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**For a
Community policy
on education**

Report by Henri Janne

**EUROPEAN COMMUNITIES
Commission**

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Preface

The Commission of the European Communities, realizing that its responsibility for developing Community policies extends to the field of education, and wishing to set targets for the enlarged Community, asked Professor Henri Janne¹ on 19 July 1972 to formulate the first principles of an education policy at Community level.

Professor Janne presented his report on 27 February 1973. This, then, is a report drafted by a non-Commission expert which does not simply indicate the directions which a future Community education policy might take but goes beyond this to state ways and means in which the Community might achieve these aims.

The Members of the Commission of the European Communities welcomed the report enthusiastically and are agreed in stressing the importance of Professor Janne's work—particularly as the new Commission attaches so much significance to the questions of education policy it has to deal with. This exactly illustrates the principle of the Paris Summit Conference, that economic expansion is not an end in itself.

The Commission will take up Professor Janne's suggestions within the framework of Community procedures, but apart from this the report deserves the interest and attention of the general public, from whom criticism and suggestions are invited².

Ray Janne

¹ Former Belgian Minister of Education, Head of the Collège scientifique de l'Institut de sociologie and Head of the Institut d'études européennes, both of the Free University of Brussels, and Chairman of the preparatory committee for "Europa 2000", the projected European cultural foundation.

² Please write to : Commission of the European Communities, Directorate-General for Research, Science and Education, rue de la Loi 200, B-1040 Brussels.

I. Introduction

A prospecting mission

By a decision of 19 July 1972 the Commission of the European Communities instructed us to pinpoint for it the basic elements of an education policy at Community level and for this purpose to consult leading figures in a position to express opinions and blaze the trail in this matter.

We undertook to submit our report in February 1973.

The first step was, of course, to draw up the list of outstanding authorities to be consulted. This was done by mutual agreement with Mr Mercereau, the leader of the working party on 'Teaching and Education' which, in the preceding Commission, was under the aegis of Mr Spinelli.

The first criterion was that the personalities to be questioned must naturally be citizens of the European countries, the majority being engaged moreover in educational 'experiments' of significance for the future in Community countries. Consequently, in addition to nationals, we find among them Norwegians and Swedes. We then added the United States (for a single leading figure playing an outstanding role through his international initiatives in this connection). In principle—and this is the second criterion—the persons to be questioned should not at present bear central political or administrative responsibilities at national level in any member country of the Community.

The leading figures listed may be classified into two categories. Some have been chosen on account of their recognized competence as regards specific problems of education which are more particularly international and European and relate to aspects of innovation or sectors passing through a crisis; the others are persons who can express interesting opinions

owing to their influence in other fields or to responsibilities with which they have been invested in the recent past.

We give below the list of authorities we have been able to consult on this basis, in the order in which we met them:¹

Brugmans, Hendrik

Retiring Rector of the College of Europe, Bruges. Retiring president of the Association of Institutes of European Studies and Research. First President of the European Union of Federalists.

King, Alexander

Director-General of Scientific Affairs with the OECD (Paris). Member of the 'Club of Rome'.

MacLure, Stuart

Editor of the 'Times Educational Supplement' (London).

Tinbergen, Jan

Nobel Prize-winner for economics. Professor at the School of Advanced Economic Studies (Rotterdam). Founder member of the European Movement. Former President of the Academic Board of the College of Europe (Bruges).

¹ The 'titles' which follow the names are incomplete: they are solely those chosen with our mission in mind.

² Professor Galtung (Oslo) preferred not to be consulted. Furthermore, unfavourable circumstances, over which we had no control, and which we personally deplore, prevented us from meeting Professors Halsey (Oxford), Edgar Morin (Paris), Leopold Elia (Rome) and Idenburg (Amsterdam). It can be seen that, on the whole, in a limited time, during which it was hardly a simple matter to arrange the necessary appointments in view of each person's engagements, we managed to hold the planned consultations on a scale we had not dared hope for. We owe this largely to the Commission departments (Brussels) under Mr Mercereau and to the diligence of the Commission services in Paris and London.

Poignant, Raymond

Director of the International Institute for Educational Planning (UNESCO, Paris). Former rapporteur of the Commission for schooling facilities with the Commissariat du Plan (1958-1963).

