURCES OF INFORMATION

Many sources of information have been used in writing this work, mainly from the European Parliament, the Council of the European Union, the European Commission and European and international organisations. The European Commission’s central library, the Council Secretariat and the Eurydice European Unit have in particular provided the author with valuable assistance in gathering the necessary information.

As shown in the attached bibliography, very few recent works examine the history of Community cooperation in education, and even fewer address the issue of how education and training can complement one another. However, some academic works relating mainly to education are particularly worthy of note because they provide an in-depth historical analysis of one or another aspect of this cooperation, which this work could not do in any greater detail.


Marc Schober, July 2005.
INTRODUCTION

Ever since the Lisbon European Council in March 2000, the Heads of State or Government of the Union have been constantly stressing the fundamental role of education and training in the economic and social development of the Union and of the knowledge-based Europe. They set themselves the objective of ‘making [the European] education and training systems a world quality reference by 2010’ (2).

It took 30 years of cooperation, from the formal adoption of the first Community action programme on education in February 1976, for such recognition to be expressed as clearly as this at the highest level of the Union. The present document covers these years in order to show the various milestones that have been passed, but also to demonstrate that this cooperation, as it exists today in the Community framework, was not obvious initially; that a programme such as Erasmus, which is now one of the flagships of the Community’s work, operating at grassroots level, did not come into existence easily; that, unlike vocational training, education was totally absent from the European Coal and Steel Treaty of 1951 (ECSC) and from the Treaty of Rome of 1957 (EEC) and that it was not until the Maastricht Treaty in 1992, in other words more than 30 years later, that the situation changed; that, until the early 1970s, the Council of Europe was the main (intergovernmental) forum for cooperation in the area of education and culture and that it was not until later that the Community tackled education in an ever closer relationship with its economic and social development.

Education was therefore not a natural dimension of the development of the Community. In seeking to find a way forward that was acceptable to all concerned, this sector put the principle of subsidiarity into practice before it had even been developed. It has always shown that European integration is careful not to encroach on certain areas of policy, even though the economic and social dynamism of the Union, its deepening and its enlargement to include an ever greater number of countries require a major contribution from education and training systems. The ground that has been covered since the first meeting of ministers of education in the Council in November 1971 has also been due to the commitment of people at all levels who have constantly demonstrated the justification for Community action in this area against a background that has become increasingly favourable to a consideration of investment in human resources, especially due to the lasting economic crises and unemployment in the Union since the 1970s and the rise of the concepts of a knowledge-based economy and society and of lifelong learning since the 1990s.

(1) Jacques Delors (1)

(2) Conclusions of the Barcelona European Council (15 and 16 March 2002), paragraph 43.
THE KEY STAGES IN THE HISTORY OF EDUCATION AT COMMUNITY LEVEL

1948–68: education absent from European integration at the beginning

At the end of the Second World War, there were great hopes of a unified Europe. And yet, countries set up intergovernmental bodies that were not capable of leading Europe to integration. It took the genius of Jean Monnet and the decisive political support of Robert Schuman, among others, to launch this integration, which was essential for a lasting peace. At that time, it was decided to build the European Community step by step. Priority was given to the economy, a sector that was considered to be capable of bringing together former enemies in a supranational undertaking. It was therefore decided to start by pooling the war industries of coal and steel (ECSC Treaty signed in 1951); this was followed by the treaties signed in Rome in 1957: the establishment of the common market, the customs union and the common agricultural policy (EEC Treaty), and atomic energy (Euratom Treaty). Since the task was to tackle the consequences for employment of the application of a common market and of the principles of freedom of movement and establishment, the Treaty of Rome (EEC) foresaw a common vocational training policy (Article 128). There was no reference to education. At that time, the Member States did not want the Community to intervene in this area, which is bound up with the development of national sovereignty. The subject was taboo at Community level. The many years of negotiation (from 1955 to 1972) that were needed in order to set up a European university (The European University Institute in Florence) show the extreme sensitivity that there was at the time about the idea of extending Community action to cover this area.

Since they could not build the ‘Europe of their dreams’ — one which would also have incorporated, or even given priority to, culture and education — the founding fathers of the European Community built the ‘Europe that was possible’, a Europe that focused on the economy. It was felt at that time that the Council of Europe, the first European political and parliamentary cooperation body, which was set up in 1949, which was intergovernmental in nature, was the right forum for meeting the needs for cooperation on education and culture between the Member States. However, it is worth noting that the Western European Union (WEU) supported university cooperation at a very early stage and transferred its activities in this area to the Council of Europe in 1960.

And yet, the Treaty of Rome already contained the seeds of future Community involvement in education, which were subsequently to arouse the interest of the players concerned and to lead to favourable comments from the Court of Justice. Indeed, how would it be possible to create ‘an ever closer Union among the peoples of Europe’ (preamble to the treaty), ‘promote improved working conditions and an improved standard of living’ (Article 117), promote cooperation relating to ‘basic and advanced vocational training’ (Article 118), guarantee freedom of movement, non-discrimination and ‘the mutual recognition of diplomas, certificates and other evidence of formal qualifications’ (Article 57) while completely ignoring the role of education? The Council Decision of 2 April 1963 laying down general principles for
implementing a common vocational training policy (Article 128 of the treaty) already broached the topic of the link between vocational training and general education.

1969–84: the founding years of cooperation

The situation changed gradually towards the end of the 1960s. The field of education went through expansion and democratisation in many parts of Europe, higher education experienced a period of ferment and reform, and the vision of a European Community concerned primarily with traders and farmers began to be considered to be no longer fully satisfactory. There were calls for the area of education to be taken into account as a necessary addition to Community action in economic and social matters and, in particular, as requested by the European Parliament in October 1969, for the Europeanisation of universities as the foundation for a genuine cultural community. The European summit meeting in The Hague in December of that year stressed the importance of preserving an exceptional centre of development, progress and culture in Europe and of ensuring that young people were closely involved in it. The French Minister for Education, Olivier Guichard, made a clear call for cooperation between ministers at Community level and proposed the creation of a European centre for the development of education, but this came to nothing.

Initially, however, there was no consensus about the form that such cooperation should take. Should it be intergovernmental cooperation at Community level (as proposed by Minister Guichard) or cooperation fully integrated into the Community framework? The former approach would reassure the most sensitive Member States but would run the risk of being ineffective. There would be considerable reticence about the latter, but it would have great potential for the future because it would offer, in particular, the advantage of clearly linking cooperation on education to the developing Community and of allowing it to draw closer to its citizens. The task and challenge at that time were to draw up a totally new model of cooperation at Community level, taking account of both the sensitivity of the area for the Member States and of the need to establish cooperation that was capable of adding value to the development of the Community.

It took four years to develop this cooperation, from the first meeting of the ministers for education in November 1971. And yet, the Commission moved very fast. In July 1971, it set up an embryonic internal administrative structure to work on these issues (the ‘teaching and education group’), reporting directly to the then Commissioner, Altiero Spinelli. In July 1972, it asked Professor Henri Janne to give thought to the content of a Community education policy, with the support of a group of top experts. In January 1973, at the time of the first enlargement of the Community to embrace Denmark, Ireland and the United Kingdom, it expanded its administrative capacity to take on the challenge of nascent Community cooperation. For the first time, it included a specific directorate for education and training (in the Directorate-General responsible for research and science) in its departments. In March 1974, it adopted a communication that was the starting point for consideration of the content of future cooperation. On this basis, ministers adopted an important resolution in June of the same year defining the broad outline of future areas of cooperation and, above all, the principles that should underpin them: consideration of the specific
interests of the area and of the diversity of national policies and systems, the harmonisation of which cannot be a goal in itself. An education committee was set up with responsibility for devising the planned measures; it met for the first time in October 1974. This long process led, in December 1975, to the approval by the Council and the ministers for education meeting in the Council (which was the first meeting that was really incorporated into the Community framework, the previous ones having been of an intergovernmental nature) of the first Community action programme on education. This programme was formally adopted by the Council on 9 February 1976 through a resolution, which is a non-binding legal instrument, but one which demonstrated the political will of the Member States to cooperate. This resolution laid the foundations for Community cooperation in the area of education and contained six priority areas for action: education of the children of migrant workers; closer relations between education systems in Europe; compilation of documentation and statistics; higher education; teaching of foreign languages; and equal opportunities. School education was also taken on board, thus making it possible to develop cooperation measures in this area, in which responsibility lay with the Member States, with a view to its subsequent inclusion in the treaty.

Community action — mainly involving transnational pilot projects, study visits, exchanges of information and experience and studies — initially focused on the problems of the transition of young people to working life, cooperation and exchanges between universities (especially through joint study programmes, which were to form the basis for the future Erasmus programme), the education of the children of migrant workers and the exchange of information (the Eurydice network became operational in 1980). However, conditions were not easy. The lack of a legal basis in the treaty continued to cause problems, culminating in an institutional ‘crisis’ that paralysed cooperation for three years (from 1978 to 1980), with four Commission communications being blocked at that time (the European dimension in secondary education; teaching of foreign languages; admission of students from other Member States to higher education; equal opportunities in education and training for girls). Cooperation then gradually took off again at the start of the 1980s. The matters discussed and the proposals made from then onwards focused much more on the links with the Union’s economic and social objectives. It was not just a matter of finding a solution to the ‘crisis’ of that time by showing the link between the proposed action and the content of the treaty, but also of responding to the new challenges of the moment, in the face of growing unemployment, particularly among young people. In order to mark this change of direction and this closer relationship with the Community’s economic and social development, the Commission decided in 1981 to incorporate into one and the same Directorate-General, the Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Education, the departments dealing with education and vocational training that had previously been separate.

The first 10 years of the implementation of the action programme on education (1976–84) were an important stage in the history of Community cooperation on education, despite the legal difficulties and very modest resources. They engendered an original form of cooperation within the Community framework, which, in a way, was the first application of the principle of subsidiarity before it was defined and
the first demonstration that it was possible, in a Community that was on the path to integration, to cooperate in areas that were fundamental to the structure of nation states while fully respecting the diversity of national situations and the powers of Member States. These years created the essential conditions for more significant subsequent progress, since, through the first measures that were conducted, the process was launched, carrying with it not only policy-makers, but also increasingly mobilised circles of associations and a growing number of players on the ground that were keen to see Europe become involved.

When this first action programme was adopted, vocational training had a head start, thanks to the legal basis that it enjoyed in the Treaty of Rome. In 1963, the Council adopted a decision laying down 10 general principles for the development of a common policy. This decision already mentioned the necessary relationship between vocational training and general education. However, the principles that it underlined were not likely to lead to major specific measures. The Advisory Committee on Vocational Training (ACVT), which was set up in 1963, provided a forum for close cooperation with the social partners in drafting opinions to support the development of cooperation in this area. It was not until 1971 that the broad outline of an action programme on vocational training was finally adopted. This was actually also the year when ministers for education met for the first time at Community level. The European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (Cedefop), a quadripartite body, was set up in 1975 on the basis of the first social action programme adopted by the Council in 1974. As in the case of education, the context, which was shaped by the consequences of the two oil crises in the 1970s, became increasingly conducive to greater cooperation between countries in this area. These crises and rising unemployment, particularly among young people, helped to raise the profile of the Community’s economic and social action, and hence of the role that not only vocational training systems but also education systems could play in the search for solutions.

1985–92: launch of the major programmes and the path towards recognition in the treaty

An important milestone was passed in the second half of the 1980s, with the launch of programmes in the field of education and training that were diversified and increasingly large in scale. Comett was the first, followed by Erasmus, PETRA, ‘Youth for Europe’, Lingua, Eurotecnet and FORCE. They changed the scale of cooperation and its potential for acceptance in the various Member States. They owed their existence to two major factors: firstly, a Community climate that was increasingly favourable to measures close to the citizens (political union was on the way to being relaunched; the European Council of Milan in 1985 approved the Adonnino report on the ‘people’s Europe’, which underlined the role of education and culture; the social dialogue was relaunched; the Single European Act was adopted and the creation of the single market was under way; the emphasis was placed on freedom of movement for persons and on the importance of human resources in economic success and social cohesion in the Community); secondly, by its broad interpretation of the treaty, the Court of Justice brought higher education within the scope of the treaty.
in 1985 (Article 128 on vocational training) and allowed the Commission to table legal acts with greater scope in these areas.

The conditions in which these first programmes were adopted were difficult, however. The main problems that cropped up in the negotiations concerned the legal basis (Article 128) and the budget proposed by the Commission. While Comett was adopted in exceptional conditions (especially Comett II, for which the Member States accepted a reference to just Article 128 and adoption by simple majority), Erasmus encountered many more difficulties. The Commission withdrew its proposal at the end of 1986, as the main part of it (student mobility) had been removed during the discussions in the Council. Eighteen months of tough negotiations were needed to reach an agreement. In the end, the programme did not have the budget that had been hoped for in order to allow mobility for 10% of students, in line with the Commission’s wishes, but its identity was intact. The beginnings of the Lingua programme were also fraught with difficulties. Here too, certain Member States feared interference in their national education systems. And yet, the way in which these programmes were received on the ground soon showed these fears to be unfounded. These programmes proved to be a major success from the start, thus demonstrating their relevance and added value, as well as the desire for European cooperation among education and training players.

With these programmes adopted on the basis of Council decisions and accompanied by budgets out of all proportion to those available for the implementation of the first action programme (1), cooperation on education, but also on initial and continuing vocational training, accelerated. Mobility, transnational partnerships and networks in key sectors for the development of the Union’s human resources (cooperation between universities and enterprises; student mobility and cooperation between universities; initial training of young people; continuing vocational training; development of foreign-language learning; actions for youth) were their main features. Their strength lay in the fact that they were implemented at the closest possible level to the education and training players on the ground and were effective catalysts and multipliers of the European dimension in education and training. Since they were hotbeds of transnational innovation and experimentation in Europe, they were increasingly cited as an example of what the Community could best do for its citizens in response to their expectations of a Europe closer to their needs. Their experience in an initial phase of implementation that was to last until 1994 was precious when, following the historic events of 1989 in central and eastern Europe, the Commission proposed the Tempus programme of assistance in the development and reform of higher education in the countries concerned, which were later to join the Union.

The expansion and higher profile of Community cooperation on education and training through these programmes also influenced the recognition and status of these areas within the Commission. The new Delors Commission in 1989 decided to set up a separate structure, namely the Task Force on Human Resources, Education, Training and Youth. This was not yet a fully fledged Directorate-General (which would be set up in 1995), but this move towards more independent handling of these areas was a significant step forward.

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(1) For the period 1990–94, all the programmes together accounted for more than ECU 1 billion, whereas the financing that had been foreseen 10 years earlier for the implementation of the first action programme amounted to ECU 14 million (for the years 1980–84).
However, the first programmes, which were focused on higher education and vocational training, did not cover all the areas of cooperation. Actions continued to be developed outside the scope of the programmes, especially in the area of school education, in the second half of the 1980s, in order to promote the European dimension in education systems (the same applied to higher education with the launch of the Jean Monnet action in 1990), but also in the area of equal opportunities. The crucial issue of the recognition of diplomas for professional purposes (necessary for the establishment of a genuine European employment market) was also given a major boost with the establishment, following the European Council of Fontainebleau in 1984, of a more flexible system based on two directives that fundamentally changed the approach in this area. A system based on the harmonisation of training was replaced by a system based on mutual trust and the comparability of training. Academic recognition of diplomas and periods of study (which was crucial for facilitating the mobility of students and teachers) also underwent major changes thanks to the incorporation into the Erasmus programme of an initially experimental system of transfer of credits (ECTS) that made it possible for the university of origin to recognise the period of study completed in an establishment in another Member State. This system subsequently expanded under the Socrates programme and became a key reference instrument for the implementation of the Bologna process.

In 1992, education finally gained the status it deserved by being incorporated into the Maastricht Treaty (Article 126). This did not happen by chance. It was the result of the many years of work and mobilisation of the players at all levels, following the adoption of the resolution in 1976, and of the political will to clarify, after years of legal 'disputes', an area whose link with the Union's objectives was now recognised and established. It was a major symbolic achievement that strengthened the citizenship dimension of European integration (culture was also included for the first time, along with public health), but the scope of Community action was now defined very precisely. The terms of the treaty reflected the cooperation that had prevailed until then, which meant that the action of the Community was intended to support and supplement the action of the Member States. Such action fully respected the responsibility of the Member States for the content of education, the organisation of education systems and cultural and linguistic diversity. All harmonisation was ruled out. The inclusion of school education as well was a major step forward. The fact that the Court of Justice broadly interpreted the concept of 'vocational training' under Article 128 of the Treaty of Rome also led the Member States to clarify the terms of their cooperation in this area (Article 127). There was no longer any talk of a 'common policy', which was replaced by a Community vocational training policy designed to support and supplement the action of the Member States, while fully respecting the responsibility of the Member States for the content and organisation of systems, as in the case of education.

The Maastricht Treaty made the European Parliament joint decision-maker on future measures in the area of education, on an equal footing with the Council. This was a major democratic step forward, which had an impact on the negotiation of future programmes and their budgetary funding, since Parliament had always actively supported the development of Community cooperation on education and training. In addition, a second advisory institution was set up — the Committee of the Regions —
alongside the European Economic and Social Committee that had been set up in 1957 by the Treaty of Rome. Given the role of the regions in the development of education and training, this new body meant that this area was supported and represented to a greater degree at Community level.

1993–99: rise of the concepts of the knowledge-based society and streamlining of the programmes

From 1993 onwards, the first year in which the single market was implemented, cooperation on education and training entered a new phase. An important milestone had just been reached with the incorporation of education into the Maastricht Treaty the year before. However, the newly established Union was already faced with new challenges, which meant that it had to prepare for far-reaching changes. The first challenge was internal in nature and unprecedented in scope. It was to prepare for what was the largest enlargement in the history of the Community, but also the most symbolic, because it involved the reunification of the continent. The second challenge, which was no less important, was the rise of globalisation and the development of the information society. In the 1990s, the concepts of ‘knowledge-based society’ and ‘lifelong learning’ became ever more prominent in speeches. These years of reflection on these new challenges facing the education and training systems prepared the ground for the European Council of Lisbon in March 2000.

Jacques Delors’s 1993 White Paper on growth, competitiveness and employment played a major role. It put considerable emphasis on education and training systems. By pointing out their twofold mission of promoting individual development and the values of citizenship, but also of supporting employment-intensive growth, it stressed the indisputable role that the systems would have to play in the emergence of a new model of development in the Community, provided that they underwent far-reaching changes (a condition that was taken up again by the Lisbon European Council in March 2000). ‘Lifelong education is therefore the overall objective to which the national educational communities can make their own contributions.’

On this basis, the Commission pursued the process of reflection in another White Paper entitled ‘Teaching and learning — towards the learning society’, which was adopted in 1995. This White Paper helped to raise the politicians’ and players’ awareness of the challenges that were faced by the education and training systems and what it termed ‘factors of upheaval’: internationalisation, the information society and the scientific and technological world. It stressed the need for lifelong learning and the development of skills, and broke with the traditional division between education and training. The 1990s were thus characterised by an increasingly common approach to education and training issues in order to meet the need for permanent renewal of knowledge and skills. Pilot projects developed on the basis of this White Paper were the starting point for measures that subsequently gained in importance (e.g. voluntary service for young people, second-chance schools, educational software). The organisation of the European Year of Lifelong Learning in 1996 was another way for the Commission to rally the players on the ground at all levels and to support the necessary changes.
Another priority of the 1990s was to strengthen and improve the diversified programmes set up in the second half of the 1980s because they were due to end in 1994. They were consolidated in two stages. The first, covering the period from 1995 to 1999, was more quantitative than qualitative. The six existing programmes were merged into two large programmes (Socrates for education and Leonardo da Vinci for vocational training), which retained, especially in the case of Socrates, the mark of the former measures. However, they included new measures, especially in the area of school education (Comenius), following the incorporation of this level of education into the treaty. Preparations for the second transformation began back in 1997 in order to renew Socrates and Leonardo da Vinci for the period 2000–06. This transformation sought to respond more effectively to the challenge of the knowledge-based Europe, to extend the scope of the measures (e.g. adult education through the new Grundtvig action), to move towards greater consistency between education and training and simplify the management of the actions, which was requested in successive evaluations. However, it was not until the fourth generation of programmes that was proposed by the Commission in 2004 (for 2007–13) that more significant progress on these issues could be envisaged. In the 1990s, the new programmes that were set up continued to be emblematic of cooperation between the Member States of the Union in the area of education and training (and in the area of youth policy). These were the first Community programmes to be opened up, back in 1997, to the countries of central and eastern Europe, Cyprus and Malta. It is not unimportant that it was through the programmes directly targeted at citizens that these countries developed their first forum for cooperation with the Union, which they were later to join.

Political cooperation developed outside the programmes as well, especially in the second half of the 1990s, following the impetus given by the White Paper on the learning society in 1995 and the European Year of Lifelong Learning in 1996. It gradually entered areas that had previously been considered to be sensitive (development of indicators, evaluation of quality) and sought greater continuity through better planning (rolling agenda). The end of the decade was marked by the Sorbonne declaration of 1998, in which several ministers called for harmonisation of the structures of European higher education in order to make it more compatible and competitive and to establish a genuine European higher education area. Such an intergovernmental initiative took root in the fertile ground of more than 20 years of cooperation on higher education within the Community framework. It led in the following year (1999) to the launch, by 30 European countries, of the Bologna process, which was certainly the boldest attempt to achieve convergence between the systems of higher education in Europe. Bologna changed the paradigm: it was no longer simply a question of mobility and cooperation, but rather of convergence between systems. In a way, Bologna anticipated the direction of the new economic and social strategy that the Heads of State or Government were to adopt in March 2000 in Lisbon.
2000–05: education and training at the heart of the economic and social strategy of the Union for 2010

The first five years of the new century were rich in major events for European integration. Firstly, the adoption in March 2000 of a new economic, social and environmental strategy for the Union up to 2010 (the Lisbon strategy), which put education and training at the forefront of work to achieve the Europe of knowledge, followed by enlargement of the Union in May 2004 to include 10 new Member States, symbolising the historic reunification of the continent and, finally, the adoption by the European Council, in June 2004, of the Treaty establishing a Constitution for Europe, to replace all the existing treaties. These events made the context increasingly favourable for areas such as education and training that affect citizens’ lives directly. From then on, investment in human resources and knowledge was considered to be one of the essential conditions for guaranteeing the economic vitality and social cohesion of the Union. This acknowledgement was the result of a process of fine-tuning lasting several years, but also of external events (pressure of globalisation, technological development, sluggish growth, etc.), which, at the beginning of this century, required large-scale collective action. Looking ahead to enlargement, the measures to bring the peoples of Europe together also took on a new meaning. Finally, the drafting of a Constitution for Europe responded to the need to bring European integration closer to its citizens.

It was the strategy adopted in Lisbon in March 2000 which brought the greatest changes to cooperation in the area of education and training. For the first time, a single integrated framework for policy cooperation was adopted by the Education Council. The development of this framework created the conditions for the Commission to propose, in 2004, that the fourth generation of Community programmes (stretching from 2007 to 2013) should also reflect the integration of education and training measures through a single programme devoted to lifelong learning and the policy objectives established under the Lisbon strategy. This was also the background against which a new programme (Youth in action) was proposed for the area of youth policy. The six programmes (excluding Tempus) in the area of education and training at the end of the 1980s were reduced to two (one for each area) in the 1990s and, finally, in 2004, to one proposal for an integrated programme (see Annex 2).

The planned budget for the future measures was also out of all proportion to the one foreseen 25 years earlier (see Annex 3) for implementing the first action programme. In 1986, the budget granted for education measures represented only 0.1 % of the Community budget, whereas in 1990 the education, training and youth programmes increased this figure to 0.3 %. With the third generation of programmes, we have now reached 0.6 %. The proposals put forward by the Commission for 2007–13 should make it possible to exceed the symbolic threshold of 1 % and to increase the involvement of citizens significantly. It goes without saying that this figure is still nowhere near enough to meet people’s needs and expectations, but the amount of ground that has been covered is impressive for a sector that had to be brought out of the ‘anonymity’ and then the ‘legal semi-clandestinity’ (1) to which the Treaty of Rome had confined it.

Thanks to the impetus that had been given by the Lisbon strategy, the area of education and training was, from then on, considered to be of key importance, alongside employment, the economy and research, for the economic and social success of the Union. The Lisbon strategy was designed to make the Union the most competitive knowledge-based economy by 2010. It recommended modernising the systems of education and training, and the Heads of State or Government pointed out that these systems had to become a world quality reference by 2010. This strategy led those responsible for cooperation in the area of education and training to agree, for the first time, in 2001 in Stockholm, on common objectives to be achieved by 2010 and a work programme for their implementation. The framework for policy cooperation that was set up accordingly ('Education and training 2010' work programme) became the reference point for all education and training actions, which from then on were tackled in an integrated manner in the name of the unifying principle of lifelong learning. The Education Council adopted five European quantified targets (benchmarks), which made the objectives that were fixed by common accord more concrete. The area of education and training applies the new working method (the ‘open method of coordination’) proposed by the Heads of State or Government in Lisbon. It promotes convergence between systems and monitoring of progress. By counting on effective exchange of good practices between Member States, the development of indicators for measuring progress and peer learning, this method goes beyond the rolling agenda foreseen by the ministers for education in 1999. It cannot, therefore, be taken for granted and will at the beginning raise fears among certain Member States that do not necessarily wish to embark on closer coordination of their policies with the other Member States. However, this method continues to have considerable potential to bring about greater quality and effectiveness of all the European systems of education and training in full compliance with the principle of subsidiarity.

Thanks to the requirements of coordination, consistency and effectiveness of the measures called for by the Lisbon strategy, processes and measures under way in the area of education and training converged and came under the new framework for policy cooperation that was established in Stockholm in 2001. Thus, the framework of measures that was established in 2001 and 2002 for lifelong learning became their guiding principle. The ministerial declaration that was signed in Copenhagen in 2002 relaunched European cooperation on vocational training (Copenhagen process). From the outset, it aimed for implementation as an integral part of the ‘Education and training 2010’ process, an approach that was confirmed in the second declaration adopted in Maastricht in December 2004. The European higher education field (Bologna process) also started to relate more clearly to the objectives established in Lisbon. The Union is seeking to make it increasingly open to the world and attractive (new Erasmus Mundus programme 2004–08). The achievement of the information society, which is one of the major strands of the Lisbon strategy, found its expression in the area of education and training in the ‘eLearning’ programme. Following the European Year of Languages in 2001, an action plan was adopted to promote the teaching of languages and linguistic diversity and to support the objectives established in this area by the successive European Councils.
At European level, the first years of implementation of the ‘Education and training 2010’ work programme laid the foundations for cooperation through diversified working groups bringing together national experts and the partners concerned. Practices and experience on the common objectives adopted by ministers were exchanged; indicators for monitoring progress were defined, and European references for supporting national reforms (on key competences, teacher competences and qualifications, efficiency of investment, lifelong guidance, validation of non-formal and informal learning, quality assurance, mobility) were produced. Thanks to this work, it was possible to envisage the development in 2005/2006 of a European qualifications framework, an essential instrument for supporting genuine mobility and a genuine European employment market. However, as for the Lisbon strategy as a whole, the process continued to depend largely on the willingness and commitment of the Member States to take account, at national level, of the common objectives that they had fixed for themselves at European level. In its communication of November 2003, the Commission produced an initial evaluation report. The joint report of the Education Council and the Commission to the 2004 spring European Council kept the gist of it. The points made were the following: many reforms were conducted in all countries, but they were no match for the challenges faced; the Union continued to lag behind its main competitors on the international stage in the areas related to the knowledge-based society; the greater public and private investment required in human resources was not forthcoming. The Commission called on the Member States to accelerate the pace of reforms.

The education and training sector was thus one of the first to issue an alert about the danger of failure of the Lisbon strategy unless more substantial investment was made in human resources and more extensive reforms were conducted. This message was repeated in 2004 in the report from the high-level group set up to conduct the mid-term review of the strategy and to make proposals for the years to come. The joint report of the Council and the Commission to the European Council of 2004 called for future action to focus on greater and more effective investment in the priority areas for the knowledge-based society, on the implementation in all the Member States of comprehensive, coherent strategies for lifelong learning by 2006 and on the development of the European education and training area, especially by the establishment of a European qualifications framework and the development of the European dimension in education.

Apart from the diagnosis and the proposals for future priorities that it contained, the great value of this report for policy cooperation on education and training was that it recognised the need for closer collective monitoring of national progress towards the objectives set under the ‘Education and training 2010’ work programme. In the future, a report would be drawn up every two years, thus keeping the political focus on these areas at the highest level, highlighting their needs and their place in the process and strengthening the dialogue between decision-makers and players at all levels on the development of national education and training policies within the Union.
The new Commission which entered office in November 2004 and which had been expanded to include 10 new Member States considered it a priority to increase the effectiveness of the implementation of the Lisbon strategy. It proposed refocusing the strategy on the objectives of growth and employment, with integrated guidelines to support their implementation, including the contribution of education and training. It proposed simplified governance of the process, in particular through single annual national implementation reports and a single annual European report to the European Council. The European Council of March 2005 approved this new approach. However, because education and training play a role that extends far beyond the objectives of growth and employment, it was decided that the ‘Education and training 2010’ work programme would be pursued in all its dimensions, including the two-yearly implementation reports related to it. Their component parts linked to the growth and employment objectives will nevertheless be taken into account in monitoring implementation of the refocused Lisbon strategy. Through the ‘Education and training 2010’ process, policy cooperation on education and training is thus in a position to continue to develop and deepen independently in the future, while fully contributing to the refocused objectives of the Lisbon strategy.
CONCLUSION

Consequently, almost 30 years after the adoption of the first action programme, Community cooperation on education and training has finally been given a coherent, ongoing policy framework and an integrated action programme, both of them devoted to the major ambition of achieving a European area of lifelong learning.

These decisions mark the end of a long process. And yet, they are merely the beginning of a new era of cooperation. Investment in human resources through education and training will have to remain prominent in the strategy launched in Lisbon in order to strengthen in concrete terms not only the economic vitality of the Union but also its social cohesion and the involvement of citizens. In its contribution (adopted in November 2005) to the 2006 Council/Commission joint report on the implementation of the ‘Education and training 2010’ work programme, the Commission insists on this dual role of education and training. Since the Lisbon strategy is, above all, an instrument for the Member States and for the policies and reforms that they conduct at national level, it will be just as essential for them to rally around the common objectives that they have set themselves at European level and to commit themselves to dynamic and positive implementation of the principle of subsidiarity for the benefit of all citizens.

In the Treaty establishing a Constitution for Europe that they submitted to the Heads of State or Government on 20 June 2003 and that was approved by the latter on 18 June 2004 (5), the members of the Convention confirmed the position of education and training in European integration. However, they chose not to include this area in the Union’s ‘shared competences’, but rather to incorporate it into the areas of supporting action, alongside vocational training, health, youth and culture. While this approach abides by the letter of the previous treaties (since Maastricht), the people who are responsible for this cooperation in the future will have to retain its spirit as well, namely its proactive dimension, without which the *acquis communautaire* that has been developed in this area over the years would not be what it is today and the Union’s action could not meet the expectations and needs of an area that is constantly evolving and that is at the heart of a successful knowledge-based Europe.

The importance that the European Union must attach to education is a recurring issue. It corresponds to a fundamental question: what kind of Europe do we want to see in the future? If we want to see a united Europe that is both a citizens’ Europe and economically strong, common concerted investment in human resources through education and training must not be reduced. These areas, like the area of culture, are capable of giving the terms ‘European Union’ and ‘European unity’ their deepest meaning, which is the sharing of common values and ideals. Jean Monnet expressed it well: ‘We are not making a coalition of states, but are uniting people’ (6). Now that the Union has undergone the most significant enlargement of its history (on 1 May 2004), reuniting peoples that were separated for too long, and now that there are difficulties with the adoption of the Constitutional Treaty, this objective is more important than ever. The Union will only truly exist when it has taken shape in the hearts and minds of its peoples. The role of education is more essential than ever in achieving this end.

\(^{(5)}\) Treaty signed on 29 October 2004 in Rome by the 25 Member States of the Union and then submitted for national ratification in each of the Member States in accordance with their own procedures (when this work went to press, the French and Dutch, who had been consulted by referendum on 29 May and 1 June 2005 respectively, had rejected the Constitutional Treaty).

\(^{(6)}\) Jean Monnet, 1976.
However, for Community action in this area to have a more significant impact, the European dimension should become an integral and natural part of all education systems. Young people and adults will have to come into contact with this dimension in greater numbers so that they truly feel involved in a project that will not cease to shape their lives and those of future generations. Major progress towards this goal remains to be achieved. It definitely requires greater political and budgetary commitments. Because they operate at grassroots level, Community programmes on education and training must be able to continue to play their role of major catalyst. They will be able to play this role all the more effectively if, in the future, as the Commission proposes for 2007–13, they have resources that better match the ever greater demand for European cooperation expressed by players on the ground. Greater use of the Union’s existing financial instruments, and in particular of the European Social Fund, for meeting the Union’s needs for investment in human resources and genuine development of lifelong learning would also provide a powerful lever for change in these areas of crucial importance for the future development of the Union.
The 1970s were crucial in terms of laying the foundations for Community cooperation in education. The adoption of the first action programme on 9 February 1976 symbolised the Member States’ political will to work together in certain areas of education. However, implementation of this programme soon led to reluctance on the part of some countries, who feared that it would allow the Community to interfere more and more in their national policies. This attitude slowed down the cooperation process for several years. The Commission was very much aware from the outset that education was in essence a subsidiary area and therefore essentially the responsibility of the Member States. It was also very much convinced of the benefit to be gained from ever closer cooperation between European countries.

At the beginning of the 1980s, as the new head of the division responsible for European cooperation in the areas of education and youth, I firmly believed that in order to revive the cooperation process it was necessary to create a climate of mutual trust between all partners involved. The Commission set about this task by bringing policy-makers and players from all levels of education on board at the same time and for the long term. The preparations for successive presidencies led to useful exchanges of information and above all allowed the Commission to draw attention to the opportunity which the presidencies provided to help advance cooperation. The topics chosen by the countries as a focal point for European cooperation during the six-month period have very much been pieces used to patiently complete the puzzle of the European area of education and training. The Commission also asked each presidency to organise meetings between the education ministers, either in a formal or informal Council or at particular events, which gave them an opportunity to get to know each other better and discuss, even informally, sometimes sensitive issues which were of common interest.

The Education Committee played an important part in the development of cooperation. It not only prepared for the increasing number of meetings of the Council of Education Ministers but also acted as a think-tank on European cooperation in education and training. We must pay tribute here to the determination and commitment of most of those involved in this committee over the years.

To take cooperation beyond the political context and make it more operational, the Commission organised twice-yearly meetings of the Directors-General responsible for the various levels of education and training and the rectors of the European universities. It also regularly supported many organisations and associations working at European level (teachers’ unions, student and other organisations). Various working groups were set up consisting of national experts and stakeholders, giving them the opportunity to share best practice and experience. This multidimensional cooperation had a snowball effect, beginning slowly and leading to common objectives being adopted by education ministers for the first time in 2001.
Of course European cooperation in this area would not have been so successful if European integration as a whole had not also made significant progress. Below are some key events which laid the foundations for the progress achieved in education.

— The European Councils held in Fontainebleau in 1984 and Milan in 1985 which, by adopting the report on the ‘people’s Europe’, created a climate favourable to actions directly affecting the people of Europe, highlighting in particular the role of education, culture and youth.

— The Gravier ruling adopted by the Court of Justice of the European Communities in 1985 was another crucial event in cooperation in the field of education. This allowed higher education to be included in the scope of the treaty and as a result the Commission was able to propose the adoption of ambitious programmes such as Comett, Erasmus, Lingua, PETRA, FORCE and ‘Youth for Europe’, which we all know to have been highly successful within education and among the public in general. The case-law of the Court of Justice had a crucial role in European cooperation in the field of education.

— In 1992, following almost 20 years of cooperation, education was finally included in the Maastricht Treaty and European cooperation could at last be extended to all of school education, a step which was immediately taken by the Comenius action in the first Socrates programme. Moreover, the Maastricht Treaty gave the European Parliament co-decision status on education and training measures, placing it on an equal footing with the Council. The Commission–Parliament duo managed to squeeze more money out of the finance ministers, to the delight of the education ministers and the world of education. After the legendary marathon negotiations on the common agricultural policy, education was also entitled to its own lengthy negotiations, thanks to which it finally obtained more substantial funding, in particular for Socrates I and Socrates II.

It is remarkable, if not unique, to observe how an area such as education, which was not originally a natural aspect of Community integration, has been able to develop to the point where it has become a ‘model of Community cooperation’, based essentially on mobilising and involving the vast majority of the decision-makers and players concerned. While political cooperation has played a fundamental role, it is also important to note the significant contribution of the various programmes’ management committees, the national agencies and the personal commitment of the thousands of people who made this cooperation possible on the ground.

However, although European cooperation in education has come a long way over the years, particularly in relation to higher education, progress towards some degree of convergence has been barely discernible. University education in Europe continued to be a labyrinth of disciplines and diplomas which made this level of education completely impenetrable. The Sorbonne declaration and the subsequent Bologna declaration in June 1999 led to significant progress in cooperation
between universities, finally paving the way for the creation of a true European area of higher education. This intergovernmental initiative which the Commission could not have taken came into being on the foundations laid over more than 20 years of Community cooperation.

European cooperation in education in the 1990s was not restricted solely to the implementation of a series of programmes. Faced with the prospect of enlargement, the rise of globalisation and the development of the information society, it realised that the third millennium would be marked by unprecedented scientific and technological development, making ‘knowledge’ the cornerstone of all new economic and social policies. It was for this reason that the Lisbon European Council, in the wake of the single market and the single currency, introduced a major new project for the Union for 2010: the ‘Europe of knowledge’, placing research, education and training and innovation at the heart of the new strategic objectives of European integration. This real boost to cooperation led education ministers to agree for the first time on common educational objectives, designed to improve the quality and effectiveness of education systems, ensure that they are accessible to as many people as possible and open them up to the wider world and society.

With closer political cooperation under the ‘Education and training 2010’ work programme and the new proposals for programmes for the period 2007–13 which are designed to increase significantly the direct impact of Community measures on citizens themselves, cooperation in education and training has today arrived at a new stage in its development. The stakes are high, as the task ahead is that of shaping the Europe of knowledge and the ‘people’s Europe’.

Domenico Lenarduzzi

1982—93: Head of Division, ‘European cooperation in education — Erasmus and Lingua programmes’

1993—98: Director of Education

1998—2001: Director-General (interim, then deputy) of the Directorate-General for Education and Culture

As of 2001: Honorary Director-General
The fascinating history of the progress of educational cooperation described in this volume provides a valuable insight into the idea of the European Union developing as a community of peoples rather than simply as an economic project. It demonstrates the vital role of education and training if the full potential of the Union and its peoples is to be realised. Education is indeed the linchpin needed to build the productive connection between economic and social policies, between competitiveness and social cohesion, and it is the motor force for innovation and systemic social change. Education also opens up the most effective routes to explore the richness of European diversity and to develop a sense of belonging to Europe as a vital part of the individual’s sense of identity. For these reasons, I have always believed that the development of the Union will simply not happen without the active involvement of the education systems.

The provisions set out in the Maastricht Treaty for education and training marked a decisive turning point in the European integration process, when, for the first time, explicit legal recognition was introduced to confirm the complementary role of the European Union in promoting educational systems of quality. The terms of the Maastricht Treaty also broke new ground in distinguishing in the text the limits of the role of the Union, setting out the key objectives for EU action, in the context of a clear formulation of the primary responsibility of Member States for their systems. The subsidiarity principle was clear for all to see and understand in the treaty.

The rapid consensus which was achieved among the Member States in agreeing to the terms of the Maastricht Treaty was no accident. It was a direct consequence of the successes of the educational cooperation programme, a programme which had been painstakingly built up between the Member States since the first enlargement of the Union in 1973. The supportive role of the European Parliament was also a decisive factor, especially in voting funds for education during the period prior to the creation of a firm legal basis in the treaty for such expenditure. The mutual trust and confidence developed between all the key decision-makers, especially those who sat in the Education Committee, was a necessary precondition for this success. Fears of the intrusive intentions of the Commission were firmly set aside and the cooperative projects between Member States and the Commission revealed sensitive understanding and appreciation of the partnership concept. This was so crucial because the question of education policy touches the very heartland of sensitivity about the idea of sovereignty.

The major breakthrough in credibility and public support in favour of educational cooperation came with the launch of the EU’s flagship programmes, most notably Erasmus and COMETT in the field of higher education, but also PETRA and FORCE in initial and adult training, as they caught the imagination and gained the enthusiastic backing of the educational community throughout Europe. Students and staff alike, as well as industrialists and the social partners, voiced their strong support for the development of closer relations between the education systems. These programmes conceived by the Commission represented the human dimension of the 1992 internal market objective, reaffirming the principle of free movement of persons as one of the Union’s primary goals.
But progress in the educational sector also implied a novel approach for the working methods of the Commission, as it switched from its traditional focus on tabling legislative proposals leading to harmonisation of systems in other policy sectors. The aim of standardisation would be both undesirable and unattainable in the field of education, and the Commission was therefore obliged to find new ways of working simultaneously through intergovernmental machinery and by the Community method so as to secure the right balance between the legitimate concerns of the Member States and the need for the Community to act. In this sense, the educational sector served as a pioneering example to other sectors which were also sensitive areas of policy concern, notably public health and culture.

The Erasmus programme pointed the way. It was designed deliberately to unleash grassroots-level projects in which the universities themselves decided on a voluntary basis to collaborate to enhance organised student mobility in Europe and also to build a system ‘from the bottom up’ of mutual recognition of academic periods of study. The Tempus scheme — offspring of the Erasmus and Comett programmes — also proved to be a successful instrument in the modernisation of the higher education systems of the countries of central and eastern Europe.

The commitment of all 25 Member States of the enlarged Union to develop a strategy of lifelong learning is the result of a process of educational cooperation which effectively started in 1976 in what was then the EEC, consisting of only nine Member States. This political commitment will require all Member States to invest in and to reform their systems of education and training with even greater determination if they are to turn the ambitious rhetoric of the Lisbon agenda into operational reality. Lifelong learning should be at the centre of the Lisbon strategy so as to build the knowledge-based economy and society by 2010, a commitment to which all Member States have signed up with the highest priority given to the skills, versatility and entrepreneurial energy of people.

The catalytic role of the Union, and of the Commission especially, is of paramount importance in this perspective. Imaginative and sustained leadership will be required to build a strategy of lifelong learning with the introduction of the necessary policy and financial incentives, both at Member State and European levels. The firm foundation stone of high quality early childhood education for all — linked with the provision of comprehensive childcare facilities and the education of parents; the improvement of the level of basic skills of school leavers and the massive need for retraining of employees, especially those working in small and medium-sized firms, are only three examples of the enormous challenge which faces policy-makers at all levels.

These challenges are not new. What is needed is a quantum leap in the ambition of the European Union to ensure that the necessary follow-up is given to the practical achievement of these objectives. This will mean stronger partnerships between the world of education and the public and private sectors, and there is an important role for the EU in pointing to better policies and practices which can broker such partnership arrangements on a sustainable basis.
Member States have often had great difficulty in constructing coherent education and training systems, largely because of the separate ministerial structures governing education and vocational training. The Commission, through its integration of education and training policies, within a single Directorate-General under one Commissioner, has been able to present proposals of added value, since the boundaries between education and training are increasingly blurred and the individual’s life chances are not helped by compartmentalised institutional divisions. That too is why I still dream that the European Parliament, even if it has constantly supported the educational initiatives proposed by the Commission, should merge its separate education and training committee structures so as to focus on lifelong learning policies.

The powerful impact of education in building closer relations between the peoples of Europe and in creating a greater sense of belonging to Europe, has now been increasingly recognised. The educational milieux and local and regional authorities have often taken the lead in launching their own initiatives to create twinning projects. They look to the European Union for encouragement, backing and inspiration.

The Commission’s financial proposals for the period 2007–13 demonstrate its commitment to give an even higher priority to investment in human resources in the overall strategy of development for the Union. Mobility and exchange programmes, at all educational levels, must be deployed to create a greater sense of belonging to Europe, as well as to supporting the structural reforms needed to establish the high quality systems of education and training to which the European Union has pinned its ambition. However, mobility cannot be an end in itself. It must serve a strong inspiring idea to act as a trigger for the active engagement of students and teachers throughout Europe.

Young people especially need to be given opportunities to explore and shape their own idea of Europe and its future. This is why Erasmus and its sister programmes need to be seen as permanent instruments in the moulding of a Union responsive to the aspirations of people. This in itself represents a massive challenge in this period of the biggest enlargement ever, as 25 Member States have to come to terms with the equality of partnership demanded by the great European adventure which the European Union represents. The present volume will, I hope, serve as inspiration to all those who wish to build this future.
Hywel Ceri Jones

1973—89: Head of Division and then Director of Education and Training

1989—93: Director of the Commission’s Task Force for Human Resources, Education, Training and Youth

1993—98: Director-General (acting and deputy) of the Directorate-General for Social Policy, Employment and Industrial Relations
1948–68

The Europe of education before European Community involvement
1.1. **Europe after the Second World War**

In the wake of the Second World War, great hopes were pinned on the reconciliation of the European peoples and the advent of lasting peace. A major European congress was held in The Hague in May 1948 under the chairmanship of Winston Churchill, who had launched the idea of a ‘United States of Europe’ in Zurich in September 1946. It brought together over 800 personalities from very diverse backgrounds (political, economic, trade union, university, cultural, etc.). They were driven by one shared goal: to get public opinion to rally around the idea of European unity and to define the corresponding objectives. Their work lay emphasis on the free movement of ideas, goods and people. They campaigned for the creation of an economic and political union to ensure security, economic independence and social progress, the development of a European charter of human rights, a court to ensure the enforcement of decisions, and the establishment of a consultative assembly elected by the parliaments.

The Council of Europe was established one year after the Hague Congress, in May 1949, albeit after long and difficult negotiations on its powers. Those in favour of an institution with real authority were to be disappointed: the Council of Europe, the first political and parliamentary forum in Europe, was an intergovernmental organisation without the means to lead Europe to unification, much less integration. As such, it was ‘emasculated from birth’ (9). As Robert Schuman would say, it was a ‘laboratory of ideas’: ‘we could not expect from the Council of Europe anything more than slow, limited progress towards closer cooperation between European countries, and not true integration’ (10).

After the war, Europe was thus equipped with a number of organisations allowing cooperation between states in the following key areas: politics and culture, through the Council of Europe, set up in May 1949; diplomacy and military affairs, through the Treaty of Brussels, signed in March 1948 between Belgium, France, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, succeeded in 1954 by the Western European Union (WEU); the economy, through the Organisation for Economic Cooperation in Europe (OECE), established in April 1948 to coordinate American aid under the Marshall Plan and succeeded by the OECD in 1960. These organisations functioned as intergovernmental structures, however, and none had the means to bring about genuine unification and integration in Europe.

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(2) The Parliamentary Assembly played only a consultative role. The Committee of Ministers held all the authority but could make only unanimous decisions.
Denis de Rougemont wrote: ‘Everything stemmed from the Hague Congress: the first European, parliamentary, legal, cultural and technical institutions, the general principles of the common market, and also the refusal to give these institutions the authority to make political decisions (*)'.

It was not until 1950 and Robert Schuman’s historic declaration that things really started moving, with the adoption of the first Community Treaty (ECSC) and the establishment of real supranational institutions at European level that were capable of launching a process of unification and integration in Europe. Education, however, did not make its appearance in the Community framework until the early 1970s. European cooperation in the field of culture and education was still mainly under the auspices of the Council of Europe, with attempts at Community-level involvement remaining unsuccessful. The long and difficult negotiations that led to the creation of the European University Institute in Florence in 1972 are the prime example of this.

1.2. POST-WAR EUROPEAN COOPERATION IN EDUCATION

1.2.1. Follow-up to the Hague Congress

The cultural dimension was a focus of reflection at the European Congress in The Hague. The importance attributed to it through a specific committee, ranked alongside the other two committees (political and economic), was not just the result of the efforts of convinced activists such as Henri Brugmans (\(^1\)), Denis de Rougemont (\(^2\)) and Salvador de Madariaga (\(^3\)); it also reflected the value attached at the time to this dimension in the move towards European unity. The follow-up to this cultural committee came one year later within the framework of the European Cultural Conference, organised by the cultural section of the European Movement and held in Lausanne from 8 to 12 December 1949. This conference led to the creation of the European Cultural Centre (CEC), provided for by the resolution of the cultural committee of the Hague Congress, and also the College of Europe in Bruges, which was officially established on 19 May 1950.

The College of Europe (\(^4\)) was officially created on 19 May 1950 in Bruges as an institute for postgraduate studies aimed at training key players with a view to European integration. It was the result of the merging of two ambitions at the Hague Congress: that of Salvador de Madariaga, who for years nurtured the plan to create a postgraduate European college, and that of the Reverend Father Verleye of Bruges, who wanted to restore European influence to the town of Bruges. It was the first residential institute for European studies and training and was also the first real scientific laboratory for European multicultural immersion. ‘Forming Europeans from the inside’: this was the mission presented by Salvador de Madariaga on the occasion of the inauguration of the College on 12 October 1950. The objective of this melting pot for students and teachers from different countries was to monitor, analyse in detail and anticipate developments in European integration. In view of this aim, and in order to bring the College into line with the plan to enlarge the European Union to include the countries of central and eastern Europe, a second campus was set up in 1994 in Natolin (Warsaw), on the basis of a tripartite agreement between the College, the Polish government and the European Commission. In the first academic year (1950/1951), the College welcomed 35 students. Today, it has nearly 400.

Henri Brugmans was its first rector, from 1950 to 1972. A series of distinguished actors in the European integration process have chaired its administrative council, a few of the more recent being Jacques Delors, former President of the European Commission and now Jean-Luc Dehaene (since 2000), former Prime Minister of Belgium.

\(^1\) Dutch professor, first rector of the College of Europe in Bruges from 1950 to 1972.

\(^2\) Swiss writer and philosopher. Rapporteur for the cultural committee at the Hague Congress. He directed the European Cultural Centre (Rome) until his death in 1985.

\(^3\) Spanish statesman, thinker and writer. Chairman of the cultural committee of the Hague Congress.

\(^4\) Source (2004): http://www.coleurop.be
The CEC, inaugurated in Geneva on 7 October 1950, developed a number of networks and activities in the field of culture and education (16). However, it did not have the means and support to be able to 'give a voice to the European conscience', an ambitious mission set for it by the Hague Congress. 'The results would be limited. In the 1950s, there were not enough cultural initiatives in Europe for this venture to succeed' (17). However, in 1954, the centre set up the European Cultural Foundation (ECF) based on the model of American foundations. Its first president was Robert Schuman. This foundation was transferred to the Netherlands in 1957 by Prince Bernhard, who was president at the time. With the creation of the ECF, Denis de Rougemont made a huge contribution to the provision of financial resources in favour of European cultural activities. In 1977, on the initiative of Henri Brugmans, then rector of the College of Europe (18), the ECF gathered fresh momentum with the launch of the 'Europe 2000 plan' (19), which established a forecast approach for reflection and action. 'The part dedicated to education was the most successful' (20). As a result of these new orientations and specialised networks that it developed in connection with education, the ECF subsequently became one of the key contacts for the European Commission in the 1980s and 1990s when it came to supporting the technical implementation of programmes in the field of education at Community level, particularly Erasmus, Eurydice and Tempus.

\[\text{16}\] These ranged from the development of projects (European literary prize, European civic education campaigns, journal article service, documentary films on Europe, etc.) to support for the creation of associations (Association of Institutes for European Studies in Bruges in 1951, European Association of Music Festivals in 1951, the establishment of a European secretariat for cultural centres, etc.), to actions to promote intercultural dialogue.


\[\text{18}\] At the time, Brugmans was also a member of the CEC governing board and a founding member of the ECF.

\[\text{19}\] Henri Janne, former Belgian Minister for Education and author of the report For a Community education policy, commissioned by the European Commission in 1972 (see point 2.2), was President of the Scientific Committee behind this plan.

\[\text{20}\] Brugmans, Henri, À travers le siècle, p. 325.
1.2.2. The Western European Union and university cooperation

As they were institutions with predominantly diplomatic and military ambitions, it was surprising that the Organisation of the Treaty of Brussels and its successor, the Western European Union (WEU), took an interest in culture and education. Yet they did. The Treaty of Brussels was signed in March 1948 for a period of 50 years between the countries of Benelux, France and the United Kingdom. Even before the Council of Europe was established, this therefore represented ‘the first stage of European cooperation in all fields, mainly diplomatic and military, but also economic, social and cultural, for which specialised committees were created, with regular meetings of the relevant ministers’ (21). The WEU that succeeded it in 1954, incorporating Germany and Italy, also took an interest in education matters, particularly higher education. The growing interest in education can perhaps be explained by the fact that, with the signature in April 1949 of the Atlantic Alliance Treaty (22), the Organisation of the Treaty of Brussels had in a way already lost a little of its military and diplomatic raison d’être and started to work more actively on the other aspects of its mission.

Preliminary discussions on interuniversity and cultural cooperation were at first held within the framework of the Treaty of Brussels in 1948. But it was mainly under the WEU that substantial progress was achieved. In 1955, for instance, the first Conference of European Rectors and Vice-Chancellors took place in Cambridge under the aegis of the WEU, leading to the establishment of a specialised WEU committee concerning European universities. ‘It represents in a certain sense the predecessor of the European Rectors’ Conference (CRE)’ (23). It met several times and prepared the second Conference of European Rectors and Vice-Chancellors, which took place in Dijon on 12 September 1959. During this conference, ‘the 170 university leaders present in Burgundy decided to institutionalise their encounters and officially created the CRE — whose constitution was approved in Göttingen in 1964’ (24). It was therefore in the WEU context that European university cooperation started to take shape and that the first non-governmental organisation of university heads was created. Very soon after the Dijon congress, the CRE broke its links with the WEU in favour of the Council of Europe — which was geographically more representative of its members — and its committee for higher education and research, in which representatives from governments and academia participated on an equal footing. The education and culture activities of the WEU were transferred to the Council of Europe in 1960. In order to preserve its independence, the CRE later also kept its distance from the Council of Europe on the institutional front. For the same reasons, it adopted a cautious approach in its cooperation with the European Commission when the Community became involved in the field of education in the mid-1970s. Its subsequent enlargement to include the central and eastern European countries, however, was to strengthen this cooperation, which culminated in the implementation of the Bologna process in the early 2000s and the creation of a new, unified organisation, the European University Association (EUA) (25).

(22) The members of the Treaty of Brussels, Canada, Denmark, Iceland, Italy, Norway, Portugal and the United States, signed the Atlantic Alliance on 4 April 1949.
(24) Ibid.
(25) The CRE and the Confederation of European Union Rectors’ Conferences joined forces on 31 March 2001 to form the European University Association.
1.2.3. The European University Institute in Florence: a difficult start

The question of the involvement of universities in the process of European integration was already on the agenda at the European Congress in The Hague in 1948. However, in its final resolution, the cultural committee of the congress merely encouraged 'efforts to achieve the federation of European universities and to guarantee their independence from states and public authorities'. Opinions in the culture section of the European Movement, which subsequently dealt with the matter, differed as to whether to develop European education within existing universities or to create a real European university. Henri Brugmans himself asked the question: 'Does a diverse Europe need one single institution for higher education?' (26). Misgivings in university circles regarding the creation of a new body at European level were strong and remained so throughout the negotiations on the European university project. The academic world much preferred cooperation between existing institutions that could then preserve their independence. The project stagnated from the very start, and it was not until the relaunch of European integration in Messina in 1955 and the subsequent inclusion of an 'institution of university status' in the Euratom Treaty in 1957 that it came to life again. But the difficulty in reaching a political agreement endured, owing to disagreements between those who wished to see the new institution governed from Community level and those who did not. It took practically 20 years of difficult negotiations before the European University Institute in Florence finally came into being in 1972 (27), in the form of an intergovernmental agreement rather than a Community body.

These difficulties clearly illustrate how sensitive the education issue was at Community level. 'The sources of this stagnation can be seen both in the diverging opinions that became evident between the Six in relation to the possible inclusion of the education sector in the European Community and in the opposition of the university world to the project' (28). 'There was confusion throughout the negotiations between the creation of a university community and the establishment of a political institution to be in charge of education' (29). The harmonisation or homogenisation of the education systems and structures through Community action was a fear that would continue to haunt some Member States.

1.2.4. The Council of Europe

After the war, the Council of Europe was very quickly considered to be the appropriate arena at 'greater Europe' level for the development of European cooperation in the field of education and culture. As the European Community did not in its early years take an interest in these issues, the Council of Europe remained the main player in European cooperation in education for more than 20 years. One of the first important steps was the opening for signature on 19 December 1954 of the first European cultural convention (30). This became the framework for all Council activities in the field of education and culture, managed by the Council for Cultural Cooperation (CDCC), which was set up in January 1962.
Over the 20 years preceding Community involvement in the field of education, a pattern and a culture of cooperation thus developed within the framework of the Council of Europe between the Member States and also between European experts in the field and with non-governmental organisations representing the interests of the education sector and civil society. In particular, the Council of Europe opened up several important sectors, such as adult education, lifelong learning, higher education (\(^\text{31}\)) and languages (\(^\text{32}\)), fields in which the European Community was later also to become very active.

The first meeting that was extended to include all the signatory countries of the European Cultural Convention was held in Hamburg in 1961. The Standing Conference of European Ministers for Education was the first of the specialised ministerial conferences of the Council of Europe to be held on a regular basis. During these meetings, a general report on European cooperation in the field of education was presented, covering the actions carried out not only by the Council of Europe but also by Unesco, the OECD, the Nordic Council of Ministers for Education, EFTA and the European Commission, as soon as it became involved in the field of education.

From the outset, the quality of the Council of Europe’s work, particularly its studies and reflection work, helped to increase mutual understanding between the stakeholders in education in Europe and to build a culture of cooperation between them that would be beneficial for the future launch of cooperation at Community level. However, its secretariat had the difficult task of carrying through an action made increasingly complex by the growing challenges for education, with the involvement of an ever increasing number of European countries and limited political and financial resources (\(^\text{33}\)). It was, among other things, because this action was judged insufficient that some people, including politicians, began to campaign towards the end of the 1960s for a commitment from the European Community in the field of education, so as to anchor this sector more firmly in the developments and the deepening of Europe as a community.

Cooperation between the two institutions materialised essentially in the most important fields of shared interest: languages, higher education, the development of documentary networks and tools, etc. In order to plan and organise this cooperation, regular meetings were held between the secretariat of the Council of Europe and that of the European Commission. This cooperation was to become more politically visible in the 1990s with the organisation of a meeting, during several presidencies, between the Education Committee of the European Council and the Council of Europe to discuss their respective activities and fields of cooperation. It also took on a very concrete dimension in the early 2000s with the joint organisation of the European Year of Languages 2001 (see point 5.6.2).

\(^\text{31}\) Indeed, it was within the framework of the Council of Europe (in 1953, 1956 and 1959) that the first European conventions concerning the equivalence of university diplomas and study periods were developed.

\(^\text{32}\) In the 1970s, the Council was to, for example, work on communication skills and develop the concept of ‘threshold levels’ for a large number of regional and national languages as one parameter for assessing language skills.

\(^\text{33}\) To find out more about the activities of the Council of Europe in the field of education and culture since its creation, see the report entitled ‘Forty years of cultural cooperation (1954–94)’, drafted under the supervision of Etienne Grosjean (www.coe.int).
1.3. THE ABSENCE OF EDUCATION FROM THE EARLY STAGES OF COMMUNITY INTEGRATION

1.3.1. Gradual, economy-centred Community integration

People are focusing on one simple and dangerous objective: the Cold War... Only immediate action can change the current static situation. We need far-reaching, real and dramatic action that changes things and realises hopes in which people have almost stopped believing (**).

It did not take long for the path of intergovernmental cooperation chosen just after the war to reach its limits: the constant efforts to safeguard the individual interests of the Member States and their national sovereignty through structures lacking any real power made it impossible to cope with the challenges confronting Europe. In fact, at a time when the European area was experiencing growing difficulties both internally (the need to manage German rearmament for example) and externally (with the development of the Cold War), the countries of Europe did not yet have the collective means for effectively ensuring lasting peace.

Jean Monnet, the French planning commissioner, who was aware of both the need to unite Europe and the impossibility of this unity in the form of ‘an all-encompassing structure’, then suggested that Germany and France pool their heavy coal and steel industries under a joint, supranational High Authority within the framework of a European treaty (**) that would be open to other countries. Robert Schuman, French Minister for Foreign Affairs, presented Jean Monnet’s visionary idea to the French government and, in a declaration that was to be the foundation stone of European integration, presented it to the press on 9 May 1950. A solid platform was thus laid, not only for Franco-German reconciliation but also, and above all, for a stage-by-stage launch of the political integration process in Europe: this was to give rise to the first supranational authorities in the world, with binding decision-making powers over the contracting parties. In the wake of unsuccessful or limited political attempts to bring European countries closer together, the approach proposed by Robert Schuman on 9 May 1950 banked on the effectiveness of an economy-based method. It entailed making the vital economic sectors (coal and steel at the time) of the former enemies so interdependent that any war between them would be inconceivable.

The ECSC Treaty, which came into force in July 1952, was undeniably far from the lofty ambitions of the federalists at the Hague Congress in 1948. Nevertheless, the approach advocated by Jean Monnet (sector-by-sector integration) was to make it possible to progress gradually, without losing sight of the general objective, by

(**) The ECSC (European Coal and Steel Community) Treaty was signed on 18 April 1951.

(**) Statement by Jean Monnet recorded in Lukaszewski, Jerzy, Jalons de l’Europe, Jean Monnet for Europe Foundation, Centre for European Research, Lausanne, 1985.
giving priority to the most urgent sector, the one most likely to secure national support: the economy. Thus, as it was impossible to build the dream Europe, attention was turned to building a Europe that was actually possible. Denis de Rougemont was later to say: ‘The ECSC did not give rise to Europe itself but rather to a method of creating it’ (36). The chosen approach was compelling and entirely unprecedented: it was the Community method, the only method able to guarantee true European integration in key sectors, in contrast with intergovernmental cooperation, which had in this respect been ineffective. It took the form of supranational institutions (Joint Assembly (Parliament), Council of Ministers, High Authority, Court of Justice), one of which, namely the High Authority (which was to become the European Commission on the adoption of the EEC Treaty in 1957), had to ensure through its independence that the collective interests of the Community prevailed over the individual interests of the Member States.

Jean Monnet said: ‘First organise the economy, and politics will follow!’ The failure in 1954 of the plan to create a European Defence Community (EDC) confirmed the validity of this empirical approach: the economy was for a long time to remain the most fertile ground for an alliance. Following the relaunch of European integration in 1955 in Messina (Italy), a new and important milestone was reached with the negotiation and subsequent signature in March 1957 in Rome of two new treaties that were essentially economic in scope: the EEC Treaty (European Economic Community) for the realisation of the common market and the Euratom Treaty (European Atomic Energy Community).

Thus, even though the terms of the EEC Treaty, in particular Article 128 on vocational training, were later to support the development of Community actions in the field of education, the objectives pursued were initially economic. The first period in the buildup of the EEC, from 1957 to 1969, was characterised by an unwritten but decidedly official taboo on discussion of education policy, or indeed of much other than agricultural questions or those associated with the delivery of a common market and customs union. ... The lack of any political or legal impetus during this initial foundation period, so undoubtedly influenced by De Gaulle’s personal conception of Europe, reflected the uneasiness of the then six Member States to brook any interference with areas, of which education was but one, which lie in the very heartland of public sensitivity about the idea of national sovereignty’ (38).

Until the early 1970s, the Council of Europe was to be considered as the hub for cooperation actions in the field of education and culture at European level. European cooperation in education was not, therefore, absent from the European scene at the time, but it was not part of the nascent Community framework.

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COMMUNITY AND INTERGOVERNMENTAL METHODS (37)

The Community method is the expression used for the institutional operating mode set up in the first pillar of the European Union. It is based on a logic of integration with due respect for the principle of subsidiarity, and has the following salient features:

- Commission monopoly of the right of initiative;
- widespread use of qualified majority voting in the Council;
- an active role for the European Parliament;
- uniform interpretation of Community law by the Court of Justice.

It contrasts with the intergovernmental method of operation used in the second and third pillars, which is based on an intergovernmental logic of cooperation, the main features of which are:

- the Commission’s right of initiative is shared with the Member States or confined to certain specific areas of activity;
- the Council generally acts unanimously;
- the European Parliament has a purely consultative role;
- the Court of Justice plays only a limited role.