Peccei, Aurelio

President of 'Italconsult' and Promoter-President of the 'Club of Rome'.

Gozzer, Giovanni

Director of the 'Centro Europeo dell'Educazione'. Villa Falconieri (Frascati).

Orsello, Dott. Gian Piero

Responsible for education problems in the Partito Socialista Italiano (Rome) and for the review 'L'Italia e l'Europa, Rassegna di Diritto Europeo' (Rome).

Visalberghi, Aldo

Professor of Educational Sciences and Director of the Centre for Research into Educational Techniques (University of Rome). Member of the governing committee of CERI (Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, OECD).

Leussink, Prof. H.

Former Minister of National Education and Science (German Federal Republic).

Perkins, James

President of the International Council for Educational Development (New York). Author of outstanding studies on American universities.

Goriely, Georges

Professor of Sociology in the University of Brussels. Vice-President of the Institute of European Studies. Professor in the University of Saarbrücken. Specialist in questions of European politics.

Cazes, Bernard

Rapporteur of the Group for forward planning studies of the VIth Plan (Commissariat au Plan, Paris).

Crozier, Michel

In charge of research at the CNRS (National Centre for Scientific Research). Specialist in the sociology of organizations and industrial relations (Paris).

Lichnerowicz, André

Professor. Mathematician. Moving spirit behind the 'Colloque de Caen'. General Rapporteur of the Symposium on European cooperation between universities (Grenoble, 1971).

Schwartz, Bertrand

Promoter of the principle of, and experiments in, permanent education. President of the Directing Group on Permanent Education at the Council of Europe.

Ashby, Eric

President of the Royal Commission on Environmental Pollution. Former Vice-Chancellor of the University of Cambridge. Former member of the Universities Grants Committee. Former vice-president of the Association of Commonwealth Universities. Former president of the British Association for the Advancement of Science.

Friedrichs, Günter

Leading member of the trade union I.G. Metall (Frankfurt) and promoter of the Oberhausen Congress on the 'Quality of life' (11 to 14 April 1972). Vierte Internationale Arbeitstagung der I.G. Metall. Responsible for training problems.

von Weizsäcker, Prof. C.F. Freiherr

Director of the Max-Planck-Institut für Erforschung der Lebensbedingungen der wissenschaftlich-technischen Welt (Starnberg near Munich).

Hoggart, Richard

Assistant Director-General in UNESCO for the Social Sciences, the Humanities and Culture. Author of 'The Uses of Literacy' (London 1957).

Grosser, Alfred

Director of Studies of the third cycle at the Foundation Nationale des Sciences politiques, Professor at the Institut des Études Politiques, Paris.

Sloman, Albert Edward

Vice-Chancellor of the University of Essex, President of the Conference of European Rectors and Vice-Chancellors, Vice-President of the International Association of Universities, member of the Economic and Social Committee of the EEC.

Berthoud, Sir Eric and Blackburn, Robert

as leaders of the International Council of United World Colleges and as promoters of the international baccalauréat.

Briggs, Prof. Asa

Vice-Chancellor of the University of Sussex. Former member of the Princeton Institute for Advanced Study.

Edding, Prof. Friedrich

Specialist in the economics of education (Institut für Bildungsforschung in der Max Planck Gesellschaft, Berlin).

Becker, Helmut

Director of the Institut für Bildungsforschung in der Max Planck Gesellschaft, (Berlin).

Eide, Kjell

Official in charge of planification in the Norwegian Ministry 'Kirke-og Undervisnings-department' (Church and Education Ministry).

Representative and expert in the specialized committees of the Council of Europe. President of the CERI (Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, OECD).

Löwbeer, Hans

Chancellor of the Swedish universities (Stockholm). Prior to that, senior official in the central education policy bodies, in which he played a very active role.

Husén, Prof. Torsten

Institute for the Study of International Problems in Education (University of Stockholm). Chairman of the Directing Committee of the International Institute for Educational Planning (UNESCO). President of the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement.

Piganiol, Pierre

President of the 'Futuribles'. Entrusted with various leading missions for scientific research since the last world war.

Rovan, Joseph

Promoter of the 'People and Culture' movement. Promoter and administrator of international relations, particularly between France and Germany (Franco-German Youth Office). Author of 'L'Europe' (ed. du Seuil, 1966).