1.3.2. Winds of change in the 1960s

Things started to change in the 1960s. The Council decision of 1963 concerning the implementation of a Community policy on vocational training (on the basis of Article 128 of the EEC Treaty) underlined the link between vocational training and general education. Numerous international reports (in particular from the OECD) emphasised the relationship that existed between education and the economy. Furthermore, the problems and challenges facing education systems were increasingly considered to be global and shared by all (49). Political interest in Community involvement also became more pronounced, thanks to certain political leaders.

The first indications of Community interest in education came from the Bonn–Bad Godesberg summit on 18 July 1961. The Heads of State or Government spoke in their solemn declaration of 'giving shape to the wish for political union' and of the 'emergence of a true cultural community'. They pointed out that 'cooperation between the Six must go beyond the political framework itself: it will in particular extend to include the fields of education, culture and research, where it will be coordinated through regular meetings of the ministers involved' (40). This declaration proposed the drafting of conventions on cooperation and exchanges between universities (the creation of a European office for exchanges and European chairs) and relaunched the project to set up a European university in Florence. Although this declaration was well received and raised hopes, it did not express any real commitment on the part of the six governments. The study committee (Fouchet Committee), which had already been set up to continue work after the first meeting of the Council of Heads of State or Government in Paris on 10 and 11 February 1961, resumed its work in order to draft proposals on how to unite the peoples of Europe. However, these proposals, which covered educational and cultural aspects and represented an attempt to solve the problem of the European university, failed due to the hardening of France’s position in 1962 on institutional issues and defence. ‘Cooperation in the field of education actually formed the foundation for the proposals of the Fouchet Committee (Pescatore group) and the subsequent ‘Guichard project’ to create a European centre for the development of education. This project was not successful, but it should be mentioned as it illustrates the interest already shown by some in the early 1960s in taking the field of education on board in Community cooperation’ (41).

Little by little, cultural and educational aspects thus began to progress at Community level. With regard to education, for example, the terms of the declaration of 1961 were used some years later by the European Parliament in its resolution of October 1969 (42), in which it deemed the Europeanisation of universities to be essential, ‘as it forms the basis for a true cultural Community’. It asked the European Commission to submit proposals for the creation of a Council of Ministers for Education and for the development of the aforementioned conventions provided for in the declaration.

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1.4. **THE EARLY DAYS OF COOPERATION IN THE FIELD OF VOCATIONAL TRAINING**

The starting point for vocational training was different. The ECSC Treaty and above all the EEC Treaty attribute particular importance to it (Articles 57, 118 and 128). Article 128 of the EEC Treaty envisaged the development of a 'common vocational training policy' that must be capable of 'contributing to the harmonious development both of the national economies and of the common market'. The objective was mainly to improve workers' access to training and employment and to meet the needs for vocational retraining and requalification in the context of a deepening crisis in the coal and steel industry. The focus was on workers and therefore adults, rather than general and vocational training for young people.

Nothing ambitious, however, was undertaken during this initial period. As for education, it would take until the early 1970s, and above all the end of the 1980s, for vocational training as such to achieve greater visibility at Community level, in particular through the development of specific Community programmes.

The first step towards implementing the treaty was the adoption by the Council in 1963 of a decision establishing the 10 general principles for the development of a common vocational training policy. It did not give a strict definition of vocational training, thus allowing for broader interpretations at a later date that could even include higher education (see point 3.1.2). Reference is made to general education (second principle), indicating the importance of this level of education for the later development of vocational training. In its report of December 1981 (43), the European Parliament underlined: 'By emphasising the need for vocational training, the 10 points of the Council decision of 2 April 1963 already hinted at the awareness of a relationship between vocational training and education in the stricter sense.' However, the principles set out in this decision were very general and were not conducive to the rapid development of ambitious action. Having said that, they remained highly topical (e.g. the right to vocational training for everyone, throughout the various stages in working life, and mutual recognition of certificates and qualifications).

Although the wording used in the EEC Treaty ('development of a common policy') seemed to offer considerable possibilities for vocational training, the circumstances were not sufficiently favourable. In a field involving very diverse systems and practices, the Member States did not make their action at Community level a priority. The first principle of the 1963 decision underlined that it was in fact the responsibility of each Member State to define programmes in keeping with the general principles of the decision. Unlike the policies on agriculture or competition, it was not possible for the common vocational training policy to be binding at Community level, owing to its very nature. Furthermore, the notion of 'common policy' at the time probably did not have the strength of meaning that it has today.

The objective, then, was to develop close cooperation between the countries (exchanges of information and experience, studies and research, etc.) and to promote...
convergence, in accordance with general principles and objectives ensuring a common, coherent framework for such cooperation. The harmonised evolution of policies was not, however, completely dismissed as a possibility from the text of the decision. The eighth principle indicates that the common vocational training policy should be directed in such a way as to allow the 'progressive convergence' of training levels. For some professions, the Commission could then establish a 'harmonised description' of the necessary requirements for access to the different training levels.

As would later be the case for the texts on education, the content of this decision was mixed. Responsibility for its implementation was shared between the Member States and the Commission, although there was no clear division of tasks between the two levels. 'The absence of any clear demarcation of responsibility or definition of vocational training indicates that vocational training was not expected to be controversial. This was despite the reference ... to levels of training being progressively harmonised' (\[^{44}\]). Furthermore, the decision-making procedure was very flexible: simple majority, with no consultation of the European Assembly.

What was the immediate follow-up to this decision? Considerable importance was at once attached to cooperation with the social partners. The Advisory Committee on Vocational Training (ACVT) was set up in December 1963. This statutory body, chaired by the Commission, was the first of its kind at Community level (\[^{45}\]). It would be called upon to issue numerous opinions on matters of vocational training, communications and other strategic documents, specific projects such as the creation of Cedefop and the preparation, appraisal and promotion of Community action programmes in the field of vocational training. Its originality lay in its tripartite nature. 'The creation of this tripartite body has been of considerable importance which is reflected in the establishment of comparable bodies at Member State level' (\[^{46}\]). It was to institutionalise the role of the social partners alongside the Member States in the implementation of political cooperation in vocational training.

Vocational guidance was now very much on the agenda. In 1966, the Commission adopted a recommendation to the Member States concerning the development of this sector (\[^{47}\]). The aim was mainly to encourage the exchange of information and experiences.

However, implementation of the decision of 1963 produced only limited results. Then in 1971, the Commission proposed to define general guidelines for the development of an actual action programme at Community level in the field of vocational training. The reasons put forward for the difficulties encountered were 'a lack of experience in methods to turn abstract principles into working projects, insufficient distinction between short and long-term projects and inadequate resources' (\[^{48}\]). In the eyes of the public authorities, vocational training was probably not a priority at the time. Nevertheless, the increasingly important role of the European Social Fund (ESF), the first of the Structural Funds established at Community level, should be underlined. It was created over 40 years ago on 11 May 1960 on the basis of the EEC Treaty (Article 123) with the aim of promoting employment and the vocational
and geographic mobility of workers. It was managed by the Commission, assisted in its task by the committee of the European Social Fund, which was composed of the Member States, trade unions and employers. The ESF was to continue to develop and become the principal financial instrument of EU employment policy that it is today. Initially (until 1971, when it was reformed for the first time (49)), it mainly supported actions to promote training and worker mobility, in connection with the consequences of the restructuring of enterprises. In May 1964, for instance, the Council adopted a decision establishing the first action programme to foster exchanges of young workers within the Community (50). A second programme was to be adopted in 1979 and a third in 1984. Between September 1960 and December 1973, the ESF contributed ECU 400 million to the training of around 1 million workers and to the re-employment of a further 700 000 (51).


(50) 'Member States shall, within the framework of a joint programme, encourage the exchange of young workers', Article 50 of the EEC Treaty.

1969–84
The early days
of Community cooperation
in the field of education
The climate in the late 1960s and early 1970s was conducive to more definite Community involvement in the field of education. This was due not only to the very development of the Community, greater political openness and signs of change during the 1960s (see point 1.3.2), but also to changes in this sector at national level.

Owing to the post-war demographic explosion, education underwent significant expansion and democratisation. The politicians’ main concern was to cater for constantly increasing numbers and an increasingly diverse school population. The student protests of 1968 upset the established order, and the first oil crisis (1973–74) dragged the world into economic doldrums, resulting in public spending cutbacks and growing unemployment which has since been a constant source of concern for the countries of Europe. From then on, education systems, accounting for a significant proportion of public expenditure, were subject to considerable pressure and tension. Social and egalitarian concerns increasingly came second to issues centred more around the quality and effectiveness of supply and the use of resources. Against the backdrop of a worsening economic situation, the development of education systems was progressively brought into line with the development of national economic and social policies, a tendency which was of course reflected at Community level. At the same time, international organisations started to take greater interest in education. In July 1967, the OECD created the Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI).

However, these developments do not explain everything. The 1970s were also marked by ‘a turning point in national attitudes towards the future shape of the Community and the balance between its objectives and its mandate; a shift from a common market to the much larger idea of the Community’ (\(^5\)). The summit meeting of Heads of State or Government held in Paris in 1972 was, in this respect, an important occasion. It focused on the human dimension of Community integration and, in particular, a decision was taken to set up the first Community social action programme. Even though no reference was made to education as such, the final point of view was that of national education systems which, through their national policies, were to implement the action programme.

[p]\(\begin{array}{c}
\text{From a speech by Edgar Faure before the French National Assembly on 24 July 1968, when he was French Minister for Education.}
\end{array}\)


[p]\(\begin{array}{c}
\text{Jones, Hywel Ceri, ‘L’éducation et la Communauté européenne’, Revue d’action sociale, No 2, March 1984, p. 31.}
\end{array}\)
communiqué adopted by the Heads of State or Government underlined that economic expansion could not be an end in itself and that it must bring an improvement in citizens’ living conditions.

Very general political declarations in favour of Community-level involvement in the cultural and educational aspects of Europe became increasingly frequent, but they were not enough to trigger any real action; education remained a sensitive subject, and the good political intentions would not have led to anything if the European Commission had not gradually started to play an active role in this field.

In its communication to the Council of 11 March 1974 (54), the Commission stated: ‘In all Member States, education policy is of high importance both intrinsically and in relation to national economic and social development. The Commission believes that the promotion of educational cooperation within the framework of the European Community is of equal importance as an integral part of the overall development of the Community.’ As for the recurring criticism concerning the risk of overlap with the activities of other international organisations already involved in education (Council of Europe, OECD) and the nature of cooperation to be fostered with these organisations, the Commission expressed a clear position (55): ‘However, such cooperation should not take the form of a division of tasks. A division of this kind would not be compatible with the nature and institutional system of the European Community, and should not under any circumstances be applicable to agreements which might prevent the European Community from extending its work to other fields. In other words, it is necessary to avoid any formula likely to impose restrictions on the natural development and dynamism of the European Community.’

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(55) Ibid.
2.1. THE FIRST MEETING OF THE MINISTERS FOR EDUCATION AT COMMUNITY LEVEL

Cooperation between the members of the Community in the field of education is essential. In fact, it was the rule in Europe for centuries. Until the 19th century, ideas, teachers and pupils moved freely and frequently between our countries. It is only recently that our national education systems have become more inward-looking. Therefore, deep within our European culture, which is the soundest foundation for our ‘community’ of nations, there is a very recent tradition of cooperation (\(^\text{56}\)).

Like his predecessor (Edgar Faure), Olivier Guichard, then French Minister for Education (\(^\text{57}\)), was one of those who argued in favour of cooperation between the ministers for education in the EC. In 1971, in an article published in *Le Monde* (\(^\text{58}\)), he wrote the following: ‘The deepening of our European Community must not be restricted simply to the administration of the people and things of the present. We must also endeavour to prepare for a common future, by educating and training those who will be responsible for the Europe of tomorrow.' He was dissatisfied with the slow advances of cooperation on education in the much broader framework of the Council of Europe or Unesco and supported the development of cooperation at Community level and the creation of a European centre for the development of education.

In their final communiqué, the Heads of State or Government (European summit at The Hague on 1 and 2 December 1969) had already stressed the importance of maintaining an exceptional source of development, progress and culture in Europe and on the fact that the success of future action to foster European growth would be all the greater if young people were closely involved in it. The ministers for education finally met (\(^\text{59}\)) for the first time at Community level on 16 November 1971. An ad hoc group of senior officials responsible for national education had already met in 1970 and had prepared the way for reflection on issues likely to be discussed at ministerial level (\(^\text{60}\)). This first meeting of the ministers at Community level was not yet a recognised configuration within the Council of the European Communities. The resolution that they adopted was simply a ‘resolution of the ministers for education’ approved on an intergovernmental basis by ‘the ministers for education representing the Member States meeting within the Council’ (\(^\text{61}\)). It was only as of the first action programme, formally adopted in February 1976, that the Council texts bore the mark of their commitment within the Community framework: they were henceforth issued by ‘the Council and the ministers for education meeting within the Council’, thus reflecting the ‘mixed’ nature (Community and intergovernmental) of the acts adopted.


\(^{\text{57}}\) Olivier Guichard was Minister for Education from June 1969 to July 1972.


\(^{\text{59}}\) France held the Community presidency in the first half of 1971. In this context, Olivier Guichard proposed a meeting of the six ministers for education which, first set for 25 May and then 30 June, finally did not take place on either of these dates. Source: Article by Olivier Guichard, ‘L'éducation et l'Europe’, *Le Monde*, 9 July 1971.

\(^{\text{60}}\) See draft report by the ad hoc group of senior officials responsible for national education, document T/742/70 (EN) of 4 December 1970, Council of the European Communities.

\(^{\text{61}}\) Resolution of the ministers for education of 16 November 1971 on cooperation in the field of education.
The meeting of November 1971 provided an opportunity to relaunch work on the equivalence of diplomas and make the final arrangements for the establishment, after long years of negotiation, of the European University Institute in Florence. However, its most important result was confirmation of the interest in and need to establish cooperation in the field of national education and to deal with education problems at Community level and within that framework (\(^\text{62}\)). Indeed, the ministers agreed that it was important to supplement the provisions of the Treaty of Rome concerning the right of establishment and vocational training ‘through increased cooperation in the field of education as such.’

The first text adopted by the ministers clearly demonstrated the positive frame of mind that prevailed at the time. In fact, the stated aim of cooperation was no less than the definition of a ‘European model of culture correlating with European integration’ (\(^\text{63}\)). It should be remembered that in 1971, the European Community still had only six Member States and that, in such conditions, it was certainly easier to reach consensus on the texts under discussion. Expressions as strong as ‘European model’ were very soon to disappear from the Community language and texts following the first enlargement in 1973 to include Denmark, Ireland and the United Kingdom, thus reflecting political sensitivities in the field of education.

The resolution of November 1971 provided for the creation of a working party, with which the Commission was associated, responsible for making suggestions on the form that this cooperation could take and, in particular, for studying the proposal made by French Minister for Education Olivier Guichard to create a European centre for the development of education. Guichard envisaged this centre as being responsible for gathering information on education systems (statistics and studies), for coordination (particularly as regards the recognition of diplomas) and for incentive measures. It would have prepared and possibly implemented the decisions of the ministers for education, who would have managed the centre (\(^\text{64}\)). The idea of a centre of this kind, based on an essentially intergovernmental approach, failed to win the support of the Commission (\(^\text{65}\)). It was discussed by representatives of the six Member States and in the ad hoc committee of senior officials for over one and a half years, but failed to produce proposals for concrete action. The centre never actually came into being.
2.2. THE PREPARATION OF THE FIRST COMMUNITY ACTION PROGRAMME IN THE FIELD OF EDUCATION

It was in this context of renewed interest in education and training that the European Commission, in July 1972, asked Professor Henri Janne (66) to look into the potential outlines for a Community education policy. In December of the same year, even before the finalisation of the Janne report, Commissioner Altiero Spinelli presented a communication (67) to the Commission consisting of a positive report on the work of the Enseignement et éducation group and of the interservice coordination group, both of which marked the start of the Commission’s administrative involvement in education matters (see point 2.6). He envisaged developing a long-term Community action plan accompanied by the appropriate institutional provisions. The Commission’s aim, in reaction to the intergovernmental nature of Minister Guichard’s proposal, was clearly to ensure that future cooperation would be anchored within the Community framework and to quicken the pace in order to achieve concrete action.

Henri Janne presented his report in February 1973 (68), after consulting some 35 experts and known figures in the field of education. At a time when many European countries were reflecting on the future of their education and training systems, the merit of the ‘Janne report’ was that it summed up the challenges facing these systems while trying to define the possible significance of a European dimension to educational content and, based on this, outline the elements of a potential Community education policy. The Janne report was a noteworthy contribution to breaking down the taboo that had hitherto surrounded the area of education in Community affairs (69). But this analysis, which deemed an ‘approximation or harmonisation of policies’ indispensable, gave rise to fears and misgivings and as such was difficult for the Commission to use in the ensuing decision-making process that led to the action programme of February 1976. The Commission did, however, publish this report. ‘Treating the document as for information only was an act which effectively suppressed the paper … The Janne report was buried as a policy-making document’ (70).

On 11 March 1974, the Commission presented its communication ‘Education in the European Community’ (71) to the Council. It was to play a decisive role in the subsequent development of cooperation. Drafted in 1973 by the relevant new departments of the Commission (72), this communication was the start of the political reflection on the content and methods for future Community cooperation in the field of education that led to the adoption in 1976 of the first Community action programme for education. It laid emphasis on mobility, the academic recognition of diplomas, cooperation between institutions of higher education, modern languages, the exchange of information through a European network, and education for the children of migrant workers. A number of the chosen priorities had been identified in the Janne report. In order to reassure Member States who were concerned about certain aspects of this report, the Commission also stated its opinion regarding the aims of cooperation and specified that it was not about developing a common policy along the lines of those for other Community sectors, nor was it an attempt to harmonise the structures and content of education systems, which would be ‘both regrettable and unrealistic’.

(66) Formerly the Belgian Minister for Education, Henri Janne was then Chairman of the Scientific Committee of the Institute of Sociology and of the Institute of European Studies of the Université Libre de Bruxelles. He also chaired the scientific committee in charge of the ‘Europe 2000’ project of the European Cultural Foundation.

(67) Bilan et perspectives de l’activité du groupe ‘Enseignement et éducation’, communication from Commissioner Spinelli to the members of the Commission (230th meeting of the Commission, Wednesday 6 December 1972), SEC(72) 4250.

(68) Commission of the European Communities, ‘For a Community education policy’, Bulletin of the European Communities, supplement 10/73.


(70) Corbett, Anne, 2002.


(72) For the first time, in early 1973, when the first enlargement of the Community took place and a new Commission took up office, the Commission created a division specifically responsible for matters pertaining to education in the Directorate-General for Research, Science and Education (see point 2.6).
The reflection launched by the Commission led to the adoption in June 1974 by the
ministers for education (73) of an important resolution laying down the fields of
action for which cooperation was possible (74) (intercultural education; promotion of
closer relations between systems; documentation and statistics; increased cooperation
between higher education institutions; the academic recognition of diplomas and
study periods; mobility of teachers, students and researchers; foreign languages;
equal opportunities) and the underlying principles of such cooperation. It provided
for the creation of an ‘education committee … composed of representatives of the
Member States and of the Commission’ (see point 2.4) responsible for developing
actions in the specified fields. This committee held its constituent meeting on
18 October 1974.

The principles set out in the resolution of 1974 recognise the specific value of education
itself, refusing that it be regarded merely as a component of economic life. They
underline the need to take account of the diversity of national systems and dismiss
the possibility of harmonisation. The Member States would remain in control, also
as far as the implementation of jointly agreed Community actions is concerned.
These principles were to mark cooperation in the future. They were far from the bold,
open terms of the resolution adopted by the ministers for education less than
three years earlier in November 1971, which advocated the ‘definition of a European
model of culture in correlation with European integration’. One of the reasons
for this change in attitude was certainly the arrival in 1973 of three new Member
States, two of which (Denmark and the United Kingdom) had a strong tradition of
decentralisation.

‘It was this uneasiness which led the ministers of education to design a formula to
advance collaboration which is unique within the machinery of the Community, for
it combines the classical institutional machinery and procedures of the Council of
the European Community with a voluntary commitment of the education ministers
of the Nine to work together on a continuing basis outside the legal framework
of the Council’ (75).

(73) This meeting, like the one
in November 1971,
was intergovernmental
in nature.

(74) Resolution of the ministers
for education, meeting within
the Council, of 6 June 1974
on cooperation in the field
of education, OJ C 98

(75) Speech by Hywel Ceri Jones,
‘Education in the European
Community’ before the annual
congress (1978) of the Irish
Vocational Education
Association.
The principles set out in the resolution of 1974

- Cooperation in education must be adapted to the specific objectives and requirements of this field.
- On no account must education be regarded merely as a component of economic life.
- Cooperation must make allowance for the traditions of each country and the diversity of their respective educational policies and systems.
- Harmonisation of these systems or policies cannot be considered an end in itself.

While the Commission played a key role in launching Community cooperation in education from the start, it also had the immediate support of the European Parliament and the Economic and Social Committee. During its session of 22 September 1975 (\(^{[76]}\)), the Parliament underlined how important it was to develop Community action in the field of education. As early as 1969, it had insisted on the necessary Europeanisation of universities as a ‘true foundation for a cultural community’ (\(^{[77]}\)).
2.3. THE RESOLUTION OF FEBRUARY 1976, FOUNDING ACT FOR COMMUNITY COOPERATION IN THE FIELD OF EDUCATION

It took almost three years of hard negotiation between the Commission and national governments before the ground rules for educational collaboration were established and a first education action programme set up on a Community-wide basis (").
in the field of education and the framework for future cooperation. The resolution which established this programme was formally adopted by the Council on 9 February 1976 (\textsuperscript{83}), following the revision of the texts by lawyer-linguists. It was the result of the work carried out by the Education Committee and Coreper, and drew largely on the communication from the Commission of March 1974. It can be considered as the founding act for Community cooperation in the field of education, both in terms of the type of cooperation that it instituted between the Member States and Community level and in terms of the diversity of the actions envisaged.

Although the action taken to follow up the resolution of 1976 entailed only a modest budget (\textsuperscript{84}), it was the foundation on which the future stages in cooperation would be built. It should be pointed out that this programme was not limited to higher education, which at the time was the most natural and, in a way, easiest cooperation level. By also including school education, the early days of cooperation ensured that this field would not later be excluded from the scope of application of the treaty. 'This first action programme was both recapitulative and forward-looking. It was recapitulative because it covered the ideas voiced in the Spinelli and Janne reports and the most important positions (resolution of 1971, communication from the Commission of 1974 and resolution of 1974) on the subject of mobility, language learning, cooperation in higher education and a European dimension to education. ... In addition to this, it was forward-looking ... The action envisaged was based on much more than merely a connection with the labour market. It focused on education as a sphere in which to promote the notion of European unity and as a fundamental element in the development of equal opportunities' (\textsuperscript{85}).

The resolution of February 1976 specified which activities should be conducted at Member State level and which concerned the Community level, thus revealing the 'mixed' nature of the cooperation that was later to prevail. Indeed, one inescapable fact must always be taken into account in relation to cooperation: education is a field that does not fall within the Community's sphere of competence. The two levels — Member State and Community — are therefore always represented and committed to acting together in the majority of the texts adopted. 'The resolution guaranteed respect for the diversity of educational systems and practices of the Member States. This approach was advocated with great force at the time by Denmark and the United Kingdom in particular because of their strong tradition of decentralised educational provision ... More widely, there was a desire to avoid harmonising or standardising modes of operation through legislation' (\textsuperscript{86}).

The courses for action laid down in the resolution corresponded well to the need to launch, stimulate and give substance to a system of cooperation that was only in its early days and that concerned a politically sensitive field. They mainly comprised pilot projects, studies, study visits, etc. The aim was to foster greater mutual understanding, more correspondence and closer connections between education systems at all levels, mainly through exchanges of information and experience. A 'continuous comparison of policies, experience and ideas in the Member States' (\textsuperscript{87}) and the addition of a 'European dimension' to education systems were the core objectives.


\textsuperscript{[84]} The appropriations foreseen from 1980 to 1985 to implement the resolution of 1976 amounted to ECU 14 million (source: Agence Europe, No 2940 (new series) of 2 July 1980). In 1986, the sums allocated to education represented only 0.1 \% of the Community budget (source: Carlo Frediani, 1992).


\textsuperscript{[87]} OJ C 38, 19.2.1976.
As a reflection of the discussions held at the time in many European countries, the fields of action on which the ministers for education agreed were strongly oriented towards developing equal opportunities and enhancing the quality of education systems and their accessibility, by strengthening mutual understanding at all levels. Until 1985 and 1986, when there was a qualitative improvement in cooperation thanks to the development of specific Community programmes (Comett, Erasmus, Lingua, etc.) and considerable legal progress, the implementation of the resolution of 1976 was mainly centred on the six fields of priority action (see box). It was, however, to go through a period of institutional ‘crisis’ that would last for almost four years (see point 2.5), but would not bring the progress of cooperation to a halt.

‘This development was furthered by the European Parliament, which took advantage of its budgetary authority to intervene in concrete terms by increasing the funding allocated to education a little more each year’ (*)

(*)

THE FIRST SIX FIELDS OF COOPERATION

- The education of migrant workers and their children
- Closer relations between educational systems in Europe
- The compilation of up-to-date documentation and statistics
- Cooperation in the field of higher education
- The teaching of foreign languages
- Equal opportunities
THE COUNCIL MEETING OF 10 DECEMBER 1975: 
THE START OF COMMUNITY ACTION 
IN THE FIELD OF EDUCATION

STATEMENT (*)

Following the meeting of the ‘ministers for education meeting within the Council’ of 1974, the committee that had been set up on this occasion met over the period of a year in order to prepare the next ministerial session. Politically speaking, much was at stake, because it was a question of establishing whether the subjects covered in the ministerial resolution of 1974 could, at least in part, be considered an area of Community rather than simply intergovernmental competence. The importance that the Member States attached to the ‘education’ dossier was, among other things, reflected by the high level of the delegation members: alongside senior officials from the ministries of education, professors and university rectors, the ministries of foreign affairs had appointed diplomats who were highly skilled in institutional matters: still young, but remarkably expert and astute.

The fact was that at the time, the question of a possible ‘harmonisation’ of European education systems had not yet been discarded from the politico-institutional debate — far from it; the idea was losing ground, especially after the accession of the three new Member States, all of whom were against the idea, as state sovereignty in the field of education did not allow for any concessions towards possible regulations aiming to achieve homogeneous studies and programmes. Nevertheless, harmonisation still had its supporters (particularly Italy), and discussions could still be heated.

The Commission played its role of mediator between those representing different positions remarkably well. It had watched with disenchantment the demise of the European University Institute, stripped bare in the wake of the French vetos and the general distrust in European academic circles of a body seen from the beginning as a threat to the established academic order, rather than an opportunity for cooperation, stimulation and knowledge sharing. The Commission knew that after a few concessions, above all institutional in nature, it could hope, by confirming the solid foundation in the treaty for certain actions (education for migrants, equal opportunities), to obtain the agreement of the most reticent delegations to a sort of ‘legal grey zone’ covering the other actions, thereby making it pragmatically possible to deal with them. And that is what happened: the very difficult negotiations in the Education Committee resulted in a text which, following some final amendments made by Coreper, could be submitted to the Council. It had been rumoured just before the meeting that the Danish delegation might block any agreement on the action programme. In actual fact, the Danish Minister for Education, Mrs Ritt Bjerregaard, simply stated the conditions under which the Kingdom of Denmark could accept the text, as did other participants in the meeting. Nevertheless, Denmark’s minister (along with its entire government) was criticised for agreeing to the action programme by an initially low-key ‘anti-Community’

(*) Account by Carlo Frediani, member of the steering group (see ‘Methodology and content’).
opposition but which progressively became stronger and more virulent: this is what later led Denmark to block any progress on education for three years by preventing Council meetings. But that’s another story.

With regard to the harmonisation now explicitly excluded by the treaty provisions for the field of education, it is strikingly apparent that, by reducing the differences between university systems and programmes, the exact aim of the Bologna process, launched officially in an intergovernmental context in June 1999, was to make the finished product of higher education institutions more homogeneous. Often, there is no getting away from the facts. But that, again, is another story.

2.3.2. From education for the children of migrant workers to intercultural education

In the 1970s, some 3.5 million children of migrant workers attended schools in the Community. The adoption in 1977 of a directive on their education (90) therefore represented major progress in dealing with this issue at Community level. ‘The directive marks the recognition that we are living in a multicultural society — it is the richness and diversity of cultures that we must preserve’ (91). Its content is still very relevant today. It required the Member States to promote teaching of the mother tongue and culture of the country of origin in cooperation with the countries of origin in question and in coordination with mainstream education. On this point, it was largely inspired by the content of the resolution of February 1976. The aim was to encourage the education and social integration of these children and to combat school failure affecting them. The Member States had four years to introduce the necessary provisions to ensure free education adapted to the specific needs of the children of migrants and all the necessary measures for the initial and continuing training of the teachers involved in this education. The adoption of a directive may therefore seem surprising in a field with direct implications on the education systems; indeed, it was a binding legal act for those to which it was addressed (92). This directive was, however, to be the first and the last at Community level to affect the content and organisation of educational systems in such detail. Furthermore, its only outcome was to be a few reports on its implementation at national level (93).

Nevertheless, the follow-up to the resolution of February 1976 and several other resolutions adopted at a later date (94) supported its implementation. Comparative studies were launched and pilot projects set up, focusing on the development of new pedagogical approaches for teaching the mother tongue. The actions carried out and the transnational projects developed in this context contributed to the testing of so-called ‘intercultural’ education concepts that were no longer limited to the children of migrant workers. These fostered cooperation between the Member States and the stakeholders concerned and made it possible to develop and increase the use of innovative conceptual and pedagogical approaches.
Thanks to this awareness-raising work, intercultural education became one of the important aspects of Community cooperation in the field of education. In this respect, emphasis should be laid on the great interest that the European Parliament had always shown in this matter, as confirmed in 1991 with the creation on its initiative of a specific budget line to promote Community cooperation in the field of intercultural education. In March 1994, just before this field was integrated into the Socrates Community action programme, the Commission published a report giving an overview of Community action conducted until then and of the challenges ahead (\(^5\)). This report followed the conclusions of the European Council of Edinburgh in December 1992, where the Heads of State or Government condemned the rise of intolerance, racism and xenophobia and focused on the role of education in combating these phenomena.

**For more information**

- Report from the Commission to the Council on pilot schemes relating to the education of migrant workers' children, COM(84) 244 final.
- Reports from the Commission to the Council on the implementation of Directive 77/486/EEC, COM(84) 54 final, COM(88) 787 final.
2.3.3. The foundations of university cooperation

‘The Europeanisation of universities is essential, as it is the foundation for a true cultural Community.’ These were the words of the European Parliament as early as 1969 (\(^\text{96}\)), echoing a declaration made in Bonn on 18 July 1961 by the Heads of State or Government. Such political declarations clearly express the importance given to this level of teaching and to the European issues that characterise it. It was therefore natural for university education to be one of the priorities in the first Community programme for cooperation in the field of education.

The free movement of persons is one of the fundamental principles of the Treaty of Rome. Yet the mobility of students, teachers and researchers in Europe remained very limited (\(^\text{97}\)), and too many legal, administrative and practical obstacles (for example, problems of access and recognition) continued to exist, obstructing its development. Community cooperation immediately laid emphasis on this aspect and its corollaries, namely the improvement of cooperation between higher education institutions and of the academic recognition of diplomas and study periods (\(^\text{98}\)). On this last point in particular, the Parliament had already requested, in 1969, the development of ‘a programme for the harmonisation of diplomas and study programmes, with a view to encouraging the mobility of students, teachers and researchers in higher education and to preventing the current reforms from increasing the disparities between examination and teaching systems’ (\(^\text{99}\)).

The situation was, in fact, far from satisfactory. Even though the three conventions adopted in the 1950s by the Council of Europe formed a useful framework, they did not produce the expected results. Like the European Parliament, the European Commission was convinced that things needed to speed up and that Community action was required in order to achieve solutions based on active cooperation between all partners in the sector, while respecting the independence of higher education institutions. From the start, the constant aim of Community action was to stimulate this cooperation from the bottom up in order to achieve substantial progress in terms of student and teacher mobility in the Community and to encourage teaching institutions to make partnership agreements, particularly for the academic recognition of diplomas.

The 1976 resolution envisaged that the situation be examined and that proposals for improvement be made. The idea of developing diploma equivalences that would be imposed from the top down was very quickly left behind in favour of the more flexible approach of mutual recognition, a term that was actually used by the treaty for the recognition of diplomas for professional purposes. This approach made it possible to take better into account the diversity of practices and responsible institutions in the Member States. In order to foster mobility and the recognition of qualifications and periods of academic study, stepping up the flow of information to stakeholders was deemed crucial. In 1977, the Commission started to publish a regularly updated students’ guide in order to facilitate access to information on university studies in EC countries. In addition to this, the NARIC network (European Network of National Academic Recognition Information Centres) was set up in 1984 as a necessary complement to the actions aimed at improving
mobility and the recognition of diplomas and study periods. Through concrete information exchanges, this network promotes greater transparency of systems (see point 2.3.5).

The stimulation of cooperation between universities through joint projects supported at Community level was another stimulus chosen to encourage tangible progress. The most significant action in this respect was the launch of the ‘Joint Study Programme scheme’, which promoted direct contacts and exchanges between institutions, teachers and students in several Member States. These programmes, which continued to develop over the years, acted as a real catalyst for cooperation between institutions, students and teachers, and made ‘an important contribution to the solution of problems in the area of the recognition of diplomas, between individual institutions’ (100). In fact, many focused on student mobility, including the recognition of study periods spent in another Member State. Based on a concrete exchange of ‘good practices’, they were a good way of testing innovative methodological approaches and contributed to the creation of university department and faculty networks. The appraisal of the first two years of these programmes (1978–79) and the results of the first meeting of project directors in Edinburgh in April 1979 confirmed their added value and impact. They had unquestionably paved the way for the Erasmus programme, which was to be adopted in 1987.

Between 1976 and 1986, over 600 joint study programmes were thus cofinanced by the European Commission, involving more than 500 higher education institutions (101). The Office for Cooperation in Education (102) assisted the Commission with the implementation of these programmes. It also assisted in the management of short study visits, likewise provided for by the resolution of 1976, some of which served as preparation for the implementation of joint study programmes. The aim of these visits, which were for teaching or administrative staff and lasted between several days and several weeks, was to encourage the study and discovery of other higher education systems. They also acted as a catalyst for cooperation between higher education institutions. The number of applications for these visits increased steadily, from 176 in 1977 to over 750 in 1982 (103).

The resolution of 1976 also provided for a debate with those responsible for higher education in order to develop a common approach towards the admission to higher education of students from other Member States. This was an important issue, given the entrance restriction policies applied in some countries. An initial debate with all the partners concerned took place in Bonn in September 1977. The Commission then drafted a document in which the problems posed by the various current practices in the Member States were analysed and possible solutions put forward (104). This communication was subject to a consultation of the stakeholders concerned in the course of 1978 on the basis of which, on 29 September of the same year, the Commission presented the Council with proposals (105) for a common approach and common principles for the admission of EC students. But, like others, this communication did not reach the Education Council. Denmark raised the problem of the lack of a legal basis for work within the Community framework. The work was then blocked and the ministers for education

[104] COM(78) 469 final.
[105] Communication from the Commission to the Council of 29 September 1978 on the admission of students from other Member States to institutions of higher education.
stopped meeting for some time (see point 2.5). They met again on 27 June 1980 and approved a report (\textsuperscript{106}) that took up the principles set out in the communication of 1978. This report underlined the need for national policies to provide for intra-Community mobility, remove any obstacles to it, be based on the recognition by the Member States of their interdependence and mutual responsibilities with regard to the admission of students from other Member States, and guarantee these students conditions that were no less favourable than those for nationals. However, a truly common approach on the subject that went beyond principles proved difficult to achieve.

The political context in the early 1980s once again became more propitious to Community integration and renewed interest in university cooperation. Fresh impetus was given in March 1983 in Brussels by the European Council, which called for efforts to facilitate mobility between Member States through improved mutual recognition of diplomas. In a solemn declaration in Stuttgart on 19 June of the same year, it stressed cooperation between institutions with a view to promoting mobility. The European Parliament continued to take initiatives to accelerate cooperation and ensure concrete progress. It adopted two reports (\textsuperscript{107}) in 1982 and 1984 that contributed towards relaunching European cooperation in education, one of which dealt specifically with higher education. The Education Council finally adopted conclusions in June 1983 in favour of an increase in mobility in higher education. These conclusions symbolised the resumption of work on higher education by the ministers for education within the Council following the institutional 'crisis' in the late 1970s. Even though it was a text with no legal value (\textsuperscript{108}), these conclusions paved the way for future decisions.

This initial 10-year phase in Community cooperation in higher education did not, of course, solve all the difficulties and remove all the obstacles initially identified with regard to mobility and the mutual recognition of diplomas. It was, however, an important stage. The actions supported at Community level indisputably helped to raise awareness in university circles and among the authorities concerned of the importance of ever closer cooperation. They acted as a catalyst, clearing the ground for the future development of more ambitious action, symbolised by the adoption of the Erasmus programme in 1987. Higher education was perceived then as the most effective sector for strengthening Community cooperation in the field of education.

\textsuperscript{106} General report of the Education Committee, approved in substance by the Council and the ministers for education meeting within the Council on 27 June 1980.


\textsuperscript{108} The conclusions ‘came before the resolutions and decisions, but they made it possible to take stock of the action already undertaken and to get things moving again (conclusions on the increase in mobility in higher education)’ (free translation), Carole Frazier, 1995, p. 239.
2.3.4. The transition from school to working life

The resolution of February 1976 gave priority to the issue of the transition from school to working life with regard to the promotion of equal opportunities. Many European countries at the time were concerned by a worrying increase in the number of young people leaving education with no qualifications in a context of continuing economic recession after the first oil crisis. Young people under 25 years of age were increasingly affected by rising unemployment. In 1978, they accounted for almost one third of the unemployed. In September 1981, this percentage rose to 41.4 % (109).

Everywhere, secondary education, which until then had been very elitist, was undergoing a dramatic democratisation process: it was diversifying and introducing initial vocational training in order to meet the needs of an ever more heterogeneous population of young people, more and more of whom were pursuing their studies beyond the period of compulsory education. But the depression on the employment market continued and made the situation difficult not only for young people with qualifications that did not correspond to demand but even more so for more fragile jobseekers without qualifications. These developments and external constraints caused a new pattern of relationships between schools, vocational training and employment, even though education systems still remained heavily compartmentalised in the majority of Member States.

As this situation required urgent action, the Council adopted a resolution in December 1976 (110) proposing measures to improve the preparation of young people for professional activity and facilitate their transition from education to working life. The fact that this was the first resolution (111) adopted by the ministers since the establishment of the action programme in February of the same year reflects the political priority given at the time to this matter. Study visits, workshops and pilot projects were organised in the aim of analysing the obstacles on the ground

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(110) Resolution of 13 December 1976 concerning measures to be taken to improve the preparation of young people for work and to facilitate their transition from education to working life, OJ C 308, 30.12.1976.

(111) This was in fact to be the last on matters of education before the start of the institutional ‘crisis’ that would paralyse the Education Council until 1980 (see point 2.5).
and the potential solutions. Pilot projects were at the heart of the new ‘transition programme’. They lasted for three years and covered various themes (the needs of young jobseekers; strengthening motivation to study and work; targeted actions for groups in difficulty; guidance; vocational preparation through cooperation between schools and enterprises; the improvement of teacher training).

In the early years, 29 major projects were financed, in effect covering ‘a much greater number of sub-projects involving several hundred different educational establishments and, over the duration of the programme, around 10 000 young people throughout the Community’ (112). The aim was to develop networks to allow the exchange of experiences and good practices. ‘The most original aspect of the programme of pilot projects is the introduction of continuous evaluation and a cooperative learning process’ (113). Based on an appraisal of the programme in 1983 and following its one-year extension decided upon in 1980, a second programme of projects (1983–87) was launched with the same objectives: to encourage young people to undergo vocational training, and to develop initiative and creativity. Close partnerships between all the stakeholders concerned were encouraged, as were relationships with enterprises. Emphasis was also laid on improving school and vocational guidance, in particular through study visits.

The results of the pilot projects, the impact of the actions supported by the European Social Fund, whose resources financed 75 % of projects for young people at the time, and the main thrusts of the resolution of June 1983 on the vocational training policy for the 1980s contributed to the subsequent adoption in 1987 of the PETRA programme (114). During the implementation of the two phases of this ‘transition programme’ and of the PETRA programme, the Commission was assisted from the start by Ifaplan, a social research institute based in Cologne that had formed a technical assistance team of highly qualified European experts.

For more information

- General report of the Education Committee, approved in substance by the Council and the ministers for education meeting within the Council on 27 June 1980.
2.3.5. Exchange of information: the linchpin of cooperation

The Eurydice network – hub of information on education systems

The exchange of information between those responsible for and involved in education at all levels is an essential dimension to quality cooperation based on ever evolving mutual cooperation between countries with very different education systems. It is therefore not surprising that the first action programme adopted in February 1976 attached importance to this aspect by immediately envisaging the creation of a structured network for the exchange of information on education policies and systems.

The European Commission was the driving force behind the design of this original and unique network in Europe. The Eurydice network (Information Network on Education in Europe) was thus set up in September 1980 following a test period (from September 1979 to September 1980) (\(^{115}\)). It was composed of a central unit (\(^{116}\)) based in Brussels, established by the Commission to organise and coordinate its work and to provide the necessary impetus. Eurydice is an interactive network of national units set up by the Member States with optimal access to information on education policies and systems, mainly within the ministries of education or bodies close to them. The work of the network focused initially on the main trends in education policy and four of the key themes covered by the resolution of February 1976, thus clearly assuming its main role as a support for cooperation: the transition from school to working life, the teaching of foreign languages, the education of migrant workers’ children, and policies governing access to higher education. The primary focus of the information dealt with and exchanged, concerned the education systems of each Member State, but it also covered Community action in the field of education, thereby enhancing its dissemination.

The target public of the network was originally limited to policy-makers at national and Community levels. They had access to a question-and-answer service, designed to stimulate exchanges between decision-makers and their openness to other education policies. For more than 10 years, this service was the backbone of the network’s activities. Gradually, a Community database on education systems was also developed and updated annually by the national units (\(^{117}\)). From the start, the network cooperated closely with the documentary network of Cedefop (European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training), and also with the Eudised network (European Documentation and Information System on Education) of the Council of Europe, in particular for the joint development of a European education thesaurus. Initially, the information covered and the exchanges developed by the network were mostly documentary in nature. There was no comparison of the systems in the Member States, a sensitive issue within the Community. Cooperation was only in its early days, and there was therefore more need for basic, essentially descriptive information.

The situation changed dramatically at the start of the 1990s, in particular following the adoption by the Council of a resolution (\(^{118}\)) which, while again underlining the ‘documentary nature’ of the information covered, called for the network to be

\(^{115}\) After approval by the Education Committee at its meeting of 21–23 November 1977.

\(^{116}\) This was later to be known as the ‘European Unit’.

\(^{117}\) Eurybase became fully operational and accessible to a broad public in 1994.

strengthened and further developed. An increasingly comparative approach to the information exchanged was then developed under the pressure of new cooperation needs and on the basis of the initial work along these lines in the late 1980s ([119]). At the behest of the European Commission, and owing to its specific role in the network, the European Unit was the driving force behind the implementation of this new working approach. It required substantial changes, particularly the development within this unit of expertise in the comparative analysis of education systems, and also more active involvement and input from the national units. The diversified comparative studies ([120]) published regularly since then by Eurydice provided concrete proof of the change that had taken place. The network’s capacity to adapt to the evolving needs of cooperation was further confirmed when, in the mid-1990s, it developed the first EU publication on European indicators for education together with Eurostat, and when, as of 1996, it successfully expanded its activities to the 10 central and eastern European countries, Cyprus and Malta ([121]).

Since it was set up in 1980, the Eurydice network has therefore been in constant evolution. However, the transformation of its activities during the 1990s was the most significant change. This was when the network gained in recognition as an original source of comparative information on education systems in Europe. From then on, it has supported political cooperation more effectively within the Education Committee and the Council, made an essential contribution to expanding this cooperation to include new countries and made its products accessible to a broad interested public. When Community cooperation in the field of education and training crossed a new threshold around the year 2000 with the implementation of the Lisbon strategy (see point 5.1), the network was thus immediately capable of making a suitable contribution to Community work to implement the ‘Education and training 2010’ work programme and of continuing to develop in line with new needs.

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[119] Study on the in-service training of teachers (V. Blackburn and C. Moisan) carried out with the technical assistance of the European unit of Eurydice and published in 1990 (PUF Maastricht).

[120] Reference is made to some of the Eurydice studies in this publication. All the work and databases of the network can be consulted at the Eurydice website (www.eurydice.org).

[121] Turkey has been participating formally in the network activities since 2004.
**Arion study visits**

In the resolution of February 1976, the ministers for education underlined the need to improve mutual understanding between the various education systems in the Community and to ensure, on a continuing basis, the comparison of policies, experience and ideas in the Member States. Regular meetings between education senior officials were accordingly envisaged, as was the organisation by the Member States of study visits to other countries for school administrators and administrators in higher education at local, regional and national levels. What was later to become the Arion action thus started in 1978 with the development of ‘study visits for education specialists’ to make administrative staff in education (primary and secondary) and their environment more open to other education systems. This action became more prominent in 1987. It was given the name Arion, after the Greek poet and musician, and its own symbolic logo.

Due to the nature of the activities organised and the multicultural study visit system, the Arion action brought with it a strong European dimension. It was the only action that allowed decision-makers in the field of education, particularly at local or regional level, to really discover other education systems and thus be able to adapt and rethink their own practices, taking account of the direct experience gained in terms of education structures and reforms in other Member States. The information generated by the Eurydice network was an important source for the preparation and realisation of these study visits, which generally lasted for one week. Arion was an immediate success. Participant numbers increased from 85 in 1978 to 520 in 1987 (122). In 2005, it involved some 2 100 specialists and decision-makers per year from 31 countries. As information on education systems and policies forms the core of mutual understanding between the Member States and is an essential factor in quality cooperation, both Arion and Eurydice were among the first actions to be opened to other European countries, with a view to their participation in the programmes and their future accession to the EU.

An action equivalent to the Arion study visits (see point 5.3.1) and managed by Cedefop developed in the field of vocational training. It started in 1985 following the Council resolution of 11 July 1983 (123) and would later be integrated into the Leonardo da Vinci programme.

The Arion action was, of course, integrated into the Socrates programme in 1995 (124). The exchange themes (125) therefore became progressively more connected to the priorities of the Community’s political agenda in the field of education, particularly more recently with the ‘Education and training 2010’ programme (see point 5.1).

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(124) For further information: www.ec.europa.eu/education/programmes/socrates/arion/index_en.html

(125) The themes covered were as follows: education systems and their values; the stakeholders in education: pupils, teachers and parents; teaching: curriculum and tools; the school and its environment; other measures.
NARIC — a network to support the recognition of diplomas

The mutual recognition of diplomas has been a core concern since the start of cooperation, as the effective achievement of mobility hinges on it. The complexity and the sensitive nature of the question meant that progress was slow (see point 3.3.2), but the need for transparent information on the subject quickly became evident. The NARIC network (European network of national academic recognition centres) was therefore created in 1984 on the basis of the Council conclusions of 2 June 1983 concerning the increase in mobility in higher education. It was designed at the time to be the essential complement to the actions to reinforce mobility and the recognition of diplomas and study periods. Through the exchanges that took place, this network fostered greater transparency between systems. The national NARIC centres, appointed by the ministries of education, provided advice and information on the academic recognition of diplomas and study periods undertaken in other countries. The main users of NARIC were higher education institutions, students, parents, teachers, etc. The NARIC network became an integral part of the Erasmus programme in 1987. From the very start of its existence, it forged links with the Council of Europe’s NEIC network of national equivalence information centres for mobility and university qualifications, set up in the early 1970s.

In June 1994, NEIC became the ENIC network (European network of national information centres on academic recognition and mobility). The Council of Europe and Unesco/CEPES assumed joint responsibility for its secretariat, covering the implementation requirements of the Lisbon Convention (Council of Europe/Unesco — 1997) with respect to the recognition of higher education qualifications in the European region. As their missions were similar, the NARIC and ENIC networks generally worked together, using a joint website.

Statistics on education and training

It was also thanks to the first Community action programme in the field of education that the statistical office of the European Communities (Eurostat) started to investigate education. In October 1977, the four working groups created to cover education and vocational training met for the first time to make cooperation arrangements. They decided to set up one single group for statistics on education and vocational training, composed of experts from the national statistical offices, the ministries of education and the ministries of employment and social affairs (**126**). This group met at regular intervals. Eurostat has been publishing statistical data on education since 1978. Later, it started to cooperate with Unesco and the OECD on the revision of the international standard classification of education (ISCED) and the joint collection of UOE (Unesco/OECD/Eurostat) administrative data on education. Eurostat also collects data at regional level for the EU countries.

Nevertheless, it was only in the mid-1990s that Eurostat became more actively involved in the field of education (**127**), owing to greater political interest in the subject, particularly subsequent to the adoption on 5 December 1994 of a Council resolution on the promotion of education statistics in the EU (**128**). In the second half of the 1990s, Eurydice and Eurostat together produced the first biennial report on...
education indicators in Europe (‘Key data on education in Europe’). Eurostat then became more heavily involved in the wake of the Lisbon strategy in the field of education and training and the need to provide more statistics and indicators within this context (see point 5.1.3). In November 2003, a special unit for education and culture statistics was created in Eurostat for the first time.

2.3.6. The promotion of languages

In his report of 1973 (see point 2.2), Henri Janne had already clearly sensed the importance of Community commitment to languages. He expressed the unanimous agreement of the experts consulted as follows: ‘The Community must intervene in increasing the power of communication in so far as this depends on languages. As these are taught on different levels and with varying degrees of success and intensity in all our countries, action must be by Community action in the teaching field’ (131). In its communication of March 1974, the Commission makes languages a central point for the introduction of a European dimension to education, an approach that was reflected 18 years later in the Maastricht Treaty (see point 3.4).

However, there was no fast track to action, despite the strategic importance of the field for the deepening of the Community. In spite of the concrete proposals made by the Commission (130) following the resolution of February 1976 and the support of the Parliament (132), little was accomplished in this first cooperation phase, other than through simple exchanges of information (mainly organised within the framework of Eurydice), study visits and periodic meetings of experts on methods and practices for learning foreign languages. This subject is closely interwoven with the culture of each country and some Member States were not in favour of heavy Community involvement. As for other subjects under discussion, the question of the absence of a legal basis was raised (see point 2.5). It would take three years for this sector of activity to be relaunched by the European Council of Stuttgart, which, in its solemn declaration of 19 June 1983, underlined the need to develop the teaching of Member States’ languages. Following this, the ministers for education adopted conclusions on 4 June 1984 announcing a series of actions to encourage the learning of Community languages. However, it was not until the adoption of the Lingua programme in 1989 that tangible developments finally started to emerge at Community level (see point 3.2.4).

Furthermore, the issue of the promotion and preservation of minority languages and cultures was raised in 1982 on the initiative of the European Parliament, which was to give continuous support for actions in this field (133) (see point 5.6.2). Financed by the European Commission as an organisation of general interest, the European Bureau for Lesser Used Languages was set up in 1982. This body represents regional and minority language communities of the European Union through its network of national committees. It promotes their common interests at European and international levels and acts as a mediator between the language communities and the Community and international authorities. Mercator, for its part, is an information and documentation network on minority languages and cultures consisting of three research and documentation centres. This network (134) European Commission, ‘For a Community policy on education’, Bulletin of the European Communities, supplement 10/73, p. 30.


(136) ‘The teaching of languages must be guaranteed, as it is a prerequisite to the effective exercise of people’s right to freedom of movement and to a better understanding of the peoples of Europe.’ ‘The teaching of languages and the recognition of diplomas are the supporting structures and basic materials for this policy [common education policy] and ensue directly from the treaties...’ Report by Gaiotti de Biasi (1981) on a Community programme in the sector of education (document 1-845/81). The European Parliament would also adopt several resolutions concerning foreign language teaching in the Community (OJ C 68, 14.3.1983), the dissemination of Community languages (PE 86480 of 4 November 1983) and the use of languages in the Community (resolution of 13 April 1984).

(137) Resolutions on a Community charter of rights of ethnic minorities (Arfe, 1981) and on measures in favour of minority languages and cultures (Arfe, 1983).
was set up in 1988 following a resolution by the European Parliament [" (\(^{135}\) )] and also receives financial support from the European Commission. In addition to providing support for these two structures, the Commission supports a number of projects conducted by organisations for regional and minority languages. The European Year of Languages in 2001 presented an opportunity to promote and raise the profile of these languages further (see point 5.6).

2.3.7. The other fields of action

The resolution of 1976 led to many other actions that deserve to be mentioned as they would later continue to be part of education cooperation at Community level.

The European dimension of education

Support was thus provided for projects to foster a greater understanding of Europe through education (distribution of maps of Europe in schools, promotion of the European dimension in classes, information brochures, etc.). The promotion of the European dimension in education was in fact at the heart of cooperation and transcended all related actions, even though it remained a sensitive issue (see point 2.5), because it had to do with the content of curricula, for which the Member States retained sole responsibility. It was, however, given special importance by the Education Committee which, in its report of 27 June 1980 on the implementation of the action programme [" (\(^{135}\) )], encouraged further measures in this field (organisation of short study visits for teachers, cooperation between teacher training institutes, development of teaching material, etc.). Yet it was only in the second half of the 1980s that more significant developments came, particularly in the wake of the report on a 'people's Europe', approved by the Milan European Council in 1985 (see point 3.3.1).

Equal opportunities

Even though emphasis was above all laid on access to all types of education and on preparation for working life (see point 2.3.4), the issue of equal opportunities was also central to the resolution of February 1976 and the initiatives subsequently taken by the Commission [" (\(^{136}\) )]. However, it was only in June 1985 [" (\(^{137}\) )] (see point 3.3.3) that the first action programme on equal opportunities for girls and boys in education was adopted and in May 1987 that the first European cooperation programme on the integration of handicapped children into ordinary schools [" (\(^{138}\) )] and the first European programme to step up the fight against illiteracy were envisaged. Until then, larger-scale actions were mainly conducted in the fields of social and training policy, in particular under the European Social Fund [" (\(^{139}\) )]. The designation of 1981 as the International Year of Disabled Persons by the United Nations General Assembly that marked the start of the UN Decade of Disabled Persons (1983–92) was to be a driving force behind Community action in this field.


\(^{135}\) General report of the Education Committee, approved in substance by the Council and the ministers for education meeting within the Council on 27 June 1980.

\(^{136}\) Examples: report of 1978 by Eileen Byrne, sponsored by the European Commission, on the situation in the Member States as regards equal opportunities for girls in the field of education ['Equality of education and training for girls 10–18 years'] (this report was to inspire the communication that the Commission presented to the Council on 3 October 1978 concerning equal opportunities in the field of education and training for young girls; it was to be one of the four communications that were blocked during the institutional 'crisis' of 1978–80 (see point 2.5); creation in December 1980 of a liaison group for equal opportunities.

\(^{137}\) Resolution of the Council and of the ministers for education meeting within the Council of 3 June 1985 concerning an action programme on equal opportunities for boys and girls in education, OJ C 164, 5.7.1985.

\(^{138}\) Conclusions of the Council and the ministers for education meeting within the Council of 14 May 1987 concerning a programme of European collaboration on the integration of handicapped children into ordinary schools, OJ C 211, 8.8.1987. On 18 April 1988, the Council adopted a decision establishing a second Community action programme for disabled people: Helios. These legislative acts were preceded by the first conclusions on the integration of handicapped children into ordinary schools, adopted by the ministers for education on 4 June 1984.

\(^{139}\) Resolution of 27 June 1974 establishing the initial Community action programme for the vocational rehabilitation of handicapped persons; first Community action programme on equal opportunities for women and men (1982-85). This programme focused on vocational training and guidance.
New information technologies

Reference should also be made to the emphasis in the early 1980s, well before the arrival of the Internet, on the introduction of new information technologies in education and training (139). This concern became evident in the broader context of a strong Community interest in the impact of technological changes on society, the economy and employment. Esprit (European strategic programme for research and development in information technology), the first far-reaching programme on the subject, was adopted on 28 February 1984 for a period of five years (1985–89). The Delta programme on the development of learning in Europe through the use of advanced technologies was adopted at a later date in 1988. The development of the information society in the 1990s would lead the Community to reinforce its action to promote the integration of information and communication technologies (ICT) into education and training systems (see point 5.5).

Teachers

The 1976 action programme also encouraged the mobility of teachers, so that they could spend part of their career in another Community country. But this ambitious objective, encouraged by the European Commission, came up against the reticence of the Member States owing to major differences in the profession from one country to another (access, training, status) and the practical difficulties of organising such mobility and providing the necessary replacements. Attention was then turned to short-term mobility linked to the promotion of foreign languages (140). The matter of the teaching profession in the context of Community development remained a sensitive issue. At the end of 1984, the Commission and the Ministry of Education and Science of the Netherlands commissioned the Stichting Research voor Beleid to conduct a survey on the thorny issue of teachers’ working conditions in the EC Member States. It was carried out with the aid of the Eurydice network. Some Member States expressed their disagreement with the results of this study. Nevertheless, the Commission published a summary report, taking care to point out that it ‘is intended for the internal use of the Commission services’, and that it ‘is made available to the public and may not be considered as an official Commission position’ (141). Teacher mobility within the Community was to remain on the agenda. Following several positions adopted by the Court of Justice (142), the principle of freedom of movement (Article 48 of the treaty – Single European Act) was also applied to teachers. Given the role they play in changes in education systems, teachers and their training (143) were to remain the central issue in most of the texts subsequently adopted at European level. The adaptation of the profession to the new challenges of the knowledge-based society was to be one of the major objectives in the Lisbon process in the fields of education and training and the implementation of strategies for lifelong learning (see points 5.1 and 5.2).

(139) Resolution of the Council of 19 September 1983 on measures relating to the introduction of new information technologies in vocational education and training. The following year, in 1984, the Councils of education and of social affairs adopted conclusions on the subject subsequent to an important communication from the Commission on technological developments and social change.

(140) General report of the Education Committee agreed to in substance by the Council and the Ministers for Education meeting within the Council at their session on 27 June 1980.


(143) In-service teacher training was to be the subject of specific conclusions adopted by the Council on 14 May 1987.
2.3.8. Cooperation with the social partners and the representatives of civil society

The European Commission has always acknowledged the importance of getting representatives from the world of education and civil society involved in Community developments in the field of education.

Raising awareness of Community action in the field of education among the various stakeholders concerned, involving them and establishing close cooperation with them was immediately one of the Commission’s priorities. It therefore developed contacts and regular exchanges of information, particularly with European representatives in the world of education (rectors, students, researchers, parents, teachers, etc.), whether they were social partners or associations from the school or university sector. It practised an ‘open-door policy’. At the start, few existing organisations were actively involved with the Community institutions. The main organisations were ETUCE, the European Trade Union Committee for Education, created in January 1975, the CRE (European Rectors’ Conference), created in 1959, SEFI (European Society for Engineering Education), created in 1973, ATEE (Association for Teacher Education in Europe), created in January 1976, AEDE (European Association of Teachers), created in January 1956 and, through its working group on education, Coface (Confederation of Family Organisations of the European Community), created in 1979.

The mounting pace of Community cooperation in the field of education led to constantly increasing involvement of unions and associations with the Community institutions, particularly from the mid-1980s on. New sectoral organisations were established in order to defend the interests of their members and to raise awareness among them of the European dimension of education, such as EPA (European Parents Association), created in January 1985, Efecot (European Federation for the Education of the Children of the Occupational Travellers), created in 1989, ESHA (European School Heads Association), created in 1988, Obessu (Organising Bureau of European School Student Unions), ESIB (European Students Information Bureau), created in 1982, AEGEE (European Students’ Forum), created in 1985, EAIE (European Association for International Education), created in 1989 and EAEA (European Association for the Education of Adults), created in 1999. The list published in 2001 by the Commission included over 70 European associations, networks and social partners actively involved in education at European level. Many European-scale projects supported by the Commission came from these organisations.

The development of the Socrates programme in the 1990s contributed towards reinforcing the participation of unions and associations in pan-European education projects. This programme also allowed for the regular consultation of the social partners and associations involved in the field of education at European level. However, the Member States wanted this consultation to be limited to the expression of opinions and the exchange of information. It was therefore the responsibility of the Commission to conduct this consultation and to inform the programme committee of the opinion expressed by the social partners and associations.
It was in 2003 that the consultation of the social partners gathered momentum (see point 5.1.2). The involvement of the partners concerned was crucial to the strategy defined in Lisbon in March 2000 by the European Council. The Commission used this framework to bring together the social partners and main European organisations involved in the working groups, established as of 2002, to implement the ‘Education and training 2010’ work programme.
2.4. **The Establishment of a Unique Structure: The Education Committee**

Even those of us who had worked so hard to negotiate an agreement in 1976 could not have dreamed at the same time that the unique formula which was invented to promote cooperation in the field of education at Community level would have withstood the test of time so well (\(^{160}\)).

As proposed by the Commission in its communication of March 1974, and as provided for in the resolution of June of the same year (see point 2.2), an Education Committee was formally established by the Council within the framework of the resolution of 9 February 1976 establishing the first action programme. Even though it functioned from the start as any other specialised Council group, this committee, which met for the first time on 18 October 1974 (\(^{159}\)), was the first of its kind at Community level (\(^{161}\)). Its originality was directly linked to the very nature of Community action in the field of education. In fact, cooperation as defined in 1974 and then 1976 stemmed above all from the political will of the Member States to work together within the Community framework in a non-binding manner in a field that was not then directly covered by the treaty, and for which competence remained at national level. The Education Committee was the reflection of this special situation characterising the field of education. Like the resolution of February 1976 and most of the texts adopted later, its design clearly symbolised the ‘mixed’ nature (\(^{162}\)) of the cooperation that prevailed between the Member States within the Community framework. This committee is unique in the machinery of the Community so far. It is the only committee under the level of the ambassadors — what we call the Coreper — where the Commission, as well as the Member States, is a member of a Council group. In all other cases, it is a question of the Member States sitting around the table with the Commission at the other end as a distinct institution. This arrangement was designed to reflect the majority view at the time that whilst some elements of education policy may be claimed to be closely linked to the terms of the Treaty of Rome, others are not. It was in effect designed as a structure to safeguard the rich diversity of educational systems and to avoid any notion ... of harmonisation’ (\(^{163}\)).

The Education Committee therefore included representatives from both the Member States and the European Commission: senior officials from the ministry of education of each country, accompanied by members (the ‘education attachés’) of the permanent representations to the Community. In its communication of March 1974, the Commission had envisaged a body chaired by itself and responsible for advising it on the implementation of the action programme (\(^{164}\)). The final decision was to set up a committee within the framework of the Council, chaired by the country which held the six-month presidency. This committee was assisted in
its work by officials from the Council secretariat. Coreper (165) played the role of political filter before each Council meeting, but the work of the Committee that preceded it was essential to the process of cooperation, its deepening and the move towards consensus. The Education Committee was an important forum for discussion and consultation between Member States, in close collaboration with the Commission. Its driving influence on cooperation in general was very important and depended on the quality of the working relationship between all the parties involved.

The Commission provided essential impetus in this context, thereby making it possible to achieve continual progress on cooperation, find solutions in difficult moments (such as the institutional ‘crisis’ of 1978 — see point 2.5) and prevent a scenario in which only the voice of specific national interests would be heard. In fact, the tendency for negotiations to be limited to the smallest common denominator often characterised the work of the committee. Through its initiatives, its reports to the committee on the implementation of the actions decided upon jointly and its role of moderator, mediator and facilitator in the workings of the committee, the Commission proved to be indispensable to its functioning and effectiveness.

In retrospect, it can be said that, while the Education Committee was the forum in which political caution and sensitivity in relation to Community intervention in education were expressed the most, it also allowed cooperation to progress steadily and, in 1992, to find finally its place in the treaty.

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The Education Committee (resolution of 9 February 1976)

‘An Education Committee shall be set up consisting of representatives of the Member States and of the Commission. Its chairman shall come from the country holding the office of President of the Council.

The Committee shall coordinate and have oversight of the implementation of the programme; it shall report on its execution, in accordance with the procedure laid down in Article 4 of the treaty establishing a single Council and a single Commission of the European Communities, to the Council and the Ministers for Education meeting within the Council. The Committee shall, in accordance with the same procedure, prepare the proceedings of the Council and of the Ministers for education meeting within the Council, including those concerning future developments in the field of education.

The Commission is invited to undertake, in close liaison with the Education Committee, the appropriate measures to be implemented at Community level.’

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[165] The Permanent Representatives Committee (Coreper) is composed of the permanent representatives of the Member States. Its role is to assist the Council of the EU in dealing with dossiers on its agenda in a pre-negotiation phase. It is both a forum for dialogue between permanent representatives and a political control body (guidance and supervision of the work of the expert groups).

Source: Europa website ('The EU at a glance — glossary').
2.5. **The institutional 'crisis' in the years 1978–80**

Despite the enthusiasm triggered among stakeholders by the implementation in 1976 of an action programme for education which reflected their concerns and the dynamic cooperation concept pursued by the Commission, which wanted to use all the possibilities offered by this first action programme, there was soon to be a period of institutional slowdown, or even 'crisis'. The meeting of the Council and the ministers for education to be held on 27 November 1978 was cancelled at the request of the Danish and French governments (\(^{(166)}\)). 'The Council session has been postponed without fixing any date, which could well mean that a Community education policy is dead before it was even born' (\(^{(167)}\)). This was no minor deadlock, and there was a real risk of seeing the nascent cooperation and all the efforts to set up the first action programme reduced to nothing.

The ministers were to discuss the proposals of the Commission relating to four fields: the study of the European Community in secondary schools (see point 3.3.1.1); the teaching of modern languages (see point 2.3.6); the admission of students from other Member States to higher education institutions and the allocation of Community grants (see point 2.3.3); equal opportunities in the field of education and training for young girls (see point 2.3.7). The Danish government was the most categorical: there could be no Community action in these areas without a legal basis in the treaty. The criticism was not, moreover, limited to education, but extended to all fields situated in the 'grey zone', starting with health, for which Denmark considered that the proposals made by the Commission overstepped the limits fixed by the treaty. 'Denmark's attitude is due to that country's general position regarding application of Article 235 of the EEC Treaty, namely in respect of Community actions not explicitly provided for by the treaty. Denmark feels that this article is applicable solely to fields covered by the treaty, for which the latter does not lay down detailed provisions; but that it is not applicable to areas manifestly outside the treaty: health policy, education policy. The Danish government affirms that it is not opposed to close cooperation in these areas, but by methods other than the Community ones, namely through intergovernmental cooperation: ministers' resolutions, conventions outside the treaty' (\(^{(168)}\)).

The Education Committee continued to meet and, in March 1979, resumed discussions that had been interrupted on the communications from the Commission. The ministers for education finally agreed to hold another meeting within the Council on 27 June 1980 to discuss not a specific Commission proposal but a general progress report (\(^{(169)}\)) on the implementation of the 1976 action programme. This report was prepared by the Commission to facilitate the resumption of discussions between the ministers for education and to try to break the cooperation deadlock. However, Denmark agreed to participate only on the condition that no decisions would be taken and no Community expenditure incurred. The ministers had no problems with regard to the actual content of the actions presented in this report, but they were unable to agree when it came to their budgetary and legal repercussions. The appropriations envisaged for the period 1980–85

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\(^{(166)}\) Agence Europe, No 2565 of Thursday 23 November 1978.

\(^{(167)}\) Ibid.

\(^{(168)}\) Agence Europe, No 2933 of 21 June 1980.

\(^{(169)}\) General report from the Education Committee approved in substance by the Council and the ministers for education meeting within the Council on 27 June 1980.
represented a total of EUA 13 895 000 (European units of account), including EUA 9 000 000 for actions to promote the teaching of foreign languages in the Community (170).

Four years therefore passed without a meeting of the Education Council (its last meeting dated back to 1976). Even after the meeting of June 1980, the resumption of cooperation was very slow. Some way had to be found to break the deadlock over the education dossier, following a start that had been so promising. The Education Council met again on 22 June 1981. The issues on the agenda (education and training policy in the context of the employment situation in the Community; the effects of demographic change on education systems; academic recognition of diplomas and study periods) centred more on the link between education and employment, so as not to deviate from the concerns covered by the treaty and so as to meet current challenges. ‘We must forge further ahead with integrated education, vocational training and employment policies if any adequate response is to be made to the challenges of new technology and rapid economic and social development. It is only through continuing training that society’s problems can be resolved, because it is the only way to meet the requirements of innovation and creativity as well as greater social equality’ (171). However, it was not until July 1982 that the ‘Council and the ministers for education meeting within the Council’ (still indicating the intergovernmental component of the agreement) adopted another resolution (on the transition of young people to working life) and until June 1983 that specific conclusions were adopted on higher education (increase in mobility). Nevertheless, the non-binding texts adopted demonstrated a political resolve to pursue cooperation in the Community context.

By showing the intrinsic link between education and the objectives pursued by the treaty, in particular through reference to the continuum of education and vocational training, those responsible for education within the Commission continually campaigned for ongoing Community action in this field. The arguments they used helped to connect education to social affairs and employment. To mark this new orientation, the Commission decided in January 1981 to move education out of the Directorate-General for Research, under which it had been since January 1973, and to establish a directorate for education, vocational training and youth within the Directorate-General for Employment and Social Affairs (see point 2.6).

(170) Agence Europe, No 2940 of 2 July 1980 (new series).

(171) Statement by Yvor Richard, the then Commissioner for Employment, Social Affairs, Education and Vocational Training, at the Education Council of 22 June 1981, reported in Agence Europe, No 3163.
2.6. **The Administrative Development of Education within the European Commission: Anchoring Education in Social Affairs and Employment**

The climate at the start of the 1970s was propitious to greater involvement on the part of the European Commission in the field of education. The Hague summit of December 1969 had furthered the development of a Community with a human face. The expressed need for meetings of the ministers for education in the Community indicated increasingly obvious political expectations for Community involvement in the field of education. It was in this positive context and at the behest of the Commissioner responsible for industry and technology at the time, Altiero Spinelli (172), that the Commission started to work in the field of education, initially through a ‘Teaching and education’ group. This started off modestly, composed of four category A officials, administratively linked to the Directorate-General for Industry and Technology and placed under the direct responsibility of Commissioner Altiero Spinelli. It was the first time that education had appeared as the specific responsibility of one member of the Commission. An interservice coordination group was also created to allow the Directorates-General interested in education matters to consult each other and coordinate their actions in that sector. These two bodies were established by the Commission decision of 27 July 1971. They marked the starting point of the Commission’s administrative involvement in the field of education.

Two years later, in January 1973, with a new Commission and the arrival of three new Member States (Denmark, Ireland and the United Kingdom), education benefited for the first time from full administrative and political recognition within the Commission and had a proper status and more resources to prepare for the future. It was now an integral part of the portfolio of responsibilities of one of the new Commissioners. Ralf Dahrendorf (Germany) succeeded Altiero Spinelli. A special division for education and youth was created in the new Directorate for Education and Training in the Directorate-General for Research and Science (DG XII). This DG was then to become the Directorate-General for Research, Science and Education. Two key posts were held by British officials: Alan Bath was appointed Director of the new Directorate for Education and Training, which had twenty grade A officials, and Hywel Ceri Jones, who was to remain at the helm of these sectors for 20 years, started off in the post of Head of Division for education and youth.

1981 was an important date in education-related developments within the Commission. A decision was taken to integrate the hitherto separate divisions of education and vocational training into the same Directorate-General: that of employment, social affairs and education. This DG also managed the European Social Fund, a major Community financial instrument in the field of vocational training. This reorganisation was therefore of profound significance. Following the institutional crisis between 1978 and 1980 (see point 2.5), the actions carried out needed to be reconciled with the possibilities offered by the treaty. But the Commission also wanted to continue creating a closer link at Community level.  

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(172) See footnote 193.
between two fields often separated at national level, so as to guarantee a better and more coherent response to current issues, particularly the problem of unemployment and the training of young people. ‘The Commission’s decision to merge in 1981 the education and training departments within a single frame of social policy, thus breaking the previous sectoral link with science and research, was a direct response to the political mood of the times. Since unemployment and the need for a more active European-wide strategy for innovation in the field of technology have become the central point on the agenda of the Community’s domestic preoccupations, education has moved too from the periphery to a more strategic location in the spectrum of Community policies’ (173).

2.7. VOCATIONAL TRAINING, AN INCREASINGLY IMPORTANT COMPONENT OF ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL POLICY

In spite of the possibilities clearly offered by the treaty, cooperation developments in vocational training were initially very slow (see point 1.4), reflecting the low priority given at the time to this field at both national and Community level. It was not until July 1971 that, almost at the same time as for education, the context changed and the general outline for an activity programme in the field was finally adopted. This outline highlighted that 'economic, social, technical and educational progress in the Member States have led the experts to present training problems in new terms ... There is now greater awareness of the importance of relating education to the economy and of developing systems for post-school and continuing in-service training' ("174). This observation, which already underlined the need to develop lifelong learning, was also made shortly afterwards in the communication from the Commission of March 1974 and in the Janne report (see point 2.2). A study requested by the Commission some years later on the development of lifelong learning in Europe ("175) would provide an analysis of the underlying principles of this objective and proposals for action, particularly for young people aged between 15 and 25.

Shortly after the adoption of the guidelines in 1971 for vocational training, and in an increasingly promising context, the Council adopted a resolution on 21 January 1974 establishing a social action programme. This notable progress in the social sector was the result of the impetus given by the Heads of State or Government at the Paris summit in October 1972. The programme, the main aims of which were full employment, improved living conditions and more active involvement of the social partners, also emphasised the role of vocational training in facing up to youth unemployment, which was then considered to be a problem linked to the economic climate, and in fostering the reduction of inequalities affecting specific groups ("176). Vocational training was gradually moving away from a narrow definition and becoming more closely linked to the Community social and employment policies. In addition to this, new bodies were created to give more scope and visibility to Community action in this field. The resolution of 1974 thus provided for the creation of Cedefop (European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training) whose mission is to collect and exchange information on national vocational training systems and to contribute to the free movement of workers through efforts to harmonise training levels. This Community agency was established on 10 February 1975 ("177) and was to make an ongoing contribution towards enhancing the visibility of the vocational training sector at Community level (see point 5.3.1).

Vocational training thus gained a clearer status, especially as of the early 1980s. Unemployment in general, and particularly youth unemployment, continued to be a core political concern at all levels. In April 1983, the European Parliament held a special session on this problem. In June of the same year, on the initiative
of the Commission, the ministers for education and those responsible for employment and social affairs held a joint meeting and recognised that the problems which had given rise to the resolution of 1976 on the transition of young people to working life had been further exacerbated by a worsening economic situation. Therefore, given the increasingly difficult economic and social context, vocational training was recognised more as the ‘instrument of an active employment policy designed to promote economic and social development’ ([179]). The Council resolution of July 1983 concerning vocational training policies in the European Community in the 1980s ([180]) marked a real turning point in the approach taken and in the importance attached to this field. It highlighted the need to do everything possible to ensure that all young people benefited from vocational training and initial work experience.

Moreover, the link with education became ever stronger, particularly in the context of the implementation of programmes concerning the transition to working life (see point 2.3.4) and the development of work-linked training ([181]), aspects already promoted by the Commission in July 1977 in its recommendation to the Member States on vocational preparation ([182]). Vocational preparation and guidance and the improvement of basic skills were considered to be essential measures in the fight against the growing unemployment among the under-25s. This was an important target group for Community action. In 1984, 75% of the European Social Fund was used to help young people: emphasis was laid on generating employment for them ([183]), and the exchange programme for young workers was renewed in 1979 and then in 1984. On an annual basis, 1,400 young workers aged between 18 and 28 years participated in the programme.

An examination of cooperation in the field of vocational training reveals the same implementing instruments (non-binding texts, resolutions, etc.) and the same operational approach (exchanges of information and good practices, pilot projects, study visits, mobility) as in the field of education. Thus, even though the terms of the EEC Treaty (common policy) might suggest the development of large-scale action at Community level, the cooperation approach chosen was flexible and non-binding. Harmonisation of vocational training structures and systems was not, in fact, the objective pursued, and emphasis was also laid on respect for the diversity of national approaches. ‘By adapting the 1963 principles to modern needs, the resolution developed vocational training into a more sophisticated instrument of labour market policy, as well as a tool for promoting social aims’ ([184]). These resolutions made it possible to define a framework for action at both national and Community level, and helped to bring Member States closer together in acknowledgement of their ever growing number of shared concerns, as in the field of education. However, thanks to the European Social Fund, considerably more resources were allocated to vocational training than to education.

Apart from the abovementioned actions (transition of young people to working life, work-linked training), the adaptation of workers to new technologies was also one of the priority concerns ([185]), as in the field of education. The impetus was given by the European Council of Copenhagen (on 3 and 4 December 1982), which underlined the importance of preparing young people for new technological needs.

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([180]) Ibid.

([181]) Council resolution of 18 December 1979 on linked work and training for young persons, OJ C 1, 3.1.1980.


([183]) Council resolution of 23 January 1984 on the promotion of employment for young people.


The issue of equal opportunities likewise continued to be at the heart of the objectives targeted for Community action. In 1984, around 30% of those who benefited from vocational training measures under the European Social Fund were women (\textsuperscript{186}). Access to vocational guidance and training, with no gender-linked discrimination, was thus one of the fundamental aspects of the directive of 1976 on the equal treatment of men and women (\textsuperscript{187}). The action programme on the promotion of equal opportunities for women (1982–85) also stressed the importance of vocational guidance and training and was to lead to actions that encouraged, among other things, the diversification of vocational choices for young girls and their access to new technologies.

At the start of the 1980s, cooperation in the field of education and vocational training was thus developing rapidly. Whereas in the period from 1976–82, attention had focused strongly on the links between education and social policy, especially in developing measures to combat growing unemployment, in the past two years, a new and growing emphasis has been given to the contribution of education and training to the task of modernising the economies and of exploiting the potential of the new technologies\textsuperscript{188}.


1985-92

From the launching of the Community programmes to the inclusion of education in the treaty
From the launching of the Community programmes to the inclusion of education in the treaty

3.1. YEARS OF CHANGE FOR EDUCATION AND TRAINING

3.1.1. Revitalising European integration and political union: a citizens’ Europe

From the mid-1980s onwards, new and important steps were taken, as a result of which education was to find its place in the treaty, alongside vocational training. In general terms, the 1980s were marked by a desire to revitalise political cooperation and union between the Member States of the European Community. The need to push ahead with European integration became even more urgent after the fall of the Berlin wall in November 1989. This was the major event of the decade, marking the start of the historic reconciliation between eastern and western Europe, and the reconciliation of Germany itself (\textsuperscript{190}).

At the European Council in London on 26 and 27 November 1981, Germany, which was represented by its Foreign Minister, Hans-Dietrich Genscher, had already proposed strengthening political cooperation by, among other things, incorporating cultural cooperation into the Community’s powers. Like the previous initiatives (\textsuperscript{191}), the proposal failed, largely because of the British veto. The difficult discussions on this proposal finally led to the adoption of a simple solemn declaration by the Stuttgart European Council on 19 June 1983 (\textsuperscript{192}). Cultural aspects were nevertheless retained as part of the declaration, with emphasis being placed on stepping up cooperation between universities and developing the teaching of languages. At the same time, the European Parliament took the initiative in 1982 to revitalise political integration in Europe. This led to the adoption by the assembly, on 14 February 1984, of a draft European Union Treaty, the ‘Spinelli draft’, named after its architect, Alterio Spinelli (\textsuperscript{193}). Although this ambitious project did not come to fruition, it is interesting to note that the document included a chapter on ‘policy for society’, which included social policy, regional policy, environmental policy, research policy, cultural policy and education policy.

These various ventures and the resulting discussions at the highest level helped to make decision-makers and the public aware that the process of deepening Community integration through political union and the revision of the treaties would soon have to include areas such as education and culture. The Spinelli draft influenced the events that followed, in particular the decision of the Fontainebleau European Council in June 1984 to set up an ad hoc committee (Adonnino Committee) in order to ‘promote and strengthen the image projected by the Community to its citizens and the rest of the world’. The committee’s report was adopted by the Milan European Council in June 1985. It gave high priority
to education and training, stressing the importance of the teaching of foreign languages and the need to lend new impetus to the European dimension in education. The report indicated that a greater effort should be made with regard to cooperation and mobility between universities by setting up a 'European system of transferable academic credits' throughout the Community and by ensuring the academic recognition of qualifications. It proposed voluntary work for young people and exchanges between schools. Although the Adonnino report was not binding, its adoption at the highest level was a political act which did a lot to raise awareness of the importance of these areas for European integration.

By adopting the Adonnino report, the Milan European Council brought to the fore not only the fundamental need to involve European citizens in building the Community but also the role which education and training systems and Community cooperation could play in this regard. In 1989, on the eve of the elections to the European Parliament, the Member States and the Commission continued to be concerned about the lack of public interest in Community issues. The Commission therefore provided the foreign ministers of the 12 Member States with a supporting document for the electoral campaign. The document set out facts and arguments concerning the effects of Community action on European citizens (**Note**). In particular, it referred to measures in the field of education and culture, such as the Comett, Erasmus, Lingua and 'Youth for Europe' programmes. Twenty years after the Milan
European Council, the involvement of European citizens in building the Community continues to be a major concern, as evidenced by the attempt to address these issues by drafting a 'Constitution for Europe' through a Convention and preparing a Constitutional Treaty.

3.1.2. **Higher education is incorporated into the treaty**

1985 was a year marked by important events: the arrival of Jacques Delors as President of the European Commission, the relaunching of the European social dialogue, the presentation of the White Paper on the completion of the internal market, the report on a citizens' Europe, the launching of the Intergovernmental Conference on institutional reform, etc. The Court of Justice of the European Communities also took a decision in 1985 which would have a significant impact on Community cooperation in the field of education and on its future development. This was the Gravier judgment, which was handed down on 13 February 1985. Françoise Gravier, a French student, wanted to study cartoon art in Belgium at a non-university higher education institution, which laid down different admission rules for foreign students. Invoking the principle of non-discrimination, she asked that she be granted an exemption. However, this was refused and she took the case to court; the case was then referred to the European Court of Justice. The Court ruled that all students should be able to undertake vocational training courses in other Member States under the same conditions as nationals of those countries, and that there could be no discrimination in this area on the grounds of nationality because it ran counter to Article 7 of the treaty. By adopting this stance, the Court placed a very wide interpretation on the concept of 'vocational training', basing the wording of the judgment on the terms of the decision of 1963 (see point 1.4) concerning the objectives of the common policy on vocational training: 'to enable every person to acquire the technical knowledge and skill necessary to pursue a given occupation and to reach the highest possible level of training, whilst encouraging, particularly as regards young persons, intellectual and physical advancement, civic education and physical development'.

Comments by W. J. Deetman, Dutch Minister for Education and Science and President of the EEC's Council of Education Ministers from January to June 1986, at the Hague conference of 16 May 1986 on 'The European Community and education — Ten years of cooperation'.

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I merely stress the dynamic effect of the Treaty, and the fact that it is difficult to determine the limits of its applicability. I feel, however, that we should not be so much asking ourselves what can or cannot or ought to be done under the terms of the Treaty, but rather the more positive question: 'How can education contribute to the realization of the Treaty's social, economic and political objectives' (m).
The Court stated that the legislation adopted hitherto indicated that ‘any form of education which prepares for a qualification for a particular profession, trade or employment or which provides the necessary skills for such a profession, trade or employment is vocational training, whatever the age and the level of training of the pupils or students, even if the training programme includes an element of general education’. The Court therefore interpreted the term ‘vocational training’
in such a way as to include higher education (\textsuperscript{196}). This judgment was to change the course of events as regards Community cooperation in the field of education. By placing a non-restrictive interpretation on the treaty, the Court enlarged its scope to include higher education, while pointing out that the Member States had exclusive competence in this area and were responsible for implementing measures decided jointly.

The Court states that higher education forms part of vocational training and hence that decisions concerning Community support for cooperation between Member States may be taken solely on the basis of Article 128 (\textsuperscript{197}), excluding all binding acts, such as regulations or directives. It thus makes it possible for the Community to take action in a way which goes much further than the pilot actions defined by the education ministers in the resolution of 1976 (\textsuperscript{198}). As these new legal opportunities arose at a time when education and training issues were viewed favourably, the Commission was able to propose the adoption of major programmes (Comett, Erasmus, PETRA, Lingua and FORCE) through Council decisions — acts which had significantly more legal force than the resolution of February 1976, as a result of which the first action programme was launched. ‘A decision shall be binding in its entirety upon those to whom it is addressed.’ (\textsuperscript{199}).

Just as the position taken by the Court was to have a significant impact on cooperation in the field of education, it was also to have a major impact on the field of vocational training. By expanding the definition of vocational training to include higher education, the Court clarified the scope of Article 128 and the powers it covered. However, that article allowed for a ‘common policy’ to be developed and legislative acts to be adopted by simple majority. The legal force of Article 128 had not been exploited in full until then because the European Community had little interest at first in vocational training policies (see point 1.4). As vocational training, like the field of education, became more important from the 1980s onwards, the Member States began to worry that full use was being made of Article 128 and that legal obligations were being imposed on them as regards not only education but also vocational training. After the adoption of the Comett II programme (see point 3.2.1), for which the Commission proposed Article 128 as the sole legal basis, a number of Member States felt that the new situation created by the Court’s judgments was likely to undermine their national prerogatives and powers. So when the treaty came to be revised again in 1991, they decided that substantial amendments should be made to Article 128 (see point 3.4.1).

\textsuperscript{196} In the Blaizot judgment (24/86), the Court took a final decision regarding the inclusion of university education in vocational training, within the meaning of Article 128 of the Treaty of Rome.

\textsuperscript{197} Article 128 of the Treaty of Rome concerns common policy on vocational training.


\textsuperscript{199} Article 189 of the treaty.
3.1.3. **The Commission prepares for the future through discussion and consultation**

In the late 1980s and early 1990s, the Commission decided to launch in-depth discussions on Community cooperation in the field of education and training. The time devoted to these discussions and the consultation of interested parties proved to be very valuable. The Commission was able to take stock of the action taken until then on the basis of the resolution of February 1976 (see point 2.3) and to outline how cooperation would develop in future, in view of the fact that the Community was constantly evolving. At a crucial time when every opportunity had to be taken to ensure that education was incorporated into the treaty, it was also necessary to revive the interest of decision-makers and the public in education and training and to raise the awareness and harness the efforts of the partners and networks already involved in cooperation and of those who might get involved.

Two types of discussion documents were provided by the Commission. The most important of those were two communications to the Council in 1988 and 1989 (\(^{(*)}\)), which placed the future contribution of cooperation in the field of education in the context of the implementation of the Single European Act (which entered into force on 1 July 1987) and of its main objectives, namely the completion of the internal market by the end of 1992 and the economic and social cohesion of the Community. The communication issued in 1989 extended the one issued in 1988 and proposed medium-term priority strategies: free movement of persons/recognition of qualifications for vocational and academic purposes; initial and continuing vocational training; development of higher education; adapting to technological change; improving the quality of education systems; language teaching; youth exchanges. In its report of 17 February 1989 (\(^{201}\)), the Parliament supported the approaches proposed by the Commission.

The Commission’s objective was clearly to refocus efforts on the fundamental objectives of cooperation, give priority to long-term action and avoid the fragmentation of programmes and initiatives. Priority was given to greater consistency and impact of the measures taken, which, in the Commission’s view, would have to move up a gear in the period up to 1992 (\(^{202}\)). Respect for the diversity of national educational traditions and the subsidiarity of Community action were reaffirmed as the major principles which had to underpin cooperation and make it possible to work in a climate of mutual confidence based on a clear distribution of responsibilities.

By adopting, in October 1989 (\(^{203}\)), the major objectives of cooperation for the next five years, the education ministers approved most of the measures proposed, together with the objectives and principles set out by the Commission in its communication. This political consensus was important because it refocused the objectives of cooperation on five areas: the development of a multicultural Europe, of mobility, of training for all, of skills and of a Europe open to the world. These were supposed to help to ‘draw the states closer together in the field of education and training’. The Community’s priority at that time was to achieve the completion of the internal market and create an open area in which persons, goods, capital and services could move freely. However, the creation of an open area of education...
and training was not yet on the agenda. The ministers preferred the less binding concept of a ‘Europe of knowledge and cultures’ [204].

In the wake of these political positions and prior to the adoption of a significant reform of the treaty, the Commission published three memoranda in 1991. These were the subject of wide-ranging consultations in 1992 at all levels, through conferences and seminars, which gave rise to a large number of contributions which were published by the Commission in summary form. They helped to raise the awareness of decision-makers and the education sector about the challenges facing the Member States and the Community after completion of the internal market in three key areas: open and distance learning [205], higher education [206] and vocational training [207]. With these three memoranda, the objective of the Commission was not to make radically new proposals, but to highlight the key areas for action, which had already been the focus of cooperation on frequent occasions; however, cooperation had not gone far enough to achieve the desired impact.

Improving participation in and access to higher education was considered a priority area of action for the future, together with recognition of qualifications and periods of study through the ECTS system (see point 3.3.2.2), partnership with the business sector, lifelong learning, open and distance learning and the European dimension. The vocational training sector had to cope with an increasing deficit in terms of qualifications and strengthen the role of SMEs. It was necessary to boost investment in training, improve the quality of training and ensure the transparency of qualifications. Open and distance learning was at the heart of a policy which sought to expand access to lifelong learning, particularly for remote regions and the least favoured regions. The role of this type of learning had already been recognised, in particular by the European Parliament, which issued a specific resolution on the subject in 1987 [208]. The objectives set out in the Commission memorandum included improving the quality of this type of learning and public access to it, as well as networks operating in this area.

These wide-ranging consultations were valuable both to the Community and nationally because they allowed those involved to review the action which had been taken until then and to consider the European dimension of the challenges identified and common solutions. They undoubtedly helped to put cooperation in perspective and lend it new impetus. It was against this background that the Commission used the debates and their results to prepare the next generation of Community programmes on education, training and youth. In fact, as most of them had run their course by the end of 1994, the Commission decided to rationalise them (see point 4.3), in line with its communication of June 1989 and its memorandum of 1990 [209], in order to improve the consistency and impact of the action taken.

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[204] Ibid.
[209] Conclusions of the Council of the ministers of education meeting within the European Community, 11 June 1992 on measures for developing the European dimension in higher education (92/C 336/04).
[211] Council resolution of 11 June 1993 on education and vocational training in the 1990s (93/C 188/02).
3.1.4. Role of education and training in the social dialogue

When he became President of the European Commission in 1985, Jacques Delors was keen to relaunch the social dialogue, which was at a standstill. On 31 January 1985, he convened a meeting of the social partners (**) in Brussels (Val Duchesse) and asked them to develop a new social dialogue, with a view to the completion of the internal market. The Single European Act supported progress in this area: the social dialogue formed part of the treaty's social provisions from that point onwards (**).

The social dialogue was also launched once again on 12 January 1989 (***) at a meeting of the social partners organised by the Commission. Education and training were among the priorities identified. A steering group composed of the chairpersons and general secretaries of UNICE, the CEEP and the ETUC was set up in order to lend permanent impetus to the social dialogue. It decided on two areas of work, one of which related to lifelong learning. A specific working party was then established, whose work led to the adoption, on 26 January 1990, of a joint opinion on education and training. This opinion emphasised the importance of high-quality basic education and initial vocational training which would be accessible to all young people and would lead to recognised qualifications conducive to employment. It encouraged links between schools and enterprises and stressed that steps should be taken to make vocational training more effective, that disadvantaged categories of workers should be retrained and that the social partners should take part in the Community programmes on training.

Three other opinions were subsequently adopted on the European area of freedom of professional movement (13 February 1990), the transition of young people from school to adult and working life (6 November 1990) and ways of facilitating the broadest possible effective access to training opportunities (21 September 1991). The latter opinion was particularly important. Most of the recommendations made in the opinion were included in the recommendation on access to continuing vocational training, which was adopted by the Council on 30 June 1993 (***) and which marked a turning point in the approach to cooperation in the field of vocational training, after Article 127 was added to the treaty (see point 3.4). On this basis, the Commission supported the implementation of a social dialogue support system, whereby the initiatives of the social partners to develop vocational training, particularly in companies and at branch level, were analysed, which resulted in the publication of two compendia (in 1993 and 1996 (***)). The opinion of 28 July 1993 clarified the position of the social partners regarding the action taken by the Community and its future role in the field of education and training, including the role of the social partners. In their opinion, the social partners argued for greater consistency in the Community measures financed through the European Social Fund (ESF). The mandate of the working party on education and training was renewed in October 1992 and July 1994.

The social dialogue took a leap forward on 31 October 1991, when the social partners concluded an agreement which explicitly opened the way for relations based on agreement at European level. This furthered the cause of the social protocol, which
was adopted in Maastricht by 11 Member States one year later. It was not until the
Lisbon European Council in March 2000 that the social dialogue was given another
boost, also in the field of education and training (see point 5.1.2).

3.1.5. Strengthening education and training
within the European Commission:
a separate directorate-general

In 1973, education had been included within the remit of the Directorate-General
for Research, Science and Education; in 1981 it had been incorporated, alongside
vocational training and youth, into a specific directorate within the Directorate-
General for Employment and Social Affairs (see point 2.6).

In 1989, when a new Commission was appointed under Jacques Delors, these areas
were separated from social affairs and employment and achieved autonomous status
and a higher profile with the creation, in March, of the Task Force for Human Resources.
This decision was buoyed by increasing support for Community involvement in these
areas, by the recognition of their role in promoting economic and social cohesion
in the Community and, above all, by a significant increase in activities as a result
of the development of the programmes.

The task force was subsequently given the status of a directorate-general in January
1995, when a new Commission took office and after the entry into force of the
Maastricht Treaty in November 1993. It had the same responsibilities and became
Directorate-General (XXII) for Education, Training and Youth. The administrative
strengthening at regular intervals of the education, training and youth fields within
the European Commission was supported by the European Parliament (219). This was
in line with the Commission's desire to make the role of European citizens in
European integration more visible within the Commission's structure. This trend
continued when the Commission was reorganised in 1999. Culture was added to
the remit of Directorate-General XXII and it became the Directorate-General for
Education and Culture (EAC).

[219] In its report (A3-0139/92)
of 27 March 1992 on education
and training policy in the
run-up to 1993 (rapporteur:
Ms Anna M. A. Hermans),
the Parliament asked the
Commission to consider
creating a new directorate-
general for education,
vocational training and youth
in order to meet the challenges
of the internal market.
3.2. The Emergence of the Major Community Programmes on Education and Training

In a similar fashion to the major RDT programmes, the programmes on education and training provide practical demonstrations to the public of the meaning of the Community dimensions and the value of joint efforts. They also have an important multiplier effect on the free movement of ideas and people and in increasing a sense of partnership in shared endeavours.

Through the opportunities they offer for young people to meet and to learn from each other, they serve to enhance mutual understanding of cultural differences and also to counteract xenophobia by giving young people a window on the wider world.

The legal opportunities provided by the Court of Justice with the judgment in the Gravier case (see point 3.1.2) bore fruit very quickly. As it had done in other areas, the European Commission proposed, as early as 1986, the introduction of the specific Community programmes on education and training (Comett, Erasmus, PETRA, Lingua, FORCE). They were going to 'change the scale of cooperation and its potential penetration in the different Member States' (222). 'A qualitative leap has been made. After 10 years of “tinkering” which, notwithstanding its usefulness, has had very little impact, we have entered a phase which more closely reflects the aspirations of all those who recognise that the Community does not simply have a commercial purpose' (223).

Although the Court's decision made it possible for programmes like this to be developed, they were based primarily on the action taken hitherto. Their purpose was twofold: economic (providing the necessary human resources to ensure that the potential of the internal market was exploited to the full) and sociocultural ( bringing Europe closer to its citizens and giving the Community the human face it lacked). Other than initial and vocational training, these programmes focused largely on higher education and mobility, mainly because of the inherent limitations of the new legal avenues which had been opened.

The conditions were favourable to the introduction of these programmes. The Single European Act stressed the need to ensure the economic and social cohesion of the Community, while also completing the internal market. Education and training for European citizens thus became key areas which should be addressed alongside the efforts to achieve that objective. With the adoption of the Single Act, the treaty was expanded to include new areas. Although education still did not have a place in the treaty, research and technological development (RTD), as related areas, were included, alongside environmental affairs and regional policy — areas in which the Community had already been active for several years (almost 20 years in the case
of the Regional Fund), but had not been recognised in the treaty. It was from this point onwards that the Commission began to adopt multiannual framework programmes on research and development, which also focused on training and the development of human resources, human capital and mobility. Because universities played a significant role, the programmes also helped to promote European cooperation in the field of higher education. With the adoption of the Single European Act, the priority objectives became the completion of the internal market and the free movement of persons, goods, capital and services. The question of the mobility of students and teachers became more important, particularly in a context in which discussions within the Community had brought to the fore the question of developing a citizens’ Europe (see point 3.1.1).

However, the fact that circumstances were favourable to the development of measures on a larger scale in the field of education and training did not mean that the adoption of the programmes proposed by the Commission was going to be easy. Only Comett, the first of the programmes, was adopted under exceptional circumstances (see point 3.2.1). For the adoption of the programmes which followed, the Member States had much more considerable misgivings, particularly as regards the legal basis for these measures and the budget. However, all the programmes proposed were adopted and their implementation resulted in a qualitative and quantitative leap forward for Community cooperation, allowing it to move on from its experimental stage. The programmes became more diverse and were focused on specific issues, to better target the relevant measures and the results required. The Commission proposed these programmes one after the other within a very short space of time (between 1985 and 1990), thus showing that it wanted to speed up its action in key areas of cooperation by making the most of the new legal opportunities available and doing so without delay. Although ‘differences’ still existed with regard to legal matters, the Community appeared to have moved far beyond the institutional ‘crisis’ of only a few years before (see point 2.5).

The adoption of the programmes on the basis of Council decisions, legal acts which established stronger links between the Member States (\(\text{\textsuperscript{[224]}}\)) as part of a structured process of cooperation, was another important step forward. A Council decision made it possible to define the objectives of action, the target groups and precise budgets. The budgets bore no comparison to the levels of funding allocated previously for the implementation of the Resolution of February 1976. For the period 1990–94, the programmes implemented (Comett, Erasmus, PETRA, FORCE (\(\text{\textsuperscript{[225]}}\)), Lingua, Tempus) represented more than ECU 1 billion, whereas the appropriations planned for the period 1980–85 for the implementation of the first action programme amounted to barely ECU 14 million (see point 2.5).

The Community added value and originality of the programmes were primarily due to the fact that they facilitated the development of multilateral cooperation between a wide range of institutions and partners, and transnational cooperation in three main areas:

• transnational networks allowing individuals and organisations faced with the same problems to meet, share their experiences and disseminate good practice;
• mobility and exchange schemes enabling teaching staff and students/pupils to gain practical experience in another Member State and enabling education and training institutions to develop sustainable cooperative ventures;

• transnational joint projects, defined by the beneficiaries themselves and enabling them to develop innovative strategies and lend a European dimension to education and training content.

This practical approach 'is the most effective form of gentle restructuring or convergence at Community level in an area which remains the responsibility of the Member States, i.e. the content and structure of education and training' (226).

As the Commission pointed out in its report of May 1993 giving an overview of the results of these programmes, they had attracted a great deal of interest from those active in this area. The very positive grassroots response to the Community programmes indicates that the Commission has succeeded in tapping a vast fund of interest and goodwill towards trans-European collaboration in this area in many institutions throughout the education and training system. Indeed, achievements in this area are due in large measure to the enthusiasm and commitment which individual staff members, students, employers, trade unions, and policy-makers in the different Member States have shown' (227).

Erasmus, Comett and Lingua helped to promote cooperation between universities more than any other measure taken until then at European and international levels. By acting as a catalyst and complementing the role of the Member States, these programmes helped the Member States to promote the mobility of their students by enabling them to undertake a recognised period of study in another Member State. In the early 1990s, it was predicted that approximately 100 000 students would take part in mobility schemes under the Community programmes and that more than half of all universities and higher education establishments would be involved in developing joint programmes (228). In 1993, it was noted that more than 260 000 students and people undergoing training, approximately 18 000 young people and more than 8 500 teachers and trainers had benefited from the programmes since they had been launched (229). An important aspect of the added value of these programmes was that they encouraged a balanced form of geographical mobility between countries which would not have occurred naturally if it had not been required by the Community. It was noted, for example, that five years after the launch of the Erasmus programme the number of foreign students on mobility schemes who were studying in Portugal and the number of Portuguese students on mobility schemes abroad had increased tenfold (230).
The first major Community programmes in education, training and youth

University–enterprise cooperation
Comett

Student mobility and university cooperation
Erasmus

Languages in Europe
Lingua

Initial training for young people and youth exchanges
PETRA and ‘Youth for Europe’

Methods
• Mobility and exchange schemes
• European projects
• Transnational networks

University cooperation with the countries of central and eastern Europe
Tempus

Continuing vocational training
FORCE, Eurotechnet
Comett stands for ‘Community programme in education and training for technologies’.

In total, 75% of the enterprises which took part in projects under the Comett programme were small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs).

Council decision of 24 July 1986 adopting the programme on cooperation between universities and enterprises regarding training in the field of technology (Comett), OJ L 222, 8.8.1986.

Council decision of 28 February 1984 concerning a European programme for research and development in information technologies (Esprit).

The Erasmus and FORCE programmes also stress this dimension (e.g. for adults as part of the FORCE programme).

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Switzerland, Norway, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Sweden, Finland and Austria – the last three countries joined the European Union on 1 January 1995.

3.2.1. Comett (231): university–enterprise cooperation

During the second half of the 1980s, when conditions were favourable, the first Community programme in the field of education was being developed. This was the Comett programme, which emerged as a result of the communication from the Commission of January 1984 on technological and social change. Based on cooperation between universities and enterprises (SMEs in particular)(232) for training in the field of new technologies, Comett I was adopted on 24 July 1986 (233). Its aim was to strengthen training in advanced technologies and develop highly qualified human resources in order to maintain a high level of competitiveness in European industry. ‘It was conceived quite deliberately as an education and training counterpart to the Esprit programme (234) in research and development’ (235). The second phase of the programme (Comett II) (236) enlarged the programme’s scope to include innovation and technology transfer.

The European network of university–enterprise training partnerships (UETPs) and student placements in companies were at the heart of the programme. As a sector which was considered essential for the development and opening of education and training systems, open and distance learning became one of the programme’s priority areas for action (237); 30% of the programme’s budget was devoted to this area at that time (238). The projects which received funding promoted the development of specialised transnational networks and innovative projects (e.g. development of courses/programmes geared to the needs of SMEs). Close cooperation was established with the Community programme DELTA (239), which focused on developing learning in Europe through the use of advanced technologies. Comett was the first programme to be extended, in 1990, to the countries of the European Free Trade Association (EFTA) (240). The activities under the Comett programme were subsequently incorporated into the new Leonardo da Vinci programme on vocational training (see point 4.3.1).

The Comett programme marked an important step forward with regard to cooperation, not only because it was the first programme of its kind in the field of education and training, having been allocated a budget which bore no resemblance to the situation prevailing hitherto, but also because of the conditions in which the second
phase of the programme was adopted. Taking full advantage of the judgments handed down by the Court of Justice (\textsuperscript{[241]}), the Commission proposed that the second phase of the programme (1990–94) should be adopted on the basis of Article 128 only, by simple majority and not, as for Comett I, on the basis of Articles 128 and 235 (\textsuperscript{[242]}) and a unanimous vote. The programme was adopted on 16 December 1988 in the manner proposed by the Commission. The various stages which led to the adoption of the Comett programme need to be described in detail (see box) because they make it possible to understand the extraordinary conditions under which the first programme was developed and prepared the ground for the programmes that followed (Erasmus, PETRA, Lingua). They also made it possible to assess the role of those taking part in the negotiations and, in particular, the key role played by the Commission.

Comett I (1987–89), which was granted a budget of ECU 45 million, provided funding for over 1 350 projects. Thanks to Comett I, 125 UETPs were set up and more than 4 100 students completed a placement in a company in another Member State; 1 300 training guides were developed and used by more than 90 000 people. The training activities affected more than 100 000 people; involving 4 500 companies and 1 400 universities and higher education establishments. Comett II (1990–94), with a budget of ECU 200 million, provided funding for 205 UETPs (in the EU and EFTA countries), 31 300 student placements and 2 000 training guides used by more than 200 000 people (\textsuperscript{[243]}).

**THE ADOPTION OF THE COMETT PROGRAMME: THE FIRST OF THE COMMUNITY PROGRAMMES ON EDUCATION AND TRAINING**

**STATEMENT (\textsuperscript{[244]})**

As the first of the Community action programmes in the field of education and training to be adopted, Comett represented a real change of pace and a change of approach in the Commission’s policy with regard to the development of action in these areas. The origins of the Comett programme can be traced back to the communication ‘Technological and social change’ presented by the European Commission at the start of the French Presidency in January 1984. The Commission felt it was important to strengthen cooperation between universities and enterprises so that university training, and more particularly tertiary education, would incorporate the new skills which were required by those technologies and were thus more appropriate to the requirements of companies’ needs. So why not encourage cooperative ventures, if not partnerships, between companies and universities in order to promote exchanges between students, teachers and company managers? Why not also promote cooperation between the two so that training content included these technologies, especially in new areas of development?

It was in this communication that the concept of ‘university–enterprise training partnerships’ (UETPs) was mentioned for the first time. Once Comett was

\[\textsuperscript{[241]}\] In the Gravier and Blaizot cases (see point 3.1.2).

\[\textsuperscript{[242]}\] ‘If action by the Community should prove necessary to attain, in the course of the operation of the common market, one of the objectives of the Community and this Treaty has not provided the necessary powers, the Council shall, acting unanimously on a proposal from the Commission and after consulting the European Parliament, take the appropriate measures.’ (Article 235 of the EEC Treaty).

\[\textsuperscript{[243]}\] Source: European Commission, Cooperation in education in the EU (1976–1994), Studies No 5. The budget figures are those set out in the decisions establishing the programme.

\[\textsuperscript{[244]}\] Statement by André Kirchberger, member of the steering group (see point on ‘Methodology and content’).
launched in 1986, these were at the heart of the programme and served to enhance all parts of it. At the beginning of June 1984, the Standing Committee on Employment unanimously approved the conclusions of the French Presidency. A few days later, after a very successful debate within the Council of Education Ministers, the Irish Minister set out the priorities for his Presidency (second half of 1984) and proposed that a conference be organised in Galway at the end of the year on the subject of cooperation between universities and enterprises.

At the beginning of January 1985, Peter Sutherland became the Member of the Commission responsible for social affairs and employment (and hence also for education and training, which formed part of DG V). As a Member of the new Commission headed by Jacques Delors, he was appointed to the post a year before Spain and Portugal joined the European Community. He very quickly informed the Commission’s services that the conclusions of the Galway conference should be translated into action and that this was one of his priorities. The mandate of the Delors Commission began at that time, and took on practical form a few months later with the launch of the Milan Intergovernmental Conference. This was to result in the Single European Act of 1987, the Adonnino report on a citizens’ Europe, the White Paper on completion of the internal market and the ‘Cockfield’ report, named after Lord Cockfield, one of the Members of the European Commission.

But how to move forward? This was an even more important issue, given that a recent ‘interinstitutional agreement’ adopted by the Council, the European Parliament and the Commission placed the Commission under an obligation to use a ‘basic regulation’ in order to put forward a new initiative. In other words, it was required to base all new proposals (e.g. to launch a Community action programme) on one of the strong instruments contained in the treaty, more specifically on a ‘decision’. This period — from January to July 1985 — was marked by close cooperation between the Commission’s services (DG V/C) and the cabinet, whose role was to give encouragement and guidance, provide corrections and proposals, and make amendments. In other words, normal working methods prevailed. In this area too, it was a case of devising everything from scratch. In the case of the UETPs, one approach was to mention them in a communication from the Commission to the Council, another to make a proposal for a decision describing their objectives, explaining how they worked, their status and their methods of financing, etc. Sectoral UETPs were also considered — these would, of course, cover companies and universities focusing on the same skills areas. But why not also have regional UETPs, i.e. which covered the universities, enterprises, professional bodies and social partners in the same region.

Of course, two important, if not essential, points had still to be settled regarding the proposal for a decision before ‘going up to the Commission’, i.e. the legal basis and the budget allocation:
• With regard to the legal basis as such, it was decided to combine Articles 128 and 235 of the treaty: Article 128 because it made explicit reference to a ‘common vocational training policy’, Article 235 insofar as it allowed the Commission to propose an action ‘necessary to attain, in the course of the operation of the common market, one of the objectives of the Community and this Treaty has not provided the necessary powers...’ — unanimity in the Council was required.

• Budget allocation: for the first time in the field of education and training, it was not enough to rely on the appropriations adopted annually by the budget authority, i.e. the European Parliament; it was necessary to set out the budget allocation required for all the measures proposed throughout the programme as a whole, i.e. for three years (1986–88). It is fair to say that it was the voluntarism, if not the audacity, of the architects of the Comett programme, in particular Peter Sutherland and his cabinet, which led them to brush aside the doubts of services ill-acustomed to dealing with millions of units of account and obtain from the Commission an agreement on an estimated amount of ECU 85 million — i.e. almost 15 times the annual budget for all the activities of DG V/C.

The Commission's proposal now had to be accepted by the Council. This happened in less than three months — the first time this had ever occurred. Everything started at the beginning of September 1985 with the Council's Working Group on Social Questions, more specifically on the initiative of the Secretariat-General of the Council and the Presidency. This was an ‘ad hoc’ group, with each Member State being at liberty to send whoever it wanted as ‘backup’ for its social affairs attaché. This special ad hoc mixed working group examined the proposal in less than two and a half months: at no time was the Commission placed in difficulty; at no time did the Working Group on Social Questions try to ‘trap’ the Commission’s representatives — and it is open to question whether the haste with which this proposal was drawn up and adopted may have left a number of matters unanswered.

Finally, the Council held its meeting — in December 1985. In the Council, too, the discussions took place quickly and were successful. Of course, a unanimous decision had to be taken (Article 235), and the budget allocation announced by the Commission (ECU 85 million) seemed excessive, particularly to the ‘big’ countries (at least to France, Germany and the United Kingdom). Negotiations were heated and were conducted mainly during the ministers’ lunch break. An amount was agreed on, together with a few other ‘additions’. Everything was agreed in just under an hour (ECU 60 million) but with an ad referendum agreement from Germany — an agreement which everyone in the room thought would be lifted in the days to come (in fact, it took six months, until June 1986, and multiple negotiations at all levels for the ‘Education’ Council to finalise its agreement and decide on a sum of ‘only’ ECU 45 million).
The history of the Comett programme is exemplary from the point of view of both the dynamics of development and the programme's operational content. The fact that the services responsible, the Commissioner and his cabinet, then the Commission as a whole 'took the plunge' and proposed a programme as ambitious as this one was based on a feeling that the time had come to take action to follow up the Esprit programme at a time when conditions were favourable under the new Commission headed by Jacques Delors. Historians would note that the dynamics which prevailed when the Comett proposal was drawn up and adopted were repeated three years later when Comett II was launched.

Having been encouraged by various judgments handed down by the Court of Justice, which took the view that higher education could be considered as vocational training, the Commission proposed that Comett II be based solely on Article 128 of the Treaty (thus discarding Article 235). In other words, it proposed that it be adopted by the Member States by simple majority, i.e. seven Member States out of twelve for a programme lasting four years with an estimated budget allocation of ECU 250 million.

No one will forget the long discussions in the Council which started early in the afternoon under the chairmanship of the Greek Minister of Labour (Mr Yanimatas). Each of the delegates gave their views not once or twice but three times in turn, and still the same obstacles arose, mainly because some ministers thought that the budget allocation was too high, and others that it was too low: the ministers chatted privately, interrupted the meeting, made telephone calls to their capital cities, proposed compromises, examined them and rejected them. Slowly, the tension rose, some fearing that the meeting would founder and others hoping that an agreement would be reached. Then, finally, the moment came, as unexpected as it was logical: the President of the Council asked the delegates to vote on the text. Only one matter — the budget allocation — remained to be settled. This was not only a vote on an allocation of ECU 200 million but a vote by simple majority. As the Member States' representatives sat round the table in alphabetical order, Belgium was the first country to vote: and it voted in favour. Without going into the details of the vote here, suffice it to say that the 'small' countries took it upon themselves that evening to oppose the three 'big' countries. Comett was thus carried solely on the basis of Article 128 — and this was to be the first and only time it was used as the sole legal basis for a decision.

3.2.2. Erasmus (**): university cooperation and student mobility

Alongside the process of adopting the first Comett programme, and on the basis of what had been learned from the successful joint study programme scheme (see point 2.3.3), the Commission proposed, in December 1985 (**), a major programme for student mobility, the Erasmus programme (**), whose name hearkened back to a time when students and intellectuals were able to move freely throughout Europe. With a proposed budget of ECU 175 million for three years (1987–89),
100 million of which were for direct financial assistance to students covering their mobility costs, the Commission’s aim was to reach 10% of students.

Although Erasmus is successful today, its adoption was no easy matter. Eighteen months of bitter negotiations were needed. The two main points of disagreement were the budget and the legal basis. Despite the efforts made to push forward with the negotiations, the Council of Education Ministers did not adopt the programme at its meeting on 9 June 1986. At its next meeting, on 28 November 1986, there was still a lot of disagreement, although considerable pressure had been exerted by those in the academic sector in particular. Germany, France and the United Kingdom were the countries which expressed the greatest doubts. At that time, the UK held the Presidency of the Council. It sought to resolve the impasse by proposing, at a new ministerial meeting on 1 December, that the budget be drastically cut (ECU 50 million), excluding the mobility grants and placing the impasse by proposing, at a new ministerial meeting on 1 December, that the programme’s focus on creating a European network of universities. Manuel Marín (Spain), Vice-President of the Commission responsible for social affairs, education, training and youth, gave a strong lead. He decided that the proposal for a programme should be withdrawn, as he felt that the project presented to the ministers did not correspond to either the objective or the method proposed. He took the view that limiting the programme to simply creating the European network of universities without awarding grants would be like ‘buying a cookery book to assuage one’s hunger’. One diplomat observed, on the fringes of the Council meeting, that the ECU 175 million requested by the Commission for three years represented only four days of agricultural expenditure.

Faced with this stalemate, the European Commission, as represented by its President, Jacques Delors, decided to refer the problem to the European Council, which was due to meet in London on 5 and 6 December (see picture on next page). The Heads of State or Government said that they were willing to reach a decision in the short term so that the Erasmus programme could be launched. France, represented by François Mitterrand and Jacques Chirac, his Prime Minister, played a particularly important role in changing the attitude of certain countries. It was on the basis of political commitment at the highest level that the Commission decided to resubmit its proposal on 9 December 1986. At the meeting of the Council of Education Ministers on 14 May 1987, an agreement was reached concerning the legal basis of the programme. Bolstered by the judgment of the Court of Justice in the Gravier case (see point 3.1.2), the Commission defended its initial proposal, as it was subsequently to do for Comett II, when the sole legal basis was Article 128, which meant that the programme could be adopted by simple majority. The Council and certain Member States would challenge this position, asking that recourse should also be made to Article 235 (requiring unanimity), as had been the case with the adoption of Comett I in July 1986. They felt that the powers covered by Article 128 were insufficient with regard to the scope of the programme. The Court finally agreed
that the Commission was right, and reasserted that university studies formed part of vocational training. Article 235 was nevertheless added for the sole reason that the programme also related to academic research, which was not yet covered by the treaty (255). On 14 May 1987 (see picture on next page), the ministers agreed on a budget of ECU 85 million for three years, with the possibility of the amount being revised by the European Parliament after two years. On the basis of this agreement, the programme was at last formally adopted by the Council on 15 June 1987 (256). During the legal wrangling between the Commission and the Council or between the Commission and certain Member States concerning the adoption of the programmes, the Commission won the day and emerged ‘more convinced than ever that it was taking the right action. From then on, it was able to resist the concern expressed by Member States with regard to this new area of Community action which it proposed should be explored but whose frontiers were not yet clearly defined’ (257).

The Erasmus programme was subsequently renewed for the period 1990–94 (for a sum of ECU 192 million). It is interesting to note that, before being incorporated into the Socrates programme for five years (1995–99), the Erasmus programme was not limited in time. The Council decision of 15 June 1987 did not stipulate how long the programme would run. It was therefore possible to assume that the programme was ongoing. The Erasmus programme became successful very quickly. ‘Academic cooperation is now increasingly involving the less-favoured Member States and regions. A further significant indication of its Community added value is that the majority of Erasmus activities involve close cooperation between universities from several Member States. This is in marked contrast to cooperation outside of Erasmus, where bilateral exchanges are the norm.’ (258).

The programme was characterised by three main areas of action: developing a network of cooperation between universities — by developing interuniversity cooperation programmes; providing financial support for mobility schemes; and improving the academic recognition of qualifications and periods of study completed in another state. As proposed in the Adonnino report on a citizens’ Europe (see point 3.1.1),

Source: Council of the European Union.
Erasmus developed a European system for the transfer of academic credits, known as ECTS (European credit transfer system). This system formed a key element of the programme because it made it possible to pilot the transfer of study credits between higher education establishments within the Community and to ensure that mobility schemes were useful and attractive (see point 3.3.2.2).

The success of Erasmus has grown steadily (see Annex 4), to the extent that it has acquired a reputation which is impossible for universities and students in Europe to ignore. It does a lot to give a clear and positive image of how Europe can help its citizens. The programme is still very much symbolic of this, despite the fact that grants are still considered too low. Erasmus students take pride in having experienced life in Europe by studying in another Member State — a pride which has a positive impact on their environment. This programme is designed to foster interuniversity links and to promote much greater student mobility throughout the Community. It is open to students in all disciplines. The rule of the game, and it is a highly decentralised non-bureaucratic approach, is to put the responsibility ... with the universities themselves to form partnership agreements with other sister universities to teach a part of their course together, and to ensure that the student who spends a period in the other country will have such a period formally recognised as an integral part of his or her final degree qualification ...

Erasmus is already serving as an important catalyst in changing attitudes and expectations that Europe can become, as it once was, a natural area for discovery and learning, and not a place to be avoided at all costs because students have better chances in North America. The Erasmus example is one important indicator of the way that the Community can act in a catalytic way to change the past practices which tended to seal off Member States culturally from each other' (\textsuperscript{259}).

The programme very quickly became a point of reference at European and international levels, serving as 'an inspiration and a model for interuniversity cooperation between the Community and other regions of the world or within those regions. Tempus is an obvious example, as is Nordplus in the Nordic countries, MedCampus with the countries of the Maghreb' (\textsuperscript{260}).
In 15 years, the number of grant holders funded through the programme increased from 3 000 to 120 000 per year (261). At present, around 2 200 higher education institutions from 31 countries take part in Erasmus. Since it was launched in 1987, the programme has enabled 1.2 million students to spend time studying abroad (262). Students may participate in the programme from their second year of university onwards; it allows them to spend between three and twelve months at a university in another European country. Although the number of people taking part in the programme has risen steadily, a lot still has to be done to meet the programme’s initial goals. In its proposal for the programme issued in December 1985, the Commission had indicated that the aim was for 10 % of students to be involved in Erasmus mobility schemes (263). The obstacles are mainly financial in nature, as the Council initially reduced by more than half the budget first proposed by the Commission, although they also relate to linguistic aspects. The involvement of the millionth Erasmus student in the scheme was celebrated in October 2002. The Commission would like to achieve a target of 2 million Erasmus students by 2007 and 3 million by 2010 (see point 5.7.2), by increasing the number of grants available without reducing their amount (264). In July 2004 in Oviedo, the programme was awarded the 2004 Prince of Asturias Prize (‘International cooperation’ category) (265).
3.2.3. PETRA: giving priority to initial training for young people

Since the mid-1970s, the Community Member States have been concerned about the rise in youth unemployment. The transition from school to the workplace is an important turning point for young people which requires active policies. Over a 10-year period, the 'transition programmes' (see point 2.3.4) enabled European countries to take part in cooperative ventures and specific projects in this field. In view of the results of the projects launched and the fact that the problem still existed, the European Commission proposed a specific and more wide-ranging programme for the initial training of young people in 1987. This was the PETRA programme. Adopted on 1 December 1987, it was implemented from 1988 to 1992, then renewed (PETRA II) until 1994, before being incorporated into the Leonardo programme from 1995 onwards (see point 4.3.1).

PETRA supported the efforts of the Member States to ‘ensure … that all young people in the Community who so wish receive one year’s, or if possible two or more years’, vocational training in addition to their full-time compulsory education (268). The target group consisted of young people undergoing vocational training (after compulsory schooling), young workers and young jobseekers. The programme managed to promote mobility and improve the quality of training by enabling young people to complete part of their training or acquire work experience in another Member State.

Because of its key role in the school and vocational choices of young people, vocational guidance also became an important aspect of the implementation of the PETRA programme (269). It also supported the development of a network of national guidance centres and multilateral projects for the training of guidance advisers and specialists.

In 1994, shortly before the PETRA programme was incorporated into the new Leonardo da Vinci programme on vocational training, the Commission assessed the main results of the PETRA programme and found that they were very positive (270). ‘Despite limited financial resources, this programme has undoubtedly lent support to national policies to provide young people with vocational training or work placements in a company in another Member State, encouraged transnational projects and joint training modules, and promoted the creation of a European network of partnerships. Although it is impossible to determine the extent to which a programme of this kind has influenced national policy-making … the support of the target groups – both teachers and students – for the measures proposed cannot be in doubt’ (271).

During its second stage of implementation (1990–94), the programme enabled 40 000 young people to undertake placements in enterprises. In total, 100 000 young people and 20 000 teachers received assistance for transnational cooperation activities for the joint implementation of training projects, including youth initiative projects; 27 career guidance and training centres were set up in the EU Member States (272).
3.2.4. Lingua: promoting the teaching of foreign languages

It is unrealistic to promote mobility schemes and mutual understanding within the Community without also encouraging people to learn foreign languages. This aspect of the European construction is crucial not only to ensure that the free movement of people becomes a reality but also and in particular in order to promote cultural, economic and scientific cooperation between Member States. Despite the possibilities offered by the resolution of February 1976 and the initiatives and positions taken subsequently, particularly by the Commission and the European Parliament (see point 2.3.6), progress in this area was made only belatedly. Because it is inextricably linked to the cultural identity of each country, the question of promoting the teaching of languages and linguistic diversity was not taken for granted at Community level (273).

In 1984, however, the education ministers agreed that ‘knowledge of foreign languages is a key element of European construction’, while advocating respect for the linguistic pluralism which should make it possible to preserve Europe’s cultural resources (274). They undertook to promote the teaching of foreign languages in schools and to facilitate the in-service training of teachers. In 1985, the Adonnino report on a citizens’ Europe (see point 3.1.1) called for the policies established by the ministers the previous year to be implemented, in particular enabling as many young people as possible to acquire a practical knowledge of two languages in addition to their mother tongue before the end of compulsory schooling (275), enabling future language teachers to complete a significant part of their training in the country whose language they are preparing to teach and allowing pupils to make educational visits to another Member State.

After this stimulus had been provided at the highest level and after the initial programmes had been launched successfully (Comett, Erasmus and PETRA), the Commission proposed the implementation of a specific Community programme on language teaching — the Lingua programme — on 21 December 1988 (276). The adoption of this programme by the Council was not easy, for the reasons mentioned and because of the sensitive nature of the area. The United Kingdom was the country most firmly opposed to the programme, particularly if it had to be extended to secondary education through school exchanges, as proposed by the Commission. The President-in-Office of the Council of Education Ministers, Javier Solana (277), did everything to ensure that a consensus was reached, and Lingua was launched on 28 July 1989 (278); it would run for a period of five years (1990–94) and was allocated a budget of ECU 200 million. The Lingua programme in the form in which it was adopted cannot be used for the learning of foreign languages by pupils registered in the general education system; it can, however, be used for young people in vocational training, both specialist and technical; and although the grants are normally awarded to pupils aged from 16 to 25, the Member States may themselves stipulate whether the grants should go to young people who have completed compulsory schooling or to those aged over 16 and they also have the choice of extending or limiting this standard (279).

Measures/programmes to promote the learning of foreign/living languages were launched by the Council of Europe as early as 1962 in the context of intergovernmental cooperation. (273)

Conclusions of the Council and of the education ministers meeting within the Council of 4 June 1984 on the teaching of foreign languages. (274)

Seventeen years later, in 2002, the Barcelona European Council was to make the same request (see point 5.6), thus showing that very slow progress was being made in this area. (275)

Proposal for a Council decision establishing the Lingua programme to promote training in foreign languages in the European Community, COM(88) 841 final, OJ C 51, 28.2.1989. (276)

Javier Solana was Spanish Minister for Culture from December 1982 to July 1988 and Minister for Education and Science from July 1988 to June 1992. (277)


Agence Europe, No 5020, 24 May 1989. (279)
in view of the close link between the measures carried out (in particular, the training of language teachers) and the Member States' exclusive competence in the area.

Lingua's main aim was to bring about a quantitative and qualitative improvement of European citizens' knowledge of and proficiency in foreign languages and the development of communication within the Community. The measures taken related, in particular, to improving the in-service training of teachers and trainers in foreign languages. The grants enabled them to receive training in the country in which the language being taught is spoken. Partnerships between specialist establishments — European cooperation programmes (ECPs) — promoted the development of innovative training modules. The improvement at university level of initial training for future teachers of foreign languages was also a priority (measures managed with the Erasmus programme). The languages covered were the Community languages, as well as Luxembourgish and Irish. In order to respect and make the most of linguistic and cultural diversity, priority was also given to the languages least widespread and least taught in the Community.

As a result of the activities supported by the Lingua programme between 1990 and 1994, almost 19 000 teachers benefited from in-service training programmes in the country whose language they were teaching; almost 83 000 young people and more than 8 000 teachers were involved in joint educational projects via 4 000 partnerships between schools in the 12 Member States. More than 800 transnational partnerships were established in order to improve and promote the in-service training of language teachers and language skills in the business world and in general. Altogether, 55 % of the total number of languages targeted by the projects proposed under these partnerships were the languages which were least widespread and least taught in the Union (m).


m
This programme became increasingly popular among the individuals and institutions involved because it brought the Community's linguistic heritage to the fore and made it more visible, enabled those involved to take an active part in training activities, exchanges and discussions, and created synergies between organisations which had little experience of working together (except within the framework of bilateral agreements). An evaluation of Lingua in 1993, however, highlighted the need to define more clear-cut objectives and compensate for the fact that the measures being taken were too diverse, giving the impression that the programme was fragmented. During subsequent efforts to incorporate Lingua into the Socrates and Leonardo da Vinci programmes (see point 4.3.1), steps were taken to meet the need for greater cohesion in the action being taken.

Almost 10 years after the end of Lingua as a specific programme, it is clear that education systems have developed enormously by introducing the learning of foreign languages at ever earlier stages in the school curriculum (281). This is a laudable development. However, given that the language most commonly taught in primary schools is English, it is worth asking whether the choices made at national level do not contradict the Community declarations concerning respect for and the preservation of linguistic diversity.

3.2.5. FORCE and Eurotecnet: continuing vocational training

The 1980s were marked by a sluggish employment market and rapid technological change, which emphasised the need to renew qualifications and refresh knowledge. Governments at the different levels (national, regional and local), companies and the social partners attached increasing importance to continuing training, particularly in sectors in the throes of restructuring.

In this context, Community involvement also intensified. The Structural Funds (282) underwent a key reform in 1988, when their budget was doubled and the focus was placed on economic and social cohesion. The European Social Fund refocused its efforts on integrating young people into the workplace and combating long-term unemployment in order to prevent social exclusion. Against this background, continuing vocational training increasingly became a priority (the new reform of the Structural Funds in 1993 reinforced this trend).

It was in this context, and in order to supplement the programmes already launched mainly in the field of education, that the Commission proposed a new programme in 1989 which related specifically to continuing vocational training. This was the FORCE programme, which was adopted by the Council the following year on 29 May 1990 (283). It aimed to encourage investment in continuing training, particularly in SMEs, help to improve existing arrangements, examine needs in terms of qualifications and training, support innovation in the management of change, methods and equipment, and encourage the exchange of experience and the dissemination of best practice. The groups targeted were workers undertaking continuing training in a company or a training body, particularly in regions where access to continuing training was difficult.

[281] European Commission/Eurydice, Key data on teaching languages at schools in Europe, 2005.

[282] The Structural Funds (Article 130 B of the treaty) comprise the European Agricultural Guidance and Guarantee Fund (EAGGF), the European Social Fund (ESF) and the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF).