Kristensen, Thorkill

Director of the 'Institutet for Fermtids-forskning' (Copenhagen) — problems of peace. Former Minister and former Secretary-General of OECD.

Petersen, K. Helveg

Former Minister of National Education and Culture (Copenhagen).

Niveau, Maurice

Economist. Rector of the Academy of Grenoble.

With a view to ensuring a certain homogeneity in the subjects covered by the discussion with our opposite numbers, the conversations were held with reference to two documents drawn up for this purpose in agreement with Mr Mercereau:

- (i) a 'Background Note' defining the major data on the European context of the problems of education;
- (ii) a 'Memo of Talks' listing a number of practical points which a European and supra-national education policy would necessarily have to cope with.

These two documents are to be found in the Annex.¹ It goes without saying that we stressed the fact that the points appearing in these notes had no limiting character but were intended purely as guidance.

Preliminary remarks

Our mission: a stage

First of all it is fitting to recall that our mission constitutes only one stage in a process which sooner or later must take the form of a Community policy—more or less broad and active—in the field of education.

A memorandum of Mr Spinelli's to the Commission throws full light on this process: 'Balance-sheet and prospects of the activity of the Working Party on teaching and education'. This concludes by presenting, so to speak as its natural extension, a 'draft memorandum from the Commission to the Council of the European Communities for Community action in the cultural field'.²

It thus appears that with regard to education properly so called the administration of the Commission of the Communities already included two bodies (by Commission Decision of 27 July 1971):

- (i) the Working Party on Teaching and Education, which included four category A officials under Mr Mercereau, Principal Adviser and at that time directly responsible to Mr Spinelli;
- (ii) the Interdepartmental Working Party on Coordination, formed of representatives of the Directorates-General concerned in questions of teaching and education, under the chairmanship of Mr Mercereau.

This is not the place for us to review the balance-sheet of the activities of these bodies. Apart from this administrative cell and coordination, the 'Europe of education' has made itself felt in the following preliminaries:

- (i) The Ministers of Education of the six met for the first time in a Community setting on 16 November 1971 (representative of the Commission Mr Spinelli);

¹ Annex, p. 57-59.

² 230th meeting of the Commission (6 December 1972).

(ii) The Convention for a 'European University Institute' was signed at Florence on 19 April 1972 and the preparatory measures have led to studies which tend to be at inter-governmental level (at least with regard to the first stage of development of the institution);¹

(iii) The Ministers decided that a fresh approach should be attempted to the questions of the equivalence of degrees and diplomas; these questions are today deadlocked;²

(iv) A committee of senior officials has been instructed to study the proposal of the French Minister (Mr Guichard) with a view to the creation of a 'European Centre for the Development of Education' and, without confining itself to this point, to make suggestions with a view to active cooperation in educational matters. Here too, Community solutions and intergovernmental procedures are visibly in opposition to each other;

(v) European schools are functioning where the needs of a sufficient number of children of officials and technicians of Community institutions have justified their creation (but they are open to national and foreign pupils who do not belong to the category of children for which they were founded). Let us not lose sight of the fact that they constitute a prototype with regard to the conferring of the European baccalaureat and the use of several languages in teaching;

(vi) A European Community Institute for University Studies functions under Community patronage and with the aid of an international foundation. Although very limited in size it has produced a few very useful studies with regard to problems of higher education and the exercise of professional activities at university level;³

(vii) Mention must also be made of the College of Europe (Bruges), although its links with the European Communities are not organic (postgraduate studies: about fifty students each year).

At the level of principles a great step forward has therefore been made, but the practical

developments are very limited in importance, extremely slow, and treated, in general, in accordance with 'intergovernmental' procedures.

In our opinion this complex constitutes, however, the irreversible recognition of an educational dimension of Europe and the irreversible initial movement towards an education policy at European Community level (since there is no question of denying the 'national fact' and the value of cultural diversity, which has strong roots, in this field).

Meanwhile, this interpretation has received an additional sanction:

The establishment of the enlarged Commission Community has confirmed the Community powers with regard to education, associating them, moreover, with scientific policy (see page 12-13—we consider that this link has been established and is of an organic character). It is Mr Dahrendorf who will assume them from now on within the Commission.

The new administrative structure strengthens and institutionalizes the competent departments by the creation of a Directorate-General.

Fields of application of the Treaty which are inseparable from an education policy

Without going into details which would not fall either within our terms of reference or our

¹ We may note the modest beginning planned for it: 40 to 50 students at postgraduate level, to be increased finally to 250.

² A distinction should be made between a directive with a view to a mutual recognition degrees and diplomas in accordance with Article 57 of the Treaty, which directive deals with the conditions of training (diplomas, in-service training, practical studies, State examinations) with a view to the exercise of a profession, and an agreement on the academic equivalence of degrees and diplomas, which deals with the equality of the criteria for conferring degrees and diplomas with a view to the continuation of studies.

³ Mr Max Kohnstamm is in charge of this Institute.

competence, we wish to point out that the Community education policy is closely linked to fields in which the EEC is already committed by virtue of the Treaty of Rome itself.

Pursuant to Articles 118 and 128 of the Treaty, the Council, at the proposal of the Commission, laid down at its session of 26/27 July 1971 the general guidelines for the elaboration of a programme of activities at Community level concerning vocational training. These guidelines are motivated in particular in the following way: 'the economic, social, technical and pedagogic development in the Member States is leading the circles responsible to pose training questions in fresh terms, to consider the development of systems of education and measures of professional guidance and information according to methods better adapted to the aspirations and competence of the workers, bearing in mind the structure of the employment offered. A genuine awareness has emerged of the importance of the links between education and the economy and of the development of systems of further training and permanent or continuous education'.¹

Thus there is 'awareness' of the fact that the economic (and therefore 'professional') needs for training are not separable from the education system in general. Thus, as soon as this report is grasped from an international angle, it proves to be linked in addition with the problems of the right of establishment, the free movement of workers and, consequently, the question of the equivalences of degrees and diplomas and mobility with regard to studies. Now the right of establishment and the equivalence of degrees are subjects which also depend on the Treaty. It therefore appears that in fact the implementation of the Treaty of Rome postulates taking over the whole problem of the training of young people and adults as far as it is related to the needs of optimum economic development. In such a context, fragmentary approaches are necessarily destined to fail or to produce results without any great significance. Even more important, they may be in contradiction, some (from an exclusively educational viewpoint) with the objectives of

economic policy and the remainder (from an exclusively economic viewpoint) with the ultimate aims of the educational policy. All the relevant factors are interdependent here and the conclusions from this fact will certainly have to be drawn, without forgetting, moreover, that in this perspective the coherence of the national education policies must be sufficient within the Community, in the same way as that of the economic policies. Coherence in one field calls for coherence in the other, and an operation of 'approximation' or 'harmonization' of the policies—carried out with the necessary prudence—is indispensable.

All this in addition to the fact that, independently of the European aspect, one of the major tendencies of the revision of the education system in all our countries could be defined as follows: in a society undergoing permanent change in the scientific, technical and social fields, there is no longer any good vocational training which does not comprise a sound general training at all levels, and there is no longer any good general training which is not linked with concrete practice and, in principle, with real work.

Is this not, at the level of pedagogics as well as of the structures and contents of teaching, the expression of the ineluctable link between the educational (and cultural) factor on the one hand with the economic (and social) factor on the other?

What is true of general policy on the Community plane is even more so when it is a question of regional policy, which is assuming more and more importance in the Community framework. Thus, can one imagine the development of a region without taking into consideration the educational factor, the weakness of which is often one of the primary causes of stagnation or economic deterioration? Now, the present education policy at national level proper comprises the study of 'compensatory' methods for the benefit of regions or circles

¹ OJ C 81 of 12 August 1971.

which are underdeveloped in this respect...Yes, everything is of a piece here.

Similarly, can one contemplate any European economic integration, account being taken of the scientific and technical developments linked with the increasing size of enterprises, with their specialization, or with their multinational character, without a 'Europeanization' of the 'great'¹ universities? We understand by the term 'Europeanization' that the latter can conceive their recruitment of teachers, research workers and students, and their equipment—in a word their policy and initiatives—'as if' the Europe of the Nine constituted their normal space, after the style of the great American universities in their vast national territory...