'With 5 000 members, including approximately 2 700 companies (70 % of which were SMEs or SME groupings) and 700 representatives of the social partners, FORCe developed the largest network at that time of companies, the social partners and training bodies with a view to achieving a quantitative and qualitative improvement in continuing vocational training’ (\textsuperscript{[m]}). It was on this basis that the Leonardo da Vinci programme (see point 4.3.1) was to continue and expand on the action taken in this area.

FORCe was not the only programme under which action was taken to strengthen vocational training. The Eurotecnet programme was set up on 18 December 1989 (\textsuperscript{[n]}) in order to promote innovation in the field of vocational training (initial and continuing) resulting from technological change, following the action taken between 1985 and 1988, in accordance with the Council resolution of 2 June 1983 on vocational training in new information technologies (\textsuperscript{[o]}). Although smaller than the FORCe programme, Eurotecnet facilitated the spread of innovation through a network of projects for demonstrating and developing transnational partnerships supported by the European Social Fund (\textsuperscript{[p]}). In order to ensure greater cohesion between the programmes, it was decided in March 1992 to set up a single committee to manage both the FORCe and Eurotecnet programmes. IRIS, the European network of projects of vocational training for women, also provided support for action in the field of continuing vocational training from 1988 to 1993. This aspect too was subsequently incorporated into the Leonardo da Vinci programme.

\textbf{3.2.6. Tempus: support for the process of reforming higher education in the European Union's partner countries}

Tempus was the last of the programmes adopted during the second half of the 1980s, but it did not follow the same pattern. At that time, the Commission needed to provide a specific response to the major political changes which accompanied the fall of the Berlin Wall. The European Community quickly grasped the historical magnitude of the events and the Commission took action very early so that technical, material and intellectual cooperation could be developed with the countries concerned in order to help them move towards democracy and prepare to join the EU one day. At the end of 1989, the Commission set up a major programme to support the economic and social reform process. This was the FORCe programme (\textsuperscript{[q]} – ‘Action plan for coordinated aid to Poland and Hungary’ (\textsuperscript{[r]})). Training and the development of human resources were among this programme’s key priorities from the start.

On 14 December 1989, the education ministers adopted conclusions (\textsuperscript{[s]}) on relations with the central and eastern European countries (CEECs) in the field of education and training. These echoed the conclusions of the Strasbourg European Council issued the previous week, on 8 and 9 December, which made provision for education and training programmes to be opened to nationals of the new countries and for the setting up of a European Foundation for Vocational Training (see box). Rather than proposing that these countries take part immediately in the existing Community programmes, the European Commission preferred to propose that, for

\textsuperscript{[m]} Source: European Commission, Cooperation in education in the EU (1976–1994), Studies No 5.

\textsuperscript{n} Council decision of 18 December 1989 establishing an action programme to promote innovation in the field of vocational training resulting from technological change in the European Community (Eurotecnet), OJ L 393, 30.12.1989.

\textsuperscript{[o]} Report on the practical implementation of the Council resolution of 2 June 1983 on measures relating to vocational training in new information technologies, SEC(89) 1658 final.

\textsuperscript{[p]} Final report of 22 July 1997 from the Commission on the Eurotecnet programme, COM(97) 386.


\textsuperscript{[r]} Poland and Hungary were the first countries in central and eastern Europe to become democracies and market economies. The other countries followed very quickly.

\textsuperscript{s} Conclusions of the Council and the ministers for education meeting within the Council of 14 December 1989 on relations with central and eastern European countries in the field of education and training, OJ C 37, 6.2.1990.
the time being, a ‘tailor-made’ programme be launched for these countries (the Tempus programme), which would be better suited to their needs and, in particular, provide more appropriate financing. Tempus was adopted on 7 May 1990 (291) for a period of four years (1990–93). For this initial period of activity (292), the budget for Phare was ECU 320 million (293), a sum much higher than that for Erasmus (ECU 192 million for 1990–94). The aim was to secure a high level of funding from the start in order to launch the higher education reforms necessary in the CEECs concerned as quickly as possible and in a manner attuned as closely as possible to the needs of those on the ground.

During its first phase, the programme sought to reform higher education systems by developing joint curricula in priority subjects selected by the countries concerned according to their needs. By creating ‘consortia’, Tempus encouraged the institutions of the EU Member States and those of the partner countries to take part in structured cooperation. Within this framework, joint European projects (JEPs) were launched which could benefit from financial support for two or three years. The consortia brought together higher education establishments in at least two EU Member States and one in a partner country. As with the other programmes, mobility was one of the programme’s important instruments. Thus, individual mobility grants (IMGs) were provided for academic staff, both teaching staff and administrative staff, in order to help them take part in specific work in other countries.

By using its network of national offices in the central and eastern European countries and contact points in the EU Member States, Tempus made it possible to create very strong links and shared working methods between all the countries concerned. It also provided a very useful way of helping 10 of these countries (294) to take part subsequently in the Socrates and Leonardo da Vinci programmes.

From the very start, Tempus served as a framework for cooperation geared to the needs of the new democracies in central and eastern Europe. It undoubtedly helped to train a new generation of academics and managers needed in these countries. The programme was subsequently extended to new countries in accordance with their requirements. When it was renewed for the first time in April 1993 (295), it was also incorporated into the Tacis programme — a Community programme for economic revitalisation and reform — and was extended in this way to the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) (296) and Mongolia. Tempus was extended again in 2001 to include the Balkan countries via the CARDS programme (297). In 2002, it was extended to the countries participating in the MEDA programme (298), once again showing that it was relevant to helping the partner countries push ahead with their reforms of the higher education system and establish closer ties with the Union.

Between 1990 and 2000, Tempus supported the development of more than 2 200 joint European projects, almost 17 000 individual mobility grants and more than...
750 other types of projects. Almost 180,000 mobility actions were financed through Tempus, 135,000 of which related to staff in the higher education sector and 45,000 to students (\textsuperscript{299}).

**THE EUROPEAN TRAINING FOUNDATION (ETF)**

The European Training Foundation (ETF) dates back to the fall of the Berlin Wall and the decisions that ensued. In 1989, French President François Mitterrand was the first to coin the idea of a European Training Foundation to support the reforms of vocational education and training in central and eastern Europe (CEECs) (\textsuperscript{300}). Indeed, considerable challenges in the field of vocational training existed in these countries, which had to undergo transition from a planned to a market economy and also to democracy and the rule of law. The European Council meeting in Strasbourg on 8 and 9 December 1989 asked the Council to ‘take, at the beginning of 1990, the requisite decisions for the setting up of a European Vocational Training Foundation … on the basis of Commission proposals.’ With the help of the Member States, the Commission’s ‘Task Force Human Resources, Education, Training and Youth’ very quickly set to work on preparing two instruments to support its action in favour of the CEECs: the Foundation and the Tempus programme. At the same time, the decisions concerning these two instruments (\textsuperscript{301}) were adopted by the Council on 7 May 1990.

‘We burnt the midnight oil to devise two instruments: Tempus and the Training Foundation. Both were set to be launched right after the Council adopted our proposals, but at the very last minute the foundation got entangled in a political agreement about the seats of institutions. There was absolutely nothing we could do. We launched Tempus and behind the scenes, we did what we could to get the foundation off that political battlefield, but in vain. We had conceived Tempus and the European Training Foundation as part of a two-pronged strategy. Training assistance was often tailored more to donor capacity than beneficiary needs. The ETF was designed to change that. We realised that a little money could only go a long way if efforts were coordinated … The idea was to start with the definition of needs, then get partners together from both the EU and the G24 to cooperate on delivery. The delay in setting up the ETF meant that this integrated process never really got started’ (\textsuperscript{302}).


\textsuperscript{[301]} Council Regulation (EEC) No 1360/90 of 7 May 1990 establishing the Foundation. Tempus: see point 3.2.6.

of the foundation headquarters was to take three years to settle (the European Council of October 1993 decided in favour of Turin) \(^{(303)}\) and yet another year before this new agency actually became operational. A decision was then made to include technical assistance for the implementation of the Tempus programme in the Foundation’s missions. ‘What many initially saw as a forced marriage was nothing but a reunion of two elements that had originally been designed to complement each other’ \(^{(304)}\).

Like most Community agencies, the ETF is governed by a management board, chaired by the Director-General of the Commission responsible for education and training. The agency also has an advisory forum which provides it with the expertise needed to prepare its work programme. The management board is composed of one representative per Member State and per responsible service of the Commission, and the candidate countries recently acquired observer status. The advisory forum is composed of two representatives from the Member States and partner countries, as well as representatives of the Commission, the European social partners and major international institutions working in the field of education and training. In general, the activities conducted by the foundation are financed and take place within the framework of the main EU external aid programmes (Phare, Tacis, MEDA, CARDS). In addition, the foundation has an operational budget dedicated to the implementation of pilot projects and the development of national observatories for vocational training in its partner countries.

Over the years, the ETF has evolved significantly as far as geographical coverage and activities are concerned. In geographical terms, it started with the countries of central and eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union; next, at the end of the 1990s, it opened up to countries in the Mediterranean region and western Balkans. The participating countries that became EU Member States on 1 May 2004 were consequently no longer eligible for support from the Foundation \(^{(305)}\). The Foundation’s remit also evolved substantially, enabling it to better fulfil its mission as a centre of expertise on reform in the field of vocational training. This mission was reinforced in the late 1990s when the Commission stopped using it for programme management tasks \(^{(306)}\) and required it to make considerable changes to its operations and to launch a major recruitment drive for specialised experts. The network of national observatories set up in 1995 to facilitate the collection and exchange of information on labour market and training system developments in all the countries concerned became one of the key support instruments for these new tasks.

Today, the Foundation is active \(^{(307)}\) in the countries awaiting accession (Bulgaria, Croatia, Romania and Turkey), the south-east of Europe (Albania, Bosnia and
Herzegovina, Kosovo, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Montenegro and Serbia), eastern Europe (Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Georgia, Moldova, Russia and Ukraine), central Asia (Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Uzbekistan, Tajikistan and Turkmenistan), and the Mediterranean basin. The main purpose of its action is to support the reform process in countries in transition by promoting innovative approaches and the dissemination of the main principles and objectives of EU policies in the field of education and training. It contributes to the analysis and evaluation of current reform processes and of their impact on established systems so as to better identify the future priorities that will allow partner countries to implement the necessary reforms in vocational education and training, and bring them into line with the demands of economic and social development. The ETF contributes towards improving the effectiveness of major European technical assistance programmes such as Phare, Tacis, CARDS and MEDA, and coordinating the different measures taken in these fields and the work of the various stakeholders concerned, primarily the ministers for education and employment, the social partners and the local and regional authorities.

3.2.7. ‘Youth’: more youth exchanges for more European citizenship

Youth exchanges benefited from Community support from a very early stage, initially for vocational purposes, with the first exchange programme for young workers set up in 1964. At the start of the 1980s, several parliamentary resolutions (308) expressed the political will to forge ahead in the field of youth exchanges within the Community. Shortly afterwards, the Adonnino report on a citizens’ Europe (see point 3.1.1) also became a driving force in this field of Community cooperation. Indeed, its conclusions, which were presented to the European Council of Milan in June 1985, recommended the promotion of youth exchanges within the Community and the creation of a real exchange network in and between each of the Member States. In 1986, when many new programmes were being established, the Commission proposed developing an ambitious youth exchange programme (309) to allow young people to meet, develop joint transnational, cultural, social or other projects and thereby develop a sense of European awareness and solidarity. The first programme, ‘Youth for Europe’, was adopted on 16 June 1988 for a period of three years with a budget of ECU 15 million (310).

Following its resolution of 26 June 1991 concerning priority actions for young people, the European Parliament created a budget heading for 1992 of ECU 5 million in order to complement the actions carried out under the programme. This additional financing made it possible to develop cooperation between youth structures and encourage social and cultural initiative and creativity among young people as well as transnational cooperation on the training of youth workers. Cooperation was thus launched with countries outside the EU (countries in North Africa, Latin
America, CIS republics). The Parliament provided constant support for activities benefiting young people. On 9 March 1999, it adopted a resolution on the development of a youth policy for Europe. The 'Youth for Europe' programme adopted in 1988 was renewed twice before being integrated into the new 'Youth' programme (\(^{[\text{311}]}\)) in 2000, which encompassed all activities benefiting young people.

\(^{[\text{311}]\)}\)
Second phase 1992–94 (decision of 29 July 1991);
In July 2004, the Commission proposed a new programme called 'Youth in action' (2007–13).
3.3. Cooperation outside the programmes

Thanks to their diversity and the budgets and human resources allocated to them, the first Community programmes in the field of education and training went from strength to strength and rapidly became the main thrust of Community cooperation between the Member States. These programmes made it possible to forge ever stronger links between countries (through, for instance, the programme management committees) and to give the players in the field a direct role by involving them in real European transnational projects (mobility, partnerships, networks). As a result, they won substantial support and interest. They were not, however, an end in themselves. They remained an instrument at the service of Community cooperation in the field of education and training which, thanks to the European Commission in particular, was set to become a platform for greater achievements.

In fact, in parallel to their development, ‘political’ cooperation continued within the Council of Ministers for Education, which met twice a year, and the Education Committee, which prepared the former’s work. Various matters of common interest were still debated in this context, particularly those relating to school education, a field not covered by the programmes for want of a legal base. The texts thus adopted expressed a political resolve on the part of the Member States to deepen their cooperation within the Community framework. The diversity of the themes covered also bore witness to an interest in extended cooperation and prepared the way for the incorporation of school education into the treaty at a later date. It also reflected the specific centres of interest of the six-monthly rotating presidencies. Although this rather piecemeal approach to cooperation would later need to gain in continuity and coherence (see point 4.5.1), it made it possible in the 1980s and early 1990s to take a closer look at issues that had barely been mentioned before and to discover subjects of common interest to the Member States.

From 1985 to 1992, the joint reflection and common positions on a number of issues resulted in unprecedentedly far-reaching actions. The focus was mainly on the European dimension in education, the mutual and academic recognition of qualifications, and equal opportunities.

3.3.1. The European dimension of/in education

3.3.1.1. At school and university

As Europe was increasingly becoming part of the Member States’ everyday life, it was important for schools to integrate this dimension into the knowledge and skills that they imparted and to contribute to the development of informed and involved future European citizens.

Since the start of Community cooperation in the field of education, the main players highlighted the need to ensure that school systems and curricula included a European dimension ("EU"). There had been previous initiatives ("EU"), and in his report in 1973 (see point 2.2), Henri Janne had stressed the need to integrate
The theme of the European dimension to education had for a long time already been central to the work of the Council of Europe.

Its communication of 18 June 1978, COM(78) 241 final, had represented an attempt to define the concept of a European dimension to education and offered an action programme on European education. It was the subject of disputes that led to a deadlock in the early 1980s (see point 2.5).

Conclusions of the Council and the ministers for education meeting within the Council on 27 September 1985 on the enhanced treatment of the European dimension in education.

The 'Europe at school' competition, under the joint patronage of the Council of Europe, the European Commission, the European Parliament and the European Cultural Foundation, makes it possible each year to reward young people who contribute actively to the construction of Europe around themes linked to the unification of the continent and proposed by a European committee.


COM(89) 236 final.


The aim was to achieve a 'multicultural Europe based on strengthening young people's sense of belonging to a European Community by developing the European dimension in teaching and teacher training: a reasonable knowledge and understanding of the geographical, historical and political aspects of the European Community' (319). The European dimension to education was then given a broader definition. Four clear objectives were thus identified in the new resolution adopted by the ministers for education on 24 May 1988 (320), which gave rise to concrete action to reinforce the sense of a European identity among young people, prepare them to participate in the economic and social development of the Community and to drive the European Union forward, encourage them to be aware of the advantages and challenges presented by the Community, and improve their knowledge of the historical, cultural, economic and social aspects of the Community and its Member States. The Member States were invited to integrate the European dimension into their educational systems, particularly school curricula and teacher training through the use of suitable teaching material and cross-border contacts and meetings between pupils and teachers.

Following the European Council of Milan in June 1985, at which the Adonnino report was approved, the ministers for education adopted conclusions in September 1985 in which they stated that 'teaching about the European dimension is therefore part and parcel of the education of the future citizens of Europe' (321). They defined the fields in which national and Community action should be conducted (foreign languages; study visits and class exchanges; school curricula and teacher training; cooperation between teacher-training institutes). Within the framework of Europe Day, which henceforth took place on 9 May of each year and setting up a centre that would make it possible to visualise European achievements and shared heritage.

Initially, the main priority was to increase teachers' and pupils' knowledge of Europe and to give them 'the opportunity to develop an awareness of Europe and a reasonable knowledge and understanding of the geographical, historical and political aspects of the European Community' (321). The European dimension to education was then given a broader definition. Four clear objectives were thus identified in the new resolution adopted by the ministers for education on 24 May 1988 (320), which gave rise to concrete action to reinforce the sense of a European identity among young people, prepare them to participate in the economic and social development of the Community and to drive the European Union forward, encourage them to be aware of the advantages and challenges presented by the Community, and improve their knowledge of the historical, cultural, economic and social aspects of the Community and its Member States. The Member States were invited to integrate the European dimension into their educational systems, particularly school curricula and teacher training through the use of suitable teaching material and cross-border contacts and meetings between pupils and teachers.
teachers. Action at Community level was to be centred on promoting an exchange of information and experience on the measures and different approaches taken by the Member States, the production of educational material and cooperation between teacher training institutions.

The resolution of 1988 gave rise to various pilot actions. A network of teacher training institutions (RIF) was set up in 1990 and very soon had over 170 member institutions. The aim of its work was to introduce the European dimension into teacher training. Following the example of action under the bigger programmes, multidisciplinary and multilateral school partnerships (MSP) were established ([323]), promoting cooperation between schools, innovation and the development of educational material. These partnerships paved the way for the European educational projects under the Comenius action of the Socrates programme. Bilateral teacher exchanges were also encouraged through the TEX (teacher exchange) action, developed on the initiative of the European Parliament. In addition to this, four European summer universities for teacher trainers were organised between 1989 and 1992.

Although the point of the resolution of 1988 was to ‘prepare for the emergence of a Community need for diversification of exchange that goes further than just the language aspects’ ([324]), its implementation also contributed to fostering education authorities’ and education stakeholders’ awareness of Europe. The Commission presented two reports to the Council (in 1991 and 1993) on the implementation of this resolution ([325]). They underlined the progress achieved in the field, albeit to varying degrees across the Member States. Greater account of the European dimension was being taken by the educational systems, in terms of curriculum content, teaching aids and teacher training. Increasing importance was attached to the history of the European institutions and Europe in general, as well as to European cultural diversity and heritage.


[324] Bousquet, Antoine, Éducation et formation dans l’UE: un espace de coopération, p. 32.

[325] The Commission was also to support a study to compile a list of the best practices: Hart, Michael, The European dimension in general primary and secondary education — examples of good practice, CEVNO, 1992.
The history of European cooperation in education and training

Europe in the making — an example

The actions carried out to implement this resolution were limited to pilot actions. Nevertheless, they cleared the way for the development of the European dimension in education to be included four years later, in 1992, in the new Maastricht Treaty as one of the objectives of Community action in the field of education. In 1993, the Commission adopted a Green Paper on the European dimension of education as a platform for a wide debate on the subject and for possibly more ambitious actions. In 1995, school education was included for the first time in a Community programme, the Socrates programme, through the Comenius action for schools (see point 4.3.1). It was under Socrates that the measures taken until then to implement the resolution of May 1988 were continued and reinforced.

The European dimension in education also refers to the incorporation in educational systems and curricula of concerns shared by the Member States. Health and the environment were among these concerns, and their consideration at Community level underlined the role that education could play in such matters. Several resolutions were thus adopted in the second half of the 1980s on health education, environment education and consumer education in primary and secondary schools. These resolutions led to pilot projects, the development of teaching aids and exchanges of information and experience, and made it possible to raise awareness among the different stakeholders and strengthen cooperation between the different ministries concerned.

It was not only in schools that the development of the European dimension in education was necessary. Higher education, in which international and European cooperation had existed for much longer than in school education, was also concerned. The Commission stressed this in its memorandum of November 1991 on higher education in the European Community (see point 3.1.3). One year later, on 27 November 1992, the ministers for education adopted conclusions emphasising the need to go further than simply encouraging more mobility, by embedding the European dimension more resolutely in higher education policy and practices at all levels. To do this, four types of action were envisaged: links between institutions; teacher mobility; cooperation on study programmes between institutions; a contribution to distance learning. The new generation of programmes adopted in 1995 would take account of this need, particularly through the development of the institutional contract, but also through thematic networks.

3.3.1.2. Jean Monnet action:

European content in university courses

From the outset, higher education institutions themselves expressed the need for universities to introduce European studies and to develop teaching and research programmes in the field of European integration. In response to this, the Commission created the Jean Monnet action in 1990, which provided financial support over the first three years following the launch of new university courses on European integration (the study of the construction of the European Community
and its institutional, legal, political, economic and social developments). In return, the universities undertook to support the new courses for at least four years following the period covered by Community financing.

This action provided support for the introduction of chairs (the ‘Jean Monnet’ chairs — full-time teaching posts entirely devoted to European integration), permanent courses on European integration, and European modules in Community law, European business studies, European political sciences and the history of European integration. The project also supported the creation of Jean Monnet European centres of excellence to bring together human resources dedicated to the study and research of European integration at university or regional levels. The idea of European chairs in universities was not new. It had already been included in the recommendations adopted by the European Conference on Culture held in Lausanne in December 1949 as a follow-up to the work of the cultural committee of the Hague European Congress in May 1948 (see point 1.2.1) (\[^{2}\]).

The originality of the Jean Monnet action was that it fostered the enhancement and further development of university teaching content and methods by introducing a feature that was becoming increasingly important in the life of European societies: the European dimension.

Since its introduction, 2 500 new university projects for the teaching of European integration have been launched, including 82 European centres of excellence, 601 Jean Monnet chairs and 1 560 permanent courses and European modules.

In 2004, the Commission suggested that, as of 2007, the Jean Monnet action become part of the new integrated programme for education and lifelong learning (see point 5.7).

3.3.2. The recognition of qualifications and study periods: a prerequisite for effective mobility

Ever since the Member States had started to cooperate on education at Community level, the need to progress on the mutual recognition of qualifications and study periods had been regularly emphasised in policy declarations. As it was not a simple matter (given the proliferation of qualifications, the diversity of qualification systems and of national education and training systems), progress was slow, particularly in relation to academic recognition (\[^{3}\]), for which things would only start to improve with the introduction of the Erasmus programme and then its inclusion along with education in the Maastricht Treaty. The emphasis on a common market without borders and on the development of a citizens’ Europe in the mid-1980s did, however, trigger a steady increase in action in this field.


\[^{3}\] The academic recognition of qualifications and study periods must be distinguished from the recognition of diplomas and qualifications for professional purposes. Unlike the former, the latter has a clear legal base in the Treaty of Rome (Article 57), in as far as it supports the freedom of establishment on Community territory. However, the two types of recognition are linked, and later, on 6 May 1996, the Council adopted conclusions (OJ C 195, 6.7.1996) concerning the synergies that could be developed in this field. It was on this basis that, in 1997–98, the European Commission, the Council of Europe and Unesco/CEPES began their joint work on developing a ‘Diploma supplement’ as an administrative annex to the diploma that described the studies undertaken.
Progress on the recognition of qualifications for professional purposes, covered by the treaty (Article 57), was initially very slow, with the adoption between 1975 and 1985 of sectoral directives for each regulated profession (\textsuperscript{334}). They took several years to negotiate (more than 15 years for the directive concerning architects) (\textsuperscript{337}) and dealt mainly with the health professions, providing a minimum degree of harmonisation as far as the required training is concerned and the automatic recognition of qualifications throughout the EU. The preparation of directives being a protracted and costly process, this approach was not considered feasible for all professions. Finally, a decision was made at the Fontainebleau European Council in 1984 to introduce a more flexible general system. The Commission made proposals (\textsuperscript{338}) that were also in line with the commitments made in the White Paper on the creation of the European single market.

A first directive was thus adopted in December 1988 (\textsuperscript{339}) by the Council and entered into force at the start of 1991. It set up a general system for the recognition of higher education diplomas awarded on completion of professional education and training of at least three years' duration. The implementation of these two directives was subject to monitoring and regular reports. An information network was set up with representatives in each country who worked closely with the members of the NARIC network (see point 2.3.5). These directives played an essential role in allowing people to exercise their profession in the Community, even if they had only a very small impact on mobility in the professions concerned.

Four years later, on 18 June 1992, this first directive was complemented by a second (\textsuperscript{340}) concerning a general system for the recognition of professional education and training of less than three years' duration. The implementation of these two directives was subject to monitoring and regular reports. An information network was set up with representatives in each country who worked closely with the members of the NARIC network (see point 2.3.5). These directives played an essential role in allowing people to exercise their profession in the Community, even if they had only a very small impact on mobility in the professions concerned.

However, the system would continue to prove burdensome and complex, and its simplification would continue at a later date, particularly in the early 2000s within the framework of the SLIM initiative (simpler legislation for the internal market) (\textsuperscript{335}).
Besides this formal work on the regulated professions, the need to ensure greater clarity and transparency of qualifications (formal and informal) within the EU became increasingly evident. To achieve this, as for the directives, the possibility of a centralised approach was gradually dismissed. One of the ideas (eighth principle) in the decision of 1963 on the general principles of a common vocational training policy (see point 1.4) was to bring training levels closer together, which would entail a certain degree of harmonisation (\textsuperscript{342}). However, preference was subsequently given to the more flexible approach of qualification equivalences (\textsuperscript{343}) and finally of 'transparency' (\textsuperscript{344}), leaving workers with the responsibility of supplying the necessary information on their training, skills and experience. But it was not until the second half of the 1990s, following the boost given by the European Commission's White Paper on growth, competitiveness and employment (see point 4.2) and by that of 1995 on 'Teaching and learning — towards the learning society' (see point 4.2.2), that more specific actions were developed with a view to achieving transparency of qualifications within the EU (\textsuperscript{345}). Work on the development of a European qualifications framework (higher education and vocational training) started under the Lisbon process in 2004.

3.3.2.2. Academic recognition at the heart of student mobility

Even though the quality and scale of student mobility within the EU depended on the academic recognition of qualifications and study periods between countries or institutions, progress remained slow. The NARIC network set up in 1984 (see point 2.3.5) continued its work of providing information on the recognition of diplomas and foreign degree qualifications, their award procedures and the possibilities for study in other Member States. For the parts with which it was concerned, it also became a national information centre on the implementation of the 1989 directive concerning a general system for the recognition of higher education diplomas awarded on completion of vocational training of at least three years' duration and for the conventions of the Council of Europe and Unesco in the field of academic recognition and equivalence. However, NARIC's work had no direct impact on mobility. By supporting the development of partnership agreements between universities and increased, organised student mobility, the Erasmus programme gradually became a significant lever for change in this respect.

The establishment through the programme of a European credit transfer system (ECTS) was a very significant breakthrough. Although the recognition of qualifications remained a national responsibility, there was a need for Community action in this field in order to increase transparency and guarantee that study periods spent by students in another Member State would be validated on their return to their home institution. By promoting this system, the Commission returned to the idea that had already been put forward in the Adonnino report on a citizens' Europe in 1985. The objective was 'to provide a means by which students undergoing or having completed higher education and training may receive credit for such training carried out at universities in other Member States' (\textsuperscript{346}).
The ECTS was initially developed on an experimental, voluntary basis for a period of six years by 145 universities within the European Union and the EFTA countries (346). At the start, it covered five disciplines (management, history, medicine, chemistry and mechanical engineering). It would be considered as the ‘most effective of all the Community cooperation instruments’ (347).

Today, the ECTS system is used by over 1 000 establishments, although to varying extents. In order to improve its functioning throughout the EU, the Commission created the ‘ECTS’ label in 2004, which it awarded for the first time in November 2004 for a period of three years to the first 11 higher education institutions to make satisfactory use of ECTS in their study programmes. Its target for the label was to have 1 000 institutions by 2010. The ECTS was made a priority in the Bologna process (see points 4.5.3 and 5.4.1) and was to continue to evolve to become a system for credit accumulation applied at academic, regional, national and European levels.

(346) In 1992, Erasmus expanded to include the following countries: Switzerland, Norway, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Sweden, Finland and Austria — the latter three countries became members of the European Union on 1 January 1995.

(347) Bousquet, Antoine, Éducation et formation dans l’UE: un espace de coopération.
3.3.3. Equal opportunities

The principle of equal treatment of men and women in employment and training has been the subject of legislation practically everywhere in Europe and at Community level. Although it was enshrined in the treaty (Article 119) and a specific directive in 1976 ([348]), its actual implementation came up against numerous obstacles and led to initiatives on an ever larger scale at Community level ([349]).

The theme of equal opportunities in the field of education was one of the priorities of the resolution of February 1976. Emphasis at the time was laid on actions to facilitate young people’s transition from school to working life. Nevertheless, actions that mainly entailed exchanges of information and experience concerning equal opportunities for girls and boys, the fight against illiteracy or the integration of disabled children into ordinary schools were also successfully launched, thus raising awareness of these issues at Community level.

3.3.3.1. Equal opportunities for girls and boys in education

The first specific action programme on equal opportunities for girls and boys in education was launched in June 1985 ([350]). Its purpose was to support national measures to raise awareness among all education stakeholders of the need to achieve equal opportunities, improve educational and vocational guidance through the diversification of career choices for girls and boys, expand the possibilities of real access for girls and boys to all branches of vocational training, include this issue in teacher training, eliminate the stereotypes that exist in school textbooks, etc. Particular emphasis was laid on teacher training ([351]). Some 30 research projects ([352]) on this aspect were carried out, involving a number of initial and in-service teacher training institutions. The project results were distributed widely, as was a manual on equal opportunities in primary school produced by the Centre for Research on European Women (CREW).

Vocational training, for which there was greater scope for action under the Structural Funds, inspired initiatives on an ever larger scale ([353]) to allow women to benefit from good quality training in line with their needs. In the wake of this, the IRIS network was launched in 1988. Later (in 1994), it was integrated into the Leonardo da Vinci programme. Under the third programme for gender equality, the NOW initiative was also established in 1991 for a period of four years. Its main objective was to reduce unemployment among women, improve the situation of those who were already part of the working population and develop innovative strategies to respond to changes concerning the organisation of work and occupational requirements, with a view to reconciling work and family life. In 1995, NOW became a part of the ‘Employment’ programme and then, in 2000, of EQUAL.
3.3.3.2. Action in support of people with disabilities

Another aim behind the actions carried out, particularly as of the 1980s, was to improve the conditions for specific disadvantaged groups, including people with disabilities, who represented over 10% of the EU population. Like the Parliament, the Commission was careful to ensure that Community action in the field of education and vocational training covered these problems and encouraged the Member States to share their experiences and take a more active approach. As of 1984, a number of Council texts and reports were published, clearly demonstrating the attention given to this question, in particular in connection with the United Nations Decade of Disabled Persons (1983–92). A recommendation on the employment of disabled people in the Community was adopted on 24 July 1986 (359), inviting the Member States to ‘take all appropriate measures to promote fair opportunities for disabled people in the field of employment and vocational training’ and to encourage national policies to eliminate discrimination affecting disabled workers. The European Social Fund was an increasingly important source of support for actions to promote equal opportunities for these people.

In 1987, the ministers for education adopted conclusions establishing a programme of European cooperation on the integration of handicapped children into ordinary schools (360). These conclusions and the resolution adopted in 1990 (356) with a view to intensifying efforts to integrate children and young people with disabilities into ordinary education systems and to improve their participation in Community education programmes gave rise to a range of actions carried out in connection with the Helios programme (357). The actions allowed institutions involved in special education (regardless of whether they were integrated into the ordinary education system) to compare their experiences and to develop transnational cooperation on various points of common interest (study of the obstacles to the integration of disabled people; educational approaches, teacher training, the development of teaching aids).

The school integration policy in the Member States and the Helios programme gave rise to regular implementation reports (358) that made it possible to follow the progress of the actions undertaken. Helios was renewed in February 1993 for a further period of four years (1993–96). Later, from 1995 on, this dimension of the education systems was covered by the Socrates programme. As was the case for equal opportunities, the prevailing approach for all Community actions on the subject from the mid-1990s onwards was one of mainstreaming (see point 4.4).

3.3.3.3. Intercultural education and education for the children of migrants

On the basis of pilot actions conducted in application of the resolution of 1976 and above all the directive of 1977 (361) (see point 2.3.2), intercultural education became an important component of Community cooperation in the field of education.

In 1984 (360), the Parliament started to look at the problem of schooling for the children of occupational travellers, travellers and gypsies, encouraging the Commission and the Member States to develop appropriate measures. The Commission then...
carried out studies on the subject in order to become more familiar with the situation and with national practices. It consulted the representatives of gypsy and traveller communities, and exchanges of views took place between experts and ministerial officials. A resolution was adopted on the basis of this work on 22 May 1989 (\textsuperscript{361}). It laid the foundations for the development of exchanges of experience between countries and for innovative pilot projects (\textsuperscript{362}). Intercultural education was also, of course, an important aspect taken into account in the design of the Socrates programme in 1994 (see point 4.3.1). Although it cut across all of the actions, it also appeared in its own right in the new Comenius action for school education.

### 3.3.3.4. The fight against illiteracy and failure at school

It was mainly in the early 1980s that the Member States of the Community recognised the increase in illiteracy, and in particular functional illiteracy (\textsuperscript{363}), caused among other things by the decline in the traditional practice of reading and writing in favour of new forms of communication (television, multimedia). They acknowledged that this was a social phenomenon resulting from the combination of several social, economic and educational factors, but that ‘educational authorities are particularly involved in preventing illiteracy and conducting the campaign against it, through education and further training’ (\textsuperscript{364}).

The first actions carried out made it possible to raise the awareness of all the players concerned by the problem and to develop exchanges of information and joint reflection. Cooperation in this field was stepped up in 1987 with the adoption by the ministers for education of conclusions concerning a European programme to combat illiteracy (\textsuperscript{365}). This led to the creation of a European network through which 17 research-action projects were developed, thereby stimulating educational innovation in the prevention of illiteracy. The close cooperation and pooling of experience between the Member States resulted in various publications, exhibitions and communications. In addition to this, the Commission published a manual on the prevention of illiteracy and the possible remedies. During the World Conference on Education for All organised in Jomtien (Thailand) by Unesco in 1990, the 12 Member States presented a common position underlining the importance of basic education and in-service teacher training in this field (\textsuperscript{366}).

The problem of illiteracy did not, however, improve in the 1990s. International surveys (\textsuperscript{367}) underlined the fact that, throughout the industrialised world, there was a steady drop in the number of low-skill, low-technology and low-wage jobs and that the ability to absorb, use and adopt new information, skills and methods was therefore of increasing importance. The EU was still extremely concerned by this issue. The Socrates (particularly the Grundtvig action on adult education) and Leonardo da Vinci Community programmes took account of this, as did the implementation of the Lisbon strategy, which attached importance to the development of key competences and to access to lifelong learning for everyone (see point 5.1).

For the ministers for education, countering illiteracy also meant addressing the problem of failure at school, which was increasing steadily in the majority of Member States and generating social exclusion. Consequently, on 14 May 1987, they...
made it a theme of common interest (368) and decided to reflect together on this phenomenon and share their experiences. The Commission requested a study on the matter (369). Given the persistence of the problem, the Ministers decided to go further in their cooperation by adopting a resolution (370) on 14 December 1989 that put forward specific guidelines for their national actions and strategies and proposed the strengthening at Community level of exchanges of information between countries as well as in-depth studies to be carried out by experts.

In 1992, the Portuguese Presidency made failure at school one of the priority themes on its agenda and called a meeting of senior officials from the 12 Member States to discuss it on the basis of an analysis provided by the Eurydice network (371). From then on, this issue was a permanent feature on the Community agenda (372).
3.4. Education in the treaty: long-awaited legal clarification but also a symbol

The new Articles 126 and 127, once they are ratified, will provide a clear basis for the future. The wording of these articles and the terms of reference set out in them are no accident, as they are in the logic of everything that has been developed at Community level since 1976. They represent the natural culmination of that period of work and the achievements to date. And they represent, too, an expression of the mutual confidence and trust of the Member States’ authorities and their goodwill to further develop education cooperation (\textsuperscript{374}).

3.4.1. Enshrinement in the treaty

In 1992, the enshrinement of education in the treaty marked the culmination of the many years of work and effort described earlier. It was a landmark in the history of Community cooperation in the field of education because, after more than 15 years of activity, a clear legal basis for education had thus finally been introduced, and the debates and legal controversies on the subject were settled once and for all. Education was at last moving away from a situation of ‘legal semi-clandestinity’ (\textsuperscript{374}).

Apart from providing legal clarification, it was also a heavily symbolical development for all those who had for years fought, at Community and national levels, in favour of this recognition. Like culture, education is an issue to which citizens can easily relate. The inclusion of these two fields in a treaty which, besides monetary union, allowed a certain amount of progress towards political union and the development of European citizenship, helped to give the Community the human face that it had always lacked.

This historical achievement had been long awaited by both the European Commission and the Member States. Having had their fingers burnt by the legal disputes that had marked the adoption of the programmes, Member States did not oppose the actual principle of enshrining the field of education in the treaty and agreed not to renege on the \textit{acquis}. The die-hards could have used the revision of the treaty as an opportunity to prevent such a development. The fact that they did not demonstrated their political adherence to and interest in cooperation within the Community framework.

The negotiations on the inclusion of education in the treaty were conducted under the Luxembourg and Dutch Presidencies in 1991. Working alongside the Commission, they made a considerable contribution to the drafting of a text that could be accepted by everyone.


Education and youth (Article 126) and vocational training (Article 127) were grouped into one chapter (Chapter 3) of a broader whole (Title VIII) that also covered social policy. This grouping together of fields of action which closely affect citizens reflected the ambitions of Altiero Spinelli’s 1984 draft treaty (see point 3.1.1) and the specific chapter that he proposed on society policy. However, culture and health policy came under separate titles. Articles 126 and 127 were not the only ones to refer to education, training and youth. Reference was also made to them in the first part of the treaty, which covered the principles underlying the creation of the European Union. It specified that Community action would entail making ‘a contribution to education and training of quality and to the flowering of the cultures of the Member States’ (\[^{375}\]).

With the Maastricht Treaty, vocational training, which had already been established in Article 128 of the EEC Treaty, gained a status close to that of cooperation in education, in some ways losing its initial legal strength. The ‘common’ policy became a ‘vocational training policy’. Simple majority voting was replaced by qualified majority voting. The aim of Community action from then on was clearly to support and complement Member State action. This new approach would be reflected in the recommendation on access to continuing vocational training, adopted by the Council on 30 June 1993 (\[^{376}\]). The recommendation in many ways anticipated the new policy of supporting and supplementing action at Member State level. In eschewing regulation and in outlining a market-oriented, ‘bottom-up’ policy approach to the development of continuing vocational training to complement...
the practical approach of its action programmes, the recommendation set the
tone for future developments (377).

3.4.2. The terms of and arrangements for cooperation

In order to understand the formal framework in which Community cooperation
was now to develop, the terms of and arrangements for cooperation as laid down
by the treaty should be explained. They were well defined, doubtlessly to allay the
fears of the Member States with regard to the division of competences, but also
to provide as clear a legal framework as possible for cooperation in the field of
education. In fact, in all respects, the treaty drew on the cooperation approach
that had prevailed so far and that represented an original approach at European level,
making it possible to progress together in sectors of extreme political sensitivity.

The treaty confirmed the approach for the field of education, which falls under
the competence of the Member States: there would be no harmonisation of
national systems, nor would a common policy for the creation of a European
education model be introduced. In its communication of 11 March 1974 (see point 2.2),
the Commission had already indicated that this objective would not in itself make
sense, given the diversity of the systems and their country-specific roots. Community
measures support and supplement those of the Member States, which remain sovereign
and responsible for the content and organisation of their systems. Unlike the
common agricultural policy or the competition policy, education was not therefore
to come under the exclusive competence of the Community, but would belong to
the so-called ‘complementary’ competences (378).

The modus operandi remained cooperation. The aim from the start was to achieve
non-binding but ever closer transnational cooperation between the Member States
and the stakeholders in the field to foster dialogue and a growing convergence
between policies and systems. Cooperation involved a process of emulation,
consultation and exchanges of ideas and practices, and thus encouraged innovation
and the emergence of joint solutions to shared problems.

The treaty thus explicitly excluded any harmonisation of the laws and regulations
of the Member States. This was not in fact a new approach for the field of education
which, from the very beginning, had applied the principle of subsidiarity.
The Community, according to the definition of subsidiarity given by the treaty, was
authorised to intervene ‘only if and in so far as the objectives of the proposed
action cannot be sufficiently achieved by the Member States and can therefore,
by reason of the scale or effects of the proposed action, be better achieved by the
Community’ (379).

‘The terms of the two Articles 126 and 127 make it quite clear that any idea of
harmonisation of the education and training systems as such is a dead duck; the
explicit terms of these two articles gives that notion a definitive deathblow. The
Member States have always appreciated the diversity of their systems and they

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(377) Cedefop, An age of learning — vocational training policy at
European level, January 2000.

(378) The Treaty establishing
a Constitution for Europe,
approved by the Heads
of State or Government
on 18 June 2004, lays down
the categories of competence
provided for by the treaty.
Education is in the category
concerning ‘supporting,
coordinating or
complementary action’
alongside, among other areas,
vocational training, health,
youth and culture.

(379) Article 3 B, Treaty on
will long do so. Certainly as long as people are living in different societies. The Maastricht text strikes a very important balance in this respect in setting out the framework for the future. The new co-decision procedure applicable to Article 126 will imply even closer relations between the Commission and the European Parliament and its special Education Committee in particular. (m)

The principle of subsidiarity was therefore at the heart of the Maastricht Treaty and henceforth characterised Community action in general. It nevertheless had to remain a dynamic concept and allow Community cooperation on education to evolve and adapt constantly to the new needs and expectations of the stakeholders in the field. 'In practice, the principle of subsidiarity can be an effective way of instilling responsibility at the various levels of authority, but it can also be a strong argument for national, regional or even local solutions to problems that in actual fact arise in very similar ways throughout the EU' (m). The communication from the Commission of 27 October 1992 clarified its implementation for the fields of shared and complementary competences, such as education, culture and health (m). It was up to the Community institutions, and in particular the Commission owing to its power of initiative, to prove the need for action at Community level and to define its scale by choosing means in proportion to the objective pursued. The action also had to meet the criterion of proximity, whereby measures must be implemented as close to the citizens as possible.

Given the complementary nature of Community action, the means provided by the treaty allowed for the adoption, using the co-decision procedure (m) between the European Parliament and the Council, of incentive measures (m) that excluded any harmonisation of systems and of recommendations (adopted by qualified majority) addressed to the Member States. 'The recommendations allowed the Council and the Commission to intervene in a sector over which the Member States had retained the authority to implement the principles enshrined in the treaties themselves' (m). With regard to vocational training (Article 127), the treaty was less explicit. It provided for the adoption under the cooperation procedure (m) of 'measures to contribute to the achievement of the objectives referred to', while excluding the harmonisation of Member State laws and regulations, just as for education.

With these two articles, the treaty clarified and linked Community action in two key fields for the economic development and social cohesion within the Community. By dedicating one specific article to education, it actually established it as a sector in its own right. In reality, however, the boundary between education and training was to become increasingly blurred, due to the urgent need to ensure effective continuity between the general training of young people and their integration into working life and the need for ever greater interaction between education and vocational training systems in order to create a culture of lifelong learning. The separate implementation of these two articles through Community programmes and action designed to reflect the demarcation of the sectors under the treaty gradually showed its limits and later prompted the Commission and the Member States to rethink their approach to implementing the treaty and aim for more coherence and integration. The existence of two separate articles in the

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(m) Communication SEC(92) 1990 final. The Commission underlined that, in fields such as education, culture and health, where Community action played a complementary role, there was 'little political resolve. The treaty specifically rules out harmonisation. The aim is merely to complement and support national measures.'

(m) Article 189 B of the TEU.

(m) The conclusions of the European Council of Edinburgh held on 11 and 12 December 1992 gave a definition for 'incentive measures'. ‘Where Articles 126, 128 and 129 refer to incentive measures, the Council considers that this expression refers to Community measures designed to encourage cooperation between Member States or to support or supplement their action in the areas concerned, including where appropriate through financial support for Community programmes or national or cooperative measures designed to achieve the objectives of these articles.’

(m) Frazier, Carole, 1995.

(m) Article 189 C of the TEU.

It was on the basis of the Amsterdam Treaty, which entered into force in 1999, that the co-decision procedure would be applied also to vocational training.
treaty does not itself, however, exclude measures connecting the two sectors. Indeed, the Commission demonstrated this in 2004 by proposing an integrated programme for education and training (see point 5.7), supported by the two legal bases concerned.

### 3.4.3. Greater scope for action

Even though the treaty laid down limits, the scope for Community action was still vast and covered education as a whole (school and higher). While measures in the field of higher education had been covered since 1985 by previous Court decisions, the really new development was the inclusion of school education in the treaty.

Thanks to the legal foundation now provided by the treaty, it was also possible to hope for more tangible progress in fields in which cooperation had not yet been particularly effective in meeting needs. The treaty set a very ambitious general objective for cooperation in education. It was to ‘contribute to the development of quality education’. Although no attempts were made to define quality education at Community level, this broad and somewhat vague objective made it possible to set a very general outline for Community action, thus encompassing the various definitions that the Member States gave to this notion.

The treaty also defined the more precise objectives to be pursued through Community action. These mainly referred to the fields of action in which cooperation had existed since 1976: the European dimension in education, particularly through language learning; student and teacher mobility; cooperation between educational institutions; exchanges of information and experience; youth exchanges; distance learning. By mentioning them explicitly, the treaty attributed special importance to some of them, thus paving the way for more ambitious action in these fields in the future. An example was the development of student and teacher mobility, which, it was said, would be pursued ‘inter alia by encouraging the academic recognition of diplomas and periods of study’. Until then, the treaty had referred only to the recognition of qualifications for professional purposes. Progress on academic recognition, so essential for the development of mobility, had remained insufficient relative to need. This explicit reference in the treaty was to open the door to the ECTS system set up under the Erasmus programme (see point 3.3.2).

This was likewise the case for the promotion of the European dimension in education. The treaty made this one of the objectives of Community action and specified that it must be implemented ‘particularly through the teaching and dissemination of the languages of the Member States’. Measures could therefore extend beyond this one sector and have a broader scope than that tentatively defined in the resolution of May 1988, the follow-up to which had been limited (see point 3.3.1). The treaty also paved the way for cooperation and exchanges between educational institutions that were no longer limited to higher education. Schools could also participate.
Recent measures, often in the form of pilot projects (see point 3.3.1) had in fact laid the foundation for this opening up of the treaty to relatively new aspects, particularly in the school sector. This was also the case for open and distance learning, which had until then been covered in the Comett and Erasmus programmes and had been the subject of a memorandum in 1991 (see point 3.1.3).

3.4.4. A bigger role for the European Parliament

The European Parliament is one of the key institutional actors in the development of the Community, not only on account of its election by universal suffrage, but also because of its constantly growing participation in the EU legislative process and its budgetary authority. Within the framework of the annual budgetary procedures, it has consistently sought to increase the appropriations earmarked for education. As underlined several times already, it has always shown a keen interest in education (in particular through its Committee on Culture, Youth, Education and the Media, but also its Committee on Social Affairs for issues relating to vocational training), through its own initiative reports on specific or general aspects of cooperation and its opinions on proposals for action submitted by the Commission. The Maastricht Treaty strengthened the overall legislative authority of the European Parliament, which henceforth had the power of co-decision with the Council in a growing number of fields in which it had previously played only a consultative role. This was the case of education.

The implementation of this new co-decision procedure, applied for the first time for the adoption of the Socrates programme in 1995, was rather unwieldy. Several readings were required as well as a conciliation procedure in the event of disagreement between the two parties. Nevertheless, it represented a step forward in the democratic functioning of the EU. Indeed, co-decision helped rebalance powers between the Parliament and the Council and resulted in more favourable agreements, particularly financially speaking, than if the Council were to have decided alone. The support that the Parliament had always provided in the education and training sector, combined with its newly increased decision-making powers, made it an increasingly important ally for the Commission.
3.4.5. The Committee of the Regions

The Maastricht Treaty introduced another new element: the Committee of the Regions, a new EU institution and the second consultative body after the Economic and Social Committee, established in 1958 (387). The Committee of the Regions, which was established in 1994, is the voice of the regional and local authorities in the European Union and its actions therefore reflect citizens’ concerns and interests. The European Council and the European Commission are obliged to consult the Committee when new proposals are made in sectors that have repercussions at regional or local level. Under the terms of the Maastricht Treaty, these sectors are principally economic and social cohesion, trans-European networks, public health, and also education and culture. The Treaty of Amsterdam (1997) added employment policy, social policy, the environment, vocational training and transport. Like the Economic and Social Committee, the Committee of the Regions can draft opinions on its own initiative. Community efforts to promote strategies for lifelong education and training in the EU (see point 5.2) are of special interest to the Committee (388). The involvement of the regions in this field played a crucial role in ensuring the concrete implementation of these strategies, the participation of the various stakeholders concerned and the development of partnerships. The Committee thus gave its full support to the launch of the R3L pilot projects with the aim of developing networks between ‘learning’ regions and cities (see point 5.2.3). It took a stance on the development of European benchmarks (389) as part of the implementation of the Lisbon strategy and on the new programmes (390) proposed for education and training. Although the Committee welcomed the Commission’s proposals in the field of education and training, it often underlined the need for greater recognition of the role of the regional and local authorities in the development of this field.

[387] The European Economic and Social Committee (EESC) was created by the Treaty of Rome in 1957. Today, it has 222 members who represent the various components of organised civil society. They are divided into three groups: ‘Employers’, ‘Employees’ and ‘Various interests’ (for representatives of economic and social sectors other than those of the first two groups). The EESC acts as an advisory body for the Council, the European Parliament and the European Commission. It must be consulted by the Council or the Commission in the cases stated by the treaty. It may take the initiative to form opinions (own-initiative opinions), thereby drawing the attention of the EU decision-making authorities to subjects of importance to civil society on which there has been little or no discussion. The EESC is regularly asked to give its opinion on education and training issues and programmes and has always been very active in this respect through its section specialised in the field. Source: www.esc.eu.int.


[390] For example for the Erasmus Mundus programme (CdR 327/2002 fin, OJ C 244, 10.10.2003) and for the ‘elearning’ programme (CdR 73/2003 fin, OJ C 244, 10.10.2003).
Article 126 (**) 

1. The Community shall contribute to the development of quality education by encouraging cooperation between Member States and, if necessary, by supporting and supplementing their action, while fully respecting the responsibility of the Member States for the content of teaching and the organisation of education systems and cultural and linguistic diversity.

2. Community action shall be aimed at:
— developing the European dimension in education, particularly through the teaching and dissemination of the languages of the Member States;
— encouraging mobility of students and teachers, inter alia by encouraging the academic recognition of diplomas and periods of study;
— promoting cooperation between educational establishments;
— developing exchanges of information and experience on issues common to the education systems of the Member States;
— encouraging the development of youth exchanges and of socio-educational instructors;
— encouraging the development of distance education.

3. The Community and the Member States shall foster cooperation with third countries and the competent international organisations in the field of education, in particular the Council of Europe.

4. In order to contribute to the achievement of the objectives referred to in this article, the Council:
— acting in accordance with the procedure referred to in Article 189b, after consulting the Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions, shall adopt incentive measures, excluding any harmonisation of the laws and regulations of the Member States;
— acting by a qualified majority on a proposal from the Commission, shall adopt recommendations.

(*) The Amsterdam Treaty, which entered into force on 1 May 1999, did not amend the content of Article 126. Only numbering changes were made. Article 126 became Article 149. Article 189 B (co-decision procedure) became Article 251. The Treaty of Nice, which entered into force on 1 February 2003, made no changes to Article 149.
Article 127 (*\textsuperscript{iii}\textsuperscript{)*)

1. The Community shall implement a vocational training policy which shall support and supplement the action of the Member States, while fully respecting the responsibility of the Member States for the content and organisation of vocational training.

2. Community action shall aim to:
   – facilitate adaptation to industrial changes, in particular through vocational training and retraining;
   – improve initial and continuing vocational training in order to facilitate vocational integration and reintegration into the labour market;
   – facilitate access to vocational training and encourage mobility of instructors and trainees and particularly young people;
   – stimulate cooperation on training between educational or training establishments and firms;
   – develop exchanges of information and experience on issues common to the training systems of the Member States.

3. The Community and the Member States shall foster cooperation with third countries and the competent international organisations in the sphere of vocational training.

4. The Council, acting in accordance with the procedure referred to in Article 189c and after consulting the Economic and Social Committee, shall adopt measures to contribute to the achievement of the objectives referred to in this article, excluding any harmonisation of the laws and regulations of the Member States.

*\textsuperscript{iii)*

In the Amsterdam Treaty, Article 127 became Article 150. The content of the article remained the same. Only the decision-making procedure changed. Co-decision (Article 251) would now also be applied to vocational training. The Treaty of Nice, which entered into force on 1 February 2003, made no changes to Article 150.
Towards a knowledge society
Cooperation in education and training entered a new phase in 1993. An important milestone had been reached when education was included in the Maastricht Treaty the previous year. The terms of the treaty were now there to guide the action taken and regulate cooperation. However, the newly created Union found that it was already faced with new challenges and would be required to prepare for radical changes.

The first challenge was an internal one and unprecedented in scale: that of enlargement. The second, no less important, was globalisation.

In the early 1990s the Union continued to extend its borders and to be a pole of attraction for the countries surrounding it. It was about to take in three new Member States (Austria, Finland and Sweden) (394), and the agreement on the European Economic Area had just been signed (395). But a more significant and symbolic enlargement was yet to come. When the countries of central and eastern Europe were liberated from Soviet rule in 1989, Europe saw the opportunity to take in these countries, growing from a Union of 375 million inhabitants to half a billion, thus surpassing the United States, Japan, Canada and Australia combined (450 million).

Not only would the 12 new countries then envisaged (10 countries of central and eastern Europe, plus Cyprus and Malta) add to the Union's cultural and geographical wealth and diversity, they would also make it the largest single market in the world.

The second challenge, external to Europe, now influenced its development and would lead it to open up to the rest of the world. This challenge was an increasing globalisation of economies and trade. In the course of the 1990s the substance of the debates on European integration would thus gradually change to take greater account of the global dimension of the problems which would require Europe to devise its responses and strategy collectively. This new order brought about by globalisation required radical changes in Europe's economies and societies and increased the need for joint action from Europeans, not only in order to cope with stronger international competition but also to defend European values and a European development model. While Europeans' common destiny had initially been to unite to make Europe an area of peace and prosperity, an equally important dimension was now added to this: to respond jointly to the challenges posed by globalisation.

The 1990s thus saw a growing awareness of the need to step up cooperation and joint action in order to address more effectively issues which were becoming increasingly difficult to deal with at national level. The increase in the number of meetings of Heads of State or Government and the content of the conclusions they adopted testified to this trend and to the greater importance given to the European level for political cooperation and action.

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[394] Norway was also a candidate country but the Norwegian population voted against accession in the referendum of 28 November 1994.

[395] Agreement signed in Porto on 2 May 1992 between the seven countries (Austria, Finland, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway, Sweden and Switzerland) of the European Free Trade Association (EFTA) and the European Community. This agreement created the European Economic Area (EEA). Switzerland voted against joining, in a referendum on 6 December 1992.
But the consequences of these two major challenges of enlargement and globalisation were not only economic; they also had an impact on culture and education. It was now more necessary than ever to create this 'ever closer union among the peoples of Europe' which had been asserted since the beginning by successive treaties (396) and could not be achieved by economic integration alone. The globalisation of trade and the new information and communication technologies had an ever greater impact on how and where knowledge was transferred, education and training systems being at the top of the list.

(396)
4.2. THE FIRST STAGES OF DEVELOPMENT OF THE KNOWLEDGE SOCIETY AND LIFELONG LEARNING

In order to address the challenges facing the EU, the Copenhagen European Council (21–22 June 1993) called on the European Commission to present a White Paper on a medium-term strategy to promote growth, competitiveness and employment. Jacques Delors presented this document in December 1993 at the Brussels European Council, which adopted a plan of action for the years to come.

This White Paper was probably one of the most complete and most ambitious of the discussion papers which the Commission had produced to date, both in terms of the analysis of what was at stake for the Union and in terms of the proposed approach. In its section on employment it highlighted the importance of education and training systems. Pointing out their dual task of promoting both individual fulfilment and citizenship values and also supporting job-creating economic growth, the Commission underlined the crucial part which education and training systems would be required to play, provided major changes were made, in 'the emergence of a new development model in the Community' (397).

The shortcomings and challenges were clearly identified: an inadequate level of initial and continuing training, a lack of qualifications in certain areas, too many young people leaving school without qualifications, continuing failure rate in schools, etc. The facts were already quite clear: in a society based increasingly on the production, transfer and sharing of knowledge, access to knowledge was becoming more and more crucial, and knowledge and know-how acquired at any given time would have to be updated regularly. Systems had to adapt to these new circumstances. According to the White Paper, 'lifelong education is ... the overall objective to which the national educational communities can make their own contributions'. It also highlighted the need to create a genuine European area and market for qualifications and occupations and to address the lack of mutual transparency and the limited recognition of qualifications and skills at Community level. This problem was not new, but it was becoming more urgent because of the completion of the single market. It was not until 2004 (see point 5.1.4) that steps were taken to develop a European framework for qualifications and competences.

As early as 1993 the Commission had analysed the challenges involved in the development of the knowledge society (398) and pointed to lifelong learning as a conceptual framework within which future action at Community and national levels should take place. The same White Paper also proposed organising a 'European Year of Education' which would become, in 1996 (399), the 'European Year of Lifelong Learning'.

398 In 1994 it adopted a communication discussing measures which could be taken in response to the various challenges set out in the White Paper — COM(94) 528 final of 23 November 1994, 'Education and training in the face of technological, industrial and social challenges: First thoughts'.
4.2.1. Investment in lifelong learning

Lifelong education is therefore the overall objective to which the national educational communities can make their own contributions (\textsuperscript{[400]}).

The Europe of knowledge and lifelong learning are two dimensions which are closely linked. In the 1990s, Community action helped to raise Member States’ awareness of these issues and involve them in the national debates.

By highlighting the development of lifelong learning, the White Paper on growth, competitiveness and employment took up once again the ideas put forward 20 years earlier by Altiero Spinelli, Commissioner responsible for education issues in the early stages of the institution’s involvement. ‘School is no longer merely a period of initial training. It works towards continuing education. … Coherence between school and other forms of education is not only essential but must continue throughout life. Attention must therefore be paid to the need for coherence, which must also form a basis for education policy at all levels’ (\textsuperscript{[401]}). This concern for greater coherence between education and training and for lifelong learning was taken up by Henri Janne in his report to the Commission in 1973 on the possible components of a Community education policy (see point 2.2) and in the report he drafted in 1977, together with Bertrand Schwartz, for the European Commission (\textsuperscript{[402]}).

Other bodies (Unesco, Council of Europe, the OECD) (\textsuperscript{[403]}) had also focused on the importance of its development in the 1970s, though this did not lead to any significant steps being taken in the national systems. In the 1990s conditions favoured an approach of this kind, and real progress was required. European societies had to face up to the emergence of globalisation, the information society and increasing scientific and technological advances, all of which allowed greater access for all to information and knowledge, but would also create an unprecedented need to acquire new competences and regularly update qualifications and knowledge at all levels. The challenge for all countries was therefore to use education and training systems to prepare young people and adults to adapt to these new circumstances in order to prevent an increase in problems of social division and exclusion.

The Commission had already – in its 1991 memoranda on higher education, vocational training and distance learning (see point 3.1.3) – underlined these sectors’ contribution to lifelong learning. It made the same point in its proposals in spring 1993 (\textsuperscript{[404]}) for renewing and streamlining the first generation of Community programmes on education and training, due to come to an end at the end of 1994. It was already analysing in depth possible closer ties between education and training policies, anticipating the developments which would take place 10 years later (see point 5.7): ‘The virtue of the concept of lifelong education is that it could provide a new


\textsuperscript{[401]} Bilan et perspectives de l’activité du groupe ‘Enseignement et éducation’, memorandum from Mr Spinelli to Members of the Commission, 24 November 1972, SEC(72) 4250.


\textsuperscript{[403]} Unesco began examining the question of lifelong learning in 1970. It set up an International Commission on the Development of Education, chaired by Edgar Faure (former French education minister) who, in his final report (‘Learning to be’) published in 1972, would highlight the importance of lifelong learning for all. The OECD would take the same line in its 1973 report ‘Recurrent education: a strategy for lifelong learning’, and the Council of Europe would at the same time undertake an important project on continuing education and adult education.

vision and a better framework for welding together in one integrated effort the various components of the education and training arrangements, often separately organised, and thus create much more dynamic and flexible education and training systems for the future' (405).

Significant progress was made between 1993 and 2000, making it possible for Community cooperation to extend its analysis to include questions related to the development of the knowledge society and lifelong learning and to prepare for their implementation, particularly following the Lisbon European Council of March 2000.


- 1995: White Paper 'Teaching and learning — towards the learning society'.
- 1996: European Year of Lifelong Learning (406).
- December 1996: Conclusions of the Education Council (407) outlining a strategy for lifelong learning (408).
- October 1997: The preamble to the Amsterdam Treaty underlined the need to ‘promote the development of the highest possible level of knowledge’ for the European peoples ‘through a wide access to education and through its continuous updating’.
- November 1997: The Luxembourg Special European Council on employment laid down the first guidelines for national employment policies. Lifelong learning became a cross-cutting objective of the European employment strategy.  

[405] Ibid., section I 9.
[406] With a budget of ECU 8 million, the European Year provided support for more than 500 projects selected from more than 2 000 proposals received. For further information, see the European Commission’s report of 15 September 1999 on the implementation of the European Year, COM(1999) 447 final.
[408] In 1996 education ministers of the OECD countries adopted a programme of lifelong learning for all as the strategic framework for education and training policy on the threshold of the 21st century.
• 1999: New financial framework for the Union for the period 2000–06 ‘Agenda 2000’ (\(\text{409}\)), putting ‘knowledge at the forefront’ and placing greater emphasis on internal policies — heading 3 of the budget (\(\text{410}\)), which includes education, training and youth.

• 2000: March (Lisbon): investment in knowledge was placed at the heart of the Union’s new economic and social strategy. June: the Santa Maria da Feira European Council called for the development of practical measures and strategies to implement lifelong learning (it would reiterate this demand later, in 2004 and in 2005). November: the Commission memorandum initiated a wide-ranging debate on the subject.

4.2.2. White Paper on the learning society

Of the various factors leading to the Lisbon declarations in 2000, one played a particularly important part in raising awareness in Europe of the challenges posed by the knowledge society and the resultant need for lifelong learning: the Commission’s White Paper on the learning society (\(\text{412}\)).

When the new Commission took up its duties in January 1995, the new generation of education, training and youth programmes had already been proposed by the previous Commission. These had either just been adopted (Leonardo da Vinci, on 6 December 1994) or were in the process of being adopted (Socrates and ‘Youth’, on 14 March 1995).

In line with the 1993 White Paper on growth, competitiveness and employment, priority was at this time given to a debate on the challenges facing European education and training systems and on potential measures to help meet them. This took the form of a study group set up in September 1995 to gather the opinions of independent experts (\(\text{413}\)) and a White Paper examining the issues and challenges and presenting specific proposals for future action.

This White Paper entitled ‘Teaching and learning — Towards the learning society’ was discussed and disseminated in 1996, during the European Year of Lifelong Learning. It identified three factors of upheaval (the information society, internationalisation, and scientific and technical knowledge) in European society, the new opportunities they brought and the new risks they created for societies already lacking equality.
It highlighted the challenges facing education and training systems in what had become a learning society, being increasingly based on intelligence, knowledge, information, qualifications and the updating of qualifications (\(^\text{414}\)). A society of this kind was seen to be facing a dual challenge: an economic one in that, being open to the world, the European Union had unceasingly to strengthen its competitiveness by drawing on its main asset, namely its capacity to generate and use knowledge with the aid of the great potential of its labour force; and the social challenge of responding to the need to combat exclusion by avoiding a rift in society between those who had knowledge and those who did not.

This White Paper, the result of work undertaken jointly by the services of the Commissioner responsible for education, training and youth and those of the Commissioner responsible for employment, industrial relations and social affairs (\(^\text{415}\)), called for all possible steps to be taken to come to terms with internationalisation and its consequences. The responses which education and training systems can provide, together, in order to address these challenges were felt to be twofold: enhancing a broad knowledge base and fostering employability.

### White Paper on the learning society

*Five objectives and proposals for action*

1. **Increase the general level of knowledge** by encouraging the acquisition of new knowledge and more flexible methods of recognising skills, including non-formal competences (for example by introducing personal competences cards, widespread use of the ECTS).

2. **Bring schools and the business sector closer together** by developing all forms of apprenticeship/trainee schemes (for example via networks of apprenticeship/trainee centres, mobility of apprentices/trainees and the introduction of a European charter for apprentices/trainees).

3. **Combat exclusion** (for example by offering second-chance schemes for young people who have left the education system without a qualification, and by developing European voluntary service).

4. **Ensure proficiency in at least three Community languages** (for example by creating a European quality label for schools).

5. **Treat capital investment** and investment in training on an equal basis.

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\(^{414}\) Reference should be made here to the study already carried out on the subject in 1994 (published in February 1995) by the European Round Table of Industrialists (research project undertaken in cooperation with the European Rectors’ Conference): ‘Education for Europeans — towards the learning society’.

\(^{415}\) Respectively Édith Cresson and Padraig Flynn. The Commissioner responsible for industry, telecommunications and information technology, Martin Bangemann, later also gave his approval.
The proposals in this White Paper directly questioned the way in which education systems worked. They led to substantive discussions and helped raise public awareness of the emergence of the knowledge economy. There were some misgivings, however. While Member States did not dispute the five objectives which had been set, they did feel that the measures proposed were complex and difficult to implement, and called for them to be qualified (\textsuperscript{416}). The debate continued and the Commission introduced pilot projects for each of the five objectives in order to prove the relevance of the proposals. In May 1997 it adopted a communication (\textsuperscript{417}) setting out the main political messages emerging from the debates which followed the White Paper’s publication. It also presented the various experiments which it had undertaken relating to the White Paper’s five objectives. Some of them went on to become long-term projects, sometimes leading to an action programme, as in the case of the European Voluntary Service for young people, and information and communication technologies.

4.2.3. Specific measures

— The European Voluntary Service

The European Voluntary Service was an idea which the European Parliament had supported for a long time (\textsuperscript{418}). Based on a proposal from the Commission, on 20 July 1998 the Parliament and the Council adopted a Community action programme on this subject (‘European Voluntary Service for young people’) (\textsuperscript{419}), which followed on from a pilot phase undertaken in 1996 and 1997. With a budget of ECU 47.5 million, the aim of this new programme was to support long-term or short-term transnational activities of benefit to the community, within the EU and in third countries. This action would later be incorporated into the new ‘Youth’ programme (2000–06).

— Giving a second chance to young people who fail in school

The idea of second-chance schools, designed to provide new, tailor-made avenues back to the world of work and active citizenship for the disadvantaged young people who failed in school, thus began to make progress, despite misgivings from the outset concerning the very concept of second-chance schools. There were more than 300 expressions of interest in this scheme (\textsuperscript{420}). In June 1999, following the impetus provided by the European Commission, a European Association of Cities for Second Chance Schools was set up. As of 1997, following the pilot phase, the new Objective 3 of the Structural Funds (\textsuperscript{421}) and the Grundtvig strand of the Socrates programme (2000–06) supported the development of this scheme. Interest in this project even went beyond the EU’s borders. On 22 June 1999, the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe adopted a resolution (\textsuperscript{422}) in support of pilot projects for second-chance schools in the Member States of the Council of Europe, taking the view that such projects should be extended to all European countries. These schools had a success rate approaching 70 %, and some 30 new projects were being examined (\textsuperscript{423}).
— A move towards new methods of skills validation

The complex issue of recognition of experience and competences acquired on a non-formal or informal basis was attracting increasing interest. The proposals put forward in the White Paper concerning the development of new methods of skills validation (personal competences cards, European skills accreditation system) were discussed at length. This raised awareness among those concerned (427) about an issue that was an integral part of the more general question of the transparency of qualifications, which had been on the Community agenda for quite some time and would later resurface in debates on the implementation of lifelong learning. Europe’s need to harness the knowledge acquired by individuals throughout life required new methods of recognising skills, over and above paper qualifications and initial training. The White Paper also called for methods of mutual recognition similar to the system used in higher education (the ECTS) to be applied to vocational training. The Barcelona European Council repeated this call seven years later, in March 2002, signifying that the progress made had not been adequate.

Some steps were taken, nevertheless, in the late 1990s. Several European instruments were developed for the recognition of competences and qualifications acquired through training carried out within the Union: the certificate supplement for vocational qualifications (the counterpart of the diploma supplement for higher education) (428), the European curriculum vitae format, for simple and efficient presentation of individual qualifications and skills, and Europass (429), designed as a ‘European passport’ setting out the knowledge and experience acquired on both a formal and non-formal basis. A new Europass, incorporating these various instruments, was adopted in 2004 (see point 5.3.2).

— European educational software

The White Paper on the learning society also provided an opportunity to draw attention to what the information society meant for education and training systems. It highlighted in particular the acquisition of new knowledge via the development of European educational software. A Council resolution on the subject followed very quickly, on 6 May 1996 (424). This question has remained on the Community’s agenda ever since. The problem of technology applied to education was not new: it had been a subject of concern and joint action as early as 1983 (425). But the arrival of the Internet and the development of multimedia changed everything. Ways of creating, acquiring and exchanging information, of communicating and working were changed drastically as a result, and education and training systems were called into question with regard to the form and content of learning. Diversification of how and where knowledge was acquired posed the crucial question of the content transmitted by new media and the need to train teachers to cope with this new challenge. The White Paper on the learning society underlined this challenge facing Europe and in doing so helped to refocus discussion of technology-related issues, in which technical aspects tended to prevail over questions of content and methods.

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427 On 15 July 1996 the Council adopted a resolution on the transparency of vocational training certificates, encouraging initiatives to promote new transparent models of certificates (96/C 224/04).
428 The diploma supplement (DS) is a document attached to a higher education diploma and is intended to improve international ‘transparency’ and facilitate academic and professional recognition of qualifications (diplomas, degrees, certificates, etc.). It was developed jointly in 1997–98 by the European Commission, the Council of Europe and Unesco-CEPES (European centre for higher education) with a view to providing a description of the nature, level, context, content and status of the studies undertaken and successfully completed by the individual named on the original qualification to which this supplement is appended. It should be free from any value judgments, equivalence statements or suggestions about recognition. It is a flexible non-prescriptive tool which can be adapted to local needs (ec.europa.eu/education/index_en.html). Free and systematic distribution of the diploma supplement to all students was one of the priorities laid down by the Bologna process in 2003 (see point 5.4.1).
425 Council Resolution 96/C 195/03 of 6 May 1996 relating to educational multimedia software in the fields of education and training.
426 Resolution of the Council of 19 September 1983 on measures relating to the introduction of new information technology.
A task force on educational multimedia software was set up in March 1995 (\textsuperscript{429}). It continued to meet until 1998 and resulted in a combined effort, through six European programmes (\textsuperscript{430}), to speed up the development of information and communication technologies. As part of this cooperation a joint call for proposals was issued in December 1996, backed by a Community contribution of EUR 49 million. In total, 46 educational multimedia projects were selected. On 2 October 1996, at the request of the Florence European Council held in June 1996, the action plan ‘Learning in the information society’ was launched. This supported the introduction of electronic networks between schools throughout Europe (creation of the EUN network) (\textsuperscript{431}), the development of educational multimedia resources with the help of Europe’s audiovisual and publishing sectors (creation in 1997 of a database on publishers and products and of a European education partnership between the main stakeholders), training for teachers in the use of ICT (\textsuperscript{432}) and raising awareness of the potential of new technologies (Netd@ys) (\textsuperscript{433}).
— A European label for language teaching

The outcome of the proposal to develop a European label for foreign language teaching, put forward in the White Paper on the learning society, was also positive, even though, because of reservations on the part of the Member States, the initial project debated at length could not become reality until it was agreed that its implementation would be significantly decentralised. Following a pilot phase in 1997 and 1998, the European label (\textsuperscript{434}) has since been awarded annually, in each Member State (\textsuperscript{435}), to the initiatives selected as the most innovative (from pre-school to adult education) in foreign language learning. National selection panels decide which projects receive the label, based on European criteria (\textsuperscript{436}) plus national criteria (\textsuperscript{437}). This action, which is funded by the Socrates and Leonardo da Vinci programmes, brings to light innovative experiments (teaching materials, teacher training) and promotes the exchange of best practice between European countries.

To provide information on the projects selected, and with a view to disseminating and capitalising on their results, the Commission created a ‘label database’ in 2002 (\textsuperscript{438}).

In general, the principal merit of this White Paper on the learning society was to ensure that, following the major efforts made in 1993/1994 when the programmes were first streamlined, Community cooperation in education and training did not focus solely on the newly adopted programmes and forget to follow up on the fundamental questions raised by the Jacques Delors White Paper of 1993. The White Paper on the learning society played quite a significant part in making those involved in education and training aware of the concept of the knowledge society and its consequences. It was also the first document of its kind to place education and training systems together in addressing issues which now went beyond sectoral interests. While the proposals for action were not always equal to the challenges highlighted in the analysis, a genuine boost was nevertheless given to the implementation of a voluntary service approach at European level, to the matter of recognition of non-formal competences, to provision for young people who have failed in school, to the quality of language learning and to the promotion of educational software with European content.
4.3. **TWO-PHASE STREAMLINING OF COMMUNITY PROGRAMMES**

The transformation of Community education and training programmes took place in two phases in the course of the 1990s. The first, in 1993/1994, was more quantitative than qualitative, merging the six existing programmes into two broad programmes (Socrates and Leonardo da Vinci), thus putting an end to the quite fragmented nature of Community action in this area (see Annex 2). These two new programmes still bore the hallmark of the former actions, particularly in the case of Socrates. They included new actions, however, for example in the area of school education, after this was incorporated in the treaty. Preparations for the second phase of transformation began in 1997, with a view to extending Socrates and Leonardo da Vinci for the period 2000–06. Efforts were made to create closer links between education and training, to simplify the administration of the actions and to adapt the programmes in order to address the wider challenges facing education and training systems. This could not always be achieved in practice, however, and it was not until the fourth generation of programmes arrived (see point 5.7) that more significant progress could be envisaged.

4.3.1. **From six programmes to two (Socrates and Leonardo da Vinci)**

In the early 1990s, the new Community programmes on education and vocational training became increasingly popular. The formula was so successful that a succession of specific programmes were introduced in the space of four years, from 1986 to 1990 (see point 3.2). There were seven at the beginning of the 1990s (Comett, Erasmus, Lingua, PETRA, FORCE, Eurotecnet and Tempus), plus a number of actions funded under budget headings not covered by legal bases.

Such diversity was justified at that time: at the end of the 1980s, in order to gain entry into the Treaty, it was necessary to make the most of the favourable climate of the time and take all possible steps to increase the visibility of education and training and their relevance to European integration. Thanks to the programme formula, combined with the legal opportunities provided by the Court of Justice, the Commission was able to set the scene by increasing the number of initiatives and varying the actions introduced. The gamble paid off. By making these transnational programmes as accessible as possible for participants, education and training broke new ground at Community level and showed the importance of cooperation at grassroot level. They also became harder to ignore. The momentum and visibility which these first programmes gave to Community action in education were the driving force behind its recognition in the treaty in 1992.

The Commission had however been aware, since the early 1990s, that the development of a method of Community cooperation that was clear and coherent was made more difficult by the fact that these programmes were much too fragmented.
Since the aim was to extend the programmes, in terms of both the number of actions and in particular the number of participating countries (\cite{443}), an overhaul therefore became inevitable. Moreover, as there were now two specific articles on education and training in the treaty (respectively Article 126 and Article 127), the programmes would have to be reorganised accordingly.

As most of the seven programmes concerned came to an end at the end of 1994 (\cite{444}), they were renewed and streamlined at the same time (\cite{445}). These programmes then covered mainly higher education and vocational training. One of the major innovations was the inclusion of school education in the Treaty of Maastricht. The intercultural education pilot schemes under the 1988 resolution (see point 3.3.1), but also the 1976 resolution, paved the way, and the 1993 Green Paper on the European dimension of education (\cite{446}) helped bring to the fore this level of education and the potential it offered for cooperation. The preparations for new programmes were thus designed not only to streamline the six existing programmes but also to take this new dimension into account.

Professor Antonio Ruberti, who was the Member of the European Commission then responsible for education and training matters, presented his vision of the new generation of programmes in a communication from the Commission in May 1993 (\cite{447}). Two main programmes would result (\cite{448}): Leonardo da Vinci for initial and continuing vocational training and Socrates (\cite{449}) for school and university education. These were adopted by the European Parliament and the Council in December 1994 (\cite{450}) and March 1995 (\cite{451}) respectively and were a continuation of the previous six programmes.

By their nature and the way they were implemented, these programmes continued to symbolise the Community's catalytic and complementary action in education and training. They had to respect the letter and spirit of the treaty, as they were now legally bound by its terms. Community action was intended, via the cooperation it encouraged between Member States and those involved in education, to help develop high-quality education and training. As its role was to support and supplement the action of the Member States, which remained responsible for the content of teaching and organisation of their systems, it respected the principle of subsidiarity.

The two programmes adopted, Socrates and Leonardo da Vinci, differed greatly in terms of both approach and structure. One common feature of the programmes was however that they did not depart significantly from their predecessors. While they incorporated the latter into two broader areas, one for education and the other for vocational training, within them the actions remained distinct (particularly in the case of Socrates) and different methods of implementation were used for different measures.
The streamlining process begun by the Commission in 1993 had led to the proposal that a global approach be taken to education, based on Article 126 of the treaty, bringing together higher education and school education in a single programme, Socrates (see box below). This programme thus encompassed the old actions (mainly Erasmus and most of Lingua) and the new ones (school education, open and distance learning, adult education). In the proposed actions, however, higher education still took up the lion’s share of the budget. European cooperation was generally much less developed in school education than in higher education. While school education held great potential for developing the European dimension in education, and also stood to benefit greatly from it, it still had a long way to go to establish and develop a culture and practice of transnational cooperation. Conditions were also less favourable than in higher education, where institutions had a high degree of autonomy in setting up transnational partnerships.

In order to provide a measure of continuity and ensure that the actions remained comprehensible to the public, the names of the Erasmus and Lingua programmes were retained within the Socrates programme. The new action concerning school education (from pre-school to secondary education, including technical and vocational training in the case of the linguistic partnerships) would be called Comenius, after the Czech pedagogue Komenský (see). This choice showed that, even as early as 1994, the Community was very much open to the wealth which education in the countries of central and eastern Europe had to offer. The action relating to general education for adults was also new, though its part in the programme remained a modest one (‘Other measures’ category). Adult education was to become an action in its own right (Grundtvig) when the programme was next extended, in 2000, as part of the development of lifelong learning. Open and distance learning, which until then had been covered by individual measures within Erasmus and Comett, also became an integral part of the Socrates programme, after awareness of this area had been significantly raised by the 1991 memorandum and the issue incorporated in the treaty.

As in the past, and because this approach had proved itself, the main instruments of cooperation continued to be mobility and exchanges, networks and transnational partnerships. The introduction of the institutional contract in implementing Erasmus was nevertheless an important innovation which, because of the significant changes it involved, did not enter into force until the 1997–98 academic year. This changed significantly the way in which the interuniversity cooperation projects (ICPs) of the former Erasmus programme were managed. The institutional contract, concluded for three years, encompassed all transnational cooperation measures planned by the university concerned. The aim was twofold: to lighten the administrative burden of the programme by putting an end to the submission of a large number of small projects, and to encourage universities to develop an overall project and a coherent strategy of cooperation within the Community. The latter aspect not only involved bringing together the projects planned by the university; it also

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[448] The name Comenius was chosen as a reminder of Europe’s rich educational heritage. Johann Amos Comenius (J. A. Komenský) (1592–1670), born in what is today the Czech Republic, was a theologian, philosopher and pedagogue who believed that only through education could man achieve his full potential and lead a truly harmonious life. He was one of the founding fathers of modern education, but, having lived through the period of the Thirty Years’ War (1618–48), Comenius was also a cosmopolitan and universalist who strove incessantly for human rights, peace between the nations, social peace and the unity of mankind.
included a ‘European policy statement’ from the university, presenting its general development plan and its short and medium-term strategy for European cooperation. ‘The institutions were suddenly challenged not to consider their international activities anymore as marginal, non-coherent, decentralised activities of individuals but rather as important, costly activities which require a certain stability as well as a common infrastructural support if they were to lead to cross-fertilisation, activities which are supposed to be relevant to the quality and reputation of the institution as a whole.’ (449).

University cooperation projects on topics of common interest (the future ‘thematic networks’ of Socrates II) were another new feature of the Socrates programme. By strengthening qualitative cooperation between institutions and developing the European dimension in higher education, the objective was, as in the institutional contracts, to expand the scope of Erasmus and raise the profile of this programme, which had until then been very much associated with student mobility. The European Commission had always held the view that mobility could not be an end in itself and that it was one of the most important means of promoting the European dimension in education systems.

Socrates was adopted, in line with the Commission’s wishes, on the basis of Articles 126 and 127 of the Treaty. One of the recitals of the decision establishing the programme stated however that this did not imply ‘that the Socrates programme can be considered as one of the measures for implementing vocational training policy within the meaning of Article 127’. By adding this clarification, the Member States showed that they did not wish to return to a broad interpretation of the concept of vocational training (see point 3.1.2).

4.3.1.2. Leonardo da Vinci

Based on Article 127 of the Treaty, the Leonardo da Vinci programme covers initial and continuing vocational training. In line with the Commission’s proposals, it took over actions from the FORCE and Eurotecnet programmes but also from PETRA (initial vocational training), Comett (cooperation between universities and industry) and a small part of Lingua. While the Socrates programme was structured around specific actions and levels of education and could therefore retain the names of the previous generation of programmes, the Leonardo programme simply incorporated former actions without retaining their names. Pilot transnational projects and placement and exchange programmes continued to be the key instruments used in the programme.

The final structure (see box) of the Leonardo programme, following the negotiations, was not without its complexities. Based on a common framework of 19 objectives, the programme offered four strands comprising a total of 22 measures. As its aim was to pursue a European Community vocational training policy, the Commission’s initial proposal placed particular emphasis on this common framework of 19 objectives, which was to be used as a frame of reference for implementing the programme and the national vocational training policies. This aspect had been a sticking point in the negotiations concerning the programme, some Member States fearing that
it would be used to impose legally binding policy objectives and that they would be encouraged to harmonise their systems. Others considered it redundant in light of Article 127 or the 1963 decision setting out the 10 general principles of a common vocational training policy (see point 1.4). It was agreed that this common framework of objectives would apply only to measures taken within the programme.

A PROGRAMME FOR EDUCATION: SOCRATES (1995–99)

General objective: to contribute to the development of quality education and training and the creation of an open European area for cooperation in education.

Nine specific objectives:
- to develop the European dimension in education in order to promote citizenship;
- to promote knowledge of languages, in particular those which are least widely used and least taught;
- to promote intensive cooperation between institutions;
- to encourage the mobility of teachers;
- to encourage the mobility of students;
- to encourage contacts among pupils and to promote the European dimension in their education;
- to encourage the academic recognition of diplomas and periods of study with the aim of facilitating the development of a European area for cooperation in education;
- to encourage open and distance learning;
- to foster exchanges of information and experience.

Four strands (27 measures):

Chapter I — Higher education (Erasmus)
Action 1: assistance to universities for activities with a European dimension (institutional contracts, thematic networks)
Action 2 (decentralised): mobility grants for students

Chapter II — School education (Comenius)
Action 1 (decentralised): school partnerships, teacher exchanges and preparatory visits
Action 2: transnational projects on intercultural education (children of migrant workers, gypsies, travellers and occupational travellers)
Action 3 (decentralised): continuing training for teachers
Chapter III — Horizontal measures

Language learning (Lingua)
Action A: teacher training modules
Action B (decentralised): teacher training placements
Action C (decentralised): assistantships abroad (for future language teachers)
Action D: development of instruments for teaching and evaluation
Action E (decentralised): joint education projects with pupil exchanges

Open and distance education
European partnerships and observation projects

Exchange of information and experience
Eurydice, Arion (decentralised) and NARIC

Other measures
Promotion of adult education
Complementary measures (support for associations, activities concerned with the promotion, monitoring and evaluation of the programme)

Instruments of cooperation: institutional contract, transnational projects, mobility and networks
A PROGRAMME FOR TRAINING: LEONARDO DA VINCI (1995–99)

General objective: to implement a Community vocational training (VT) programme

A common framework of 19 specific objectives:
- to improve the quality and innovation capacity of VT systems;
- to develop the European dimension in training and guidance;
- to promote lifelong learning;
- to give young people the possibility of one or two, or more, years of initial vocational training after their full-time compulsory education;
- to encourage specific measures for adults without qualifications;
- to enhance the attractiveness of vocational education;
- to help prepare young people for adult and working life;
- to encourage specific measures for disadvantaged young people, in particular those who leave the education system without qualifications;
- to promote equality of access to initial and continuing training for persons who are disadvantaged;
- to support VT policies which give all workers access to continuing VT throughout their lives without discrimination;
- to promote equality of opportunity as regards access to vocational training for men and women;
- to promote equality of opportunity as regards access to vocational training for migrant workers and their children and those with disabilities;
- to promote cooperation on skills requirements and training needs, and encourage transparency of qualifications;
- to promote vocational training in the light of the results of technological research and development programmes, by means of cooperation between universities and undertakings in the area of training in technologies;
- to promote the development of an open European area for vocational training and qualifications, through the exchange of information and experience;
- to support measures designed to develop linguistic skills;
- to promote vocational guidance;
- to foster the development of self-training methods and of open and distance learning;
- to encourage the development and integration of key skills in vocational training measures.
Four strands (22 measures):

Strand I: support for improvement of VT systems and arrangements, with measures (based on 10 priorities) relating to initial and continuing VT, vocational information and guidance, the promotion of equal opportunities for men and women and disadvantaged groups

Measures: 1) transnational pilot projects; 2) transnational placement and exchange programmes (decentralised action)

Strand II: support for improvement of vocational training measures, including cooperation between universities and industry (as per Strand I for priority topics and measures)

Strand III: support for the development of language skills, knowledge and the dissemination of innovation

Strand IV: accompanying measures; support for the creation of cooperation networks between Member States, for information, monitoring and assessment measures and for technical assistance for national structures

Instruments of cooperation: transnational pilot projects and placement and exchange programmes.

The distribution of certain actions from the previous programmes among the two new ones was a thorny issue in discussions between the Commission and the Member States. The Commission’s proposal to incorporate the PETRA and Comett programmes in their entirety into the Leonardo da Vinci programme led to serious discussions concerning the identity, definition and scope of each programme. Where did education end and vocational training begin? Should the definition of the programmes be guided by these considerations or, as the Commission believed, by the way in which Articles 126 and 127 of the treaty defined the boundary between the two areas?
During the negotiations, some Member States argued in favour of dividing the PETRA and Comett actions between the two programmes (student placements in industry would for example have been included in the Socrates programme). The distribution proposed by the Commission was chosen in the end.

As the Union’s executive body, the Commission was responsible for ensuring that the Community programmes were implemented properly. It was assisted in this by the committees which it chaired and which comprised representatives of the participating countries. In line with the streamlining announced, the move from six programmes to two had also led to a considerable reduction in the number of these committees. There were therefore now two main bodies instead of six, i.e. one committee per programme (one Socrates committee and one Leonardo committee). These committees were of a dual nature, acting not only as consultative bodies which gave opinions on measures to be taken by the Commission but also as management committees which were entitled to vote. However, given the diversity of actions, objectives and target groups involved, the two programmes had made provision for the committee to set up, and define the statute and terms of reference of, two sub-committees (for example: the higher education and school education sub-committees for Socrates). The Commission also held regular meetings of the directors of the national agencies in order to deal with more specific aspects related to the actual implementation of the programmes.

4.3.1.3. Management methods

Since the first Community programmes in this area, there had been two forms of management: a decentralised form of management was adopted for some programme strands, using national agencies set up in the various countries (this was how Erasmus grants, for example, had been managed since the beginning); the other strands were managed centrally by the Commission, generally assisted by technical assistance offices.

The use of networks of national agencies was of course necessary because of the volume of operations to be managed, particularly in those programme strands relating to mobility. This decentralised method of management also made sure they were more accessible to the final beneficiaries, which was of particular importance in citizen-based programmes. In practical terms, each country participating in a programme appointed a body to which the Commission delegated the management of the decentralised strands of the programme in that country, within a framework of rules set by the Commission (relating, for example, to the transparency requirements in awarding funding at national level or to the checks which the agency had to carry out) ([450]). This form of management has been improved upon over the years; since 2003, the financial regulation, which governs the management of Community finances, has included it officially as one of the possible forms of externalising programme management, along lines largely inspired by education, training and youth programmes.

For broad-based programmes involving thousands of transactions every year, the Commission generally required the support of technical assistance offices in its management of the programmes’ centralised strands (for example those involving...
transnational pilot projects). Practically all programmes had one of these offices, set up by a body which had a service contract with the Commission. The streamlining exercise of 1995 had also had an impact on these external structures: the six former offices were replaced by two entities (a technical assistance office for the Socrates and ‘Youth for Europe’ programmes; another for the Leonardo da Vinci programme, which was closed down in early 1999). The use of such structures had been criticised and the tasks allocated to these offices reduced over the years. As part of the Commission’s administrative reform, at the beginning of 2000, a new form of externalisation using public-law bodies had been devised: since the adoption of a Council framework regulation at the end of 2002, the Commission has been able to set up executive agencies to which the management of Community programmes can be delegated and undertaken in accordance with rules which continued to be set by the Commission. In the course of 2005 an agency of this kind is to take on the remaining tasks of the technical assistance offices in relation to education and culture programmes.

4.3.1.4. The sinews of war: the budget

The content of the two new Socrates and Leonardo da Vinci programmes gave rise to lengthy debates and negotiations, during which the European Parliament proposed many amendments to improve the text. Unlike the first generation of programmes, and thanks to the clarification resulting from education’s inclusion in the treaty in 1992, the question of legal bases was no longer a contentious issue. One of the points on which it was most difficult for Parliament and the Council to reach a consensus was the budget to be allocated to these two major programmes.

In its initial proposals, the Commission had set a budget of ECU 1 billion for the Socrates programme and ECU 800 million for Leonardo da Vinci. As this was a time of national budgetary restraint, the negotiations were intense. Parliament and the Council finally agreed on much lower budgets than the Commission had hoped for: ECU 850 million for Socrates and ECU 620 million for Leonardo. This compromise was possible only when accompanied by a joint declaration by Parliament, the Council and the Commission providing for an evaluation of the Socrates programme after two years and indicating that the sum of ECU 850 million was a ‘preferential point of reference subject to alteration’. On this basis the Commission would submit, on 14 March 1997, a proposal for a decision to increase the amount by ECU 50 million. The European Parliament doubled the stake when its rapporteur, Doris Pack, proposed an increase of ECU 100 million, which also took into account the programme’s enlargement to include new countries (451) as of 1998. The Council of Education Ministers, then under the Dutch Presidency, decided on 26 June 1997 not to go beyond an increase of 25 million. A meeting of the conciliation committee was needed. Parliament stressed the needs of the users and the need for the programme to be extended to include the preaccession countries, and the Council reiterated the need for budgetary prudence and a cost-effective approach. In the end the Socrates programme received an increase of ECU 70 million for 1998 and 1999, bringing its total funding to ECU 920 million (452), a sum close to the Commission’s initial proposal.

[451] As part of the preaccession strategy the Community signed association agreements with the countries of central and eastern Europe, Cyprus and Malta, allowing them to take part in certain Community programmes. As of 1997, Cyprus, Hungary, the Czech Republic and Romania thus participated in the Socrates, Leonardo da Vinci and ‘Youth for Europe’ programmes; Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland and Slovakia began to participate in 1998 and Bulgaria and Slovenia in 1999. Malta would take part in Socrates II as of 2000.

[452] As the programme had funded supporting expenditure (administrative expenditure directly related to the programme) of ECU 13 million, the budgetary authority took account of this and added this sum to the budget for the final year. The total amount allocated to the programme would therefore be ECU 933 million. Source: Commission implementation report, COM(2001) 75.
It is worth pointing out that Socrates, together with the 'Youth for Europe' programme (453) adopted the same day, on 14 March 1995, was the first Community legal act to be adopted under the new decision-making procedure set out in the Maastricht Treaty: the co-decision procedure (454) (see point 3.4.4). This placed the European Parliament and the Council on an equal footing in the decision-making process. Parliament had until then simply been consulted and the final decision on the content and in particular the financing of a programme had been made by the Council alone. If these new circumstances had not been in place, it is very likely that the Socrates and ‘Youth for Europe’ budgets would have been lower.

With regard to the Leonardo da Vinci programme, as in the case of Socrates, the budgetary authority had finally decided to grant the programme more appropriations annually than had initially been envisaged (ECU 620 million for five years). This funding finally amounted to ECU 794 million.

4.3.1.5. Initial results

Since 1995, more than one million EU citizens have taken up the opportunity provided by the Socrates, Leonardo da Vinci and 'Youth for Europe' programmes or the 'European Voluntary Service for young people' to study, undergo training, enhance their personal development or work on social projects in a country other than their own. They have had the opportunity to acquire new skills, speak another language and discover new ways of dealing with problems. They have come into contact, even for a short time, with a different culture, different working methods and indeed new ideas. In central and eastern Europe, and in the former Soviet Union, the Tempus programme helped 1 500 universities and other higher education institutions to adapt to socioeconomic change and to build bridges between east and west. For all programmes on offer, demand exceeded supply (455).

The first streamlining of the Community’s education and training programmes did not diminish their success. These hotbeds of innovation and experimentation in Europe very quickly became a source of inspiration for other areas of Community action. In 1995, when the Commission launched new five-year Community initiatives on employment and human resources financed by the European Social Fund (ADAPT and ‘Employment’ programmes) (456), it was largely inspired by the approach taken in the education and training programmes. The application of ADAPT and ‘Employment’, which were followed in 2000 by the EQUAL programme, was also based on the principles of transnationality, innovation, a ‘bottom-up’ approach and the multiplier effect.

Evaluation became increasingly important, since it provided an opportunity to highlight the programmes’ achievements and assess their strengths and weaknesses in order to make them steadily more effective. When referring to the evaluation of Community education and training measures, it is always important to bear in mind that Community cooperation in these areas still takes up less than 1 % of the total EU budget and that the Community does not therefore have the means
to reach all groups concerned (Socrates: 70 million pupils, more than 300 000 schools, 11 million students, 5 000 higher education institutions, hundreds of millions of adult learners). In addition to the evaluations carried out, it would also be important to consider the symbolic aspect of these programmes, which is not easy to quantify on the basis of traditional effectiveness criteria but plays an important part in the public’s perception of the relevance of European integration.

When Socrates and Leonardo were introduced in 1995, the evaluation of Community programmes and actions in general was a highly topical issue. The Commission had just launched the SEM 2000 (SEM stands for ‘sound and efficient management’) programme to improve financial management, budgetary planning, evaluation and auditing at Community level. In this context, the systematic evaluation of Community programmes and actions was considered to be the main tool the Commission needed to ensure optimum use of EU budget resources.

In fact, as early as June 1992 (458), the Education Council had adopted a position on this matter, requesting that future programmes undergo assessment in addition to those carried out by the Commission, and that this be clearly defined in the decision establishing each programme. Ministers asked that the terms of reference of the assessment make it possible not only to carry out an objective assessment of the programmes’ impact but also to ‘establish clear links between their benefits and the resources allocated to them’. This insistence that the programmes be cost-effective was a reflection of the increasing national budgetary restraint in the Member States. It may also have been a means of showing that the resources available for Community cooperation in education and training fell short of the growing demand for cooperation from those in the field. The programmes would always suffer from this shortfall.

Several assessments were carried out during the first five years of the Socrates programme (1995–99). The programme’s first interim assessment concerned the years 1995 and 1996 (459), and on the basis of this assessment the Commission proposed that the programme’s budget be increased by ECU 50 million. Following an external evaluation, the Commission produced a second report on programme implementation for the years 1995 to 1997 (460). Four external evaluations were also carried out after the programme had ended, and these were completed in November 2000. Taking account of these various external evaluations, in February 2001 the Commission produced its own final report on the programme’s implementation (461). This was discussed at length by the Socrates committee and by the liaison group (462) which it set up in 1999 to monitor assessment of the programme. This ‘ex-post’ evaluation was carried out after the second phase of Socrates, which was adopted on 24 January 2000 by the European Parliament and the Council for a period of seven years (2000–06), had got under way. Its objective was therefore no longer to influence the content but to report on the results of the first five years of the programme and to give rise to a debate on these results in order to benefit from the experience acquired and improve the implementation of the second phase.
The history of European cooperation in education and training

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The same applied to the assessment of the Leonardo da Vinci programme. The Commission published its final report on 22 December 2000 (\(^{(465)}\)). This was based on national reports provided by the participating countries, reports from the social partners at European level and an external evaluation report.

The assessments recognised that while more work was still needed to improve the effectiveness and the impact of Socrates and Leonardo, these programmes nonetheless undoubtedly represented a further step in education and training cooperation in the period 1995–99, reaching an ever increasing number of participants and ensuring that the European dimension was ever more present in education systems and practices (\(^{(466)}\)). This was borne out by the figures: between 1995 and 1999, some 460 000 students received Erasmus funding for mobility, twice as many as between 1990 and 1995. While 1 400 teachers also received mobility funding under interinstitutional cooperation programmes in the academic year 1990/1991, 7 000 did so in 1998/1999. The number of higher education institutions using ECTS rose from 145 in 1989 to more than 1 200 (5 000 faculties or departments) in 1999. In 1995, 1 500 schools were involved in multilateral school partnerships. This figure rose to 9 000 in 1999. Aside from these figures, it is also important to highlight the Socrates and Leonardo programmes’ pioneering role in preparing the education and training systems, and those involved in them, of central and eastern Europe, Cyprus and Malta for EU accession, carrying on the work begun by the Tempus programme in 1990 (see point 3.2.6).

The criticisms put forward in the external evaluations, and incorporated in the Commission’s final reports, included three points common to Socrates and Leonardo; these points were also reiterated in later evaluations carried out with the programmes’ extension in mind. They concerned the programmes’ management methods, which were unanimously considered to be too cumbersome, the lack of complementarity with other programmes, and shortcomings in terms of the dissemination and use of the results. The unnecessary complexity of the programmes’ decision-making and management procedures and levels (in relation to the often modest sums involved) had the major disadvantages of forcing promoters to tend to prioritise the administrative and financial aspects of the projects over their content, and causing significant delays in payments. In the case of Leonardo, the problems were compounded by the closure of the programme’s technical assistance office at the beginning of 1999 (\(^{(467)}\)). The fact that the programme had too many objectives (in particular Leonardo), or its objectives were too vague, making an overview of the results difficult (in particular for Socrates), was also mentioned by the evaluators and included in the Commission’s report. The two evaluation reports also deplored the lack of complementarity with other related programmes, both for these two programmes and for others such as ‘Youth for Europe’, the European Social Fund programmes on vocational training, and the framework programme on research and development (R & D) (\(^{(468)}\)).

The Commission’s evaluation report on Socrates had the particular merit of raising a number of fundamental issues, most of which were also raised in the external evaluations. It called for a debate on these issues among the partners concerned in order to review the situation for the future. An important issue was the funds
available in general in relation to the objectives pursued by the programme (are such programmes meant to support pilot or experimental actions or is a move towards large-scale action preferable?). What kind of balance was needed, and how was it to be achieved, between an objective such as mobility, which was intended to be available to as many people as possible, and more qualitative objectives related to innovation and improving the quality of education systems? Questions raised also related to the ‘increasing gap between the actual cost of certain actions and that covered by the programme budget’ ([6]). This applied particularly to student mobility, with too much disparity between countries ([6]), branches of study and levels of funding, but also increasingly to European cooperation at school level, given the growing number of schools wishing to take part in European cooperation schemes. Community programmes should be used to supplement national measures and sources of funding allocated to promote the European dimension in education systems and programmes. The debate on sources of funding for each action prompts the Commission to consider, for the implementation of national education policies open to the European dimension, the involvement of the participating countries in a spirit of partnership between European and national levels’ ([6]).

Still with a view to improving future Community action, the Commission also made a number of important observations, including the need to step up measures to promote intercultural education, and the continued existence of obstacles to the mobility ([6]) of pupils, students and teachers within the European area ([6]). On this latter point, noting that in Comenius and Lingua it was mainly teachers aged 40 to 50 who participated in mobility programmes (decentralised action managed by each Member State), the Commission asked which group should be given priority, given limited resources. Would it not be be more useful to offer this opportunity to teachers in the early stages of their careers?

Adult education was a new feature introduced by Socrates. The funding allocated to this action, which was originally intended to receive only 2.7 % of the programme budget, very quickly proved to be inadequate given the increasing importance of lifelong learning and the role of adult education in this context. It gained the status it deserved in the second phase of the programme, under the Grundtvig action. The action on distance learning, which was devised before the explosion of the Internet in Europe, followed a similar course, with an initial budget which was to prove too low in view of developments in the sector. The future Minerva action and the ‘eLearning’ programme (see point 5.5.2) would strengthen this area in the second phase of the programme.

The Socrates, Leonardo da Vinci and ‘Youth for Europe’ programmes were the first Community programmes to open their doors, in 1997 ([6]), to the countries of central and eastern Europe, Cyprus and Malta ([6]). Opening Community cooperation in education and training to 12 of the EU’s candidate countries had been a key event of the second half of the 1990s. These countries ([6]) would continue to take part in the next generation of programmes (Socrates II, Leonardo da Vinci II and ‘Youth’) until they joined the European Union on 1 May 2004. It was perhaps significant that these countries’ first experience of cooperation with the Union which they would later join was via programmes directly targeting citizens.
SOCRATES (1995–99) IN FIGURES

Total budget: ECU 933 million

Erasmus
- 1 800 higher education institutions concluded an institutional contract every year (resulting in some 5 000 partnerships per year).
- More than 1 200 higher education institutions (5 000 faculties or departments) used the ECTS (European credit transfer system).
- 42 university thematic networks were set up, involving some 1 700 establishments.
- 460 000 students and more than 40 000 teaching staff received mobility grants.

Comenius
- More than 2 million pupils took part in 3 700 school partnerships organised by 15 000 schools.
- 36 800 teachers and headteachers took part in mobility programmes.
- 350 intercultural education projects were undertaken on a wide range of topics.

Lingua
- Almost 3 000 future foreign-language teachers undertook assistantships abroad, thus promoting the learning of languages less widely used in Europe.
- Some 1 500 schools were involved every year in education projects designed to improve communication skills in foreign languages.
- 40 000 pupils took part in exchanges as part of language-learning projects.
- 73 European cooperation programmes for language-teacher training were set up.
- 35 000 teachers took part in continuing training schemes in the area of foreign-language teaching.

LEONARDO DA VINCI (1995–99)

Total budget: ECU 794 million

- More than 10 000 transnational projects were set up, actively involving more than 77 000 partners.
- More than one third of the budget was spent on promoting mobility in vocational training. Almost 127 000 persons undergoing training took part in exchanges and work placements.
- More than 2 500 innovative, transnational pilot projects produced a wealth of different products (curricula, training modules, websites).
- 11 000 trainers and tutors also increased their professional experience by taking part in exchange programmes.

Sources: Guide to programmes and actions (Education and Culture DG) and final report from the Commission on the implementation of the Socrates programme 1995–99, COM(2001) 75.
See section 4.3.1.4 for a breakdown of this amount.

See section 4.3.1.4 for a breakdown of this amount.
4.3.2. Consolidated programmes for 2000–06

4.3.2.1. The Commission’s initial proposals

The first streamlining of the programmes, devised in 1993, would lead to a second, the need for which was confirmed by the conclusions of the ex-post evaluations undertaken for the first phase of Socrates and Leonardo da Vinci (see point 4.3.1.5). This second streamlining process proved to be no more radical than the first, but it was a further step towards the drafting of more flexible, accessible programmes and paved the way for the proposals which the Commission would make in 2004 for more fundamental changes in the fourth generation of programmes (see point 5.7).

The Socrates, Leonardo da Vinci and ‘Youth for Europe’ programmes came to an end on 31 December 1999. To allow for the time needed to negotiate their extension for the period 2000–06 (\(^{479}\)) and ensure as smooth a transition as possible between the programmes under way and the new programmes, the Commission began the preparations for their renewal as early as 1997. Its proposed changes and improvements reflected the problems observed in the actual implementation of the programmes under way (for example the cumbersome and complex design and management, and inadequate dissemination and utilisation of the results) and the need to adapt them to allow for the participation (\(^{480}\)) of more than 30 countries. A further priority was to bear in mind the general context in which the new programmes would be operating.

In this way the Commission showed that it wanted to link the Community measures carried out under the programmes more clearly with the political priorities chosen at EU level and the challenges facing education and training systems. There were many such challenges (see point 4.1). The concepts of the knowledge society and lifelong learning were gaining ground at that time. The title which the Commission gave its November 1997 communication was a clear indication of the direction it intended to take in future programmes: ‘Towards a Europe of knowledge’ (\(^{481}\)). The aim was clear: renewal of the programmes was to be an opportunity not only to solve the problems encountered in the previous programmes but also, and above all, to mobilise the energy and resources invested in the three programmes (Socrates II, Leonardo da Vinci II and ‘Youth’) in pursuit of a common, unifying goal, which had become one of the Union’s political priorities: the creation of a Europe of knowledge. This wish to place the programmes’ measures within a wider political context and strategy was also reflected in the content of the new Amsterdam Treaty, signed one month earlier on 2 October 1997. The preamble to this treaty recognised the need to ‘promote the development of the highest possible level of knowledge’ for the people of Europe ‘through a wide access to education and through its continuous updating’ (\(^{482}\)).

\(^{479}\) This second phase of the programmes was assigned a longer lifecycle: seven years, rather than five as in the previous generation of programmes.

\(^{480}\) Under measures financed by the Phare programme, the candidate countries in central and eastern Europe were able to begin their preparations in 1996 for participation in the programmes.

\(^{481}\) ‘Towards a Europe of knowledge’, communication from the Commission of 12 November 1997, COM(97) 563.

\(^{482}\) Preamble to the consolidated version of the Treaty establishing the European Community, OJ C 325, 24.12.2002.
In its communication the Commission proposed the following for the new programmes:

- a limited number of objectives (wider access for European citizens to European educational resources, emphasis on innovation by means of pilot projects to test new methods, and the dissemination of best practice in education);
- more focused activities, with six measures (development of physical mobility, virtual mobility, cooperation networks, language skills, innovation and Community sources of reference);
- a more integrated set of arrangements (a common framework of activities, coordination and monitoring for the three programmes — education, training and youth — and decisions with common articles to reinforce consistency and the possibilities for common action);
- streamlined and more participatory implementation (greater visibility and transparency; closer involvement of the main parties concerned; better monitoring and evaluation of measures; simplified administration ([**4**]) and improved procedures).

To cope with the growing number of participating countries, it also proposed further decentralising the management of the programmes. This would also strengthen its capacity to 'carry out not only its responsibilities in terms of management and supervision of budget execution, but also the crucial functions of stimulation, coordination of decentralised management structures and follow-up and dissemination of results'. Moreover, it made it a priority to increase complementarity and synergy with other Community policies relating to human resources, via joint actions, as this had been successfully tested in the development of European educational software (see point 4.2.3).

### 4.3.2.2. The budget

In the document on what the programmes had achieved ([**4**]), which accompanied its Communication, the Commission also underlined the need for an increase in resources. It noted that 'The resources given over to education, training and youth programmes have risen substantially over the years but continue to represent a tiny fraction of the Community budget; in 1990 it represented 0.31 % (ECU 150 million), 0.39 % in 1993 (ECU 270 million) — and today stands at 0.44 % (ECU 404 million)'. ‘These resources clearly continue to remain modest compared with those given over by the Community budget in 1998 (PDB), for instance, to the European Social Fund (10.47 %) or to research and development (3.81 %).

On 27 May 1998 the Commission adopted its proposals for decisions on the new Socrates ([**4**]), Leonardo da Vinci ([**4**]) and 'Youth' programmes ([**4**]), although these did not go as far as its communication of November 1997. It then submitted them to the European Parliament and the Council for adoption. The negotiations lasted just less than a year for the Leonardo programme ([**4**]), more than a year and a half for Socrates ([**4**]) and almost two years for 'Youth' ([**4**]). For Socrates and in particular for 'Youth', the delay in adopting the decision prevented the programmes from getting off to a speedy start.
The negotiations concerning these programmes, which involved primarily the Council and the European Parliament, but also, in an advisory capacity, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions, were of course the perfect opportunity to improve the texts and adapt them to suit the needs of the various target groups. But the crux of the matter was once again the budget. The Council made significant cuts in the Commission’s proposals. The European Parliament, aware of the need to increase the impact of these Community programmes, revised them upwards.

The Commission hoped for total funding of ECU 3 billion for the three programmes, comprising 1.4 billion for the second phase of the Socrates programme, 1 billion for the second phase of the Leonardo da Vinci programme and 600 million for the Community action programme for youth, representing an overall increase of 60% over the previous generation of programmes. Following a conciliation procedure in the case of Socrates and ‘Youth’, the outcome of the negotiations was a total sum of 3.520 billion (1.850 billion for Socrates; 1.150 billion for Leonardo and 520 million for ‘Youth’) but for seven years instead of the five proposed by the Commission (98). This agreement nevertheless resulted in a budget some 30% larger than for the previous programmes.

Before Socrates could be adopted by means of co-decision by the European Parliament and the Council, it had to go before the conciliation committee. As for the previous programmes, the main point of disagreement between the two institutions was the budget. The Education Council adopted its common position on 21 December 1999, agreeing the sum of EUR 1.55 billion for a period of seven years. This was almost exactly the initial figure which the Commission had proposed for a period of five years! Parliament was not slow to make its countermove. At second reading, on 25 February 1999, it proposed EUR 2.5 billion for seven years and also made provision for this budget to be amended by up to 20% within the annual budgetary conciliation procedure. A conciliation committee meeting, as provided for in the co-decision procedure, was required, as had been the case for the first phase of the programme. Following tense discussions which went on late into the night, this committee adopted a joint draft on 10 November 1999, setting the total budget at EUR 1.85 billion and allowing for adjustment of this figure to take account of the impact of enlargement. This position was approved by Parliament and the Council respectively on 15 and 16 December 1999. Both institutions formally adopted the decision concerning the programme on 24 January 2000.

For Leonardo da Vinci the decision-making procedure was shorter because it did not yet require co-decision, therefore the Council decided alone. At first reading, on 5 November 1998, Parliament requested that this programme also run for a period of seven years. The Council adopted its common position on 21 December, setting the budget at EUR 1.15 billion for seven years. As for the ‘Youth’ programme (99), it was the sum which the Commission had proposed for five years. The programme was formally adopted on 26 April 1999.

For the ‘Youth’ programme, which was finally adopted on 13 April 2000, the budget initially proposed by the Commission was EUR 520 million. A conciliation committee meeting was required. It adopted a joint draft on 29 February 2000, the final sum being that proposed by the Commission but for a period of seven years.
4.3.2.3. Direction and content of the new programmes

Following in the direction of the Commission’s communication of November 1997, which was geared towards a greater interaction between programmes, the decisions establishing the new programmes for 2000–06 were structured around a common framework (see table below). Like the decisions establishing the previous programmes, these encouraged physical and virtual mobility (by means of the new information and communication technologies), innovation (via pilot projects involving transnational partnerships), the building of European cooperation networks, the promotion of language skills and the understanding of different cultures, and the continuing improvement of Community sources of reference with regard to education, training and youth systems and policies in the Member States (databases, sharing of best practice).

As proposed by the Commission, the programmes underwent an initial simplification phase and now had a limited number of specific objectives. Socrates now had four instead of the previous nine. All actions relating to the same area of education were grouped together. Leonardo went from 19 objectives to three, and ‘Youth’ from six to three. It was also agreed to have a more limited number of actions and measures in order to make the programmes easier to understand (for example, the Leonardo measures were reduced from 23 to five). An action, a measure or a project could be combined with other initiatives, either within the same programme (combined measures) or in relation to other Community programmes in related fields (joint actions). The joint actions in each programme were to support activities promoting lifelong learning. Member States also accepted the Commission’s request for more decentralised management.

The three programmes, linked to the new challenges posed by the knowledge society and the information society, attached more importance than in the past to lifelong learning, the use of the new information and communication technologies — for example the Minerva action in Socrates (**) — the dissemination of best practice and the integration of the underprivileged. Lifelong learning, both in school and outside it, was highlighted particularly in the Socrates programme, by means of an action entirely devoted to adult education and other educational pathways: the Grundtvig action (**). The Comenius action for school education was strengthened, now incorporating most of the Lingua actions (now distributed between Socrates and Leonardo) and placing more emphasis than in the past on continuing training for teachers. With more than half of the resources (EUR 940 million), Erasmus continued to have the lion’s share and was going from strength to strength. As of the 2003/2004 academic year, the institutional contract introduced as part of the earlier streamlining procedure was replaced by the Erasmus University Charter in order to simplify the programme’s administration further and adopt a new form of contract better suited to decentralising the handling of mobility grants. The Leonardo programme, for its part, retained its main thrust, which was pilot projects and mobility, but with a new measure: transnational networks (regional or sectoral) designed to promote the development of European innovation and anticipation of skills requirements, and to disseminate the network’s results.

(**) The aim of this new action was to support cross-cutting measures relating to open and distance learning and the use of information and communication technologies in education.

** Nikoli Frederik Severin Grundtvig (1783–1872), a Danish priest and writer, is regarded as the ideological father of popular and adult education. He felt that each individual, regardless of age or background, should be given the opportunity to learn throughout life. He further believed that teaching should be based on and relate to real-life experiences. These ideas inspired the creation of the Nordic folk high schools. These colleges of non-formal adult education are now established components of the Nordic education system.

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In accordance with the Commission’s wishes, and based on the experience of the first phase of the programmes, particular attention was paid to the assessment and monitoring of the new programmes. The decision establishing each programme made provision for this to be done regularly by independent experts. Given the higher degree of decentralisation in the way the programmes were run, it was envisaged that Member States would draw up a report on the application and impact of each programme by the end of 2003 at the latest (end of 2004 for ‘Youth’) and in June 2007. The intermediate evaluations for this second phase of Socrates and Leonardo da Vinci were published in 2004. They confirmed the merit of the programmes and stressed the need to press ahead with the reforms undertaken in order to ensure greater coherence between the areas of education and training, more simplified management and wider dissemination of the results. On this basis, and in circumstances which had become quite favourable thanks to the Lisbon strategy adopted by the European Council in 2000, the Commission stepped up its efforts in 2004 and proposed merging the Socrates and Leonardo programmes into a single programme to promote lifelong learning (see point 5.7).
The history of European cooperation in education and training

Europe in the making — an example

The source of the information given in this table is mainly the text of the decisions concerning each programme and the brochure


The new generation of programmes for education, training and youth (2000–06) (196)

SOCRATES II (2000-06)
EUR 1.850 billion
Countries covered: 31 countries
(15 EU, 3 EFTA/EEA and 13 candidate countries, including Cyprus, Malta and Turkey)

General objective
To help promote a Europe of knowledge by developing the European dimension in education and training and encouraging lifelong learning

Four specific objectives
• To strengthen the European dimension in education at all levels
• To improve knowledge of EU languages
• To promote cooperation and mobility
• To encourage innovation

Structure of the programme:
Action 1: School education (Comenius)
Action 2: Higher education (Erasmus)
Action 3: Adult education and other educational pathways (Grundtvig)
Action 4: Language teaching and learning (Lingua)
Action 5: Open and distance learning, information and communication technologies (Minerva)
Action 6: Observation and innovation (including Arion, Eurydice and NARIC)
Action 7: Joint actions
Action 8: Accompanying measures
LEONARDO DA VINCI II (2000-06)
EUR 1.150 billion
Countries covered: 31 countries
(15 EU, 3 EFTA/EEA and 13 candidate countries, including Cyprus, Malta and Turkey)

General objective
To help promote a Europe of knowledge by establishing a European area of cooperation in the field of vocational training

Three specific objectives
• To strengthen skills and competences, of young people in particular, in initial vocational training
• To improve the quality of, and access to, continuing vocational training and the lifelong acquisition of skills and competences
• To strengthen the contribution of vocational training to the process of innovation in businesses

Structure of the programme
1. Mobility
2. Pilot projects
3. Language skills
4. Transnational networks
5. Reference material
6. Joint actions
7. Accompanying measures

YOUTH (2000-06)
EUR 520 million
Countries covered: 31 countries
(15 EU, 3 EFTA/EEA and 13 candidate countries, including Cyprus, Malta and Turkey).
Cooperation with third countries.

General objective
To help promote a Europe of knowledge by creating a European area of cooperation in the field of youth policy

Three specific objectives
• To induce a greater sense of solidarity
• To involve young people in the European ideal
• To encourage a spirit of initiative, enterprise and creativity

Structure of the programme
Action 1: ‘Youth for Europe’ (intra-Community youth exchanges; youth exchanges with third countries)
Action 2: European Voluntary Service intra-Community and with third countries (individual mobility)
Action 3: Youth initiatives
Action 4: Joint actions
Action 5: Support measures (training and cooperation for those involved in youth policy; information for young people and youth studies; information and visibility of measures; support measures)
4.4. EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES AND PREVENTION OF ALL FORMS OF DISCRIMINATION

4.4.1. Support from the Socrates and Leonardo da Vinci programmes

From the outset, equal opportunities for men and women and the integration of people with disabilities in society have been a crucial aspect of Community policy, not only in the social field (the European Social Fund making a significant contribution) but also in education and training (see point 3.3.3). Since 1995 the new Socrates and Leonardo programmes have been the instruments used for Community action in this area. They take into account the new mainstreaming strategy implemented by the EU since the mid-1990s. The concept of equal opportunities has quite a broad meaning. In Socrates, for example, it covers the promotion of equal opportunities for men and women, consideration of the needs of people with disabilities, and the fight against racism and xenophobia and against the effects of socioeconomic disadvantages.

These principles are set out clearly in the decisions establishing these programmes (**). Details of how they are put into practice are also given in the description of the specific measures covered by each programme. For each measure, the Socrates programme, for example, indicates that Community assistance is granted in accordance with the principle of equal opportunities for men and women and that the specific needs of people with disabilities who are participating in the programme should be taken into consideration when determining the amount of the grant.

The Commission and the European Parliament have continually underlined how valuable the Community education and training programmes are with regard to equal opportunities and asked that the greatest importance be attached to this aspect when selecting projects, particularly for measures managed by the Member States. Evaluations of the programmes have provided opportunities to assess the extent to which these principles have been applied and to urge that they be given greater emphasis. The evaluation report for the Socrates programme (1995–99) (***) points out, for example, that the participation of disabled persons was insufficient, particularly in mobility actions, primarily for practical reasons but reasons which also have to do with a lack of awareness among institutional decision-makers and of information among people on the opportunities available under the programme. The evaluation of the Leonardo (***) programme makes the point that the number of specific projects on equal opportunities was very low. These shortcomings were taken into account when the two programmes were renewed in 2000.

Equal opportunities for men and women

Action taken under the Socrates and Leonardo programmes with regard to equal opportunities for men and women was increasingly linked, particularly from the mid-1990s onwards, to the EU’s comprehensive and integrated strategy on this issue. In line with the United Nations’ declaration and platform for action adopted in September 1995, in Beijing, at the Fourth World Conference on Women, the European Commission adopted an important communication (***) in 1996 supporting
an integrated approach to take the gender dimension into account in all of its policies (gender mainstreaming). The new Community action programme on equal opportunities for the period 1996–2000 (502) reflected this. In order to make these new guidelines more effective, a five-year framework strategy was adopted in 2000 (503). This was designed to coordinate all of the initiatives and various programmes within a single framework comprising clear evaluation criteria, monitoring tools, verification that the gender dimension was taken into account and an evaluation of how it was done.

As education and training help to eliminate inequality, they were, from the outset, an important focus of this new strategy for gender equality in the EU. The Commission services responsible for education and training reported annually on the action taken in this area, particularly under the Socrates and Leonardo programmes (504).

Action in support of people with disabilities

Community action to help integrate people with disabilities in schools was stepped up from the mid-1980s onwards (see points 2.3.7 and 3.3.3) by means of the Helios programme, which was begun in April 1988 and continued in 1993 for a further four years. On 31 May 1990 the education ministers adopted a specific resolution on the integration of children and young people with disabilities into ordinary systems of education (505).

Measures in support of people with disabilities took on increasing importance in the second half of the 1990s. As of 1995, the Socrates and Leonardo programmes were the main instruments in education and training. In 1996, a European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education (506) was set up to support cooperation and the sharing of information and experience between Member States. The Community’s ‘Employment’ initiative, established between 1995 and 2000 as part of the European Social Fund, included a specific strand (Horizon) specially dedicated to the integration of people with disabilities in the labour market. This would later be incorporated in the EQUAL programme.

The European Commission proposed that 2003 be designated as the European Year of People with Disabilities (507), thus highlighting the need to step up action, both at EU level and in the Member States, to support people with disabilities and integrate them in the knowledge society at all levels. The ‘Employment and Social Policy’ Council adopted a resolution (508) on 6 February 2003 on ‘eAccessibility’, calling on Member States to remove the technical, legal and other barriers to the effective participation of people with disabilities in the knowledge-based society and economy. On 5 May 2003 the Education Council tackled the difficulties encountered by people with disabilities from the point of view of equal opportunities for pupils and students in education and training (509). As the problem went beyond the EU’s borders, the Commission continued its cooperation in this area with the other international institutions involved. It thus continued to be actively involved in the United Nations’ work on this subject (510) with a view to strengthening and protecting the rights and dignity of people with disabilities throughout the world.
4.4.2. Contribution to the fight against racism and xenophobia

The 1990s saw a rise in racist movements and phenomena in Europe and throughout the world, which all EU institutions strongly condemned and tried to combat at all levels. Given the role of education in preventing and eliminating racist and xenophobic prejudices and attitudes, it was from the outset considered to be one of the most important areas for action.

Many political stances and initiatives were taken. Following the Corfu European Council in June 1994 (510) and the momentum it provided, the Education Council adopted a resolution on 23 October 1995 (511) highlighting the role of education systems in tackling racism and calling on Member States to promote educational methods and new programmes to help develop understanding and tolerance, and cooperation between schools and their local communities. It underlined the contribution which the Community could make through its programmes, in particular Socrates, and through increased exchanges of experience between countries. Soon afterwards the Commission proposed that 1997 be designated as the European Year against Racism (512), providing an opportunity for many different events and initiatives to raise public awareness and mobilise the people of Europe. One of the most significant initiatives was the creation on 2 June 1997 of a European Monitoring Centre for Racism and Xenophobia (EUMC) (513), which began its work in July 1998. Based in Vienna (Austria), the monitoring centre's main objective was to provide the Community and its Member States with reliable and comparable data on racism, xenophobia and anti-Semitism in order to help them when taking action in these areas. It also looked at the general situation and best practice in relation to education, training and youth.

On 25 March 1998 the Commission adopted a new communication (514), this time proposing a Community action plan against racism. To make the most of the impetus provided by the European Year against Racism (512), the Commission now wanted to incorporate the fight against racism and discrimination in all Community programmes and policies, in particular employment, the Structural Funds, the education, training and youth programmes and information campaigns. In 2000 the Commission produced a report on the implementation of its action plan, setting out the action taken by each of its services (515). The Directorate-General responsible for education, training and youth highlighted the measures taken under the Socrates programme to raise intercultural awareness through education and counter the attitudes and stereotypes underlying racism. Particular emphasis was given to the strand relating to cooperation between schools (Comenius), through subjects dealt with by transnational partnerships between schools, through its specific action supporting the education of children of migrant workers and gypsies, and through intercultural education. In 1998, for example, 40% of projects selected under this action were directly related to the fight against racism and xenophobia in education.

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See the conclusions of the European Council, Corfu, 24/25 June 1994, section III.1 on racism and xenophobia. Following this European Council, a consultative commission on racism and xenophobia was set up (better known as the Khan Committee, after its Chair, Jean Kahn). A sub-committee was responsible for matters related to education and training.

Resolution of the Council and the representatives of Member States' governments meeting within the Council of 23 October 1995 on the response of educational systems to the problems of racism and xenophobia, OJ C 312, 23.11.1995.

Communication from the Commission of 13 December 1995 on the fight against racism, xenophobia and anti-Semitism, together with a proposal for a Council decision designating 1997 as European Year against Racism, COM(95) 653.

The European Monitoring Centre for Racism and Xenophobia was established by Regulation (EC) No 1035/97, OJ L 151, 10.6.1997 (www.eumc.eu.int).


On 27 November 2000 (\[516\]) the Council adopted an action plan to combat discrimination, with a budget of EUR 100 million for six years. In addition, two important directives adopted in 2000 strengthened the Community’s legislative framework in this area: the first, adopted on 29 June 2000 (\[517\]), prohibited discrimination on racial or ethnic grounds in employment, education and social security, among other things. The second, adopted on 27 November 2000 (\[518\]), prohibited all discrimination based on religion or belief, disability, age or sexual orientation, in the area of employment.


4.5. THE FIRST STEPS TOWARDS STRENGTHENING POLITICAL COOPERATION

4.5.1. Political cooperation with a view to greater continuity and inclusion of the candidate countries

Introduction of a rolling agenda

The political priorities of cooperation are traditionally discussed by the Education Committee and agreed at ministerial level by the Council of Education Ministers, which meets at least once every six months. They are the result of various influences which may come from the Commission, which has the right of initiative, from the Education Council itself, from the European Parliament or, increasingly often, from the Heads of State or Government meeting within the European Council. Over the years, successive Presidencies also influenced the political agenda by adding their national priorities, which did not always make for continuity in the Community’s work. It was not until the end of the 1990s that it was decided to work towards greater consistency.

The first step was taken in 1999, when the Council of Education Ministers adopted a resolution with a view to new working methods for cooperation in education and training (519). The ministers recognised that the emphasis now placed on education and training at Community level required an increase in political cooperation at European level and that, to achieve this, new working methods needed to be identified to improve its continuity, efficiency and effectiveness. They stressed the need for a more coherent approach for all Community action in these areas and for a structured framework for political discussions and activities over the coming years.

While the approach chosen was a step forward, it was nevertheless minimalist compared with more sustained approaches taken in other areas to coordinate national policies, such as in the field of employment (see box). Ministers proposed that future work be based on a ‘rolling agenda’ of priority topics which could be addressed over the course of several Presidencies and would include information on national initiatives taken in the field and examples of best practice. The priority topics chosen in the first instance were the role of education and training in employment policies (to take account of recent developments in this field), the development of quality education and training at all levels (to take account of the objectives which the treaty had set for cooperation in education) and the promotion of mobility (with a view to creating an open European area of education and training). This rolling agenda did not, however, have time to be developed further. It was very quickly replaced by the new method introduced by the Lisbon European Council of March 2000, the ‘open method of coordination’ (see point 5.1.2). Nevertheless, the fundamental debates resulting from the 1999 resolution paved the way for a new phase of cooperation.

The European employment strategy

Following the 1993 White Paper on growth, competitiveness and employment, which called for a ‘common broad framework strategy’ in employment, successive European Councils (particularly the Essen Council of December 1994) made strong political commitments to achieve this. An employment and labour market policy committee was set up in 1996. For the first time a specific section (Title VIII) was devoted to employment in the Treaty of Amsterdam signed in October 1997, establishing a ‘coordinated strategy for employment’. A special employment summit was held in Luxembourg in November 1997 and launched the European employment strategy (EES), which was firmly supported the following year by the Cardiff European Council and by those which followed, in particular the Lisbon European Council of 2000. As of 1998, national policies were examined annually on the basis of a joint employment report from the Commission and the Council. The cornerstone of this new strategy was a mechanism for annual multilateral monitoring of national policies and their results based on guidelines and national action plans for employment (520).

The Lisbon European Council called on the Education Council to make an active contribution to the Luxembourg and Cardiff processes. As of 2001, therefore, the Commission took the opinion of the education ministers (521) into account when drafting the annual employment guidelines which, as of that date, gave priority to lifelong learning. As of 2005, following the mid-term review of the Lisbon strategy, it was decided to incorporate the broad economic policy guidelines and the employment guidelines into a single document.

Development of political cooperation with the candidate countries

Socrates, Leonardo da Vinci and ‘Youth’ were not the only programmes to allow the candidate countries to take part. Political cooperation took the same approach and, as of 1997, through regular informal ministerial conferences including these countries (522), tried to encourage debate and reflection on topics of common interest. These extended ministerial meetings were also important because they helped to prepare the candidate countries for EU membership and for participation in the Lisbon process in the areas of education and training. It was decided at the Bratislava Conference in 2002 that they should be included in the work programme on the future objectives of education and training systems, ‘Education and training 2010’.


[522] On 13 July 2001 it adopted Resolution 2001/C 204/01, OJ C 204, 20.7.2001, on the role of education and training in employment-related policies, calling on the Commission and the Member States to ensure that the Education Council was actively involved in the examination of the proposed guidelines and in the definition of useful and comparable indicators.

These meetings were held until 2004. They were attended by education ministers from the EU Member States, the candidate countries, the countries of south-eastern Europe and the EFTA/EEA countries.

- 1997: Warsaw. Cooperation between the EU and the countries of central and eastern Europe
- 1998: Prague. Partners in Europe — Learning together; improving education levels as a basis for lifelong learning
- 1999: Budapest. Education and the economy — A new partnership
- 2001: Riga. The new technologies in adult education and training
- 2002: Bratislava. Education in the new millennium — Quality, accessibility and attractiveness; participation of the candidate countries in the work programme on the future objectives of education and training systems (Lisbon strategy)
- 2003: Nicosia — Quality in education and active citizenship
- 2004: Oslo — Lifelong learning: from rhetoric to reality

4.5.2. Quality evaluation and the development of indicators

As a sign of growing cooperation, Member States gradually agreed to address issues which had previously been deemed too sensitive. These were mainly the evaluation of the quality of the systems and the development of indicators, issues which until then had largely been dealt with by other bodies, the OECD in particular. However, it was not until the year 2000 onwards, with the impetus provided by the Lisbon European Council, that these questions, particularly the question of indicators (see point 5.1.3), really began to be regarded as important.

4.5.2.1. Quality evaluation

The focus on the quality of education was nothing new; given the ever greater pressure on public purses and increasing demands for transparency of investments, the importance of this issue continued to grow. The OECD addressed the issue very early (523), but it was not until the late 1990s that the European Union made it a central theme in its work on education. As the Maastricht Treaty formally set Community action on education the major objective of contributing to the development of quality education, it was no longer possible to exclude this issue from the scope of cooperation. This became the general objective of the measures taken under the Socrates programme adopted in March 1995 and, subsequently, one of the main focuses of political cooperation in both higher education and school education. The Socrates programme also made the specific question of methods for evaluating the quality of teaching a prime topic for the studies and research projects it supported (524). In its resolution of 17 December 1999 (see point 4.5.1) on new working procedures for Community cooperation on education, the Council of Education Ministers identified the quality of education as one of the priority issues to be examined.


In particular Action III.3.1 of Socrates I ‘Questions of common interest in education policy’ and Action 6.1 of Socrates II on the observation of education systems and policies.
In the second half of the 1990s, the Commission put forward two recommendations on the subject, one on higher education and the other on school education.

While recommendations, like opinions, ‘have no binding force’ (525), they have a special use in that ‘they allow the Council and the Commission to intervene in a sector where Member States have retained for themselves the exclusive right to implement the principles laid down in the treaties’ (526). Requests to Member States are often detailed and a follow-up report on the response is drawn up by the Commission. Although these instruments have no binding force, they nevertheless serve as a greater incentive for action than other non-binding instruments used (conclusions, resolutions).

As a shared concern and a subject of Community interest, improving the quality of higher education had already caught the attention of education ministers in 1991 (527), following the debate on the ‘memorandum from the Commission’ (see point 3.1.3). The new interest in this issue should also be seen against the backdrop of universities’ growing autonomy and the need for systems and bodies to be set up for evaluation and quality control (528). Two pilot projects (one on engineering and the other on communication, information, art and design) to assess the quality of a limited number of disciplines were carried out in 1994 and 1995; they illustrated the importance of working together and the interest of those on the ground in learning about other countries’ practices and developing common methods. As a result of this work, the Commission proposed a recommendation on European cooperation in quality assurance in higher education (529), which was adopted by the Council on 24 September 1998 (530). On the basis of this recommendation, and in order to make it easier for the partners concerned to share information and best practice, the European network ENQA (531) was set up in 1999, linking agencies for evaluation and quality assurance in higher education. With a view to creating the European area of higher education, the Bologna process (see point 4.5.3), begun in 1999, also made this one of its priorities. The second phase of the Socrates programme, adopted in January 2000 for seven years, expressly gave the Erasmus action the objective of enhancing the quality of higher education; this was different from the first phase, which had placed the main emphasis on strengthening the European dimension.

The Commission reported on the implementation of the 1998 recommendation in September 2004 (532) and proposed a new recommendation on further cooperation in this area (see point 5.4.1) (533). The issue of quality assurance had indeed become more and more crucial, not only because of the changes triggered by the Bologna process but also because of the development, planned for 2005/2006, of a European qualifications framework.

As regards evaluation in school education, cooperation followed roughly the same path, a little later, with studies and pilot projects, the development of indicators, and finally the adoption of a recommendation. In 1997/1998 a pilot project on
quality assessment in school education was carried out in 101 secondary schools across 18 European countries (63). On the basis of this project, in November 1999 the Commission proposed a recommendation to Parliament and the Council on European cooperation in quality evaluation in school education, which was adopted on 12 February 2001 (64) and provided for reports every three years. This recommendation advocated an improvement in quality evaluation in school education, increased cooperation between Member States on this issue and a balance between self-evaluation and external evaluation which would allow the two to complement one another. In the follow-up to this recommendation, the Eurydice network carried out a country-by-country inventory and a study on evaluation procedures in schools (65). The growing interest in these matters was also reflected in the creation of an intergovernmental European network of policy-makers for the evaluation of education systems (66), chaired and organised by France (Ministry of Education), following the meeting of senior officials held by France on 8 and 9 June 1995.

In line with the completion of the single market and the persistent difficulties encountered by most Member States in the area of employment, particularly the employment of young people, vocational training was also increasingly subject to quality requirements. This common concern was expressed specifically in the 1990s, by means of two texts adopted by the Council in 1993 (67) and in 1994 (68) which stressed the need to improve not only the quality but also the attractiveness of education and vocational training. In 1995, the importance and implications of the quality of vocational training were again discussed (69), following the impetus provided by the Essen European Council of December 1994, which stressed the need to promote investment in vocational training in order to improve the employment situation. The introduction of the Copenhagen process (see point 5.3.2) made quality assurance a priority in vocational training.

4.5.2.2. Development of indicators

This interest in statistics on education was not a new phenomenon. In fact, the 1976 resolution (see point 2.3.5) had already emphasised this issue of sharing information between Member States in order to gain a better understanding of developments in national education and training systems. But from 1976 until the 1990s, when two resolutions (69) were adopted to highlight the need for more extensive work in this area, progress was slow.

Political cooperation with regard to indicators first focused on the quality of school education. The conference of European education ministers held in Prague in June 1998 (see point 4.5.1) called on the Commission to set up a group of national experts, appointed by the ministers, to identify a limited number of indicators of the quality of school education as an aid to assessing national systems. The work of this group of experts, set up in February 1999, led to the production in May 2000 of the ‘European report on the quality of school education — Sixteen quality indicators’ (70), which was presented at the conference of European education ministers in June 2000 (Bucharest). The objective was not to create new indicators in such a short time but to identify the quality-related problems which were politically most relevant for European countries, and then to determine which of the existing indicators —
mainly from Eurostat, the OECD, the IEA (\textsuperscript{543}) and Eurydice (\textsuperscript{544}) — could shed most light on these problems. The report provided an analysis of the strengths and weaknesses of these indicators so that they could be reinforced or new indicators created (\textsuperscript{545}). The experts continued their work and produced a second report for the conference of European education ministers in Bratislava (Slovakia) in June 2002, this time on 15 quality indicators for lifelong learning. Because of the complexity of the subject, Eurostat at the same time undertook some basic work on the methodological and statistical aspects of lifelong learning in a task force which was set up in February 2000 and submitted a final report on its work at the beginning of 2001.

While there was no direct follow-up to this work, it did constitute a first step in reflection on European education indicators at political level, which would later prove very useful. The Lisbon European Council of March 2000 was a turning point in that it introduced the open method of coordination, which established European indicators and benchmarking as key instruments to measure the EU’s progress in achieving the common objectives set for 2010 (see point 5.1.3).

4.5.3. Intergovernmental initiatives (Bologna and Florence)

The Bologna process

From the beginning of Community cooperation in education, progress at national and Community levels was most significant in higher education. Erasmus made the creation of a genuine, open European area of higher education increasingly necessary and opened the door to greater convergence between Member States’ structures and systems. But progress in a Community context continued to be slow. At the initiative of some Member States, however, major progress was to be achieved via intergovernmental action.

On 25 May 1998, the Sorbonne celebrated its 800th anniversary. The French Education Minister of the time, Claude Allègre, surprised everyone by proposing to set up a European area of higher education which would involve harmonising structures, cycles of study and degrees, while respecting differences in content and methods. A declaration to this effect was adopted by four European ministers (British, French, German and Italian) (\textsuperscript{546}) at the end of a symposium held in Paris. While the form of this initiative was the subject of considerable criticism, it was nevertheless a starting point for what was to become known, one year later, as the Bologna process, following the signing of a new declaration on these issues in the Italian city on 19 June 1999. In order to reach a consensus among 30 European countries (there would be 45 in 2005), this declaration was more subtle than the Paris declaration. The word ‘harmonisation’ was not included. The spirit remained the same, however, as did the objective, which was to create, by 2010, a coherent and compatible European area of higher education with a view to the reform and convergence of existing structures, while preserving the autonomy of the institutions and respecting national cultural and linguistic diversity. The Council of Europe described the Bologna process as ‘the most important and wide-ranging reform of higher education in Europe since 1968’ (\textsuperscript{547}).

\textsuperscript{543} The IEA (International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement), an independent international organisation set up in 1958, conducts international studies on results in education, including the ‘Trends in international mathematics and science study’ (TIMSS).

\textsuperscript{544} In the mid-1990s the European Commission launched its own periodical, via the Eurydice network, on indicators in education: ‘Key data on education in Europe’. This was very quickly to become a joint Eurydice/Eurostat publication, combining the indicators on the organisation of education systems (Eurydice) and statistical indicators (Eurostat).

\textsuperscript{545} The report underlined in particular the lack of indicators relating to the language skills of young people in Europe. This question was later taken up by the Barcelona European Council (2002), which called for the development of an indicator of this kind.

\textsuperscript{546} Jürgen Rüttgers, Minister for Education, Science, Research and Technology (Germany); Claude Allègre, Minister for National Education, Research and Technology (France); Luigi Berlinguer, Minister for Public Education, Universities and Research (Italy); Tessa Blackstone, Minister for Education (United Kingdom).

\textsuperscript{547} Council of Europe website (www.coe.int).
A simplified system of more transparent and comparable degrees was the principal objective of the structural reforms supported by the Bologna declaration. The process was designed to achieve convergence of higher education systems in Europe towards a system which would place different national systems in a common framework based on three cycles of study: bachelor’s, master’s degree and doctorate. At the heart of the process (\(548\)) there were also other aspects which were essential to ensure an effective European area of higher education: the ECTS, a system developed under Erasmus (see point 3.3.2.2) for the transfer of credits, and European cooperation in quality assurance. The main new feature of this declaration, and also its main strength, was that it also comprised a medium-term action plan. A follow-up group was set up to monitor its implementation. In order to maintain the initial impetus and to assess the progress made, the ministers responsible for higher education held regular meetings (in Prague on 19 May 2001; in Berlin on 18–19 September 2003; in Bergen on 19–20 May 2005) (see point 5.4.1). The European Commission was a full member of the follow-up group and of the group in charge of preparations for the ministerial meetings. The European Universities Association (EUA) (\(549\)), the European Association of Institutions in Higher Education (EURASHE), the National Unions of Students in Europe (ESIB), the pan-European body of Education International (EI), the European Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ENQA), the Union of Industries of the European Community (UNICE), the Council of Europe and Unesco/CEPES also took part as advisory members.

For further information on the Bologna declaration, visit: ec.europa.eu/education/socrates/erasmus/bologna.pdf

\(^{(*)}\) The EUA is the result of a merger between the ERC (European Rectors’ Conference) and the Confederation of European Union Rectors’ Conferences, which took place at the University of Salamanca (Spain) in March 2001.

\(^{(**)}\) The history of European cooperation in education and training

Europe in the making – an example

Source: Bologna University.
Although this was an intergovernmental initiative, the Bologna process was synonymous with the fresh impetus given to European cooperation in higher education. Cooperation was now taking a path never previously chosen at European level: minimal convergence of structures in order to ‘organise’ diversity and make it a strength rather than an obstacle. This process drew its strength from the thirty-odd years of European cooperation which had given higher education the European dimension it had been lacking and without which the Sorbonne and Bologna declarations would not have been possible. In the wake of the Lisbon strategy and the momentum it provided in education and training, the challenge was then to achieve the Bologna objectives as quickly as possible and also to strengthen the role of higher education in this strategy (see point 5.4.1).

The Florence initiative

Because of stronger sensibilities in the area of school education and the need to comply with the principle of subsidiarity, Community cooperation in this area was slower to develop than in higher education. Higher education paved the way, however, and served as a stimulus for school education. The school counterpart of the Sorbonne initiative on higher education thus came about one year later. Seven European education ministers (or their representatives) signed a declaration in Florence on 30 September 1999, entitled ‘Learning in Europe — Working together to face common challenges’. They called on the other Member States and European countries to join them in pursuit of their goal to create a European area of enhanced cooperation in school education, thus echoing the Bologna declaration on the development of a European area of higher education. This declaration spoke of common challenges and objectives in school education, the need to identify and share best practice and to work together to set up a transparent and comparable framework which would be of benefit to Europe, its citizens, its students, teachers and schools. The priorities set by the ministers who signed it included, for example, the definition and implementation of standards of knowledge and competence to be attained by the end of primary and compulsory schooling, and the consistent development of systems to assess schools’ performance.

This initiative differed from the Bologna declaration in that there was no follow-up. However, the Lisbon strategy which was established shortly afterwards gave school education the opportunity to begin a new phase of cooperation which reflected the spirit of the Florence declaration, in terms of the type of cooperation required, even though the objectives of the convergence process envisaged were not so bold.

4.5.4. Measures to remove obstacles to mobility

Thanks to the Community programmes’ support for mobility, more than 1 million students, teachers and apprentices have so far had the opportunity to study or undergo training in another country in Europe. However, because of budget restrictions, such mobility opportunities do not meet demand, and there are still many obstacles which discourage individual mobility.
Because of this, and in view of the single European market’s entry into force in January 1993, a fresh start was made in the 1990s to discussion and action on this issue. On 2 October 1996 the Commission presented a Green Paper on obstacles to transnational mobility in education, training and research (551). Among these obstacles it cited the loss of unemployment benefits for an unemployed person undertaking training in another European country if the training lasted longer than three months, the lack of social security cover for unpaid trainees and certain types of voluntary work, the loss of entitlement to national grants for students undertaking their studies abroad, problems related to tax and social security contributions, problems with the academic and vocational recognition of training, placements and periods of study, lack of knowledge of other countries’ languages and cultures, administrative obstacles related to the organisation of schools and universities, and the lack of information available in both the country of origin and the host country.

In order to progress from words to deeds, in January 2000 the Commission proposed a recommendation calling on Member States to take concrete steps to improve the situation. This recommendation (552) gave rise to lengthy discussions within the Education Committee in view of the delicate nature of certain aspects which went beyond its terms of reference (for example questions relating to social security rights), but was finally adopted on 10 July 2001. It set out both general measures which could apply to all groups involved (relating to information or funding, or facilitating the recognition of experience obtained abroad) and specific measures for each group (academic recognition for students via the ECTS — European credit transfer system; continuation of unemployment benefits for unemployed people wishing to undergo training in another Member State; validation of voluntary activities for young people; the opportunity for teachers and trainers to take European sabbaticals). An idea which the European Parliament (553) holds dear was included in the recommendation: the introduction of a card for students, schoolchildren, people undergoing training and those doing voluntary work within the Community, allowing holders to obtain various reductions during their period abroad.

Mobility did not disappear from the Community’s agenda at the end of the 1990s. It was one of the priorities of the Bologna process launched in 1999 and also the main theme of the French Presidency of the Council in the second half of 2000. Education ministers adopted an action plan (554) which would be approved by the Nice European Council held on 7, 8 and 9 December 2000. The European Council called on Member States to strengthen their internal coordination in order to give effect to the 42 administrative, regulatory, financial and social measures set out in the action plan with a view to defining and increasing mobility in Europe, making it democratic, and promoting appropriate forms of funding. The follow-up to this recommendation and action plan was incorporated into the ‘Education and training 2010’ work programme set up following the Lisbon European Council, with the development of mobility as one of its main objectives.

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In 2003 the Commission carried out the first evaluation of the follow-up to the 2001 recommendation (\textsuperscript{555}). Although some progress was noted, this evaluation highlighted how little headway had been made on the whole: ‘comprehensive strategies to facilitate and actively promote mobility are rather the exception than the norm, and results in many fields, including the removal of administrative and legal obstacles, fall short of what is actually needed.’ While student mobility was improving, mobility among teachers, trainers and persons undergoing training continued to be wholly inadequate and measures were required to reverse the trend, as pointed out in the first joint report by the Council and the Commission on the implementation of the ‘Education and training 2010’ work programme (see point 5.1.4). Regular monitoring would continue to be carried out through the biennial reports on the implementation of this programme.

4.5.5. Cooperation with third countries

The Europe of higher education aroused interest beyond the EU’s borders because of the bilateral relations developed by many Member States and also because of the multilateral cooperation initiated by the Community, since the mid-1990s (\textsuperscript{556}), with an increasing number of interested third countries. Several instruments were used to support this cooperation and continued to forge progressively closer links between higher education institutions in the EU and throughout the world.

The earliest instance of cooperation was the cooperation agreements on higher education and vocational training, signed with Canada and the United States in 1995 and renewed in 2001 for five years. The possibility of cooperation between the Community and these countries had been provided for in the transatlantic declarations adopted in November 1990 on EC–Canada and EC–US relations. After a two-year exploratory phase, an official cooperation agreement had been signed with these two countries in June 1995.

In November 2004, the European Commission and the US Department of Education selected 13 projects from the 58 applications to take part in the EC–US cooperation programme (the number of applications received was 35 % higher than in 2003). Six projects had been selected jointly with the Canadian authorities from 17 applications. Over the years, interest in this cooperation programme had continued to grow. Since its introduction in 1995, more than 150 projects had been funded, involving no fewer than 450 European universities and vocational training institutions and an equivalent number of US and Canadian institutions. To date, more than 6 000 students have taken part in these exchanges. For the 2004 selection, the European Commission devoted a budget of EUR 2.6 million to the 19 new projects. These involved some 60 European universities and vocational training institutions and as many US and Canadian institutions. The 19 projects selected got under way in autumn 2004 for a period of three years. No fewer than 750 students will take part in exchanges within this programme. The key topics addressed by the projects included renewable resources and clean technology for sustainable economic development, e-learning and simulation networks capable of meeting the needs of computer science and engineering students (\textsuperscript{557}).
Under the agreements with the United States, the Fulbright–EU grant programme also supported research and courses on Community issues and EC–US relations. Pilot projects on cooperation with Japan and Australia were introduced as of 2002.

Cooperation with third countries continued to develop with the help of various programmes. The Tempus programme covered the countries of the former Soviet Union, the eastern Balkans and Mongolia and was expanded in June 2002 to include the EU’s Mediterranean partners (see point 3.2.6). Latin America has also for several years been in cooperation with the European Union by means of two programmes providing students, graduates and professionals from Latin America with grants for studies in Europe. These are the Alfa programme (\(^{558}\), implemented by networks of higher education institutions, and the Alßan programme (\(^{559}\), intended for postgraduate studies and high-level training for Latin American professionals and future policy-makers, in institutions or centres in the European Union. The Asia-Link programme (\(^{560}\) supports networking between higher education institutions in the EU and south and south-east Asia and China.

The new programme of cooperation and mobility in higher education, Erasmus Mundus (see point 5.4.2), is also worth mentioning here. It is designed to enhance the European Union’s image as a centre of excellence in education. This programme supports the development of high-quality European master’s courses and is intended to raise the profile of European higher education in third countries and make it more attractive.

\(^{558}\) Alfa Programme/Latin America academic training [ec.europa.eu/europeaid/projects/alfa/information/ies_en.htm].

\(^{559}\) Alßan Programme/grant programme for high-level EU training for Latin America [ec.europa.eu/europeaid/projects/alban/index_en.htm].

\(^{560}\) ec.europa.eu/europeaid/projects/asia-link/index_en.htm
Education and training are central to the Union's economic and social strategy for 2010
The turn of the century was marked by events of major importance in the building of Europe: firstly, a new economic, social and environmental strategy for the Union up to 2010 (the Lisbon strategy) was adopted in March 2000; secondly, the Union was enlarged in May 2004 to include 10 new Member States, a step which was emblematic of the historic reunification of the continent; thirdly, on 17 and 18 June 2004, the European Council adopted the Treaty establishing a Constitution for Europe (\textsuperscript{562}), to replace the existing treaties.

These years also saw major changes in Community cooperation in education and training, both in terms of policy and as regards the grassroots programmes. These changes were triggered by the Union’s new economic and social strategy mapped out in Lisbon in March 2000, though the way had already been prepared in the 1990s. The strategy led those responsible for such cooperation to take the entirely new step of setting out a single framework for policy cooperation (Education and training 2010) as a basis of reference for all education and training activities and to adopt a new working method conducive to system convergence (see point 5.1). This generated the momentum for integration of the current processes and activities within this new framework. The lifelong learning framework established in 2001 and 2002 thus became its guiding principle (see point 5.2). Integration into the ‘Education and training 2010’ process was an immediate aim of the ministerial declaration signed in Copenhagen in 2002 to revitalise cooperation on vocational training (see point 5.3). European higher education also mobilised around the Lisbon goals, seeking to become ever more attractive and open to the world (see point 5.4). Realisation of the information society, which is one of the main strands in the Lisbon strategy, was reflected in the ‘eLearning’ programme (see point 5.5). Following the European Year of Languages in 2001, an action plan was drawn up to promote language teaching and linguistic diversity (see point 5.6) and to pursue the goals set in this area by successive European Councils. Finally, again in an effort to make Community action more coherent and relevant, the Commission took a major decision in 2004, with its proposal to merge the existing education and training programmes into a single programme geared to the policy objectives enunciated in the Lisbon strategy (see point 5.7).

Almost 30 years after the first action programme was adopted, Community cooperation in education and training thus at last has a coherent long-term policy framework and the perspective of a single action programme, both serving the ambitious aim of creating a European lifelong learning area. These decisions marked the end of a long process of gestation but also the start of a new era of cooperation which will require the Union and its Member States to make an ever greater commitment to investing in people if they are to achieve the ambitious but realistic objectives they have set themselves.
5.1. EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN THE LISBON STRATEGY

Simply put, earlier technological revolutions had to do with transforming energy or transforming materials. This one has to do with the transformation of time and distance, and thus cuts deeply into the fabric of society. At least as important, it has made knowledge and creativity the number one factor of production — far more important than capital, labour, and raw materials (\textsuperscript{563}).

The dawn of a new century, when growth seemed to be rebounding, was the right moment for an optimistic and forward-looking political discourse. The Portuguese Presidency of the Union was aware of this and set the extraordinary European Council of March 2000 in Lisbon the ambitious task of drawing up a new economic, social and environmental strategy for the Union. The aim was to reinvigorate Community cooperation on employment, economic reform and social solidarity in order to face up to the upheaval resulting from globalisation and the challenges of a new, increasingly knowledge-based economy. While Europe had considerable human resources and innovatory potential, the results it was achieving in the knowledge-based society and economy were not commensurate with these assets and there was a widening gap between Europe and its main competitors on the international stage.

In this context, the Lisbon European Council set the Union a very challenging objective for 2010: ‘to become the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world, capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion’ (\textsuperscript{564}). By setting a target date of 2010, the European Council was forcing the pace and demanding effectiveness and results from all concerned. The Union had to adapt, modernise and speed up the structural reforms which would allow it to boost its innovatory capacity and competitiveness, while preserving its social cohesion. In support of the necessary changes, the Lisbon European Council introduced a new working method: the ‘open method of coordination’, with the aim of ‘achieving greater convergence towards the main EU goals’ (\textsuperscript{565}). The Lisbon conclusions are more than a general policy statement. They represent a broad coherent strategy with an overall medium-term objective and a structured method for action and follow-up. This strategy seeks to underpin the process of reform and change in the Member States. Its success thus largely depends on the determination shown by them in putting it into practice at national level.
Previously, the main areas which had seen the development of Community-coordinated strategies for greater convergence of national policies were employment (through the European employment strategy — EES) and the economy (through the broad economic policy guidelines — BEPGs). By making investment in knowledge one of the prime movers of renewed prosperity in the Union, the Heads of State or Government highlighted the part to be played by the education and training systems and thus, in a sense, gave them a more pivotal role. The ministers for education would from now on be able to make themselves heard, more vigorously and more consistently than in the past, alongside the ministers whose portfolios are more ‘dominant’ in the Lisbon strategy, such as the economy and employment.
The broad lines of the Lisbon strategy

'Make the Union the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world, capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion'

Prepare the transition to a knowledge-based economy
- Develop an information society for all
- Establish a European area of research
- Achieve a complete and fully operational internal market
- Boost competitiveness and dynamism, especially among SMEs
- Create efficient and integrated financial markets
- Coordinate macroeconomic policies

Modernise the European social model by investing in people and building an active welfare state
- Adapt the education and training systems to the knowledge society
- Provide more and better jobs
- Modernise social protection
- Promote social inclusion

Put the strategy into practice by improving the existing processes and by a new open method of coordination as the means of spreading best practice and achieving greater convergence towards the main EU goals

Means available to the Community: mobilise and optimise existing resources

At Lisbon, the Heads of State or Government voiced great expectations of the education and training systems. What was aspired to was nothing less than a process of 'modernisation' (566). They quantified some of the objectives to be achieved, such as school access to the Internet, ICT training for teachers and a reduction in the number of young people without qualifications (567). While the setting of quantified targets is not unusual in areas such as employment or the economy, it was a very new and bold step at European level in a field like education. Targets have the merit of being explicit and making it easier to assess the progress made. Following up this stimulus from the European Council, the ministers of education themselves went further in May 2003, adopting other quantified targets for the year 2010 in five areas which they regarded as crucial to attaining a knowledge-based Europe (see point 5.1.3).

As regards funding, the Lisbon European Council set the general objective of 'a substantial annual increase in per capita investment in human resources' (568). The other objectives set were more qualitative, but were no less important for that: developing schools and training centres into multi-purpose local learning centres accessible to all, operating in partnership with firms and research facilities; adopting a European framework which specifies the new basic skills to be provided through lifelong learning; introducing a European diploma for basic ICT skills; devising a common European format for CVs.
5.1.1. A coherent and lasting framework for policy cooperation

The Lisbon European Council asked the ministers for education to look to the future and to ‘undertake a general reflection on the concrete future objectives of education systems, focusing on common concerns and priorities while respecting national diversity’ (570). It is the efforts to address this specific remit which have led to the greatest change.

At the request of the Education Council in June 2000, the Commission drew up an initial text (571) taking account of contributions from the Member States. The Swedish Presidency drew heavily on this paper in drafting the final report adopted by the Education Council on 12 February 2001 (572) and subsequently submitted, as planned, to the Stockholm European Council on 23 and 24 March 2001, one year after Lisbon. In the words of the Commission, this report was ‘the first official document sketching a comprehensive and coherent European approach to national education and training policies in the EU’ (573). In this report, the ministers for education for the first time agreed at European level on common objectives to be attained by 2010 (574). There were 13 such objectives, grouped around three strategic targets: quality/effectiveness, access and openness.
The Stockholm European Council approved this report and asked for a detailed work programme to be drawn up so that it could be given practical effect. On a proposal from the Commission (576), this programme was adopted jointly by the Council and the Commission on 14 February 2002 (577). In Barcelona, on 15 and 16 March 2002, the Heads of State or Government approved the programme and reaffirmed the main objectives set in Lisbon, spelling out their aspiration for the Union’s education and training systems to become a ‘world quality reference’ by 2010 (578).

Making the systems more effective and improving their quality by...

Making them more accessible by...

Making them more open by...

1) improving the training of teachers and trainers
2) developing key competences
3) access to ICT for everyone
4) increasing number of graduates in science and technology
5) making best use of resources
6) creating an open learning environment
7) making education and training more attractive
8) active citizenship, equal opportunities and social cohesion
9) strengthening links with the world of work, research and society
10) developing the spirit of enterprise
11) improving foreign language learning
12) increasing mobility and exchanges
13) strengthening European cooperation


It was very clear from this programme that the Education Council would henceforth work within the strategy laid down in Lisbon two years before, that it would adopt the arrangements for pursuing this strategy (and in particular the working method: the open method of coordination) and that it asserted its role and responsibility in the process. In order to map out the role of education and training in this strategy, the Education Council and the Commission stressed that they ‘are more than instruments for employability’ (\textsuperscript{[579]}) since they are also, and indeed primarily, concerned with Europeans’ personal development and active citizenship. Parliament did the same in its resolution of 23 January 2002 (\textsuperscript{[580]}). ‘The content of education systems should not be determined solely with reference to the economy and the employment market but also to developing an awareness of citizenship, the ability to communicate, intercultural understanding and social skills.’

This is a vital point. Bringing education within the Lisbon strategy was a major step forward. It reflected a hitherto unknown degree of recognition of how important this sector is to the economic and social development of the Union, but at the constant risk of its being seen only in terms of its economic and employment implications. When, in the course of the mid-term review of the Lisbon strategy in 2005, it was decided to refocus on the goals of growth and employment, the much broader scope of the ‘Education and training 2010’ programme and the need to continue work under it were not called into question.

5.1.2. Pursuit of the shared objectives set for 2010 (\textsuperscript{[581]})

The open method of coordination

Education and training policy cooperation was already feeling its way towards greater coherence and continuity (see point 4.5.1), and the Education Council had just devised a new working method in 1999 based on a ‘rolling agenda’. This agenda was very modest and was not on the same plane as the open method of coordination now defined in Lisbon, which promoted coordination and greater synergy and convergence between the relevant national policies. The Member States were not immediately all in favour of applying the open method of coordination to education. The method was finally accepted and clearly included in the work programme adopted by the Education Council in February 2002 with the result that education and training retained the same status as the other related areas (such as research \textsuperscript{[579]} Detailed work programme on the follow-up of the objectives, OJ C 142, 14 June 2002, point 2.3 of the introduction. \textsuperscript{[580]} Report of the European Parliament of 23 January 2002 on the communication from the Commission on the draft detailed work programme for the follow-up of the report on the concrete objectives of education and training systems, AS-0017/2002. \textsuperscript{[581]} For information on education and training activities under the Lisbon strategy (the ‘Education and training 2010’ process) visit the Europa site (www.ec.europa.eu/education/policies/2010/et_2010_en.html.)
or employment). Thereafter, the concern of the Member States was much more to monitor how the method was applied and ensure that it did not encroach on their prerogatives.

The open method of coordination promotes convergence of national policies and supports the attainment of objectives shared by all. Given the division of powers laid down by the treaty, it is designed to assist the Member States in formulating their own policies. It is based on identifying and defining shared objectives at European level, jointly specified means of measurement (indicators, benchmarks) and comparative tools for cooperation contributing to mutual improvement of systems by the dissemination of good practice, peer review and pilot projects.

This working method has brought a new dimension to education and training policy cooperation, providing a wealth of options for working together. Its advantage over past practice lies in the monitoring of progress made towards shared objectives. Pooling of experience and information among Member States is in fact nothing new in Community cooperation in this field. It has always been central to such cooperation, but in the past, its visibility and impact were difficult to measure. Such exchanges have a greater role to play in more structured cooperation tied to the achievement of common objectives and monitoring of progress.

In the Commission's view, the open method of coordination 'has the potential to pave the way for coherent policies in areas such as education where a formal common policy is not appropriate but where enhanced cooperation and mutual learning at European level can add real value' (582).

This method also provides for peer review. However, the work programme adopted in 2002 does not envisage using this tool except at the initiative of the Member States. It was not used in the first phase (2002–04) of work under the programme (583). The first joint Council and Commission report (2004) on implementation of the Lisbon process in the field of education and training reasserts the value of this tool, which could be more widely used in future to provide more effective support for the exchange of good practice and closer and deeper collaboration between Member States. With this in view, the Commission launched a 'peer learning activities' programme in 2005 with the aim of affording more specific assistance to joint exploration by the Member States of shared priorities and concerns. The first four priorities of this programme were teacher training, adult participation in lifelong learning, information and communication technologies and more efficient investment.


("583) However, interesting experiments in this area were conducted in connection with quality assurance further to the Copenhagen process (see point 5.3.2).
The first phase: laying the foundations for cooperation

The work programme on which the ministers agreed in 2002 was very broad, since lifelong learning constituted its conceptual framework and guiding principle. For each of the 13 objectives, it stated the key issues to be addressed. It laid down the schedule of work and the instruments to be used to stimulate and measure progress.

On this basis, and given the priorities set by the Education Council on 13 July 2001 (584), the Commission set up a series of nine working groups in the second half of 2001. The aim was to support the Member States’ efforts (585) to achieve their common objectives and promote exchange of good practice to improve education policy. In addition, in July 2002, the Commission set up a standing group on indicators and benchmarks (SGIB) to advise on a vital component of the open method of coordination — how to use and develop reliable and relevant indicators to monitor the process up to 2010 (see point 5.1.3).

These groups consisted of experts nominated by the Member States in the fields covered by the 13 programme objectives, along with representatives of the social partners and civil society, in accordance with the spirit of the open method of coordination (586). In the first three years, the work of these groups, steered by the Commission, made it possible to lay the foundations for cooperation, ‘to identify the priority themes, make an inventory of existing experience, define a preliminary list of [29] indicators for monitoring progress and to secure the consensus needed between all the interested parties’ (587). Most of the groups started exchanging information on good practice in relation to the policies and strategies followed in the various countries. Some arranged study visits to allow a more focused exchange on the basis of the practices of mutual interest that were regarded as the most promising. The first reports on this work were produced in 2003 and 2004 (588).

The recommendations from these groups of experts all advocated boosting national and Community action in all the key areas of the work programme adopted by the education ministers in 2002. The aims were to provide everyone with the key competences needed to live and work in the knowledge society, invest in the training of teachers and trainers in order to help them adapt to their new roles, invest more and invest more effectively in human resources, strengthen the qualitative integration of ICT, promote languages and develop awareness of the importance of linguistic and cultural diversity, develop a scientific culture from an early age, significantly increase mobility, develop lifelong learning in a practical way and make it accessible to all, recognise and validate non-formally or informally acquired skills, foster active citizenship, modernise guidance systems, etc. These recommendations fed into the communication from the Commission of November 2003 on implementation of the Lisbon strategy and the subsequent first joint report of the Council and the Commission (see point 5.1.4). These documents urged the Member States to step up the pace of reform and to commit more actively to achieving the shared objectives they had set themselves.

[585] Thirty-one European countries participated: the 15 Member States of the Union and, following the Bratislava ministerial declaration in June 2002, the 10 acceding countries (which joined the Union on 1 May 2004), three candidate countries and three EFTA/EEA countries.
[586] ‘The Union, the Member States, the regional and local levels, as well as the social partners and civil society, will be actively involved, using variable forms of partnership’, Lisbon conclusions, paragraph 38.


The history of European cooperation in education and training

Europe in the making — an example

Placing the reforms in their European context

Work in these groups and elsewhere soon revealed that the post-Lisbon shared objectives were not sufficiently reflected in national policies. However, it did highlight the role the Union can play in supporting the national reform process. Several European frameworks of reference and principles were thus produced between 2002 and 2004 through these groups or those established to follow up the Copenhagen declaration (see point 5.3.2).

The value of such frameworks was underscored by the first joint Council and Commission report to the 2004 spring European Council. ‘The development of common European references and principles can usefully support national policies. Although such common references and principles do not create obligations for Member States, they contribute to developing mutual trust between the key players and encouraging reform. ... These European common references and principles should be developed as a matter of priority and implemented at national level, taking account of national situations and respecting Member States’ competences’ (\textsuperscript{590}).

The Education Council issued statements on some of them in May 2004. They concern essential aspects of the creation of a Europe of knowledge and lifelong learning and place national education and training policy-making in its European context. Their effect will of course depend crucially on how far they are taken into account in national policy. They cover the following areas:

- eight domains of key competences required in order to live and work in the knowledge-based society (\textsuperscript{591});
- the competences and qualifications of teachers and trainers (\textsuperscript{592});
- validation of non-formal and informal learning (\textsuperscript{593});
- lifelong guidance (\textsuperscript{594});
- quality assurance in vocational education and training (\textsuperscript{595});
- the quality of mobility for learning purposes (drafting of a European charter. The Commission proposed a draft recommendation in 2005);
- approaches to improving the efficiency of the education and training systems.

Developing cooperation with other fields

The work carried out involved ever closer liaison with the other areas of Community activity covered by the Lisbon strategy. These areas such as research (\textsuperscript{596}) which, like education and training, are those most directly concerned in the development of a knowledge-based Europe, but also employment and social affairs. Such cooperation was particularly apparent in the efforts to develop lifelong learning (\textsuperscript{597}), which is also important in the European employment strategy, but also in work on developing entrepreneurship (\textsuperscript{598}) or on skills and mobility.
As regards the latter, the Commission, at the instigation of its employment and social affairs departments, adopted an action plan in 2002 (m) to get rid of obstacles to mobility on the European labour markets. This plan put forward ‘a coherent political vision to promote human resources in the Union in accordance with the Lisbon goals, primarily create opportunities for citizens to move around the Union for educational or professional purposes, and make it easier for them to take advantage of the benefits of European integration, including the European single market’ (m). The plan proposed 25 specific activities, 15 of which focused on education and training with the aim of developing a more transparent and flexible system for recognition of qualifications, diplomas and periods of study. It was favourably received by the Barcelona European Council in March 2002. It emphasised the need to create the necessary legal conditions, in line with the mobility action plan approved by the Nice European Council in 2000 (see point 4.5.4), to allow effective mobility of all involved in education, research and innovation. A first evaluation of the plan was conducted in 2004 (m), taking into account the work and analyses of the situation carried out under the ‘Education and training 2010’ programme and the progress still to be made, especially in greatly increasing mobility for work or study purposes. In 2004, a directive was finally adopted on the right of Union citizens (including students moving for purposes of vocational training) to move and reside freely within the Union (m).

**Strengthening the social dialogue**

The Lisbon strategy also contributes to strengthening Europe-wide social dialogue at all levels. Following the communication from the Commission of June 2002 (m), the Council established an annual tripartite social summit for growth and employment in March 2003 (m). This consisted of top-level representatives of the current Council Presidency and the two following Presidencies (the ‘troika’), the Commission and the social partners. In the field of education and training, these developments led to a structured dialogue and regular meetings. At the joint invitation of the Member of the Commission responsible for education and culture, (then Viviane Reding), and Petros Efthymiou, the Greek Minister for Education, the troika consisting of the Danish, Greek and Italian education ministers met informally with the representatives of the social partners (ETUC, UNICE/UEAPME and CEEP) with a view to establishing such a structured dialogue between the Education Council, the Commission and the social partners. The first such informal meeting was held on 5 February 2003 and this event has since been convened annually. Follow-up of the Lisbon strategy is one of the key themes of these consultation meetings, which help to stimulate cooperation between the various players and to develop mutual trust and understanding.
5.1.3. Development of indicators and benchmarks

Indicators are a key tool of the new cooperation method instituted in Lisbon and are vital for monitoring progress towards the objectives the ministers for education have set themselves for 2010. The questions to which they give rise and the differences they point up between the countries also make them a useful means of identifying good practice, as emphasised in the conclusions of the Brussels European Council on 20 and 21 March 2003 (\(^{604}\)). However, this complex question has always been a very sensitive matter (see point 4.5.2) for many Member States, largely because they fear that the outcomes of their systems will be compared on the basis of essentially quantitative data.

The work programme adopted in 2002 initially proposed a tentative list of 33 indicators. In view of the technical complexity of this area, the Commission set up a ‘standing group on indicators and benchmarks’ to advise it. The work carried out in this group from 2002 onwards allowed an initial set of 29 indicators, which were of interest for monitoring attainment of the 13 shared objectives set by the ministers, to be selected on the basis of existing sources. In 2003, the Commission produced a first analysis of these indicators (\(^{605}\)), mainly in the light of the five quantified objectives (benchmarks) adopted by the Council in May 2003. This report provided a first insight into the status of education and training systems in Europe. It sought to encourage the exchange of good practice among the Member States, highlighting the countries with interesting results in the key areas of the knowledge-based society and economy. It also singled out the areas in which the 2010 objectives would be difficult to achieve unless greater efforts were made. The report was thus an essential reference document for preparing the communication of November 2003 ‘Education and training 2010. The success of the Lisbon strategy hinges on urgent reforms’ (see point 5.1.4). It is updated and improved every year (\(^{606}\)) and can be expected to play an ever more important part in preparation of the next biennial reports to the European Council on progress towards the 2010 common objectives.

The work carried out since 2002 has also shown that certain indicators are inappropriate and that there is a lack of data on key aspects of the process. This weakness was noted by the Commission in its communication of November 2003 and acknowledged in the first joint Council and Commission report to the 2004 spring European Council. At the end of 2004, as proposed in this report, the Commission adopted proposals (\(^{607}\)) which the Education Council discussed under the Luxembourg Presidency in the first half of 2005, producing a set of conclusions (\(^{608}\)). The Commission proposed developing a limited number of new indicators in the short, medium and long term in areas which were considered to be inadequately covered (key competences — in particular learning to learn; investment efficiency; ICT; mobility; adult learning, vocational education and training). It proposed adding three fields which it believed to be equally important for effective implementation of the ‘Education and training 2010’ process: languages, training of teachers and trainers; social inclusion and active citizenship.
As regards language skills, an area in which there is a patent lack of data and indicators, the Barcelona European Council (15 and 16 March 2002) had already asked for a linguistic competence indicator to be devised in 2003 (609). Since this was such a large and complex task, it was not completed by that date. The Commission adopted a communication in August 2005 to explain the details of how this indicator would be developed.

The 2002 programme also mentions the possibility of setting Europe-wide reference criteria (benchmarks) with the agreement of the Education Council. The Lisbon European Council had already set two such benchmarks (see point 5.1). The Commission proposed six in its communication of 20 November 2002 (610). The Education Council of 5 and 6 May 2003 adopted them (see box below) (611), though it diluted some of the Commission’s proposals (612) or made others more precise (613). The benchmark for a substantial increase in human resources investment (614), which the Commission had certainly not quantified but had asserted as a vital objective, was greatly weakened during negotiations in the Council. In its communication, the Commission asked the Member States to play their part in attaining this objective set in Lisbon and ‘to set transparent targets to be communicated to the Council and Commission as the detailed work programme on the objectives sets out’. The Council did not take up this point but merely mentioned that investment in education and training is a long-term investment, which has positive effects on social cohesion and sustainable growth, and that discussions on this point should continue in parallel to the follow-up to the communication from the Commission on investment (615).

Although the Commission’s proposals were thus watered down by the Council, the five benchmarks adopted in May 2003 were a major step in applying the open method of coordination to education and training. While they do not lay down decisions to be taken by the governments, they can inform national policy. Some countries have already taken them over as national objectives, as underlined in the second draft joint report ‘Modernising education and training: a vital contribution to prosperity and social cohesion in Europe’ which the Commission adopted in November 2005 on the implementation of the education and training work programme.

‘Europe needs ambitious targets in the area of education and training to measure and strengthen our common efforts. Common benchmarks are a first step. It is through achieving these benchmarks in common that the Union will develop towards the Lisbon goal. These benchmarks will be used as a means of stimulating the exchange of good experiences and new ways of thinking about policy approaches. This major benchmarking exercise will allow Member States to learn from each other [because] it will demonstrate that there are Member States meeting and even exceeding the common benchmarks and showing world-beating performance’ (616).

References


611] Council conclusions on reference levels of European average performance in education and training (benchmarks), document 8981/03, EDUC 83, 7 May 2003.

612] In addition to the objective of an average school dropout rate of 10 % or less, the Commission, had stipulated that, by 2010, ‘all Member States should at least halve the rate of early school leavers, with reference to the rate recorded in the year 2000’.

613] The communication from the Commission had not quantified the objective of increasing the number of mathematics, science and technology graduates.

614] This demand was already contained in the conclusions of the Lisbon European Council of March 2000, point 26.


The five quantified objectives (benchmarks) to be attained by the Union by 2010

- EU average rate of early school leavers to be no more than 10% (the rate in 2004 was 16%).
- Total number of graduates in mathematics, science and technology in the EU to increase by at least 15% (achieved in 2004), with a decreased gender imbalance in these fields.
- At least 85% of 22-year-olds to have completed upper secondary education (the rate in 2004 was around 77%).
- Percentage of 15-year-olds who are low-achieving in reading to have decreased by at least 20% compared to the year 2000 (the average rate in 2003 was almost 20%).
- Average participation in lifelong learning to be at least 12.5% of the adult working age population (25–64 age group) (in 2004: 9.9%).

The Lisbon process has now run half its course. In education and training, progress towards the shared objectives is being more closely and regularly monitored. In this context, the Commission should play an increasingly important part in developing the quantitative and qualitative indicators needed. While full use must be made of the indicators that already exist at European and international level, the Union has its own requirements, which cannot be met simply by using the indicators devised elsewhere, e.g. at the OECD. This is an important issue, which has led the Commission to expand its capacity in this area and to make proposals for new indicators. A major development is that a special unit to deal with studies, indicators and statistics was set up at the beginning of 2005 within the Directorate-General for Education and Culture. A cooperation agreement was also concluded in 2004 between the Education and Culture DG and one of the institutes of the Commission’s Joint Research Centre based in Ispra (Italy) for establishment of a lifelong learning research unit. This will provide scientific support for the Commission’s work on the ‘Education and training 2010’ process by means of quantitative, qualitative and forward-looking studies and afford general support for work on indicators.
5.1.4. Four years after Lisbon, the Commission sounds the alarm

‘Education and training 2010’: the need for urgent reforms

While the main end-point for the overall process is 2010, the Commission conducted an initial review of progress in the field of education and training in the autumn of 2003. It set out its findings in a communication entitled ‘Education and training 2010: the success of the Lisbon strategy hinges on urgent reforms’ ([617]) which was its contribution to the first joint Council and Commission report requested by the Barcelona European Council ([618]) for the 2004 spring European Council. From this point on, and in order to emphasise the aim of integrating the different processes under way ([619]), the expression ‘Education and training 2010’ has been used to refer to the whole process of implementing the Lisbon strategy in the field of education and training.

In this communication, the Commission sought to galvanise the Member States into greater efforts to achieve tangible progress in the coming years in education and training, as key sectors of the knowledge society. It pointed out how crucial these are to achieving the economic and social objectives set in Lisbon and referred to the ambitious but realistic goals set since March 2000 by the Education Council. Above all, however, it painted an alarming picture of the outstanding problems which were holding back the dynamism of European human resources and the Union’s innovation capacity and eroding its social cohesion. The communication contained a long list of ‘warning lights on red’:

- participation of European adults in lifelong learning much too low and few effective strategies to improve the situation ([620]);
- European higher education suffering from under-investment;
- vocational education and training still not attractive enough;
- level of mobility in education and training still inadequate: still only 120 000 Erasmus students per year within the Union, or 0.8 % of the total student population ([621]);
- rates of early school leavers still too high;
- too many young people with very inadequate reading literacy level;
- shortage of qualified teachers and trainers threatening some countries;
- if total levels of human resources investment are compared internationally, the Union lags well behind the United States, mainly because private sector involvement is slight: ‘The private sector effort is five times higher in the United States (2.2 % of GDP compared with 0.4 %) ... the United States spends between two and five times more per student than the countries of the Union’ ([622]).

The Commission’s findings left no room for doubt: ‘The available reports and indicators all point to the same conclusion, which is that if reform proceeds at the current rate, the Union will be unable to attain its objectives in education and training’. ‘If bolder reforms and more sustained investment are not forthcoming,
the deficits observed today, rather than decreasing, are likely to become further exacerbated. The Commission also stressed how important human resources investment is in determining growth and productivity, just like investment in capital or equipment. The report to the 2004 spring European Council goes further, echoing the idea already expressed in the Education Council resolution of 25 November 2003 that ‘spending on human capital should not be considered as a cost but as an investment’ ([623]). To emphasise the key role played by investment in citizens’ education, the Commission also referred to a recent study ([624]) showing that ‘an extra year at the intermediate level of education ... increases aggregate productivity by about 5 % immediately and by a further 5 % in the long term’. It also emphasised the positive impact of education on employment, health, social inclusion and active citizenship.

A further aim was to mobilise all existing resources in support of the necessary changes. The Commission referred to the role of the Member States in building up human capital and urged them to make greater use of the Structural Funds and the European Investment Bank for education and training investment linked to the Lisbon objectives ([625]). In the 1980s, investment in human resources was a concept which was gaining ground and was used more and more in the field of education and training, among others. The concept of human capital is increasingly used in connection with the Lisbon strategy. The Italian Presidency in the second half of 2003 made this one of the main planks of its education and training work programme. Following an informal meeting of the education ministers (along with the ministers for employment and social affairs) in Milan in October 2003, the Council adopted a resolution ([626]) emphasising the twofold impact of human capital investment on social cohesion and competitiveness.

The somewhat alarmist tone of the communication from the Commission of November 2003 was no surprise to those who remembered the message conveyed by its general reports (known as ‘synthesis reports’) to the spring European Councils on progress with the strategy as a whole. In the report to the Barcelona European Council in the spring of 2002, the Commission had already emphasised the need for the Union to ‘step up the effort in the areas of research, innovation, education and training’ and ‘place these policies under a common banner: a European area of knowledge’ ([627]). It could already see from structural indicators that the level of investment in education was still too low, that participation in lifelong learning remained limited and that too many young people were leaving school without qualifications or with only basic qualifications. It continued in the same vein in its report the following year to the 2003 spring European Council ([628]), arguing that progress was too slow, that businesses were not investing enough in knowledge and innovation and that the national governments should create the necessary conditions for increasing public and private investment in education, research and the knowledge-based economy.
In its November 2003 communication, the Commission also expressed concern that national education and training policies seemed to be disregarding the objectives jointly set at European level and the Lisbon strategy in general. It emphasised the vital importance to the success of this strategy that 'Education and training 2010' become a central element in the formulation of national policies. In the future, countries should better harness energies and make good the current deficit as regards the involvement of all the stakeholders and civil society in general (629). Making the process more relevant to national policy was a major concern, which the Commission, for its part, sought to address in 2004 by organising more targeted work on the reform priorities as identified by the various groups of experts. In 2005, it launched a programme of peer learning activities among Member States, starting from their needs and priorities.

In its communication, however, the Commission did not merely raise the alarm. It also put forward three levers of action to enable the Union to get back on course by 2010.

- It first of all proposed concentrating reforms and investment on the key areas for the knowledge-based society and economy and putting resources to work effectively to promote investment in knowledge (a higher level of public sector investment in certain essential areas and a bigger contribution from the private sector, particularly in higher education, continuing training and adult education). It described better training of teachers/trainers and greater attractiveness of the profession as crucial to the success of the reforms under way. It was indeed imperative to 'rise to the challenge of replenishing the staffing levels in teaching in the years ahead and of a worsening situation as regards shortage of recruits' (630). It proposed that, by 2005, each country put in place an action plan on in-service training for educational staff, this training to be substantially consolidated and, in the Commission’s view, ‘be free, organised during working time ... and have a positive impact on career progression’.

- The second proposed line of action concerned lifelong learning. The Commission urged all the Member States, by 2005 at the latest, to devise a comprehensive, coherent and concerted strategy in this area and an action plan for its implementation covering all the dimensions of the systems (both formal and non-formal). What was required was to target efforts on the disadvantaged groups and apply common European references and principles (see point 5.1.2).

- The third and last line of action sought to ‘establish a Europe of education and training’. Under this very general heading, the Commission made a very specific proposal: rapid creation of a European qualifications and competences framework, as a precondition for effective and smooth functioning of the European labour market, equal opportunities on this market and development of European citizenship.

(629) COM(2003) 685 final, point 2.4.1.

(630) Ibid., point 2.1.3.
This framework would embrace both higher education and vocational training and would take account of relevant developments in the Bologna and Copenhagen processes. Finally, given that '50 years after its launch, the European project still has not succeeded in attracting the appropriate level of interest and the full support of the people of the Union', it proposed that all education systems ensure by 2010 that, by the end of their secondary education, their pupils have the knowledge and competences they need to prepare them for their role as a future citizen in Europe and that a Community profile of European knowledge and competences to be acquired by pupils be established by 2005 to support national action in this area.

2004: a first interim report to the European Council

The communication from the Commission served as the starting point for preparation within the Council of the first joint Council and Commission interim report on implementation of the Lisbon strategy in education and training. This was adopted by the Education Council on 26 February 2004 and placed before the Brussels spring European Council in March 2004. It closely followed the communication from the Commission, as regards both the central political message on the urgent need for reform and the proposed priorities for future action. However, the Member States had reservations about the Commission's schedule for the various action proposals. Most of the target dates were not included in the final text or were clearly qualified. This is particularly true of lifelong learning strategies. The Commission had proposed that 'in 2005 by the latest, all countries should have defined a strategy of this kind ... as well as a coherent action plan for its implementation'. The final text merely reads: 'It would be desirable if such strategies were in place by 2006'. However, the European Council of March 2004 to which the final joint report was submitted departed from the cautious wording of the Council and called for 'the putting in place of national strategies in all Member States by 2006'. The Commission's proposal that in-service training for teachers 'be free, organised during working time ... and have a positive impact on career progression' also failed to gain acceptance.

The other aspect which was discussed at length in the Council was closer monitoring of the work programme in the remaining years up to 2010. To make the process more effective, the Commission had thought it essential to propose more structured and systematic monitoring of the progress made. In its communication, it had therefore proposed that 'the Member States submit to it each year as from 2004 a consolidated report on all the action they take on education and training which can contribute to the Lisbon strategy'. This need to strengthen cooperation and monitoring was finally recognised by the Education Council, which agreed that a report be made to the European Council every two years in a major step towards more effective and structured pursuit of the Lisbon process in education and training.
The joint report adopted by the Council also endorsed the Commission’s call for the process to play a greater part at national level. This gulf between the strategy laid down at Community level and the national policies which are the primary means of achieving the goals does not exist only in the field of education and training, but in a fair number of the areas covered by the Lisbon agenda. In its general report to the 2004 spring European Council, the Commission referred to an implementation deficit and to the need for the Member States to ‘commit more firmly to pursuing the reforms defined since the Lisbon European Council’. It proposed three priorities, which included ‘improving investments in knowledge and networks ... giving greater priority to the level and quality of investments in research, education and training’ (\textsuperscript{633}). The warning sounded by one of the key sectors of the knowledge society as early as the autumn of 2003 thus came at just the right moment to concentrate minds on the risk of failure and the need for greater efforts to invest in human resources.

A review of implementation mid-way through the Lisbon strategy

Given this disquieting situation, the 2004 spring European Council in Brussels asked the Commission to set up a high-level group of independent experts (subsequently more often known as the ‘Kok group’ after its chairman, Wim Kok, the former premier of the Netherlands (\textsuperscript{634})) to help it prepare proposals for the mid-term review of the Lisbon strategy at the European Council in the spring of 2005. The aim was to impart a new momentum to this strategy and ensure that it was pursued more effectively.

The Commission’s efforts in this direction are reflected in the approach mapped out by its new President (\textsuperscript{635}), José Manuel Barroso, who set up a working group of Commissioners on the Lisbon strategy as soon as the new Commission took office on 22 November 2004.

The Kok group submitted its report to the Commission on 3 November 2004 (\textsuperscript{636}). It found that the results achieved since Lisbon were very modest. It drew attention to the major challenges still facing the Union and requiring an urgent response: external challenges (international competition, in particular from the United States and Asia), internal challenges (in particular the ageing of the population), the risks and opportunities of enlargement. In the group’s view, even if the results five years on left something to be desired, mainly because of the lack of political commitment and will, the Lisbon strategy ‘was and is Europe’s best response to these multiple challenges’. The group called for a major effort by all the partners concerned and for the open method of coordination to be strengthened, in particular by increasing peer pressure: ‘Peer pressure and benchmarking are clear incentives for the Member States to deliver on their commitments’. It proposed that the national governments produce national action programmes by the end of 2005. The Kok report identified five broad policy areas as particularly important for the future: investment in the


\[\text{Wim Kok also chaired the European employment task force in 2003.}\]

\[\text{On 29 June 2004, the Heads of State or Government formally designated the Portuguese Prime Minister José Manuel Barroso as the President of the new Commission which took office on 22 November 2004.}\]

\[\text{Facing the challenge: the Lisbon strategy for growth and employment”, report from the high-level group chaired by Wim Kok, November 2004.}\]
knowledge society, increasing Europe’s attractiveness to research workers and scientists, making research and development a priority and promoting the use of ICT; completion of the internal market; creation of a business-friendly climate; development of the labour market, especially by pursuing strategies for lifelong learning and active ageing; pursuit of a sustainable environment.

The recommendation on lifelong learning called for the Member States, in close cooperation with the social partners, to adopt strategies in this area by 2005. However, the high-level group’s approach was limited to the needs of the labour market and suffered from being less coherent and comprehensive than the approach (‘from cradle to grave’) promoted in the communication from the Commission of November 2001 (see point 5.2). Nonetheless, by stressing the importance of producing such strategies in all Member States, the Kok report backs up the Education Council and Commission joint report of February 2004, which makes this one of the three primary lines of action in education and training in the years up to 2010 (see point 5.1.4).

On 2 February 2005, in the light of the Kok report, the Commission adopted its own proposals (637) for breathing new life into the Lisbon strategy. These were placed before the European Council of March 2005, which approved their general thrust (638). To allow the strategy to be more effectively implemented by 2010, the Commission chose to refocus on the growth and employment objectives. On 12 April 2005, it thus adopted integrated guidelines for growth and jobs (639), with a single document covering two legal instruments covered by the treaty: the broad economic policy guidelines (BEPGs) and the employment guidelines. After scrutiny by the Council bodies concerned, these guidelines were approved by the European Council in June 2005 (640). They take account of the contribution of education and training. A particular feature is increased investment in human capital through better education and skills. They specifically refer to the lifelong learning strategies to be instituted by the Member States by 2006, reduction of school dropout rates, transparency of qualifications, validation of non-formal and informal learning; attractiveness, openness and high quality standards of education. These guidelines are central to the new strengthened and simplified governance of the Lisbon strategy proposed by the Commission and approved by the European Council in March 2005. They provide an integrated framework for action, which the Member States must take into account when drawing up their new ‘national reform programmes’ planned for October 2005. Separate sectoral reports are no longer to be submitted to the European Council. The Member States are to produce a single annual report on how the guidelines are being put into practice, and, on this basis, a single report will be made to the spring European Council.


However, since the purpose of education and training goes far beyond the objectives of growth and employment, it was decided that the 'Education and training 2010' work programme would continue on all fronts, along with the two-yearly reports on its implementation (which have the specific feature of being joint reports from the Education Council and the Commission). The elements of these reports which relate to the growth and employment objectives will, however, be taken into account in tracking the refocused Lisbon strategy. Education and training policy cooperation through the 'Education and training 2010' process is thus on a sound footing, since it can evolve and deepen independently in future, while making a full contribution to the refocused objectives of the Lisbon strategy.
5.2. **LIFELONG LEARNING: THE OVERALL UNDERLYING PRINCIPLE**

5.2.1. **A broad definition of the concept**

The 1990s saw the rise to prominence of the lifelong learning concept, especially since the White Paper of Jacques Delors on growth, competitiveness and employment (see point 4.2). The Lisbon European Council could not but recognise its importance in the development of an increasingly knowledge-based economy and the constant renewal of qualifications and skills, and described it as ‘a basic component of the European social model’ (\(^\text{641}\)). The European Council three months later at Santa Maria da Feira (Portugal), on 19 and 20 June 2000, particularly emphasised this aspect, urging the Member States, the Council and the Commission ‘to identify coherent strategies and practical measures with a view to fostering lifelong learning for all’ (\(^\text{642}\)). The Stockholm European Council of March 2001 reaffirmed this position. The rather wordy discussion of the subject which had been typical of the 1990s was replaced by a determination expressed at the highest level that tangible progress be made in this area in the coming years, both by the national education and training systems and by Community cooperation.

This concept transcends all levels of education and training and encompasses all stages of life (‘from cradle to grave’) and the various forms of learning (formal, non-formal and informal). It therefore involves a wide range of fields and actors, extending beyond the sphere of education and training alone. It is thus one of the specific objectives of the European employment strategy and a salient feature of the European social policy agenda (\(^\text{643}\)) established after Lisbon to promote positive and dynamic interaction of economic, social and employment policy. In its report of November 2003 (\(^\text{644}\)), the employment task force emphasised the need to invest more in human capital and to make lifelong learning a reality, acknowledging that ‘significant barriers to lifelong learning exist in most Member States, in particular for the low-skilled’ (\(^\text{645}\)).

In 2000, the social dialogue education/training group (see point 3.1.4) also made this one of its main concerns. On 28 February 2002, the social partners at European level (UNICE/UEAPME, CEEP and ETUC) adopted a framework of action for lifelong development of skills and qualifications in order to further the Lisbon strategy. This was one of the principal features of the 2003–05 social dialogue programme. After three annual follow-up reports, the social partners decided to assess its impact on businesses and workers. This assessment was entrusted to the social dialogue ad hoc group ‘Education and training’ and the results should be known in March 2006. The Commission sees the European social partners’ common framework as one of the ‘promising developments’ (\(^\text{646}\)) because there are clear follow-up provisions and the follow-up reports have been produced to schedule.

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\(^{[641]}\) Conclusions of the Lisbon European Council, point 29.

\(^{[642]}\) Conclusions of the Santa Maria da Feira European Council, 19 and 20 June 2000, paragraph 33.


\(^{[645]}\) Ibid.

To point up the very broad scope of the lifelong learning concept, the Heads of State or Government stated that 'lifelong learning is an essential policy for the development of citizenship, social cohesion and employment' (647). The Education Council also emphasised the breadth of the concept. As early as December 1996, at the end of the European Year of Lifelong Learning, it had taken a stance on the relevant principles and broad lines of strategy (see point 4.2.1). Its resolution of 27 June 2002 (648) pursued the same train of thought (see box) and also emphasised the participation of all concerned, in particular the social partners, civil society and local and regional authorities.

Lifelong learning must be understood as all learning activity undertaken throughout life, with the aim of improving knowledge, skills and competences within a personal, civic, social and/or employment-related perspective. Finally, the principles in this context should be: the individual as the subject of learning, highlighting the importance of an authentic equality of opportunities, and quality in learning.

Council resolution, 27 June 2002

As regards the crucial question of the resources needed to put this new approach into practice, the ministers called for all possible sources of public and private funding to be brought into play. Greater investment from the private sector was regarded as important, especially in higher education and vocational training. This point was raised in the communications (649) adopted by the Commission in early 2003 on investment in education and training and on the role of the universities. It is also made in the communication of November 2003 on implementation of the ‘Education and training 2010’ process and emphasised in the first report to the 2004 spring European Council following this communication. The ball is again in the court of the Member States, which by 2010 must show what progress has been made in this direction.

5.2.2. Specific proposals for action

Making lifelong learning available to all implies that national policy should involve all levels of formal education and training but new avenues should also be explored, attaching much greater importance to adult education and to competences and knowledge acquired in an informal and/or non-formal context. The initial European-level response to the expectations of the Lisbon and Feira European Councils was an extensive consultation in 2001 of the Member States, the EFTA/EEA countries (650), the candidate countries and also the social partners and non-governmental organisations, which the Commission organised on the basis of a memorandum (651) published in November 2000. A great deal of interest was shown. Parliament passed two major resolutions (652) in support of this undertaking.
In the light of this major consultation exercise and the many responses received, the Commission (Directorates-General for Education and Culture and for Employment and Social Affairs) adopted a communication (653) in November 2001, putting forward specific proposals for the pursuit of lifelong learning policies at national and Community level. The criteria for devising and pursuing such strategies were specified, along with a set of action priorities (see box below) at European, national, regional and local level, with the aim of enabling everyone in Europe, irrespective of age, to enjoy free access to high-quality training opportunities and to a full range of educational experiences, both formal and informal.

Achieving such an ambitious objective necessarily takes time. However, given what is at stake, the necessary reforms have to be put in hand with all dispatch so that tangible progress becomes apparent as soon as possible. In its communication, the Commission stressed the need for the Member States to overhaul their education and training systems to make them more flexible and more open, e.g. by removing barriers between the different forms of learning. In so doing, it took up the call for modernising of education systems (654) made by the Lisbon European Council.

### Six priorities for action on lifelong learning
(communication from the Commission, November 2001)

- **Valuing learning**: identification, evaluation and recognition of non-formal and informal learning and transfer and mutual recognition of certificates, diplomas and formal qualifications
- **Information, guidance and counselling**: development of high-quality guidance services
- **Investing more** (public and private) time and money in learning
- **Bringing together learners and learning opportunities**: support for learning communities, towns and regions and businesses to help them to become ‘learning organisations’; development of local knowledge-acquisition centres
- **Development of the basic skills** needed to access lifelong learning for all, at all stages of life
- **Development of new teaching and learning methods**

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5.2.3. The guiding principle of the ‘Education and training 2010’ process

The communication from the Commission was wide-ranging and attracted support from all quarters. This did not mean that it was easy to put it into practice (\textsuperscript{656}) since it required a new conceptual and organisational approach to the systems in place and a solution to the complex problem of recognising informal and non-formal learning. In order to provide political support for this communication, the Barcelona European Council in March 2002 asked the Council to adopt a resolution on this topic before the Seville European Council of 22 June 2002. The Council endorsed the analysis and main points for action put forward by the Commission in its communication, and also stressed the importance of input and active participation by young people (\textsuperscript{657}).

The Council resolution specified that the approaches and actions envisaged should form part of the ‘Education and training 2010’ process, which is built around lifelong learning. Lifelong learning was also to be enhanced by the actions and policies developed within the European employment strategy, the action plan for skills and mobility (see point 4.5.4), the Socrates programme (in particular the Grundtvig action), the Community programmes Leonardo da Vinci and Youth, the eLearning initiative and the research and innovation actions.

The steps envisaged by the Council include development of a European database on good practice for lifelong learning (\textsuperscript{658}) and of a framework for recognition of qualifications, building on the Bologna process, and similar action in the area of vocational training (\textsuperscript{659}). It also asked the Commission to produce a report on progress with lifelong learning strategies at national level before the 2004 spring European Council in line with its communication of November 2001 and the resolution of June 2002.

In the summer of 2003, the Commission analysed the policies followed on the basis of input from the Member States, the EFTA/EEA countries and the candidate countries. It acknowledged the quantity and diversity of initiatives and reforms being undertaken all over Europe. However, like the employment task force, which published its report at the same time (\textsuperscript{660}), it noted a major weakness of the policies pursued: ‘Strategies vary in their coherence and their comprehensiveness, and there is still some way to go before one could speak of all countries having a well-developed LLL culture with wide public acceptance and participation ... while the principle of lifelong and lifewide learning is accepted in all Member States, there is considerable variation in the extent to which it is integrated in practice into some or all components of the learning system’ (\textsuperscript{661}). Responding to the call from the Education Council for this dimension to be incorporated into the ‘Education and training 2010’ process, the Commission gave full weight to these observations in its communication of November 2003 (\textsuperscript{662}). The development of effective national strategies was one of the three levers of action which it proposed. The shortcomings to be made good stem frequently from a vision overly concerned with the requirements...
of employability or an over-exclusive emphasis on rescuing those who slipped through the initial education nets. This is perfectly justifiable, but does not on its own constitute a lifelong learning strategy which is genuinely integrated, coherent and accessible to everyone.

The first report to the 2004 spring European Council following this communication confirmed that this was a prime area for future action. The wording ‘it would be desirable if such strategies were in place by 2006’ (662) waters down the Commission’s call for all countries to produce such strategies and implementation plans by 2005. However, the thrust of the reforms was maintained, so that this vital aspect of effective adjustment and modernisation of education and training systems continued to be closely monitored at European level. This report was echoed by that of the high-level group (the ‘Kok group’) on the Lisbon strategy, which was submitted to the Commission in November 2004 and reasserted the need for lifelong learning strategies to be produced throughout Europe (see point 5.1.4). The European Council of March 2005 reaffirmed the stance it had adopted on previous occasions, stating that ‘lifelong learning is a sine qua non if the Lisbon objectives are to be achieved’ (663).

The lifelong learning concept informs all the work done at European level under the ‘Education and training 2010’ programme (664) to follow up both the shared objectives agreed at Stockholm in 2001 and the Copenhagen declaration on enhanced European cooperation in vocational education and training. Since the meeting of the European ministers responsible for higher education in Prague in May 2001, it has also become one of the main concerns in the Bologna process.

To help ensure that strategies are developed as close to the learner as possible, the Commission supported the creation of networks of learning regions and towns engaged in establishing lifelong learning strategies. In its opinion of May 2002 (665) on the communication from the Commission of November 2001, the Committee of the Regions endorsed such action. Since April 2003, 120 European regions, grouped around 17 projects (666) (known as ‘R3L projects’ for ‘Regional networks for lifelong learning’), have been working together on pooling knowledge and expertise in the interests of lifelong learning. The promoters of these projects met for the first time on 3 and 4 April 2003 in Brussels following an initiative taken by the Commission, with support from the European Parliament and the Committee of the Regions. The aim is to promote the creation of networks of learning regions in order to establish lasting European cooperation in the area of lifelong education and training. The expression ‘learning region’ refers to a region, town or urban or rural area whose identity (in administrative, cultural, geographical and other terms) does not necessarily have to have been defined, but which is seeking to break down barriers in order to achieve genuine mobilisation and greater cooperation between all the protagonists in education and training (667). These networks reported on their activities at the end of 2004. This experiment in regional cooperation should be followed up in the next generation of Community education and training programmes (2007–13), for which the Commission is proposing an integrated programme to support the development of lifelong learning (see point 5.7).
Such development should be a Europe-wide phenomenon. For this to be the case, everyone should have access to clear information on the opportunities for study and learning in the Union. In March 2003, the Commission therefore inaugurated the Ploteus Internet portal (portal on learning opportunities throughout Europe) on study and training options in Europe. This portal gives access to a wide range of information from national websites. It allows the various users (such as students, jobseekers, workers, parents, guidance staff, teachers and trainers) to obtain information readily on schools, higher education establishments and courses of all types and on the training and employment openings in the public services of 30 European countries.

Since the Lisbon European Council, there has thus been ever greater pressure, applied through the successive European Councils, for coherent and integrated lifelong learning strategies to be put in place effectively by means of radical system reform. More regular monitoring of national action in the coming years in the two-yearly ‘Education and training 2010’ reports will show whether real progress has been made. It will become apparent whether a comprehensive approach (‘from cradle to grave’), as espoused by the communication from the Commission of November 2001, has been maintained in preference to a philosophy that focuses more narrowly on employability, as in the report of the high-level group on the mid-term review of the Lisbon strategy (see point 5.1.4).

Undoubtedly, initiatives in this area will continue to vary greatly and progress will no doubt be uneven, since they depend on the underlying national educational traditions, with differences in the status of adult education, in the compartmentalisation and decentralisation of education and training systems and in the extent to which they take account of skills acquired non-formally or informally. It is because such diversity exists that a transnational, structured and evaluated exchange of experience and good practice will be a vehicle for joint progress towards the goals set in Lisbon. The lifelong learning principle will thus be more easily implemented and more readily apparent if it is made central to the ‘Education and training 2010’ process and current and future Community programmes.

[Ploteus means ‘navigator’ in ancient Greek (see: ec.europa.eu/ploteus/portal/home.jsp).]
5.3. RENEWAL OF VOCATIONAL TRAINING POLICY COOPERATION

A feature of the 1990s was increasing acceptance of the concepts of the knowledge society and lifelong learning. Partly as a result of these concepts, the traditional division between education and training was called into question. Most public discourse and most of the texts adopted, especially since the mid-1990s, have increasingly tended to address education and training issues together. Since the process of bringing these two areas together is so complex, practice has been slower to change than theory but a number of milestones have been passed, especially since 2000, on the way to an increasingly integrated approach.

5.3.1. Ever closer links between training and education

Since the early days of Community cooperation and given the lack of a legal basis in the treaty until 1992, education has often taken a backseat to vocational training because of the part training plays in economic development and social cohesion and the needs of the employment market. Now that it is covered by a special article of the treaty, education has acquired an identity of its own. Training policy, on the other hand, has followed quite a different course. It has steadily evolved in ways which, in terms of the nature of cooperation with the Member States and the manner in which it is conducted, have brought it closer and closer to education. A common training policy (Rome Treaty) was thus replaced by a Community training policy (Maastricht Treaty) largely shaped by the principle of subsidiarity. The top-down approach seeking to harmonise levels of training was thus discarded in favour of an approach based on equivalence, and subsequently transparency of qualifications, which is more flexible and more accommodating of the diversity of national situations and practice. The action taken centres on mobility, pilot projects and exchanges of information and experience. It thus increasingly reflects the philosophy applied to education, which is fairly effective, given the political sensitivity of this area.

While training policy cooperation has more scope than cooperation on education policy to lead on to practical action (in particular through the European Social Fund) it was slow to become established at Community level. The employment...
strategy launched in 1997 gave it something of a boost as a means of reinvigorating the labour market and reducing unemployment. However, Community cooperation in the sense of detailed work on training systems and policies to promote greater convergence and joint effectiveness remained inadequate, despite the stimulus provided by the Commission and the work done at Cedefop.

Cedefop: a European centre serving the needs of vocational training

The European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (Cedefop) was set up in 1975 under the first Community social action programme. Along with the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions which was established shortly afterwards, it was the first decentralised agency to be set up by the Community. The centre was initially located in Berlin: the wall was still standing, and the choice of site was to some extent symbolic. Following the decisions of the Brussels European Council in October 1993 on the siting of the (existing and new) agencies, Cedefop moved from Berlin to Thessaloniki in August 1995.

As the European Union’s reference centre for vocational training, Cedefop helps the Commission to promote development of this area at European level. By providing information on national policies, systems and practice and by its research and dissemination work, Cedefop helps policy-makers and experts to get to know each other better and improve education and training in Europe. Following the Council decision of 1963 laying down general principles for a common training policy, Cedefop has had two very specific features from the outset. Firstly, as a tripartite body, it contributes to the work of the Member States and the social partners and promotes social dialogue in this area. Secondly, although its funding is determined by the budgetary authority (Council and Parliament) and entirely charged against the Commission’s budget, neither the Commission nor the Member States has a majority on the centre’s management board.

A few examples may illustrate how much Cedefop has contributed to a field which, even more than general education, is characterised by a great diversity of national systems and policies and by the need at European level for a permanent forum for information, dialogue and expertise:

- Recognition and transparency of qualification: the task of implementing the Council decision of July 1985 on the ‘comparability of vocational training qualifications’ was entrusted to Cedefop. Under its aegis, dozens of tripartite groups of experts met to try to draw up correspondence tables for skilled workers in the various occupations. While questions did
arise once the work had been completed as to the practical value of the tables so produced. Cedefop’s work contributed greatly to promoting a European approach in training. In the 1990s, the focus was increasingly on ‘transparency’ rather than equivalence (see point 3.3.2), and Cedefop continued to be very active in supporting Community action in this area, especially in connection with the work of the European Forum on Transparency of Vocational Qualifications, established in 1999, and subsequently, further to the Copenhagen declaration, in specifying a single Community framework for the transparency of qualifications and competences (Europass) (see point 5.3.2).

- **The ‘Agora conferences’**: taking advantage of the fact that it happened to be located in Greece, Cedefop has for some years been organising a series of European discussion meetings known as ‘Agoras’, with the aim of creating an open and pluralist forum to provide technical and scientific support for the decisions and negotiations of the partners (Commission, social partners and government representatives, research workers and practitioners) within a European framework for training. The topics chosen span a wide range: the role of business in lifelong learning, low skill levels on the labour market, policy outlook and options, etc. These meetings do not involve negotiations or attempts to reach agreement on specific points, but are rather a structured opportunity to compare points of view and experiences, both successes and failures.

- **The study visits programme**: Cedefop’s remit includes operational functions, especially in its study visits programme for persons responsible for training (which has formed part of the Leonardo da Vinci programme since 1995). This enables decision-makers in a Member State (not only government, but also the social partners) to visit another Member State in order to meet their opposite numbers and see how they are tackling their problems in modernising the training system. Like the Arion programme for education (see point 2.3.5), this programme is certainly popular and contributes to developing a European network, which in turn is a breeding ground for shared ideas and projects. In much the same way, the European researchers network built up by Cedefop is undoubtedly also a source of mutual enrichment.

- **Other noteworthy examples of Cedefop’s work are the monographs**, describing the initial and continuing training system in each Member State, and thematic studies, taking stock of the situation throughout the Union (e.g. as regards academic and career guidance). Since 1998, the centre has also been publishing a series of reports on training research. There is another series on policy. Cedefop also publishes two periodicals: the *European Journal for Vocational Training* (an independent scientific magazine) and *Cedefop Info*, which reports national and Community developments with regard to training.
Cedefop’s contribution to training policy cooperation has increased since the Lisbon European Council in March 2000. The centre has supported the Commission, e.g. in pursuing the priorities of the Copenhagen declaration (2002) and the Maastricht communiqué (2004) in specific areas such as the recognition of informally acquired qualifications and skills and training quality assurance.

Home page: www.cedefop.eu.int
Interactive website: www.trainingvillage.gr

At Community level, it is harder to get to grips with vocational training than with education, where the institutional players are clearly identifiable and the systems are generally well structured and organised. In the training field, Community cooperation depends on a host of public and private interlocutors (states, regions, businesses, social partners, etc.) and must exert its catalytic and entrainment effect on systems which have more blurred outlines and operate in complex ways. This adversely affects its visibility and impact on the development of national training systems and makes them harder to measure.

Moreover, training issues were for a long time tackled mainly within the Social Affairs Council, which has a very wide remit and does not, like the Education Council, provide a forum for in-depth specific discussion of training policy. The situation evolved during the 1990s, with texts that increasingly approached education and training issues from the perspective of their dual contribution to the knowledge society and lifelong learning. Matters concerning cooperation on training were then increasingly referred to the Council’s Education Committee. It is this committee, for example, that adopted the resolution on the promotion of enhanced European cooperation in vocational education and training in November 2002, providing the political basis for the Copenhagen declaration and its follow-up. This was again the case in November 2004 (677) in the run-up to the Maastricht ministerial conference.

(677)
5.3.2. A boost for cooperation at the Copenhagen ministerial conference

The commitments made by the Heads of State or Government in Lisbon in March 2000 and then in Barcelona in March 2002 represented a new deal, opening the door to significant changes as early as 2001. These reflected both a collective recognition that training policy cooperation had to be strengthened and the severe pressure of the new realities with which all the European systems had to contend as never before. Education and training were both intimately involved in the pursuit of the new economic and social strategy for 2010 announced in Lisbon. The call went out from the highest level for the political and social actors in these fields to play an active part in this Community effort, for which the tools and methods of the past were no longer adequate.

In Bruges, during the Belgian Presidency of the Union (on 27 and 28 October 2001), the directors-general responsible for vocational training launched the process leading to greater cooperation. It was clear that, in a rapidly expanding European labour market and on the eve of a historic enlargement of the Union, it was no longer acceptable for so many barriers to remain to free movement and the mobility of workers and persons undergoing training. A great deal of work had been done as early as 1975 (see point 3.3.2) on mutual recognition, equivalence and transparency of qualifications but the results fell far short of what was required by the Lisbon European Council. Closer ties had to be formed between states, those responsible for training and the social partners and the systems had to be brought closer together by developing mutual trust and greater transparency as regards standards of qualifications, skills and quality. Initial and continuing training had to be given a more important role as a strong link in the chain of lifelong learning. Strengthened policy cooperation and a clearer commitment by the protagonists were henceforth essential to making real progress.

The Bruges meeting worked towards this and initiated a process which was taken up in 2002 by the Spanish and Danish Presidencies. To follow through the strategy inaugurated in Lisbon the previous year, the Barcelona European Council in March 2002 emphasised the need to ‘introduce instruments to ensure the transparency of diplomas and qualifications (ECTS, diploma and certificate supplements, European CV)’ (**) and called for action on training similar to that taken in the educational field as part of the Bologna process. A wish was also apparent to emulate, in cooperation on training, the practice and momentum which had been established over time in higher education. A very practical expression of this was the development in 2004 of a European qualifications framework, based on the work carried out in the Bologna and Copenhagen processes.

To follow on from Barcelona, the Commission held a conference in Brussels on 10 and 11 June 2002 on the issues involved in enhanced cooperation in the field of vocational education and training. One of the themes that emerged from this conference was the need to develop transparency and mutual trust. The conference adopted the flexible and non-constraining approach and philosophy applied in the field of education, which started from the grassroots level and users’ needs.

(\textsuperscript{**}) Conclusions of the Barcelona European Council, 15 and 16 March 2002, paragraph 44.
The outlines of future priorities were already beginning to emerge at the Brussels conference: rationalisation of the existing tools in favour of a single European framework for transparency of skills and qualifications; creation of a credit transfer system along the lines of the ECTS system in higher education; strengthening of the national reference points for qualifications and greater interaction with those working in higher education and guidance; establishment of shared principles for the validation of competences acquired non-formally or informally; clarification of the criteria and principles which were to underpin training quality, etc.

This conference cleared the ground for the meeting of the ministers responsible for vocational training from 31 European countries, which was held by the Danish Presidency on 29 and 30 November 2002, in Copenhagen and was attended by the social partners. This high level meeting engendered the political agreement (‘the Copenhagen declaration’) which was needed if European cooperation and training was to maintain the impetus imparted in Bruges. The terms ‘Bruges–Copenhagen process’ and ‘Copenhagen process’ were used. The Copenhagen declaration followed shortly after a meeting on 11 and 12 November of the Education Council, which adopted a resolution (\(^\text{\textsuperscript{679}}\)) on enhanced cooperation in vocational education and training and prepared the way for the Copenhagen ministerial meeting. The ministers endorsed the principles and proposals for action put forward by the Brussels conference. The main points were strengthening of the European dimension, transparency, information and guidance, recognition of skills and qualifications and cooperation on quality assurance.

The Copenhagen declaration amounted to a true political mandate, the execution of which extended to the then candidate countries, the EFTA countries, the members of the European Economic Area (EEA) and the social partners. It came at a timely moment to re-energise training policy cooperation and link it more
closely to that in education, in the interests of coherence and effectiveness, as advocated by the Lisbon European Council. Whereas the development of education at Community level had in the past been an appendage of vocational training (see point 3.1.2), it was henceforth training that in some respects drew on the experience and achievements of cooperation in education. Education and training are two sides of the same coin, which have to join together, though without losing their own identity, to provide a better response to the new challenges thrown down by the Lisbon European Council.

In its communication of November 2003 (see point 5.1.4) on pursuit of the Lisbon strategy, the Commission pointed the way ahead by reporting the results of the various ongoing processes, including the Copenhagen process, under a single title ‘Education and training 2010’. The aim was to move towards greater integration, as already called for by the ministers at Copenhagen, while recognising that each area had its own characteristics. The first joint Council and Commission report to the 2004 spring European Council (680) set a timeframe: ‘By 2006, the incorporation of actions at European level relating to vocational education and training ... lifelong learning ... and mobility ... should be a reality ... Generally speaking, the case for non-integrated parallel action will be increasingly weaker in the future, be it in higher education or in vocational training, unless it is manifestly more ambitious and more effective.’

The first phase (2003 and 2004) of work on the Copenhagen priorities yielded certain concrete results. On the basis of a Commission proposal in 2003 (681), a single European framework for the transparency of qualifications and competences (the new ‘Europass’) was adopted in January 2005. It brought together the existing instruments in a single portfolio of documents. Its purpose was to provide European citizens with a better way of presenting their skills and qualifications. It is accessible on the Internet and contains the existing reference documents: the European CV, which is the backbone of the new Europass; the diploma supplement for higher education; the certificate supplement for vocational training; the Europass language portfolio; the Europass mobility (European mobility for learning purposes), replacing the Europass training. This integrated portfolio is flexible and may later include new documents which help to make qualifications and skills more transparent. A single body in each country will coordinate its administration. The Europass was adopted on 15 December 2004 (682). Its political launch took place at the Maastricht ministerial conference on enhanced European cooperation in vocational training in December 2004 (follow-up to Copenhagen). Its operational launch took place on 31 January and 1 February 2005 under the Luxembourg Presidency.

The work carried out since the Copenhagen declaration also led to a common framework for quality assurance in vocational education and training, which was approved by the Education Council in May 2004 (683). This specifies a common core of quality criteria and a coherent set of indicators. The foundations were also laid for a European training credit transfer system. Work on this, as on quality assurance, was to be closely associated with the development in 2005/06 of a European framework.
for qualifications in higher education and vocational training, as mentioned in the first joint Council and Commission report on implementation of the Lisbon strategy (see point 5.1.4). As regards guidance and validation of non-formal and informal learning, which are two key aspects for effective lifelong learning strategies, the work at European level consisted in supporting the development of national policy by means of common principles (684), suggestions for strengthening policies, systems and practices (685) and a guide for policy-makers (686).

The Maastricht conference of December 2004, like that in Copenhagen two years before, brought together the ministers responsible for vocational training (687). It took stock of progress made since the Copenhagen declaration and reviewed the priorities for the process in the coming years. A communiqué (688) was adopted, reasserting the priorities set by the Education Council one month earlier, on 15 and 16 November 2004 (689). In line with the approach mapped out in the first joint Council and Commission report on the Lisbon strategy, the aim was full integration of the work on the Copenhagen process and the relevant priorities in the ‘Education and training 2010’ programme. The communiqué identified five main areas for action at European level: consolidation of priorities of the Copenhagen process; development of a European qualifications framework; development and implementation of the European credit transfer system for vocational education and training; examination of the specific learning needs of vocational teachers and trainers; improvement of the scope, precision and reliability of vocational education and training statistics.

References:

(684) Conclusions of the Council and of the representatives of the governments of the Member States meeting within the Council on common European principles for the identification and validation of non-formal and informal learning, Council of the European Union, doc. 9600/04, EDUC 118, SOC 253, 18 May 2004.


(687) The ministers of the 25 Member States, the EFTA/EEA countries and candidate countries. The European social partners also attended, as at Copenhagen.


5.4. Higher Education is Central to a Knowledge-Based Europe

Given that they are situated at the crossroads of research, education and innovation, universities in many respects hold the key to the knowledge economy and society (**).

Higher education is central to the aspiration expressed by the Barcelona European Council in 2002 of making the European education and training systems 'a world quality reference by 2010' and the Union the 'most-favoured destination of students, scholars and researchers from other world regions'. Europe is well endowed in this area. There are some 3,300 higher education establishments in the European Union, and approximately 4,000 in Europe as a whole, with increasing student numbers: over 12.5 million in 2000, compared with less than 9 million a decade earlier (**).

As the 21st century dawns, however, this level of education is changing radically. Whereas it has long been torn between its humanist teaching and research mission and that of preparation for employment, the time seems to have come for these opposites to be reconciled and fused, given the increasing pressure for effectiveness and heightened international competition. The Bologna declaration signed on 19 June 1999 by 30 European countries (see point 4.5.3) addressed this dual dimension of the universities' role and also stressed their contribution to making graduates employable and the need to improve the global competitiveness of European higher education. 'The adoption and follow-up of the Sorbonne and Bologna declarations can be seen as reflecting two basic developments in European higher education: it is increasingly integrated into economic policies as a key factor in graduates’ ability to compete in a knowledge-driven society and nations’ competitive strength in a world of globalised technologies and markets, and its European dimension is becoming increasingly apparent. Relevance, quality and employability are increasingly measured against the yardstick of Europe as a whole and less and less in purely national terms.' (***) In following up the Bologna process, the European ministers responsible for higher education, in the communiqué adopted at their Prague meeting in 2001, also emphasised the social dimension of the European higher education area and education as a public good.

As the primary means of creating and spreading knowledge and skills, and because it moulds the elite and produces excellence, higher education, along with research, particularly needs to be open to the world and to international competition. Given this pressure, and the excessive diversity of structures and ways of working, the creation of a European higher education area, which had long been advocated by the Commission, finally emerged as a vital need, which was more urgent than ever. The European Union had to be promoted as an attractive high-quality pole

** Notes


of excellence for its own students, teachers and research workers but also for those from outside the Community. In support of the greater role assigned to higher education in the Lisbon strategy, the Commission proposed a new programme: Erasmus Mundus.

5.4.1. Strengthening the role of the universities in the Lisbon strategy

If it is to achieve its ambition of becoming the world’s most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy and society, Europe simply must have a first-class university system — with universities recognised internationally as the best in the various fields of activities and areas in which they are involved (695).

So great were the problems facing the European universities that a fundamental appraisal was needed of the full range of requirements to be met if they were to make the best possible response. The Commission placed this appraisal on the agenda of its discussions with the Member States by means of a communication which it adopted in February 2003 (694). The interested parties were also consulted to confirm and enhance the approach to be adopted and specify priorities for future action. This appraisal came about 10 years after the consultation organised by the Commission in 1991 on the basis of its memorandum on higher education (see point 3.1.3). While the issues arising at that time were mainly linked to establishment of the internal market, which was a matter largely internal to the Community, those in 2003 were much wider in scope and represented a challenge to European higher education as a whole. ‘After remaining a comparatively isolated universe for a very long period, both in relation to society and to the rest of the world, with funding guaranteed and a status protected by respect for their autonomy, European universities have gone through the second half of the 20th century without really calling into question the role or the nature of what they should be contributing to society’ (695).

The development of societies and economies which attach ever greater importance to knowledge requires major change in European higher education in the face of increasing internationalisation. The universities must not only be able to take full advantage of this new pre-eminence of knowledge but must also have the capacity to contribute actively, since they are the main players involved. They are in fact central to generating knowledge by scientific research, passing it on by education and training, disseminating it by means of information and communication technologies and exploiting it by technological innovation.
What is needed to allow European universities, which are very heterogeneous and much less well funded than those of the United States for instance, to play a key role in the face of this new challenge to all of them? How can they be equipped to cope with an increasingly globalised environment in which institutions compete more and more fiercely to attract and retain the best talent? The issues of university funding, the diversity of institutions’ functions and priorities, the creation of centres of excellence, career attractiveness or networking are also crucial to the future of European higher education and its international standing. The Commission does full justice to the pressing nature of these issues in its communication.

‘The growing under-funding of European universities jeopardises their capacity to attract and keep the best talent, and to strengthen the excellence of their research and teaching activities. Given that it is highly unlikely that additional public funding can alone make up the widening shortfall, new ways have to be found of increasing and diversifying universities’ income.’

At virtually the same time, the Commission adopted another communication on investment in education and training. This was a further call for greater and more effective investment in these areas, especially in higher education. The Barcelona European Council in March 2002 had already called for the resources devoted to research in the Union to be increased to 3% of GDP and the Lisbon Council in March 2000 had urged ‘a substantial annual increase in per capita investment in human resources’, though without setting a figure. Even before the Commission adopted these communications, the European Parliament, for its part, had already produced an own-initiative report in May 2002 stressing that ‘the Union must increase its support to universities’ and strengthen the role of the universities in the European programmes and their funding.

But words did not seem to be followed by deeds and the Commission, in its communication of November 2003 on the implementation of the ‘Education and training 2010’ work programme, again warned that: ‘higher education has not to date found... the place it warrants’ in the Lisbon process, ‘the Union is suffering from under-investment from the private sector, particularly in higher education and continuing training. ... the United States spends between two and five times more per student than the countries of the Union’, the Union does not have ‘enough people qualifying through higher education’, ‘researchers ... often leave the Union to pursue their careers elsewhere’ The Commission urged the Member States to harness energies and investment, ensure that they were fully effective, increase mobility substantially and provide a European framework for qualifications and competences.

The process begun in Bologna in 1999 on an intergovernmental basis is a major historic advance: an undeniable step towards the creation of a real European higher education area that is coherent, competitive and attractive to European students and to students and academics from other continents. This process has taken root in the fertile soil of more than twenty years of Community cooperation. Its main
lines of approach match the Community’s primary concerns. It allows large-scale operations that hitherto have been introduced at Community level as pilot projects (the ECTS system, the diploma supplement, quality schemes). The ECTS system (see point 3.3.2.2) is ‘one of the cornerstones’ \(^\text{[702]}\) of its implementation. With this process, cooperation between European universities enters virgin territory in Community terms: convergence and joint reform of structures. To this extent, the Bologna process anticipated the Lisbon strategy. However, since the latter is broader in political scope, it subsequently became the framework of reference.

The Commission has been active in following the Bologna process, especially since the ministerial meeting in Prague in May 2001 established a monitoring group on which the Commission was represented, along with the signatory countries and representatives of academia. At their subsequent meeting in Berlin, in September 2003, the higher education ministers of the participating countries laid down specific short-term priorities to speed up the reforms required by 2010. The most important were production of common criteria and methodologies for quality assurance, implementation by 2005 of the three-stage structure (first degree/bachelor’s, master’s and doctorate), ratification by all participating countries of the Lisbon Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications and automatic and free issue of the diploma supplement to all students as from 2005.

The Commission helped to carry out the Bologna reforms by funding transnational pilot projects which matched the priorities identified at the ministerial conferences. It accordingly cooperated with the national authorities, academic and student networks and associations, the ENQA (European network for quality assurance in higher education) and the NARIC/ENIC network (network of national academic recognition information centres). One project it supported was ‘tuning educational structures in Europe’, allowing learning achievement to be specified at subject level in terms of competences. This was essential to the introduction of new study programmes in a European context. To this end, the Commission supported the introduction of European master’s programmes \(^\text{[703]}\), a pilot project on the internal quality culture in higher education institutions coordinated by the EUA (European University Association) and pilot projects on evaluation and external accreditation of quality on the basis of common criteria, coordinated by the ENQA and the academic associations.

The Commission helped to organise an inventory exercise in close cooperation with the Bologna secretariat in order to provide a clear picture of the headway made in the signatory states (the ‘Bologna process scoreboard’) and produced a report, which was submitted to the ministerial conference in Bergen (Norway) in May 2005 \(^\text{[704]}\), covering three main points: the introduction of a system essentially based on two cycles, quality assurance and recognition of degrees and study periods. The ministers noted that substantial progress had been made in these areas but stressed the need for greater consistency across all participating countries and greater sharing of expertise \(^\text{[705]}\).


\(^{[703]}\) The pilot project on joint master’s programmes was funded under the Socrates programme (academic year 2002/2003) and examined the characteristics of 11 existing networks of master’s programmes as an aid to launching the courses planned under Erasmus Mundus.

\(^{[704]}\) At the Bergen ministerial conference, 19 and 20 May 2005, two other progress reports were available to the ministers: the report ‘Trends IV’ of the European University Association (EUA) and the report ‘Bologna with student eyes’ by the National Unions of Students in Europe (ESIB).

\(^{[705]}\) Communiqué of the conference of European ministers responsible for higher education: ‘The European higher education area — achieving the goals’, Bergen, 19 and 20 May 2005.
THE 10 LINES OF ACTION OF THE BOLOGNA PROCESS

1. Adoption of a system of easily readable and comparable degrees
2. Adoption of a system essentially based on two cycles
3. Establishment of a system of credits
4. Promotion of mobility
5. Promotion of European cooperation in quality assurance
6. Promotion of the European dimension in higher education
7. Lifelong learning
8. Involving higher education institutions and students
9. Promoting the attractiveness of the European higher education area
10. The European higher education area and the European research area: the two pillars of the knowledge society

However, European cooperation in higher education does not merely consist of the Bologna process. As the Commission pointed out in its communication of November 2003 ("^a"), 'the place of higher education in the overall Lisbon strategy goes far beyond the programme of structural reform initiated by the Bologna declaration. The role of the universities covers areas as diverse and as vital as the training of teachers and that of future researchers; their mobility within the Union; the place of culture, science and European values in the world; an outward-looking approach to the business sector, the regions and society in general; the incorporation of the social and citizen-focused dimensions in courses'.

The task was thus to push on and devise an overall Community-level strategy for the European universities. The communication from the Commission of 5 February 2003 on the role of the universities in the Europe of knowledge and the consultation of interested parties were the baseline for doing this. The consultation showed that the stakeholders largely agreed with the Commission's analysis, as regards both the key role of the universities in the Europe of knowledge and what was needed to allow them to play that role. Funding was seen as vital, whether in terms of the necessary level of investment, diversification of revenues or the need to use existing resources more efficiently. There was a clear demand for 'more Europe'. In 2004, the Commission published an analysis of the responses to this consultation insofar as the universities were concerned ("^b"). This consultation and subsequent discussions were the basis for a further communication which the Commission adopted on 20 April 2005: 'Mobilising the brainpower of Europe: enabling universities to make their full contribution to the Lisbon strategy' ("^c"). This identifies three prime areas for reform of Europe's universities: enhancing their quality and attractiveness, improving their governance and systems and increasing and diversifying their funding. This communication was accompanied by a Commission staff working paper on 'European higher education in a worldwide perspective.' Like that of February 2003, this new communication stressed that European higher education was lagging well behind its main competitors. At the press conference following its adoption, the member of the Commission responsible for education and training,
Ján Figel’, stated that 'though the average quality of European universities is rather good, they are not in a position to deliver their full potential to boost economic growth, social cohesion and more and better jobs. ... If Europe were to match the total US figure, it would need to spend an additional EUR 150 billion each year on higher education' (\textsuperscript{709}). The Commission invited the Council to adopt a resolution backing its call for a new type of partnership between public authorities and universities and for sufficient investment in higher education.

In September 2004, on the basis of the evaluation report on follow-up of the 1998 recommendation on quality assurance in higher education (see point 4.5.2.1), the Commission proposed a new recommendation (\textsuperscript{710}) on further cooperation in this area of crucial importance to making the European universities more open to each other and to the world at large. It acknowledged the remarkable progress made in establishing quality assessment systems and promoting cooperation but pointed out that this was not enough. 'More far-reaching measures are needed in order to make European higher education perform better and become a more transparent and trustworthy brand for our own citizens and for students and scholars from other continents.' Five steps were proposed to achieve mutual recognition of quality assurance systems and quality assessments in Europe: internal quality assurance mechanisms; a common set of standards, procedures and guidelines; a European register of quality assurance and accreditation agencies; university autonomy in choice of agency; Member State competence to accept assessments and draw consequences.

\textsuperscript{709} European Commission press release IP/05/445, 20 April 2005.

5.4.2. A new programme open to the world: Erasmus Mundus

The number of students attracted to international exchanges is greater than ever before, but most go to the United States (nearly 550 000 foreign students in 2000/2001). Moreover, there are major imbalances within the Community: of some 400 000 students from non-European countries, over three quarters go to the UK, France and Germany (\(^{711}\)). It thus cannot be said that the European higher education system has acquired ‘a worldwide degree of attraction equal to our extraordinary cultural and scientific traditions’ (\(^{712}\)). The Commission therefore decided to revamp the Community strategy for university cooperation with non-Community countries. In 2001, it adopted a communication which took stock of the situation and proposed a number of immediate measures (\(^{713}\)). This was preceded by a study which placed the issue in context and put forward a number of recommendations for improving arrangements for cooperation with third countries in higher education (\(^{714}\)).

In July 2002, the Commission proposed setting up a new programme, Erasmus World (\(^{715}\)), in the light of the experience gained with its famous programme Erasmus. Following an amendment by the European Parliament, this programme was finally designated Erasmus Mundus. It was adopted on 5 December 2003 (\(^{716}\)).

With a budget of EUR 230 million for five years (2004–08), its main aim is to improve the world’s perception of the quality and attractiveness of European higher education, as the Fulbright programme did for American universities (\(^{717}\)). Erasmus Mundus offers third-country students and researchers a worldwide programme of scholarships and Erasmus Mundus master’s courses at European universities. The aim is to supplement the action taken at the national (\(^{718}\)) and intergovernmental levels (Bologna process) by concentrating on activities which afford a clear additional benefit from action at Community level. This programme complements the EU regional programmes for international cooperation between the EU and third countries in higher education (Tempus for the EU partner countries, Alfa for Latin America and Asia-Link for Asia). However, it is not a programme of aid to the partner countries, since its main purpose is to develop the Union’s universities and their attractiveness.


Source of the data: Unesco statistical yearbook 1998, chapter 3.14: ‘Education at the third level: foreign students by country of origin, in the 50 major host countries’.


This programme of university exchanges was named after the American senator J. William Fulbright. It was instituted after the Second World War and contributed to improving the quality of American higher education and making it more attractive world-wide.

For example, the British Council in the United Kingdom; the DAAD (Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst) in Germany or EduFrance in France.
Four priority actions

Erasmus Mundus master’s courses are the keystone of the programme. They are high-level courses offered by a consortium of at least three higher education institutions in three different European countries, which must include a study period in at least two of the three universities and must lead to the award of a recognised double, multiple or joint diploma.

Erasmus Mundus scholarships target students and high-level scholars from third countries who are selected to follow a master’s course.

Support for partnerships with third-country higher education institutions.

Measures enhancing the attractiveness of Europe as an educational destination.

The first 19 Erasmus Mundus master’s courses were selected (from 128 applications) in September 2004. They involved 82 European universities from 17 countries (719). The best-represented countries were Germany, France, Italy and the United Kingdom. There was a very wide range of course subjects: law, economics, social sciences, political sciences, environmental sciences, management, sociology, education, industrial relations, mathematics, health, new technologies, etc. These 82 universities welcomed the first Erasmus Mundus scholars in the autumn of 2004, having selected 140 students and 42 scholars, of high academic standing. They came to Europe from about 80 countries, for a period of not more than two years’ study.

Against the background of increasing internationalisation of higher education and the call by the Lisbon European Council for systems to be modernised and outward-looking, this new programme symbolised the end of what might be termed a ‘Eurocentric’ approach to Community cooperation in education and training. Erasmus Mundus is the only EU programme which does not specify which countries are eligible for cooperation with the Union’s universities. It is open to the whole world. It is to be hoped that the funding allocated when it is renewed and incorporated into the new integrated lifelong learning programme in 2009 (see point 5.7) will allow much greater take-up and bring about a radical change in the way the rest of the world regards European higher education.

Implementation of Erasmus Mundus will also be made easier by the directive adopted in November 2003 concerning the status of third-country nationals who are long-term residents (720). This should make a real difference to the mobility of third-country nationals.

(719) Sixteen Member States of the European Union (Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Greece, Spain, France, Ireland, Italy, Hungary, the Netherlands, Austria, Portugal, Slovakia, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom) and Norway.

5.5. **Education and Training in the Information Society**

The global economy is gradually moving towards an innovation and knowledge society which has enormous growth and employment potential. But I find that Europe is not making full use of this potential, in particular because it does not have enough people skilled in the information and communication technologies (a recent study puts this skills deficit at 1.6 million people in 2002) and because it is not moving fast enough into the digital age as is shown by the slowness of the introduction of the Internet in most of our Member States (\(^{[22]}\)).

In the early 1980s, an interest was already being taken at Community level in integrating the new technologies into education and training (\(^{[22]}\)). Successive Community framework programmes for research lent appreciable support to developments in this area. This is particularly true of the Esprit (\(^{[23]}\)) and DELTA (\(^{[24]}\)) programmes.

However, the advent of the information society in the 1990s transformed the scale and significance of this challenge. The way in which people generate, build up, store and transmit information is being radically changed, along with modes of communication, exchange and work. The education and training systems have to take due account of these trends when defining the shape and content of learning (\(^{[25]}\)).

A two-year action plan ‘Learning in the information society’ was launched in October 1996, largely in response to the White Paper on the learning society and the 1996 resolution of the Education Council (see point 4.2.3). Electronic networks linking schools were established and multimedia educational resources developed in close partnership with producers. Schemes for ICT training for teachers were set up and campaigns undertaken to promote use of the new technologies, especially the Internet, in education and culture (Netd@ys activities). In the 1990s, however, projects were still too thin on the ground and did not make sufficient impact.

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\(^{[22]}\) The Council adopted a resolution on the introduction of the new information technology in education on 19 September 1983, conclusions on technological change and social adjustment on 4 June 1984 and a resolution on education and training in new technologies on 11 November 1986.

\(^{[23]}\) Council Decision of 28 February 1984 adopting the 1984 work programme for a European programme for research and development in information technologies (Esprit). In 1998, this programme launched about 10 projects setting up multimedia learning environments in schools at a cost of EUR 13 million.

\(^{[24]}\) Council decision of 29 June 1988 on a Community action in the field of learning technologies — development of European learning through technological advance (DELTA), exploratory action, OJ L 206, 30 July 1988.


\(^{[22]}\) Viviane Reding, Member of the Commission responsible for Education and Culture, in European Commission press release IP/00/234 on the launch of the eLearning initiative, 9 March 2000.
The ‘eEurope’ ("e") initiative launched by the Commission in December 1999 was a first step towards a more far-reaching integrated overall strategy. It was again the Lisbon European Council in March 2000 which gave a fresh start to this important process for the future and modernisation of the Union. It had become clear that the knowledge-driven society and economy cannot be realised without full and effective integration of the new information and communication technologies, and in particular the Internet, at all levels. The Heads of State or Government made the ‘information society for all’ one of the linchpins of the Lisbon strategy. They emphasised that action had to be taken very quickly to ensure that all schools in the Union had Internet access and multimedia resources by the end of 2001 and that an adequate number of teachers were trained in the use of these new tools by the end of 2002.

5.5.1. A first action plan

In this context, the Commission launched its eLearning initiative for online learning in March 2000, at the time of the Lisbon European Council, and issued a communication ‘eLearning — designing tomorrow’s education’ ("e") in May 2000 to follow up that of January 2000 ("e"). One year later, in March 2001, it put forward the first eLearning action plan ("e") (2001–04) for European cooperation on ICT applied to education and training. This first plan stresses four principal lines of action: infrastructure and equipment; training; high-quality European content and services; European cooperation and networking.

In order to draw attention to the advantages and potential of online learning and to promote partnerships between the public and private sectors, the Commission held a first European eLearning summit on 10 and 11 May 2001 in Brussels. On 13 July 2001, the Council passed a resolution ("e") encouraging the Member States to maintain their efforts to ensure that ICT was effectively integrated into the education and training systems. It called on the Commission to act on several fronts. Again in pursuit of greater integration of education and training activities, this was to be done in close linkage with the process approved by the Stockholm European Council four months earlier on the future objectives of the education systems (‘Education and training 2010’), one of the salient points of which was access to ICT and development of the relevant skills (see point 5.1.1).

In February 2002, to follow up the Council resolution of July 2001 and review the progress made since Lisbon, the Commission produced an interim report on the action taken ("e"). This emphasised how much more important educational ICT had become over the years: ‘...education and training top the list of the online services for which European citizens are willing to pay, well above that for e-commerce’ ("e"). This was a huge area of great potential, the global corporate market alone being forecast to exceed EUR 25 billion by 2004 ("e"). Most Member States had established an action plan to promote the use of ICT in education ("e"). Questions of connectivity and infrastructure were gradually taking second place to the vital issues of content, teacher training, organisational implications and opening of schools.
The evaluations carried out within eEurope 2001 and 2002 (739) were concerned with the goal of bringing 'European youth into the digital age'. They all yielded similar conclusions: the initial targets of the eEurope project for connection of all schools to the Internet and training of an adequate number of teachers were not far from being achieved, but a more coherent framework had to be established for all online learning (eLearning) activities by integrating ICT into the education and training systems, along with a better telecommunications infrastructure (broadband). The Council adopted a Resolution on 28 January 2003 (740) on the eEurope 2005 Action Plan, emphasising the speed of change in this area and the need to develop interactive broadband services. This Resolution urged the Member States to do everything possible to hit the eEurope targets by 2005, using benchmarking indicators. The main such indicator for eLearning is the number of pupils per computer connected to the Internet (broadband/other connection), counting only computers used for teaching purposes as a qualitative measure of schools’ Internet access. The mid-term review of the eEurope plan carried out at the beginning of 2004 noted that: 'There is increasing awareness of the factors that make its use a success. eLearning requires reliable technology with high bandwidth connectivity, the support of highly qualified teachers/trainers and tutors, high quality content and services as well as new approaches to learning' (740).

5.5.2. The eLearning programme

The new information and communication technologies are thus gradually coming to innervate the whole range of national and Community policies. They have now become part of a lasting Community-level policy but the evaluations have made clear that the action taken is still too fragmented and thus suffers from insufficient visibility and effectiveness. It was thus quickly recognised that a coherent framework for all eLearning activities had to be established, transcending the conventional boundaries of education and training and adopting a lifelong learning perspective. This was the aim the Commission pursued in its proposal of 19 December 2002 for a special programme for the period 2004–06 (the eLearning programme) (741). The Commission stressed the need for digital literacy, without which citizens will be unable to play their full part in society or to acquire the qualifications and knowledge needed in the 21st century.

On the basis of the Commission’s proposal, the European Parliament and Council thus followed up the first eLearning plan, adopting a new multiannual programme for 2004–06 in December 2003 (742). This had a budget of EUR 44 million and took over the four main areas of action proposed by the Commission:

- **Momentum for sustained progress in infrastructures and equipment has been reached, and there is a clear trend towards quality development, paying special attention to pedagogical and social values, in a learner-centred approach. Virtual universities and European content and services issues emerge clearly as priority concerns for the future** (743).

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• promoting digital literacy by encouraging acquisition of new skills and knowledge needed for personal and professional development and active participation for all in the information society;
• developing European virtual campuses in higher education;
• e-twinning European schools and promoting training for teachers;
• transversal actions for the promotion of eLearning in Europe, with the aim of promoting good practices, products and services from the many projects and programmes which have been funded by the EU or the Member States and reinforcing cooperation between all parties involved.

This new programme incorporated the virtual twinning of secondary schools proposed by the Commission in June 2002 (\textsuperscript{741}) in response to the request of the Barcelona European Council in March 2002. The aim was to twin all such establishments (of which there are about 150 000) by the end of 2006 and to develop joint Internet-based teaching projects on topics of common interest (language learning, European citizenship, intercultural dialogue, environmental education, etc.). The Commission is counting on the leverage that may be developed by this initiative to intensify European cooperation in schools. It is for the Member States to set the scene for such twinning by providing suitable training of teachers or a ‘twinning budget’ for every school. The eLearning programme itself will allow the creation of a support network for virtual school twinning, consisting of teachers with relevant experience who provide advice and pedagogical support.

From the outset, the European Parliament actively supported the eLearning initiative (\textsuperscript{742}) and very quickly rallied to the idea of a special programme. In its interim report in February 2002 on progress made with the action plan, the Commission stated that: ‘The European Parliament has not only endorsed the initiative in its report on eLearning, but has also proposed a new allocation of budget to explore possibilities for innovative European action in this field’ (\textsuperscript{743}). Parliament indeed appropriated funds in 2002 and 2003 for work preparatory to the future eLearning programme (2004–06).

In addition to the new eLearning programme and its incorporation into the eLearning action plan, the second phase of the Socrates and Leonardo da Vinci programmes (2000–06) placed greater emphasis than in the past on new technologies in higher and school education and vocational training. The Minerva action under Socrates, on open and distance learning and the use of ICT in education, particularly contributed to the creation and linkage of European cooperation networks at all educational levels. The interim evaluation of the Socrates programme (\textsuperscript{744}) emphasised the qualitative change in what was being done. More and more projects were concerned with the pedagogical aspects and the development of new methods involving the use of ICT. The new integrated lifelong learning programme proposed by the Commission for 2007–13 (see point 5.7) takes over the goals of the Minerva action. Its proposed budget is much larger than those of the previous programmes and should allow more ICT-related projects to be supported.


\textsuperscript{743} SEC(2001) 236.

The research and development programmes, the European Regional Development Fund, the European Social Fund and the European Investment Bank (\(^745\)) also support the integration of ICT in education and training. Netd@ys (\(^746\)) (see point 4.2.3) and e-Schola (\(^747\)) continue to act as cooperation platforms for the education ministries and schools throughout Europe.

In order to raise the profile of the work done at the Community and national levels (public and private), the Commission inaugurated a European e-learning portal (\(^748\)) on 4 February 2003 at the ‘Learntec 2003’ international fair at Karlsruhe.

Community action has an undeniable catalytic effect and its cross-border nature is conducive to the exchange of good practice and innovation. However, so much is at stake in the new information and communication technologies that a programme such as eLearning, with a budget of EUR 44 million and running for only three years, is not in itself sufficient to change practices and attitudes in the education and training systems. As in the other key areas of Community cooperation, how successful the action is and the how long its effects will persist will depend on how far it can be combined with greater commitment and investment by the Member States to adapt their education and training systems to the digital age.

Progress in doing this must be measurable and must form part of a close dialogue between countries at Community level on the reforms introduced and the results obtained so that the countries can together reach the Lisbon goals (see point 5.1). Work on ICT should therefore continue within the structured cooperation framework provided by the ‘Education and training 2010’ process through the open method of coordination.

\(^{745}\) By its ‘Innovation 2010’ initiative (loans of EUR 20 billion for 2003–06), the EIB supports innovation as a driver of economic growth and job creation. Its three priority areas are education and training, R & D and creation and dissemination of ICT (www.bei.org).

\(^{746}\) For further details, visit the Netd@ys website (www.ec.europa.eu/education/programmes/netdays/index_en.html).

\(^{747}\) e-Schola is an online project organised by the EUN (European Schoolnet: www.eun.org) in cooperation with the European Commission and several private-sector partners. It allows schools to showcase their ICT projects and network with other European schools.

\(^{748}\) www.elearningeuropa.info
5.6. THE LANGUAGE ISSUE IS MORE CENTRAL THAN EVER TO EUROPEAN INTEGRATION

The Union contributes to the preservation and to the development of these common values while respecting the diversity of the cultures and traditions of the peoples of Europe. The Union shall respect cultural, religious and linguistic diversity [749].

Europe is a mosaic of cultures and civilisations and the language question has always been central to its development. Right from the start, it has been part of cooperation between the European countries, as an important factor in preserving the continent’s cultural diversity. The 1954 Cultural Convention of the Council of Europe [750], the first European platform for educational and cultural cooperation (see point 1.2.4), included the promotion and teaching of foreign languages as one of its cardinal points. The Council of Europe and the Community have long worked closely together in this area. When Community cooperation on education got under way in the early 1970s, this issue was thus no longer left solely to the Council of Europe.

This aspect of construction and deepening of the Community is indeed central to ensuring that it remains culturally diverse and promoting understanding and solidarity among its peoples. After a rather difficult start (see point 2.3.6), Community action in this area became an established fact in the 1990s, mainly through the Lingua programme started in 1989 (see point 3.2.4), aspects of which were subsequently incorporated into the Socrates and Leonardo da Vinci programmes. EU promotion of language learning, which was enshrined in the Maastricht Treaty in 1992 [751], today accounts for expenditure of some EUR 30 million per year, channelled through these two programmes. For example, the Union provided funding between 2000 and 2002 for more than 16 000 in-service training grants for language teachers [752].

As a grassroots operation, Lingua was an essential lever. However, this programme alone could not constitute the Community policy and strategy for languages. The issue of preserving linguistic diversity and ensuring that all Europeans have a command of foreign languages impinges on various aspects of the Union’s development (mobility, the economy, intercultural understanding). It has become a theme running through many Community activities. The Lisbon strategy laid down by the European Council in March 2000 (see point 5.1), the Commission’s action plan for skills and mobility [753] (see point 4.5.4) and the European lifelong learning strategy (see point 5.2) stress the need to foster linguistic and transcultural skills as an essential means of enabling European citizens to travel throughout the Union for education or work purposes and making it easier for them to benefit from European integration. Multilingualism is also central to action on the mobility plan adopted by the Education Council in December 2000 and on the Parliament and Council recommendation on mobility for students, persons undergoing training, volunteers, teachers and trainers (see point 4.5.4).
As in the other fields already discussed, the turn of the century favoured expansion and greater visibility of Community cooperation in this area. Two events contributed greatly: the new strategy launched in Lisbon in March 2000 and the European Year of Languages run by the Union and the Council of Europe in 2001 (\textsuperscript{754}). The Commission subsequently adopted an action plan on language learning and linguistic diversity (2004–06) in July 2003.

5.6.1. The importance attached to languages in the Lisbon strategy

Quantitative and qualitative development of foreign language learning is one of the main objectives of the ‘Education and training 2010’ programme put in place after the Lisbon European Council. This programme provides ‘the framework for many of the actions required at Member State level’ (\textsuperscript{755}). The European Councils after Lisbon reaffirmed the importance of investing in this field. The Barcelona European Council in March 2002 emphasised the role of early teaching (\textsuperscript{756}) aimed at a command of at least two foreign languages in addition to the mother tongue. This is a return to the approach mapped out in the Adonnino report on ‘A citizen’s Europe’ approved by the Milan European Council in 1985 (see point 3.1.1). Nearly 20 years later, the Barcelona European Council advocated improving ‘the mastery of basic skills, in particular by teaching at least two foreign languages from a very early age’ and establishing a linguistic competence indicator in 2003 (\textsuperscript{757}). The Brussels Council, one year later, called for ‘an emphasis on basic skills, languages, developing digital literacy and lifelong learning in education and training systems’ (\textsuperscript{758}).

The work done at European level since 2002, in particular by a special working group (\textsuperscript{759}), sought to support the national action to put into practice the aims set out by the Heads of State or Government since 2000 and the ‘Education and training 2010’ work programme. The conclusions highlight the need for greater efforts in national policy to promote language learning, make young people more motivated to learn languages and develop a greater appreciation of the importance of linguistic diversity.

The first joint Council and Commission report on implementation of the Lisbon strategy in education and training (see point 5.1.3), which was submitted to the European Council in March 2004, recognised that progress was too slow. The number of foreign languages learnt per secondary school pupil had increased from 1.2 in the early 1990s to an average of 1.5 in 2000. ‘Much remains to be done to reach the objective ... set by the Barcelona European Council in March 2002’ (\textsuperscript{760}). However, the report acknowledged that these figures did not reflect the actual quality of teaching and learning. To fill this gap, work is in hand at the Commission to develop the linguistic competence indicator demanded by the European Council. To this effect, the Commission adopted a communication in August 2005 (\textsuperscript{761}).
5.6.2. 2001: a year given over to languages

The European Year of Languages ran throughout 2001 in 45 European countries and attracted considerable support. It was jointly organised by the European Commission and the Council of Europe and sought specifically to raise awareness of the linguistic and cultural diversity in the Union, encourage multilingualism and alert public opinion to the advantages of having skills in several foreign languages. The Eurydice network published a very full comparative analysis of foreign language teaching in schools in 29 European countries, which was widely distributed in the course of the year.\(^{764}\)

The projects supported by the European Year of Languages covered regional, minority and sign languages and languages from outside Europe. In 2002, an external evaluation of the year was carried out\(^{764}\) and the Commission produced a report on the work done\(^{765}\). Both stressed that the initiative had been a success. 'Many new language teaching materials were developed in the course of the year, as side-activities of the projects. Some of the awareness-raising tools, such as videos, games, TV ads, etc. have unexpectedly been turned into new teaching material and are currently being used by language teachers, as alternative teaching methods.'\(^{766}\) The year also provided an opportunity to introduce and promote existing European instruments such as the language portfolio\(^{767}\) or the common European framework of reference\(^{768}\) of the Council of Europe. The European Day of Languages held on 26 September 2001 as part of the year subsequently became an annual event in the Council of Europe calendar. Its purpose was to draw public attention regularly to the importance of language learning, to increase public awareness of all the languages spoken in Europe and to promote lifelong language learning.

In tandem with the European Year of Languages, mention should also be made of general Community action in support of ‘regional or minority languages’. These are spoken by over 40 million citizens belonging to some 60 linguistic groups in the European Union. At the instigation of the European Parliament, which has adopted a number of resolutions in this area (see box below), the European Community had already taken measures in the early 1980s for their preservation and promotion (see point 2.3.6). The Council of Europe is also very active in this area. In November 1992, it opened its European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages for signature. The charter entered into force on 1 March 1998 and has currently been signed by 18 Member States of the European Union (and ratified by 12)\(^{769}\).
In 1992–93, the Commission arranged for an in-depth study (769) to be made of minority language groups in the Union in order to arrive at a better understanding of their formation, situation and needs. In 1996, it published a general report under the title 'Euromosaic: the production and reproduction of the minority language groups in the European Union' (770). An update was published by the Commission at the end of 2004.

In the 1990s, the Community continued to support projects aiming at preserving and promoting minority languages by the various organisations active in this field and the activities of the European Bureau for Lesser-Used Languages (EBLUL) (771) and the Mercator information network (772). An evaluation report on the action taken between 1998 and 2002 was published in 2004, underlining the positive contribution of Community action and the need to expand it (773).

The importance attached to regional and minority languages in the European Year of Languages and the continuing political support afforded particularly by the European Parliament (774), but also by the Committee of the Regions (775), helped to raise their profile. Parliament called for a European agency for linguistic diversity and language learning, for which the Commission began a feasibility study in 2004. Parliament also supported the launching of a multiannual programme on linguistic diversity and language learning, following on from the European Year of Languages 2001 (776).

The Commission believes that several tools are available to promote regional or lesser-used European languages. The action plan for languages (see point 5.6.3) provides for a comprehensive integrated approach to all languages, including regional and minority languages. This plan and the Community education and training programmes are key means by which action in this area can be expanded in future. The Commission therefore proposes to maintain support for this aspect of cooperation, preferring an approach integrated into the various programmes (mainstreaming approach).

(source: culture2.coe.int/portfolio/inc.asp?L=E&M=$t/documents_intro/common_framework.html)

The European framework was one of the tools incorporated into the new Europass (see point 5.3.2).

By 19 October 2004, the following Member States had ratified the charter: Denmark, Germany, Spain, Cyprus, Hungary, the Netherlands, Austria, Slovenia, Slovakia, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom (source: www.coe.int).

Research project by the Institut de Sociolingüística Catalana (Barcelona), the Centre de Recherche sur le Plurilinguisme (Brussels) and the Research Centre of Wales (Bangor).


www.eblul.org

www.mercator-central.org


At its session on 13 and 14 June 2001, the Committee of the Regions debated the promotion and protection of regional and minority languages and proposed that this be regarded as an issue of prime concern (own-initiative report from the CoR 86/2001 rev. 1, COM-7/030).

Main European Parliament resolutions on minority languages

- Measures in favour of minority languages and cultures (Arfè, 1983)
- The languages and cultures of regional and ethnic minorities in the European Community (Kuijpers, 1987)
- The situation of languages of the Community and the Catalan language (Reding, 1991)
- Linguistic minorities in the European Community (Killilea, 1994)
- European regional and lesser-used languages (2001)
- European regional and lesser-used languages — the languages of minorities in the EU — in the context of enlargement and cultural diversity (Ebner, 2003)

5.6.3. An action plan for language learning and linguistic diversity

This twofold momentum (follow-up of the Lisbon strategy and European Year of Languages) contributed to meeting the need long expressed by the Commission and Parliament for greater efforts by the European Union and the Member States to promote language learning and linguistic diversity. In its resolution of 14 February 2002 ("[]"), the Education Council addressed this need and called on the countries of the Union to take practical measures to this end. It asked the Commission to draw up proposals in these areas in 2003. In order to build on the impetus and enthusiasm generated in the Member States by the European Year of Languages, the Commission conducted an online public consultation between November 2002 and the end of February 2003 ("[]").

In July 2003, the Commission adopted an action plan ("[]") in the light of the feedback received, setting out a number of specific schemes ("[]") to be carried out between 2004 and 2006 in support of action by local, regional and national authorities. It particularly targeted three broad areas: extending the benefits of language learning to all citizens as a lifelong activity, improving the quality of language teaching at all levels and building a really favourable environment for languages in Europe. This plan was not allocated any specific funding but was carried out within the existing Community programmes and activities, in particular Socrates and Leonardo da Vinci.

With this plan, the Commission sought to make the range of activities more coherent and effective. These developments are all the more necessary since the recent enlargement of the Union to include 10 more countries not only increases its linguistic richness and diversity to an unprecedented degree but also strengthens the role of language learning as a promoter of cohesion and mutual understanding between peoples.

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[780] Use of language assistants, especially in primary schools; cross-border projects on the production of language-learning materials for nursery and primary schools; school projects on content and language integrated learning, etc.
In a context of increasingly global communication, the Union also needs a strategy for defending the linguistic diversity of its peoples in order to counter the hegemony exercised by one language, English, over all the others. This is certainly a daunting task but the cultural survival of the continent depends on it. English is tending to become a worldwide *lingua franca*. In Europe, it is now the most widely taught foreign language in both primary and secondary schools (781). The European Year of Languages provided an opportunity to draw attention to this problem. What is needed is to derive as much benefit as possible from the inevitable development of this *lingua franca*, which will necessarily become a ‘shared medium for basic communication’ (782), while preserving the linguistic diversity of the Union and ensuring that all have a command of other languages. In its report on the work done during the Year of Languages, the Commission noted that: ‘There is also a growing opinion that it is important to ensure a communicative level of competence in English for all citizens, but that English alone is not enough’ (783).

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5.7. **TOWARDS AN INTEGRATED COMMUNITY PROGRAMME FOR LIFELONG LEARNING**

In the light of the ever increasing integration between education and training actions and institutions across the EU, and of the emergence of the lifelong learning paradigm, there are major benefits to be gained from bringing together the fields covered by the Socrates and Leonardo da Vinci programmes into a single structure (\textsuperscript{784}).

5.7.1. **The need for closer alignment between policy cooperation and programmes**

The two overhauls of existing Community education and training programmes in the 1990s (in 1994/1995 and 1999/2000) (see point 4.3) both sought to rationalise the previous programmes and improve their effectiveness. However, progress was slow and for 12 years (from 1995 to 2006) there were still two separate programmes — Socrates for education and Leonardo da Vinci for vocational training — although the situation called for ever greater coherence and complementarity between these two dimensions.

The Lisbon strategy was a force for change. It could not influence the two new programmes for 2000–06, since it was agreed in March 2000, just after they had been adopted, but it could have an impact on the next generation of programmes. In March 2004, the Commission adopted two communications (\textsuperscript{785}) setting out its vision for the new Community education, training and culture programmes for 2007–13. In a new departure, it proposed a single integrated programme for education and training under the motto of lifelong learning. On 14 July of that year, it adopted a specific proposal for a decision setting up this programme (\textsuperscript{786}), which it hopes Parliament and the Council will adopt by the end of 2005. At the same time, it adopted proposals for the other education and culture programmes (‘Youth’ (\textsuperscript{787}), MEDIA and ‘Culture’) which also expire at the end of 2006. Building on the success of Tempus, the Commission, in its communication of March 2004, proposed an ambitious new programme, ‘Tempus plus’, with the aim of extending the coverage to school, higher and adult education and vocational training. It was to encompass cooperation between the Member States, neighbour states of the Union and those already participating in the Tempus programme (\textsuperscript{788}).

The proposal for an integrated programme in the field of lifelong learning is shaped by the Lisbon strategy in three respects. Firstly, it aims to make Community action more effective and comprehensible by merging the existing programmes. Secondly, it makes lifelong learning the guiding and unifying principle of the new programme. Finally, it specifically gears the programme activities to the policy goals laid down in the Lisbon strategy. These three developments were increasingly becoming
inevitable. The ever more frequent political statements advocating a Europe of knowledge and lifelong learning, together with the actual situation in the national systems, required Community programmes not only to move in the same direction as such developments but also to give clearer support to them. The Lisbon strategy and the action taken in the last four years to put it into practice have had an important catalytic effect in finally bringing about such a change.

In its mid-term evaluation report ("Interim evaluation report on the results achieved and on the qualitative and quantitative aspects of the implementation of the second phase of the Community action programme in the field of education 'Socrates', COM(2004) 153 final") of the second phase of the Socrates programme (2000–06), the Commission clearly spelt out its vision for the future: 'Efforts to tie the programme more closely to the vocational training sector should be stepped up in order to respond properly to the political challenge of creating a European area of lifelong learning. ... If the expectations of the participating states are to be met, a future programme will have to attach greater weight to activities which aim to support the European policy priorities.'

The post-Lisbon education and training objectives thus now form a single framework of reference (Education and training 2010) for Community cooperation at the levels of policy (see point 5.1) and of programme activities in the field. These two dimensions should therefore be mutually reinforcing in a more visible and practical way than in the past.
Creating the Europe of knowledge —
an ever closer link between policy and programmes

The Commission’s proposal for the new financial perspectives for the Union for 2007–13 (\(^\text{\textsuperscript{790}}\)) also supports this approach. Education and training are mentioned in the section on the need to achieve the Lisbon objectives and the Commission clearly states its intention to propose a ‘single instrument for education and training (successor to Socrates/Leonardo programmes)’.

5.7.2. Outline of the new integrated programme

The extent of integration is remarkable. The former Socrates and Leonardo da Vinci programmes are the centrepiece of the merger, together with the eLearning programme (see point 5.5.2), the Europass scheme developed in response to the Copenhagen declaration (see point 5.3.2) and the action programme to promote bodies active at European level and support specific activities in the field of education and training (\(^\text{\textsuperscript{791}}\)). The extension of the Erasmus Mundus programme, which was adopted at the end of 2003 and expires in 2008 (see point 5.4.2) should also be incorporated as from 2009. In formal terms, this combination of existing programmes is a great simplification. Seven legal bases for education and training are replaced by three (\(^\text{\textsuperscript{792}}\)) and 15 budget headings by three. Matters are also made simpler for participants in the programme. One of the major criticisms resulting from past evaluations was the growing cumbersomeness of the procedures and the programme

Communication from
the Commission to the Council
and the European Parliament:
‘Building our common future —
policy challenges and budgetary
means of the enlarged Union
10 February 2004.

The programme (Decision No
791/2004/EC of the European
Parliament and of the Council
of 21 April 2004) has a budget
of EUR 77 million for three
years (2004–06) and seeks to
support certain bodies active
in the field of education or
training (such as the College
of Europe, Bruges, or
the European University
Institute, Florence) and
to finance certain one-off
projects, e.g. in pursuance
of the Lisbon objectives and
the Jean Monnet project.

For the integrated
programme on lifelong
learning, the proposed new
‘Tempus plus’ programme
and Erasmus Mundus.
management, for both users and managers (see point 4.3.1.5). ‘The aim here is to ... reduce the complexity which is widely seen as the most negative aspect of these programmes’ (\textsuperscript{(*)}). More activities (representing about 80 \% of funding) will thus be managed decentrally, at the level of the national programme agencies. The Commission also proposes to make the financial and administrative obligations of beneficiaries proportionate to the size of grant awarded.

Four sectoral subprogrammes representing the continuum of lifelong learning make up the hard core of the new integrated programme: school education (Comenius), higher education (Erasmus), vocational training (Leonardo da Vinci) and adult education (Grundtvig). The names of the previous programmes (except Socrates) or actions are retained to preserve their identity in the eyes of those concerned. In addition to these four specific sectors, one of the main innovations is a transversal subprogramme. This covers four main activities: support for policy development; promotion of language learning, in addition to that in the programme sectors; action to spread innovative eLearning approaches and dissemination of results. Pursuit of the Jean Monnet project on European integration issues is also an integral part of the new programme. In addition to the project itself (see point 3.3.1), aid will be provided to specific European institutions and European education and training associations.

The Commission’s high expectations of this proposal for an integrated lifelong learning programme are primarily reflected in the figures advanced. The proposed budget for the new integrated programme is EUR 13 620 million for seven years, i.e. three times as much as is allocated to education and training at present (see Annex 3). With this substantial increase, the Commission hopes to give a major boost to participation by European citizens in the various programme activities.

The Commission’s goals are ambitious compared with the existing programmes, even though they fall far short of the demand for such programmes in education and training circles. They will also need to fit into the new EU financial perspectives for 2007–13.

\textsuperscript{(*)} COM(2004) 156 final, point 6.2.

- at least one pupil in 20 in the Union to be involved in the Comenius action for schools
- the figure of 3 million Erasmus students since programme inception to be reached by 2011
- 150,000 Leonardo da Vinci trainee placements to be assisted in 2013
- 25,000 adults per year to benefit from Grundtvig training/mobility in 2013

CONCLUSION

Community cooperation on educational matters has a history spanning nearly 30 years. It now shares common aims with cooperation on vocational training, the two strands having been intertwined over time in an endeavour to provide a better response to the new issues facing the Union. The policy objectives and the ways in which cooperation is conducted henceforth clearly form part of the economic and social strategy of the Union instituted in 2000 in Lisbon. It is no longer an isolated process peripheral to the main areas of EU activity. Along with research, education and training are core concerns in building a knowledge-based Europe.

In 2005, Community cooperation on education and training seems to have come of age, with an integrated approach to the activities concerned: an overarching policy framework resting on shared objectives (‘Education and training 2010’ work programme) and a single Community programme to promote lifelong learning, which is the end-point of a long process of enhancement and rationalisation of the various programmes started in the second half of the 1980s. These decisions are only the beginning of a new era of cooperation which is still to prove its worth. Investment in human resources through education and training will have to remain well to the fore in the strategy launched in Lisbon for a real boost to the Union’s economic vitality, as well as its social cohesion and ever greater civic participation, which the national debates on the Constitution have shown to be more necessary than ever (794).

Because the Lisbon strategy is primarily a tool serving the needs of the Member States and the policies and reforms they pursue at national level, it is also vital that the Member States make greater efforts in future to achieve the shared objectives they have set themselves at European level and commit themselves to a dynamic and positive application of the subsidiarity principle, involving all stakeholders. History has repeatedly demonstrated that Community action in education and training is justified and shown how it can remain compatible with the Member States’ retaining their prerogatives.

(794) The French and Dutch referenda on 29 May and 1 June 2005 have rejected the Constitution.
Because they operate in immediate proximity to the citizen, Community education and training programmes must be able to continue to perform their important function as a catalyst. They will do this all the better if in future, as the Commission proposes for 2007–13, they are given resources more commensurate with the ever greater demand for European cooperation expressed by those involved on the ground. Greater use of the Union's existing financial instruments, especially the European Social Fund, to meet the need for investment in the Union's human resources and for effective development of lifelong learning would also be a powerful motor for change in these areas of crucial importance to the Union's future development.
Annexes

Annex 1
Abbreviations

Annex 2
Chart showing the development of programmes from generation to generation (1986–2013)

Annex 3
Annual budget (million EUR) for the fields of education, training and youth (1986–2013)

Annex 4

Annex 5
Education and vocational training in the building of Europe — a chronology (1945–2005)

Annex 6
Main bibliographical sources
Annex 1

Abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACVT</td>
<td>Advisory committee on vocational training</td>
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<tr>
<td>BEPG</td>
<td>Broad economic policy guidelines</td>
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<tr>
<td>CARDS</td>
<td>Community assistance for reconstruction, development and stabilisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>CDCC</td>
<td>Council for Cultural Cooperation</td>
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<td>CEC</td>
<td>European Cultural Centre</td>
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<td>Cedefop</td>
<td>European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training</td>
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<tr>
<td>CEEP</td>
<td>European Centre of Enterprises with Public Participation and Enterprises of General Economic Interest</td>
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<tr>
<td>CERI</td>
<td>Centre for Educational Research and Innovation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Comett</td>
<td>Community programme on education and training for technologies</td>
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<tr>
<td>CoR</td>
<td>Committee of the Regions</td>
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<td>Coreper</td>
<td>Committee of Permanent Representatives</td>
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Annex 2

Chart showing the development of programmes (1) from generation to generation (1986–2013)

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(1) Covers EU internal policies only and therefore excludes the Tempus programme.
(2) Where applicable, budgets take account of amendments to decisions (especially following EU enlargement).
(3) For the first three years.
### VOCATIONAL TRAINING

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### YOUTH

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\textsuperscript{\textasteriskcentered} For the first two years.

\textsuperscript{\textdagger} According to Commission proposals (July 2004).

\textsuperscript{\textdaggerdbl} Does not include the effect of the planned incorporation of the Erasmus Mundus extension (covering the years 2009–13).
Annex 3

Annual budget for the fields of education, vocational training and youth 1986–2013 (million EUR, cash prices)
Annex 3

Budget lines under internal policies; excluding annual allocations to Cedefop

Annual appropriations available for commitments

Education programmes
Vocational training programmes
Integrated education and vocational training programmes
Youth programmes
Others
### Annual budget for the fields of education, training and youth (*)

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| Integrated programme          |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| Erasmus Mundus                |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| Total                         | 0    | 0    | 0    | 0    | 0    | 0    | 0    | 0    | 0    |

| Youth programmes              |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| Youth for Europe I            |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| Youth for Europe II           |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| Youth for Europe III          |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| European Voluntary Service    |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| Youth                          |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| Youth in action               |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| Total                         | 0    | 0    | 0    | 6    | 7    | 7    | 10   | 10   | 11   |

| Other programmes and actions  |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| Grand total                   | 23   | 26   | 26   | 29   | 23   | 27   | 26   | 30   | 36   |

| Total                         | 24   | 53   | 78   | 112  | 141  | 209  | 259  | 257  | 277  |

(*) Covers EU internal policies only and therefore excludes the Tempus programme.
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The history of European cooperation in education and training

Europe in the making — an example

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<td>362</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erasmus Mundus</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>402</td>
<td>416</td>
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<td>0</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Vocational training programmes                |      |      |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| Comett I                                      | 216  | 212  | 202      | 0        | 0        | 0        | 0        | 0        | 0        | 0        |
| PETRA 1988-91                                 |      |      |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| PETRA 1992-94                                 |      |      |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| FORCE                                         |      |      |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| Eurotecnet                                    |      |      |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| Leonardo da Vinci I                           |      |      |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| Leonardo da Vinci II                          |      |      |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| Total                                         | 216  | 212  | 202      | 0        | 0        | 0        | 0        | 0        | 0        | 0        |

| Single ‘education and vocational training’ programme |      |      |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| Erasmus Mundus                                 |      |      |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| Total                                         | 1 220| 1 387| 1 617    | 1 859    | 2 176    | 2 505    | 2 856    | 0        | 0        | 0        |

| Integrated programme                          |      |      |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| Erasmus Mundus                                 | 61   | 94   | 120      | 130      | 140      | 150      | 150      | 0        | 0        | 0        |
| Total                                         | 0    | 0    | 0        | 1 281    | 1 481    | 1 737    | 1 989    | 2 316    | 2 655    | 3 006    |

| Youth programmes                              |      |      |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| Youth for Europe I                            | 97   | 112  | 104      |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| Youth for Europe II                           |      |      |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| Youth for Europe III                          |      |      |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| European Voluntary Service                    |      |      |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| Youth                                         | 111  | 126  | 128      | 131      | 133      | 141      | 145      | 0        | 0        | 0        |
| Youth in action                               | 97   | 112  | 104      | 111      | 126      | 128      | 131      | 133      | 141      | 145      |
| Total                                         | 112  | 126  | 128      | 131      | 133      | 141      | 145      | 0        | 0        | 0        |

| Other programmes and actions                  |      |      |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| Grand total                                   | 685  | 737  | 734      | 1 392    | 1 607    | 1 805    | 2 120    | 2 449    | 2 796    | 3 151    |

(1) Covers EU internal policies only and therefore excludes the Tempus programme.
(2) Forecasts.
(3) Based on proposals for programmes (July 2004) and a forecast for Erasmus Mundus.
(4) Some programme decisions include a reference to the budget with which the programme is considered to be funded throughout its duration.
### Total appropriations available

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<tr>
<td>Pre-1994</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>94</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>376</td>
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<td>1995-99</td>
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<td>376</td>
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<td></td>
<td>933</td>
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<tr>
<td>2000-06</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>153</td>
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<td></td>
<td>2 060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007-13</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>76</td>
<td>44</td>
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<td>933</td>
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### Budgets in decisions (€)

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<tr>
<td>Pre-1994</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>192 (€)</td>
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<td>920</td>
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<tr>
<td>1995-99</td>
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<td>2007-13</td>
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<td>76 (€)</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>24 (€)</td>
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<td>490</td>
<td>719</td>
<td>1 255</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

|          | 13 620   | 13 620   |          |          | 13 620 (€) |
|          | 845      | 845      | 14 465   | 14 465   | 14 465 |

|          | 19       | 19       | 31       | 31       | 245   |
|          | 130      | 130      | 47       | 47       | 89    |
|          | 615      | 615      | 915      | 915      | 915   |
|          | 50       | 177      | 615      | 915      | 1 758 |
|          |          | 89       | 90       | 0        | 424   |
|          | 1 409    | 1 919    | 4 139    | 15 380   | 22 846 |

(5) Budget for the first three years.
(6) The budget is EUR 230 million for the years 2004–08; in subsequent years the single ‘education and vocational training’ programme is due to incorporate this programme.
(7) Budget for the first two years.
(8) Does not include the envisaged extension of Erasmus Mundus.
Annex 4


![Graph showing student mobility developments](image-url)

<table>
<thead>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total (EU-25 + EEA + 2 candidate countries)</td>
<td>3 244</td>
<td>9 914</td>
<td>19 456</td>
<td>27 906</td>
<td>36 314</td>
<td>51 694</td>
<td>62 362</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Member States</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iceland, Liechtenstein and Norway</td>
<td>474</td>
<td>825</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Candidate countries: Bulgaria, Romania</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** ‘Progress towards the Lisbon objectives in education and training — 2005 report’. Data: Education and Culture DG (Erasmus programme).
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<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1994/95</td>
<td>73 407</td>
<td>84 642</td>
<td>79 874</td>
<td>85 999</td>
<td>97 601</td>
<td>107 652</td>
<td>111 082</td>
<td>115 432</td>
<td>123 957</td>
<td>135 586</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995/96</td>
<td>3 255</td>
<td>6 991</td>
<td>9 578</td>
<td>11 041</td>
<td>13 027</td>
<td>15 141</td>
<td>59 033</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996/97</td>
<td>1 066</td>
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<td>1 282</td>
<td>1 187</td>
<td>1 250</td>
<td>1 248</td>
<td>1 159</td>
<td>1 134</td>
<td>1 180</td>
<td>1 396</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997/98</td>
<td>1 250</td>
<td>1 833</td>
<td>2 297</td>
<td>2 569</td>
<td>3 313</td>
<td>3 756</td>
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</table>

(x 1,000)
### Annex 5

**Education and vocational training in the building of Europe – A chronology (1945–2005)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year/Presidency</th>
<th>Main European and Community events ()</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1945 4–11 February:</td>
<td>Yalta Conference. Agreements on the division of post-war Europe.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7–9 May:</td>
<td>capitulation of Germany</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 November:</td>
<td>Convention establishing Unesco adopted in London.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1946 19 September:</td>
<td>(Zurich): speech by Winston Churchill calling for a unified Europe.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1948 17 March:</td>
<td>creation of the Western Union (Treaty of Brussels signed by BE, FR, LU, NL, UK).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 April:</td>
<td>creation of the Organisation for European Economic Cooperation (OEEC) to coordinate the Marshall Plan.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 October:</td>
<td>creation of the European Movement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1949 4 April:</td>
<td>Treaty establishing the Atlantic Alliance, subsequently NATO, signed by the Treaty of Brussels signatories, plus Canada, Denmark, the United States, Iceland, Italy, Norway and Portugal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 May:</td>
<td>creation of the Council of Europe (Treaty of London).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1950 9 May:</td>
<td>declaration by Robert Schuman, the first step towards European integration.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1951 18 April:</td>
<td>Treaty of Paris signed (European Coal and Steel Community — ECSC).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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() Main source for Community events: Europa website (www.europa.eu), ‘History — key events of each year’.

NB: Events not directly linked to the building of Europe are in italics.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7–10 May</td>
<td>the Cultural Commission of the European Congress of The Hague, chaired by Salvador de Madariaga, calls for the creation of a European centre for culture.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8–12 December</td>
<td>the European Conference on Culture (Lausanne) is organised by the cultural section of the European Movement and will give birth to the European Centre of Culture and the College of Europe in Bruges.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 May</td>
<td>the College of Europe is established in Bruges.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 October</td>
<td>the European Centre of Culture is established in Geneva; it will set up the European Culture Foundation in 1954.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Main European and Community events

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year/Presidency</th>
<th>Main European and Community events</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1953</td>
<td>10 February: the common market in coal and steel is born. The Six abolish customs duties on these raw materials.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 1954 | 11 May: Alcide de Gasperi elected President of the European Parliamentary Assembly.  
30 August: collapse of the European Defence Community (EDC).  
23 October: creation of the Western European Union (WEU), successor to the Western Union. |
| 1955 | 1–3 June: Messina Conference (Sicily). Relaunching of the process of European integration.  
8 December: Council of Europe adopts the blue flag with twelve gold stars as its emblem. |
| 1956 | 6 May: Paul-Henri Spaak, Belgian Minister for Foreign Affairs, reports to the ECSC members on the drafting of treaties establishing the EEC and Euratom.  
26 June: opening of negotiations in Brussels with a view to drafting treaties establishing the EEC and Euratom. |
| 1957 | 25 March: Treaties establishing the European Economic Community (EEC) and the European Atomic Energy Community (Euratom) signed in Rome. |
7 January: Walter Hallstein (DE) elected President of the EEC Commission.  
19 March: Robert Schuman elected President of the Parliamentary Assembly.  
22 April: the Council appoints the members of the Economic and Social Committee (ESC). |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4 May</td>
<td>European Schools Day launched in French schools, with European composition competitions. Letter from Jean Monnet to the Members of the High Authority encouraging similar initiatives in the other Member States, and opening of the competition to other European countries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 December</td>
<td>Council of Europe Convention on the equivalence of diplomas leading to admission to universities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 December</td>
<td>First European Cultural Convention opened for signing (Council of Europe).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1–3 June</td>
<td>The idea of creating a European university is relaunched at the Messina conference.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The WEO's Committee on Culture organises a conference of European university leaders in Cambridge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 May</td>
<td>Entry into force of the Cultural Convention of the Council of Europe, covering education, culture, youth and sport.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 December</td>
<td>Council of Europe Convention on the equivalence of periods of university study.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Treaty of Rome makes provision for the development of a common vocational training policy (Article 128), cooperation in matters relating to basic and advanced vocational training (Article 118), and the mutual recognition of diplomas for professional purposes (Article 57). The Euratom Treaty provides for the establishing of a European university (Article 9).
### Year/Presidency | Main European and Community events
---|---
**1959** | 19 September: the Council of Europe establishes the European Court of Human Rights.

**1960** | 4 January: creation of the European Free Trade Association (EFTA).
11 May: adoption of the regulation on the European Social Fund (ESF) to promote employment and geographical and occupational mobility for workers.
14 December: the OEEC becomes the OECD.

**1961** | 1961: the German Democratic Republic erects the Berlin wall.
18 July: Bonn Summit. Solemn declaration advocating political union and a genuine cultural community.
1 September: first regulation on freedom of movement for workers.

**1962** | 17 April: collapse of negotiations on political union (Fouchet Plan).
30 July: entry into force of the common agricultural policy (CAP).

**1963** | 22 January: Franco-German Cooperation Treaty signed by de Gaulle and Adenauer.

**1964** | 1 December: entry into force of the Association Treaty signed by the EEC and Turkey.

**1965** | 8 April: signing of the Treaty merging the executives of the ECSC, EEC and Euratom and establishing a single Commission and a single Council.
1 July: ‘empty chair’ policy pursued by France (for a period of seven months).

**1966** | January: end of France’s ‘empty chair’ policy (Luxembourg compromise).
Community cooperation in the field of education and vocational training

12 September: the second conference of European university leaders under the WEU takes place in Dijon. Decision to set up the European Rectors’ Conference, the constitution of which is adopted in Göttingen in 1964 (seat established in Geneva).

14 December: Council of Europe Convention on the academic recognition of university qualifications.

Transfer of cultural and educational activities from the WEU to the Council of Europe.

18 July: the Bonn declaration refers to the emergence of a genuine cultural community, calls for cooperation among the Six going beyond the political framework (extending in particular to the field of education, culture and research, where it will be the subject of regular meetings of the ministers concerned), proposes the drafting of conventions on university cooperation and exchanges and relaunches the idea of establishing a European university in Florence.

1 January: creation of the Council of Europe’s Council for Cultural Cooperation (CDCC).

2 April: on the basis of Article 128 of the EEC Treaty, the Council adopts a decision establishing 10 general principles for a common vocational training policy.

18 December: the Council adopts the rules of the Advisory Committee on Vocational Training (ACVT).

8 May: Council decision establishing a first action programme to encourage the exchange of young workers.

18 July: Commission recommendation to the Member States on the promotion of vocational guidance.
### Main European and Community events

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year/Presidency</th>
<th>Main European and Community events</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1967</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>DE</strong></td>
<td>1 July: entry into force of the treaty merging the executives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>3 July: first meeting of the single Council of the European Communities (chaired by Germany).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6 July: the new Commission takes office (President: Jean Rey — BE).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1968</strong></td>
<td>Events of May 1968</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>FR</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>IT</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>1969</strong></td>
<td>1–2 December: the Hague Summit relaunches the idea of a political Europe and calls on Europe to safeguard ‘an exceptional source of development, progress and culture’.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>LU</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>NL</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>1970</strong></td>
<td>6 March: the Council establishes two committees of experts: one, chaired by Pierre Werner, to produce proposals for achieving economic and monetary union, the other, chaired by Étienne Davignon, to prepare a draft for political cooperation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>BE</strong></td>
<td>22 April: the Council decides to establish progressively a system of own resources for the Community (Treaty of Luxembourg).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>DE</strong></td>
<td>27 October: the Member States approve the Davignon report on political cooperation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>26 November: the Council decides to reform the European Social Fund (ESF) to achieve a more effective link between social policy and other common policies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1971</strong></td>
<td>1 February: the Council implements the first reform of the ESF.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>FR</strong></td>
<td>22 March: the Council adopts the Werner Plan to strengthen coordination of economic policies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>IT</strong></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Community cooperation in the field of education and vocational training

15 October: Council regulation on freedom of movement for workers within the Community (employment and vocational training aspects).

28 October: resolution of the European Parliament on the Europeanisation of universities as the basis for a genuine cultural Community (proposes among other things the creation of a Council of national education ministers).

27 November: The Hague: speech by Oliver Guichard (French Minister for Education) on the development of cooperation in education. He proposes the creation of a European Centre.

July: the Council convenes an ad hoc group of senior education officials to discuss the possible subjects of cooperation.

29 September: Council recommendation to the Member States on the use of the European occupation description for the training of skilled machine-tool workers.

26 July: adoption by the Council of general guidelines for drawing up a Community action plan on vocational training.

27 July: the Commission establishes two internal bodies (under the direct responsibility of Commissioner Spinelli) to deal with education matters: the ‘teaching and education’ and ‘inter-service coordination’ groups.

16 November: a first resolution on cooperation in the field of education provides for the creation of a group of experts to produce proposals on future cooperation and examine France’s proposal for the creation of a European centre for the development of education.

Altiero Spinelli — IT
(July 1970–January 1973), Commissioner for industry and technology (also responsible for education matters)
### Year/Presidency | Main European and Community events

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year/Presidency</th>
<th>Main European and Community events</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1972 LU NL       | 24 April: introduction of the European currency 'snake'.  
                 | 1 May: the reformed European Social Fund (ESF) becomes operational.  
                 | 19–21 October: the Paris Summit emphasises that economic expansion is not an end in itself, identifies new areas of Community action (regional, environmental and social policies), and decides to set up a first social action programme. |
                 | 8 February: creation of the European Trade Union Confederation (ETUC).  
                 | 6–27 October: Yom Kippur War. OPEC imposes a massive increase in the oil price: start of the first oil crisis. |
| 1974 DE FR       | 10 June: two Council decisions opening the European Social Fund up to specific measures for handicapped persons and migrant workers.  
                 | 9–10 December: the Paris Summit creates the European Council (Heads of State or Government), approves the creation of the European Regional Development Fund, and commits itself to economic and monetary union. It asks Leo Tindemans (BE) to present a report on European Union at the end of 1975. |
                 | 18 March: creation of the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF). |
| 1976 LU NL       | 9 February: adoption of a directive on equal treatment for men and women as regards access to employment, vocational training and working conditions.  
                 | 1–2 April: the European Council discusses the Tindemans report on European Union (which suggests creating a European foundation to develop the idea of European identity). The report is not followed up. |
19 April: Florence: signing of the convention setting up the European University Institute.

19 July: the Commission asks Professor Henri Janne, former Belgian Minister of Education, to draw up proposals for the development of a Community education policy.

6 December: Commissioner Altiero Spinelli reports to the 230th meeting of the Commission on the activities of the ‘teaching and education’ group and proposes a draft memorandum on Community action in the field of culture.

January: education is now an integral part of the Commission’s responsibilities, coming under the Directorate-General for Research, Science and Education (DG XII).

February 1973: Henri Janne presents to the Commission his report on a Community education policy, prepared with assistance from recognised experts.

11 March: adoption by the Commission of a communication on education in the Community as a basis for preparing the first action programme.

6 June: resolution on cooperation in the field of education, laying down the principles and areas of action. Creation of the Education Committee.

6 June: resolution on the mutual recognition of diplomas, certificates and other evidence of formal qualifications.

27 June: resolution establishing a first action programme for the vocational rehabilitation of handicapped persons.

19 December: proposals from the Commission on migrant workers and their families.

10 February: the Council adopts a regulation establishing a European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (Cedefop).

9 February: the Council adopts a resolution establishing the first Community action programme in the field of education (fixing the mandate of the Education Committee and specifying six areas of cooperation).

13 December: resolution concerning measures to improve the preparation of young people for work and to facilitate their transition from education to working life.
### Main European and Community events

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year/Presidency</th>
<th>Main Events</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1977</td>
<td>UK, BE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978</td>
<td>DK, DE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6–7 July</td>
<td>the European Council (Bremen) adopts a common strategy to boost economic growth and reduce unemployment. It envisages the creation of a European monetary system (EMS).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4–5 December</td>
<td>the European Council (Brussels) decides to create a European monetary system based on the ECU.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1979</td>
<td>FR, IE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 March</td>
<td>EMS enters into force.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7–10 June</td>
<td>first election of the European Parliament by direct universal suffrage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>IT, LU</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Community cooperation in the field of education and vocational training**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1977/1978</td>
<td>Introduction, on the basis of the resolution of 9 February 1976, of the 'short study visits scheme' for teaching and administrative staff in higher education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978–79</td>
<td>First years of the 'joint study programmes', paving the way for the future Erasmus programme.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 June</td>
<td>Communication from the Commission on teaching with a European dimension: study of the European Community at school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 June</td>
<td>Communication from the Commission on language teaching in the Community.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29 September</td>
<td>Communication from the Commission to the Council on the admission of students from other Member States to higher education establishments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 October</td>
<td>Communication from the Commission to the Council on a Community action programme on equal opportunities for girls in education and vocational training.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NB: These four communications could not be discussed. Denmark in particular, blocked the work of the Council ('Education') from November 1978, citing the absence of a legal basis for Community action in these fields. This institutional 'crisis' lasted until the education ministers resumed their meetings in June 1980.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15 January</td>
<td>Resolution concerning measures to improve the preparation of young people for work and to facilitate their transition from education to working life (one-year extension).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 July</td>
<td>Council decision establishing a second joint programme to encourage the exchange of young workers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 December</td>
<td>Council resolution on linked work and training for young persons.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>September</td>
<td>The information network on education in the European Community (Eurydice) becomes operational.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27 June</td>
<td>The first meeting of the Council ('Education') since the institutional crisis triggered by Denmark in 1978 approves the substance of the Education Committee's general report on implementation of the 1976 resolution.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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**Commissioners responsible**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year/Presidency</th>
<th>Main European and Community events</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1981</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NL</td>
<td>1 January: accession of Greece.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>7 November: France and Germany attempt to relaunch political union (Genscher–Colombo initiative), but without success.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1982</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BE</td>
<td>3–4 December: the European Council (Copenhagen) establishes priority objectives in the economic and social spheres and confirms its political commitment to enlargement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DK</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1983</strong></td>
<td>European Year of SMEs and Artisanship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DE</td>
<td>17–19 June: the European Council (Stuttgart) adopts a solemn declaration on European union, which covers cooperation in the field of education and culture.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1984</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IE</td>
<td>28 February: adoption of the Esprit programme (R &amp; D in the field of information technologies).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25–26 June: Fontainebleau Summit (Paris) ends the crisis around the UK contribution to the Community budget. Creation of the Dooge Committee on institutional matters and the Adonnino Committee on a people’s Europe.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
January: reorganisation of the Commission departments. The Commission decides to amalgamate
the previously separate education and vocational training divisions within the
Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Education (DG V). Creation of a
directorate for education, vocational training and youth.


12 July: resolution of the Council [‘Education’] concerning measures to improve the preparation of
young people for work and to facilitate their transition from education to working life.

2 June: resolution on vocational training measures relating to new information technologies.

2 June: conclusions concerning the growth of mobility in higher education.

3 June: conclusions of the first joint meeting of the ‘Employment and Social Affairs’ and ‘Education’
Councils on the transition of young people to adulthood and working life.

19 June: Stuttgart: solemn declaration by the Heads of State or Government: cooperation
between higher education establishments, more intensive exchanges of experience,
development of language teaching, improving the level of knowledge about other
Member States, etc.

11 July: resolution on vocational training policies in the European Community in the 1980s.

19 September: resolution on the introduction of new information technologies in education.

NARIC network (European network of national information centres for the recognition of academic diplomas
and qualifications) established on the basis of the Council’s conclusions of 2 June 1983 on boosting mobility
in higher education.

9 February: Commission’s report on implementation of Directive 77/486/EEC on the education of the
children of migrant workers.


4 June: Council’s conclusions on: 1) technological change and social adjustment; 2) foreign language
teaching; 3) pilot projects on education of the children of migrant workers; 4) integration
of disabled children into the normal school system; 5) illiteracy.

24 September: communication of the Commission on a people’s Europe.

13 December: adoption of the third programme on exchanges of young workers.

### Community cooperation in the field of education and vocational training

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<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
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<tr>
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<td>reorganisation of the Commission departments. The Commission decides to amalgamate the previously separate education and vocational training divisions within the Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Education (DG V). Creation of a directorate for education, vocational training and youth.</td>
</tr>
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<td>12 July</td>
<td>resolution of the Council [‘Education’] concerning measures to improve the preparation of young people for work and to facilitate their transition from education to working life.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 June</td>
<td>resolution on vocational training measures relating to new information technologies.</td>
</tr>
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<td>2 June</td>
<td>conclusions concerning the growth of mobility in higher education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 June</td>
<td>conclusions of the first joint meeting of the ‘Employment and Social Affairs’ and ‘Education’ Councils on the transition of young people to adulthood and working life.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 June</td>
<td>Stuttgart: solemn declaration by the Heads of State or Government: cooperation between higher education establishments, more intensive exchanges of experience, development of language teaching, improving the level of knowledge about other Member States, etc.</td>
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<tr>
<td>11 July</td>
<td>resolution on vocational training policies in the European Community in the 1980s.</td>
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<tr>
<td>19 September</td>
<td>resolution on the introduction of new information technologies in education.</td>
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NARIC network (European network of national information centres for the recognition of academic diplomas and qualifications) established on the basis of the Council’s conclusions of 2 June 1983 on boosting mobility in higher education.


4 June: Council’s conclusions on: 1) technological change and social adjustment; 2) foreign language teaching; 3) pilot projects on education of the children of migrant workers; 4) integration of disabled children into the normal school system; 5) illiteracy.

24 September: communication of the Commission on a people’s Europe.

13 December: adoption of the third programme on exchanges of young workers.
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year/Presidency</th>
<th>Main European and Community events</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1985</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>European Year of Music</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT</td>
<td>7 January: the new European Commission under Jacques Delors (FR) takes up office.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LU</td>
<td>31 January: the Commission relaunches social dialogue (Val Duchesse, Belgium).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14 June: Commission’s White Paper on completion of the internal market by 1992. Schengen Agreement on the abolition of border checks signed by Belgium, Germany, France, Luxembourg and the Netherlands.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2–4 December: European Council (Luxembourg). The Ten decide to amend the Treaty of Rome and relaunch the process of European integration by means of a Single European Act.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1986</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>European Road Safety Year</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NL</td>
<td>1 January: accession of Spain and Portugal to the Community.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>29 May: the European flag adopted by the Community institutions is hoisted for the first time in front of the Berlaymont building in Brussels to the sound of the European anthem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1987</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>European Environment Year</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BE</td>
<td>14 April: the Turkish government officially applies to join the European Communities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DK</td>
<td>1 July: entry into force of the Single European Act.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Community cooperation in the field of education and vocational training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Commissioners responsible</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13 February</td>
<td>Gravier judgment. The Court of Justice rules that education (higher education) falls within the scope of the EEC Treaty (Article 128).</td>
<td>Peter Sutherland — IE (January–December 1985)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 June</td>
<td>resolution containing an action programme on equal opportunities for girls and boys in education.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28–29 June</td>
<td>the report of the Committee on a people's Europe (Adonnino report), containing proposals on education and vocational training, is approved by the European Council (Milan).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 July</td>
<td>decision on the comparability of vocational training qualifications between the Member States of the European Community.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27 September</td>
<td>Conclusions on doing more to promote the European dimension of education.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 December</td>
<td>the Commission proposes the Erasmus programme (European Community action scheme for the mobility of university students).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 July</td>
<td>adoption of the Comett programme (university–business cooperation on training in new technologies).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 November</td>
<td>adoption of a joint opinion on a strategy for cooperation on growth and employment.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 May</td>
<td>adoption of conclusions on: 1) a programme for the integration of handicapped children into ordinary schools; 2) a European programme to step up measures against illiteracy; 3) school drop-out; 4) in-service teacher training.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 June</td>
<td>adoption of the Erasmus programme to promote student mobility (three-year programme).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year/Presidency</td>
<td>Main European and Community events ()</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1988</strong></td>
<td><strong>Jean Monnet Year</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>DE</strong></td>
<td><strong>European Year of Cinema and Television</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>EL</strong></td>
<td>11–13 February: the European Council (Brussels) adopts the ‘Delors I package’ for Community finances over a five-year period: common agricultural policy reform, new own resources, doubling of the Structural Funds.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1989</strong></td>
<td><strong>European Year against Cancer</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ES</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>FR</strong></td>
<td>26–27 June: the European Council (Madrid) adopts conclusions on economic and monetary union and emphasises the need for a balance between the social and economic aspects of the development of the single market.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9 November: fall of the Berlin wall.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8–9 December: the European Council (Strasbourg) adopts the Community Charter of Fundamental Social Rights of Workers (adopted by 11 Member States).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18 December: adoption of the Phare programme.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date</td>
<td>Event</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 April</td>
<td>decision establishing a second Community action programme for disabled people (Helios).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 May</td>
<td>communication from the Commission 'Education in the European Community: medium-term perspectives; 1988–92'.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 May</td>
<td>conclusions on the second Community action programme (1982–87) on the transition of young people from education to working life.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 May</td>
<td>resolutions on: 1) the European dimension in education; 2) environmental education.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 June</td>
<td>adoption of the 'Youth for Europe' programme (three-year programme).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29 June</td>
<td>decision on Community action on the development of European learning through technological advance (Delta). Exploratory action.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 November</td>
<td>resolution on health education.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 December</td>
<td>extension of the Comett programme (1990–94).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 December</td>
<td>adoption of the directive on the recognition of higher-education diplomas awarded on completion of professional education and training of at least three years’ duration.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 December</td>
<td>recommendation concerning nationals of Member States holding a diploma conferred in a third state.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 March</td>
<td>European Parliament report (rapporteur: B. Dürrkop Dürrkop) on the second transition programme (1982–87) and the priorities of vocational training policy in the context of the internal market.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March</td>
<td>creation within the Commission of the first structure specifically for education, training and youth: the Task Force on Human Resources, Education, Training and Youth (TFRH).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 May</td>
<td>resolutions on: 1) school provision for children of occupational travellers; 2) school provision for gypsy and traveller children.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 June</td>
<td>resolution on continuing vocational training.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28 June</td>
<td>communication from the Commission proposing the Jean Monnet Action (support for universities in the development of courses and research on European integration).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year/Presidency</td>
<td>Main European and Community events</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1989</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ES</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FR</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1990</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT</td>
<td>25–26 June: the European Council (Dublin) decides to create two Intergovernmental conferences, (IGCs) one on economic and monetary union, the other on political union.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 October: unification of Germany.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14–15 December: the European Council (Rome) launches the two IGCs on economic and monetary union and political union.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Community cooperation in the field of education and vocational training

28 July: adoption of the Lingua programme (1990–94) to promote foreign language competence in the European Community.

6 October: resolution on cooperation and Community policy in the field of education in the run-up to 1993.


18 December: adoption of the Eurotecnet action programme (1990–94) to promote innovation in the field of vocational training resulting from technological change.

13 February: joint opinion of the social partners on a European occupational mobility area.

7 May: adoption of the regulation establishing the European Training Foundation (ETF).

7 May: adoption of Tempus, a trans-European mobility scheme for university studies (1990–93).

31 May: resolution concerning integration of children and young people with disabilities into ordinary systems of education.

31 May: conclusions on the implementation of equal opportunities for girls and boys in education in the context of basic and continuing teacher training.


28 June: directive on the right of residence for students.

21 August: memorandum on the rationalisation and coordination of vocational training programmes.

22 November: adoption by the Community and its Member States and by the governments of the United States of America and Canada of the transatlantic declarations on EC-US and EC–Canada relations covering, among other matters, university education and exchanges.

6 November: joint opinion of the social partners on transition from school to working life.

3 December: resolution on Community action to combat the use of drugs in sport.

6 December: resolution on the Eurydice network.

18 December: resolution on the comparability of vocational training qualifications.
The history of European cooperation in education and training

*Europe in the making – an example*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year/Presidency</th>
<th>Main European and Community events</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1992 PT UK</td>
<td>7 February: the EU Treaty is signed in Maastricht. (Towards economic and monetary union and political union. Incorporation of citizenship. Education makes its first appearance in a treaty. Strengthening of the European Parliament’s role (co-decision). Creation of the Committee of the Regions, etc.).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 May: the Agreement establishing the European Economic Area (EEA) is signed in Porto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16 October: the European Council (Birmingham) adopts a declaration on a Community close to its citizens.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11–12 December: the European Council (Edinburgh) approves the Delors II package (1993–99); the Structural Funds for the period 1994–99 are almost doubled.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date</td>
<td>Event</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 January</td>
<td>joint opinion of the European social partners on access to vocational training.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 June</td>
<td>resolution on priority actions in the youth field.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 July</td>
<td>adoption of the PETRA II programme (1992–94) on vocational training for young people and their preparation for adult and working life.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29 July</td>
<td>decision adopting the ‘Youth for Europe’ programme (second phase, 1992–94).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 November</td>
<td>the Commission adopts a memorandum on higher education in the European Community.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 November</td>
<td>the Commission adopts two memoranda on vocational training in the European Community in the 1990s and on open and distance learning in the European Community. Broad consultation on these three memoranda in 1992.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 November</td>
<td>the Council (‘Education’) adopts a resolution on education research and statistics. Conclusions on 1) evaluation of quality assessment in higher education; 2) cooperation for the reinforcement of student mobility; 3) a pilot action for multilateral school partnership.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 February</td>
<td>education makes its appearance in the Maastricht Treaty (articles 126 and 189 B).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28 April</td>
<td>decision amending the duration of the Tempus programme (1990–94).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 June</td>
<td>conclusions on: 1) the development of environmental education; 2) the development of open and distance learning; 3) assessment of new Community programmes concerning education and training.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 June</td>
<td>directive on a second general system for the recognition of professional education and training to supplement Directive 88/48/EEC.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 October</td>
<td>joint opinion of the social partners on occupational qualifications and certification.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 November</td>
<td>conclusions of the health ministers on health education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27 November</td>
<td>conclusions on: 1) measures for developing the European dimension in higher education; 2) Eurydice; 3) health education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 December</td>
<td>resolution on the transparency of qualifications.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Main European and Community events

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year/Presidency</th>
<th>Main European and Community events ()</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1993</strong></td>
<td><strong>European Year of Older People and Solidarity between Generations</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DK</td>
<td>1 January: completion of the single market.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BE</td>
<td>21–22 June: the European Council (Copenhagen) asks the Commission to prepare a White Paper on a strategy for growth, competitiveness and employment; it states that the associated countries of central and eastern Europe will be able to become full members as soon as they fulfil the necessary economic and political criteria.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>29 October: the European Council (Brussels) confirms the entry into force of the second phase of EMU on 1 January 1994. It also establishes the seats of certain Community bodies and agencies (including the ETF in Turin).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 November: entry into force of the EU Treaty.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5 December: the Commission adopts a White Paper on ‘Growth, competitiveness, employment — the challenges and ways forward into the 21st century’.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11–13 December: the European Council (Brussels) adopts an action plan based on the Commission’s White Paper.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **1994**       | **European Nutrition Year** |
| EL             | 1 January: the Agreement establishing the European Economic Area (EEA) enters into force. |
| DE             | 9–10 March: first meeting of the Committee of the Regions created by the Maastricht Treaty. |
|                | 9–10 December: the European Council (Essen) lays down approaches for implementing the strategy of the Delors White Paper, especially with regard to employment and trans-European networks. It also adopts a global strategy to forge closer links between the associated countries of central and eastern Europe and the European Union. It reaffirms its wish to establish a Euro-Mediterranean partnership. |
Community cooperation in the field of education and vocational training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>29 April</td>
<td>Decision on Tempus II (1994–98).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 May</td>
<td>Commission adopts guidelines for Community action in the field of education and vocational training.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 June</td>
<td>Conclusions on furthering an open European space for cooperation within higher education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 June</td>
<td>Resolution on education and vocational training in the 1990s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 June</td>
<td>Recommendation on access to continuing vocational training.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 July</td>
<td>European Parliament report (rapporteur: M. Elliott) on the memorandum on higher education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28 July</td>
<td>Joint opinion of the social partners on the actions and future role of the Community in the fields of education and training, taking account of the role of the social partners.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29 September</td>
<td>Adoption by the Commission of a Green Paper on the European dimension of education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29 October</td>
<td>Directive on the right of residence for students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29 October</td>
<td>The European Council (Brussels) establishes the seat of the European Training Foundation in Turin and decides to transfer the Cedefop seat from Berlin to Thessaloniki.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 December</td>
<td>Joint opinion of the social partners on women and vocational training.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 December</td>
<td>(Brussels) the Commission's White Paper on 'Growth, competitiveness, employment' contains a chapter on education and vocational training systems.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 April</td>
<td>Decision concerning the fourth framework programme of European Community activities in the field of research and technological development and demonstration (1994–98); Item 7, targeted socioeconomic research.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 June</td>
<td>Conclusions on the cultural and artistic aspects of education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 November</td>
<td>Communication from the Commission on 'Education and training in the face of technological, industrial and social challenges' with a view to implementing the guidelines contained in the White Paper on 'Growth, competitiveness, employment'.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 November</td>
<td>Conclusions on the promotion of voluntary service periods for young people.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Commissioners responsible

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year/Presidency</th>
<th>Main European and Community events</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DE</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>European Year of Road Safety and Young Drivers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FR</td>
<td>1 January: Austria, Finland and Sweden join the European Union, which now has 15 Member States.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ES</td>
<td>18 January: the European Parliament approves the new Commission under the presidency of Jacques Santer (LU).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20–21 March: adoption of the Stability Pact for central and eastern Europe.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 May: the Commission approves the 'Info 2000' programme for the development of a European multimedia content industry in the information society.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>26–27 June: the European Council (Cannes) confirms the changeover to the single currency on 1 January 1999.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15–16 December: the European Council (Madrid) fixes 29 March 1996 as the starting date for the intergovernmental conference (IGC), a three-stage scenario for the changeover to the single currency, which it names the 'euro.'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Community cooperation in the field of education and vocational training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5 December</td>
<td>resolution on the quality and attractiveness of vocational education and training.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 December</td>
<td>resolution on the promotion of education and training statistics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 December</td>
<td>decision establishing an action programme for the implementation of a European Community vocational training policy, Leonardo da Vinci.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>December</td>
<td>the European Training Foundation becomes operational in Turin.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>January</td>
<td>TFRH is transformed into a directorate-general: DG XXI 'Education, training and youth'.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 March</td>
<td>decision adopting the third phase of the 'Youth for Europe' programme.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 March</td>
<td>decision establishing the Community action programme 'Socrates'.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 March</td>
<td>resolution on improving and diversifying language learning and teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 March</td>
<td>resolution on cooperation in the field of youth information.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 June</td>
<td>conclusions on linguistic diversity in the EU.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 June</td>
<td>the Commission sets up a study group on education and training.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 July</td>
<td>conclusions on the importance and implications of the quality of vocational training.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 October</td>
<td>resolution on cooperation with third countries in the youth field.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 October</td>
<td>1996 is declared the 'European Year of Lifelong Learning'.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 October</td>
<td>decision concerning the conclusion of an agreement between the European Community and the United States of America establishing a cooperation programme in higher education and vocational education and training.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 October</td>
<td>resolution on the response of educational systems to the problems of racism and xenophobia.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 October</td>
<td>conclusions on participation in society, a quality factor in pre-university education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 November</td>
<td>European Parliament report (rapporteur: Doris Pack) on the recognition of diplomas for academic and professional purposes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27 November</td>
<td>decision concerning the conclusion of an agreement between the European Community and Canada establishing a cooperation programme in higher education and training.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29 November</td>
<td>the Commission adopts the White Paper 'Teaching and learning — towards the learning society'.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Main European and Community events

#### European Year of Lifelong Learning

**1996**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year/Presidency</th>
<th>Main Events</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IT</td>
<td>European Year of Lifelong Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IE</td>
<td>21–22 June: the European Council (Florence) lays down the objectives and timetable for the IGC and calls on the Commission to prepare an action plan on 'Learning in the information society'.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>24 July: the Commission adopts the Green Paper 'Living and working in the information society: people first'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13–14 December: European Council (Dublin). Declaration on employment.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### European Year against Racism and Xenophobia

**1997**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year/Presidency</th>
<th>Main Events</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NL</td>
<td>European Year against Racism and Xenophobia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LU</td>
<td>16 July: the Commission presents the financial perspectives 2000–06: 'Agenda 2000 — for a stronger and wider Europe'.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 October: signature of the Treaty of Amsterdam, enhancing Community action in several areas (social matters, environment, consumer protection, etc.) and widening Community competence to include employment etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Community cooperation in the field of education and vocational training

2 February: (Venice) informal meeting of education and employment ministers to discuss the White Paper on the learning society.

6 May: conclusions on: 1) the White Paper 'Teaching and learning — towards the learning society'; 2) the synergies between academic recognition and professional recognition of qualifications in the Community. Resolution on educational multimedia software in the fields of education and training.

15 July: resolution on the transparency of vocational training certificates.

2 October: the Commission adopts a Green Paper on 'Education, training, research: the obstacles to transnational mobility'.

2 October: launching of the action plan (1996–98) 'Learning in the information society'.

21 November: decision extending the duration of the Tempus programme to six years (until 1 July 2000).

20 December: conclusions on school effectiveness: strategies to promote success at school.

20 December: conclusions on a strategy for lifelong learning.

20 December: declaration on protection of children and countering paedophilia.

17 February: conclusions on local community development through education and training.


June: European conference of education ministers (Warsaw) on cooperation between the European Union and the countries of central and eastern Europe.

22 September: conclusions concerning: 1) education, information and communication technology and teacher-training for the future; 2) the communication concerning the White Paper 'Teaching and learning: towards the learning society'; 3) safety at school.

2 October: signature of the Treaty of Amsterdam. Special provision on education in the preamble: 'To promote the development of the highest possible level of knowledge for their peoples through wide access to education and through its continuous updating'.

12 November: the Communication from the Commission 'Towards a Europe of knowledge' sets out guidelines (2000–06) for future Community action in the field of education and vocational training.

16 December: Council resolution on the early teaching of European Union languages. Council conclusions on the evaluation of quality in school education. Declaration on respecting diversity and combating racism and xenophobia.
### Main European and Community events

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year/Presidency</th>
<th>Main European and Community events ()</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1998</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK 15–16 June</td>
<td>the European Council (Cardiff) lays down objectives for the EU in terms of pursuing economic reform and promoting growth, employment and social inclusion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AT 11–12 December</td>
<td>the European Council (Vienna) adopts employment guidelines for 1999 and decides to reinforce the process of convergence of employment policies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1999</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DE 1 January</td>
<td>official launch of the euro.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FI 15 March</td>
<td>collective resignation of the Santer Commission.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 May: entry into force of the Amsterdam Treaty.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5 May: the European Parliament approves the appointment of Romano Prodi as President of the Commission.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3–4 June: the European Council (Cologne) appoints Javier Solana as High Representative for the CFSP and Secretary-General of the Council. It adopts the European Employment Pact, establishes the mandate for the next IGC, and decides that a charter of fundamental rights of the European Union should be drawn up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15 September: the European Parliament approves the appointment of the new Commission.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8 December: Commission Communication 'eEurope — an information society for all'.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10–11 December: the European Council (Helsinki) opens negotiations with the six central and eastern European countries not yet involved (Bulgaria, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Romania and Slovakia). It recognises Turkey as a candidate country.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2000</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PT 14 February</td>
<td>opening of the IGC on institutional reform.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FR 24 March</td>
<td>the European summit in Lisbon defines a new economic, social and environmental strategy for the Union. The aim is to strengthen employment, economic reform and social cohesion in a learning economy. Education and training are major items in this new strategy.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Community cooperation in the field of education and vocational training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25 May</td>
<td>four ministers (DE, FR, IT, UK) adopt the Sorbonne declaration (marking its 800th anniversary). Minister Claude Allègre proposes setting up a 'European area of higher education' by harmonising structures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June</td>
<td>conference of European Education Ministers. Launching of a project on quality indicators.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 July</td>
<td>adoption of the Community action programme 'European voluntary service for young people'.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 September</td>
<td>recommendation on European cooperation on quality assurance in higher education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 December</td>
<td>decision on the promotion of European pathways in work-related training (Europass-Training).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 April</td>
<td>adoption of the second phase of the Leonardo da Vinci programme.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29 April</td>
<td>adoption of the third phase of the Tempus programme (2000–06).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 June</td>
<td>30 countries adopt the Bologna declaration on the development of a European area of higher education (reform of the structures of higher education systems to achieve convergence).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 June</td>
<td>(Budapest) conference of European education ministers on 'Education and economy — a new partnership'. Presentation of a first report on quality indicators.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>September</td>
<td>creation of the Education and Culture DG (incorporating culture and audiovisual policy)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 September</td>
<td>Commission report on the implementation, results and evaluation of the European Year of Lifelong Learning (1996).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 December</td>
<td>resolution of the Council and of the ministers for youth on the non-formal education dimension of sporting activities in the European Community youth programmes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 December</td>
<td>resolution on 'Into the new millennium': developing new working procedures for European cooperation in the field of education and training.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 January</td>
<td>adoption of the second phase of the Socrates programme (2000–06).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 April</td>
<td>adoption of the 'Youth' programme (2000–06).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23–24 March</td>
<td>(Lisbon) the European Council asks the Council ('Education') to undertake a general reflection on the concrete future objectives of education systems, with a view to contributing to the Luxembourg and Cardiff processes and presenting a full report to the European Council in spring 2001.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 May</td>
<td>Commission communication on e-learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year/Presidency</td>
<td>Main European and Community events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000 PT</td>
<td>21–23 July: the G8 meeting in Okinawa (Japan) discusses globalisation, information and communication technologies, health, education and cultural diversity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7–9 December: the European Council (Nice) proclaims the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union, gives its support to the process of accession of the candidate countries, and approves the European social agenda. The IGC finishes with political agreement on the Treaty of Nice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001 SE</td>
<td>European Year of Languages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>26 February: the Treaty of Nice is signed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11 September: unprecedented terrorist attack on the WTC towers in New York.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14–15 December: the European Council (Laeken) adopts a declaration on the future of the European Union and decides to convene a convention on the subject (to be chaired by Valéry Giscard d’Estaing).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
19–20 June: (Santa Maria da Feira) the European Council calls for the identification of coherent strategies and practical measures with a view to encouraging lifelong learning.

18–20 June: (Bucharest) conference of European education ministers ('Social cohesion and quality — a challenge for education'). European report on the quality of school education.

21 June: reform of the Structural Funds. Reduction in the number of objectives from six to three: Objective 3 (horizontal) consists of support for the adaptation and modernisation of education and training policies.


14 December: resolution concerning an action plan for mobility.

14 December: resolution on the social inclusion of young people.

14 December: adoption of the action plan for mobility.

31 January: Commission report on the concrete future objectives of education and training systems (follow-up to Lisbon).

12 February: recommendation on European cooperation in quality evaluation in school education.

12 February: the Education Council adopts a report on the concrete future objectives of education systems (follow-up to Lisbon), which is approved by the European Council (Stockholm) on 23–24 March 2001. The European Council calls for a work programme to be drawn up on the basis of this report.

26 February: decisions renewing the programmes of cooperation in higher education and vocational training between the European Community and the USA and Canada respectively.

28 March: adoption by the Commission of the 'eLearning action plan — designing tomorrow’s education'.

10 May: first European summit on e-learning.

19 May: meeting of the ministers responsible for higher education in Prague. Follow-up to the Bologna process.

28 June: resolution on promoting young people’s initiative, enterprise and creativity: from exclusion to empowerment.

28–30 June: conference of European education ministers on ICT, Riga.


13 July: resolutions of the Education Council on: 1) the role of education and training in employment-related policies; 2) e-learning; 3) follow-up to the report on the concrete future objectives of education and training systems.
### Year/Presidency | Main European and Community events
--- | ---
**2001**
SE  
BE

| 2002 | 1 January: the euro comes into circulation in the 12 euro area countries.  
ES  
DK | 28 February: inaugural session of the Convention on the future of the Union.  

15–16 March: the European Council (Barcelona), following up the Lisbon strategy, confirms and consolidates the Lisbon guidelines of 2000 with a view to achieving full employment and a competitive learning economy.  

23 July: the ECSC Treaty expires.
Community cooperation in the field of education and vocational training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>27–28 October</td>
<td>The directors-general for vocational training meet in Bruges (Belgium) and launch the process of strengthening their cooperation in the field of vocational education and training.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 November</td>
<td>Commission communication on ‘Making a European area of lifelong learning a reality’.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 November</td>
<td>Adoption by the Commission of a White Paper on youth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 December</td>
<td>Resolution on the social inclusion of young people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 February</td>
<td>Adoption by the Commission of the skills and mobility action plan.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 February</td>
<td>Conclusions on the follow-up to the report on the concrete future objectives of education and training systems, with a view to the preparation of a joint Council/Commission report to be presented to the European Council in spring 2002 (follow-up to Lisbon).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 February</td>
<td>The work programme on the future objectives of education and training systems is adopted jointly by the Council and the Commission.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 February</td>
<td>Resolution on the added value of voluntary activity for young people in the context of the development of Community action on youth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 February</td>
<td>Resolution on the promotion of linguistic diversity and language learning in the framework of the implementation of the objectives of the European Year of Languages 2001.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 February</td>
<td>European Parliament report (rapporteur: M. de Sarnez) on cooperation with third countries in the field of higher education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15–16 March</td>
<td>The European Council (Barcelona) approves the work programme in response to the report on the concrete future objectives of education and training systems; it sets the objective of making European education and training systems a world quality reference by 2010.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 May</td>
<td>Decision amending the decision of April 1999 (Tempus III, 2000–06) to allow regional cooperation throughout the Euro-Mediterranean region. Resolution on lifelong learning. Resolution on European cooperation in the youth field.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 May</td>
<td>The Council ('Development') adopts a resolution on education and poverty.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 June</td>
<td>Council resolution on skills and mobility.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 June</td>
<td>Commission report on secondary school twinning via the Internet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17–18 June</td>
<td>Informal meeting of the education ministers of the EU and candidate countries in Bratislava on the subject of ‘Education for the new millennium’. Decision allowing candidate countries to participate in the work programme on the future objectives of education and training systems.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The history of European cooperation in education and training

Europe in the making – an example

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year/Presidency</th>
<th>Main European and Community events</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
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<tr>
<td>ES</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>DK</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EL</td>
<td>26 January: the Year of People with Disabilities 2003 is launched in Athens.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT</td>
<td>1 February: the Treaty of Nice enters into force.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19 March: the European Parliament endorses the accession in 2004 of Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16 April: the accession treaty between the EU and these 10 countries is signed in Athens.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20–21 June: the European Council meets in Thessaloniki. The preliminary draft EU Constitution is welcomed as a starting point for negotiations on the future of Europe.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18 July: the convention on the future of Europe presents a draft Treaty establishing a Constitution for Europe to the President of the European Council.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4 October: the IGC on the preparation and adoption of the first European Constitution is held in Rome. Several Member States ask for changes to the draft proposed by the convention.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
27 June: Council resolution on lifelong learning.

5 September: resolutions of the European Parliament on: 1) the Commission communication on lifelong learning; 2) higher education in the European learning area.

26 September: the European Day of Languages is celebrated for the first time, and will be held on the same date each year in order to promote language learning across Europe.

4 November: the Commission launches a public consultation on the future of Community education, vocational training and youth programmes.


12 November: resolution of the Council (‘Education’) on enhanced cooperation in vocational education and training.

13 November: the Commission launches a public consultation on the promotion of language learning and linguistic diversity.

20 November: the Commission adopts a communication on ‘European benchmarks in education and training: follow-up to the Lisbon European Council’.

30 November: Copenhagen ministerial declaration on enhanced European cooperation in education and vocational training.


10 January: the Commission adopts a communication on ‘Investing efficiently in education and training: an imperative for Europe’.

16 January: agreements signed between the Commission and the Turkish government on the participation of Turkey in Community programmes as from 2004.

5 February: the Commission adopts a communication on the role of the universities in the Europe of knowledge.


5 March: the Commission launches the Ploteus portal on education and training opportunities throughout Europe.
The history of European cooperation in education and training
*Europe in the making — an example*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year/Presidency</th>
<th>Main European and Community events ()</th>
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</table>

**2003**

|  | 
|---|---|
| EL |  |
| IT |  |

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**2004**  *European Year of Education through Sport 2004*

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<td>IE</td>
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<td>NL</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

1 May: the accession treaty enters into force, and the biggest enlargement of the European Union becomes reality, with 10 new Member States (Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Malta, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia) and more than 100 million citizens joining the EU.

5 May: formal approval of the 10 new Commissioners by the European Parliament. The Council of Ministers has also formally appointed the 10 new Commissioners.
21 March: at the initiative of the members of the convention, today is designated as 'Spring Day in Europe' devoted to providing information in schools on the work of the convention.

5 May: Council conclusions on reference levels of European average performance in education and training (benchmarks); five quantified objectives are set, to be achieved by 2010.

5 May: Council resolution on equal opportunities for pupils and students with disabilities in education and training.

27–28 June: (Nicosia, Cyprus) meeting of the education ministers of the Union and candidate countries to discuss the quality of education and active citizenship.

18–19 September: (Berlin) meeting of ministers responsible for higher education (Bologna process follow-up). They adopt a communiqué on the enhancement and follow-up of the process.

11 November: Commission’s communication on the implementation of the work programme ‘Education and training 2010: the success of the Lisbon strategy hinges on urgent reforms’ (draft Council/Commission joint interim report).

25 November: Council resolution ‘Making school an open learning environment to prevent and combat early school leaving and disaffection among young people and to encourage their social inclusion’.


5 December: decision of the European Parliament and of the Council establishing the Erasmus Mundus programme (2004–08) for the enhancement of quality in higher education and the promotion of intercultural understanding through cooperation with third countries.


21 January: the Commission publishes its 2004 report on ‘Progress towards the common objectives in education and training (indicators and benchmarks)’.

26 February: Council decision laying down the rules of the advisory committee on vocational training.

26 February: adoption by the Council of the joint Council and Commission report on ‘Education and training 2010’: the success of Lisbon hinges on urgent reforms

Ján Figel’ — SK (since November 2004)
17–18 June: the European Council (Brussels) recognises Croatia as a candidate country for EU membership.

29 June: the Heads of State or Government formally appoint José Manuel Barroso, the Portuguese Prime Minister, as the President-designate of the Commission. Javier Solana is appointed Secretary-General of the Council and High Representative for the CFSP. It is also decided that Javier Solana will be appointed EU Foreign Affairs Minister on the day the Constitution enters into force.

20–23 July: plenary part-session of the 6th European Parliament. On 22 July it approves the appointment of José Manuel Barroso as the new Commission President.

12 August: the President-designate of the Commission assigns portfolios to the 24 Commissioners-designate.

26 October: Mr Barroso withdraws his proposal for the composition of the new European Commission.

29 October: the Heads of State or Government and foreign affairs ministers sign in Rome the Treaty establishing a Constitution for Europe.

3 November: the high-level group chaired by Wim Kok on the mid-term review of the Lisbon strategy delivers its report, calling for more determined commitment on the part of the Member States.


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**2005**

**European Year of Citizenship through Education (Council of Europe)**

2 February: the Commission adopts a position on the mid-term review of the Lisbon strategy: 'Working together for growth and jobs — a new start for the Lisbon strategy' 

12 April: the Commission adopts integrated guidelines for growth and jobs, combining the broad economic policy guidelines (BEPGs) and the employment guidelines.

29 May: in a referendum, France votes against the Treaty establishing a Constitution for Europe.

1 June: in a referendum, the Netherlands rejects the Treaty establishing a Constitution for Europe.
### Community cooperation in the field of education and vocational training

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<td>Resolution of the Council and of the representatives of the governments of the Member States meeting within the Council on guidance throughout life in Europe.</td>
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<td>Council conclusions on quality assurance in education and vocational training.</td>
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<td>18 May</td>
<td>Conclusions of the Council and of the representatives of the governments of the Member States meeting within the Council on common European principles for the identification and validation of non-formal and informal learning.</td>
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<td>24–25 June</td>
<td>Meeting of the education ministers of the European Union and the candidate countries on ‘lifelong learning: from rhetoric to reality’.</td>
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<td>17 November</td>
<td>11 higher education institutions receive the ECTS label at the first European meeting of Bologna promoters.</td>
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<td>23 November</td>
<td>Conclusions of the Council and of the representatives of the governments of the Member States meeting within the Council on the future priorities of enhanced European cooperation in vocational education and training.</td>
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<td>‘Education and citizenship’ report of the Council (‘Education, youth and culture’) on the more general role of education and its cultural aspects.</td>
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<td>The Commission adopts a communication on new education and training indicators (as part of the implementation of the Lisbon process).</td>
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<td>Adoption by ministers of the Maastricht communiqué on the future priorities of enhanced European cooperation in vocational education and training (review of the Copenhagen declaration of November 2002).</td>
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<td>Launching of the e-Twinning initiative (partnerships between schools in Europe based on the use of ICT), one of the main actions of the eLearning programme.</td>
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<td>Practical launch (in Luxembourg) of the Europass, the single Community framework for the transparency of qualifications and competences.</td>
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<td>Conclusions of the Council on education and training in the framework of the midterm review of the Lisbon strategy.</td>
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<td>July</td>
<td>The Commission launches a process of consultation on the development of a European framework for qualifications and skills for lifelong learning.</td>
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<td>Commission’s communication on the European indicator of language competence.</td>
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<td>Commission proposal for a recommendation on key competences for lifelong learning.</td>
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<td>Adoption by the European Parliament and the Council of a recommendation on further European cooperation in quality assurance in higher education.</td>
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<td>Adoption by the Commission of a communication to the European Council on the creation of an European Institute of Technology.</td>
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This book tells the story — one could almost call it an adventure — of how a ‘Europe of education and training’ has gradually been constructed. In so doing, and by focusing on this one specific area of policy, it also provides a concrete example of the process of building Europe itself.

European integration may often seem a technocratic business, in the hands of remote institutions responsible for mainly macroeconomic policies whose benefits are not immediately felt by the public at large. The principal merit of this book is to remind the reader that, over the years, a different ‘Europe’ has also been created, one which connects with its citizens and reaches out directly to a great many people. How widely is it known, for example, that almost 1.5 million students have received an Erasmus grant since the programme began?

The book also explains how this was achieved, thanks to the commitment of all institutional partners at European and national levels and, in particular, the involvement of the world of education out in the field. The Europe of education and training has thus followed a developmental path very much of its own, starting with the first action programme of February 1976 and continuing through a number of major steps such as the first inclusion of education, in 1992, in the Maastricht Treaty. But some of the strategies described in this book also illustrate a dual approach to the building Europe which underlies the European construction process in other areas too: the reader will learn, for example, how the instruments for concrete action — major programmes with increasing budgets (Comett, Erasmus, Lingua, Socrates, Leonardo da Vinci, and so on) — have developed alongside initiatives involving strengthened political cooperation, in particular since the Lisbon European Council of March 2000. From its more detached vantage point, this work thus puts into perspective the impatience of those who feel that Europe is not progressing quickly enough: in fact, a very great deal has been achieved.

Of course, building a Europe of knowledge is not without its problems, and it was clear that no one could have been better placed to describe the different phases of this delicate process than some of those most directly involved. The group set up to accompany the writing of this book comprised people who had been at the cutting edge of this venture. It is therefore founded on very solid experience. The team — and most particularly the author, Luce Pépin — deserve our full appreciation for this important work.