Link between educational policy and cultural policy

One cannot leave out of account, either, the close link which exists between education and culture. In this connection, we refer to the memorandum presented by Mr Spinelli, which was already placed on the agenda of the Commission, and to which we referred above.²

Our report—let us emphasize this—does not deal with cultural policy. Nevertheless, as will be seen later on, several of the eminent authorities whom we have consulted stress the fact that education cannot be conceived of without fundamental values which alone confer a meaning upon it and define its ultimate aims. However, the system of values, whether it be grasped from the national angle (features of cultural diversity) or from the European angle (features of cultural homogeneity), constitutes the very substance of cultural policy. It is impossible not to take account of this fundamental relationship.

Therefore to the extent that—without prejudice to any decision—the Community might consider that it had to assume cultural functions at the European level, this sector of activity would have definite and reciprocal repercussions with regard to education policy. It

would be rather paradoxical that the cultural field in which there are already so many intra-European exchanges (spontaneous or in the setting of multilateral and bilateral agreements) should not be the subject of systematic promotion and coordination at Community level. The memorandum seems to us to be convincing in the circumstances by its definition of the sectors and activities in question (including the fields covered by the Treaty of Rome). The only point which holds our attention here is naturally the need for close coordination, right from the outset, with an education policy.

In addition, the very growth of leisure in volume and social importance implies wider participation by everybody in a culture which we hope will henceforth be woven into the very texture of daily life. For this purpose we need an education of young people and adults which leads them to aspire to such a culture conceived of as a way of life and makes them apt to practise it. And this further requires that cultural policy for its part should help to develop practices open to participation and not limit itself merely to diffusing 'show-culture' or 'heritage-culture' passively ingurgitated. It is, moreover, the same problem as for sport—an activity or a spectacle—but here its meaning is quite obvious. The dialectical relationship between cultural policy and educational policy constitutes an essential factor for their respective implementation. On this point would not the Community 'level'—which has the privilege of not being encumbered with traditional routines—be the best possible 'place' for the conception and application of solutions?

Link between educational policy and scientific policy

At the very time when the Community is asking itself how the problems of education are to

¹ This does not always mean, far from it, the greatest in numbers...

² See the beginning of these Preliminary Remarks, page 9.

be dealt with, a turning point appears to be emerging as regards its scientific policy.

The starting point of this policy was nuclear physics and its biological correlations. This gave rise to the creation of one of the European Authorities: Euratom. The fusion of the Communities marked the beginning of a long period of difficulties which, since the quite recent meeting of the Ministers of Scientific Affairs, are on the road to a successful solution; it would seem possible for the achievements of Euratom to be developed.

In addition, it now seems that the question is raised of extending scientific policy to cover new problems which have become acute, in particular those of the environment and basic materials. Moreover, the need for appropriate bodies to work out and implement a Community research and development policy is making itself felt.

These concerns are so real that they found expression in the document 'Objectives and Resources for a Community Policy on Scientific Research and Technological Development'¹ adopted by the Commission in June 1972. This document contains concrete proposals for a Community research and development policy based on the new needs, problems and dangers which are appearing in the most advanced societies.

It would not be appropriate to repeat here the definition of the bodies suitable to help the central institutions of the Community in carrying out the tasks of conception, programming and preparation of research and development decisions or of the instruments by which to implement programmes of stimulation and the launching and management of the measures adopted. Let us recall the role of the 'Joint Research Centre' and the proposal to create a 'European Foundation for Science' as examples and without prejudice to the establishment of the latter.

How is it possible not to see that these problems are linked not only with economic policy and vocational training but above all

with education policy, especially where it concerns university teaching (which trains research workers and advanced technicians and participates in pure and applied research) and permanent education (refresher courses which have become more and more necessary for supervisory staff, research workers and technicians of industry and the public services)?

It can be seen that it is a whole Education-Culture-Science sector which must tomorrow be covered by a Community policy rendered indispensable by the requirements and consequences of the development of economic policy (with its social aspects).

Limits of this report

There was no choice but to place our survey in the wider context proper to it. However, as we have shown, it is in this context only as a stage and a component which will have to be synchronized with all the data coming from the other sources mentioned throughout the whole course of these preliminary remarks.

¹ Objectives and Resources for a Community Policy on Scientific Research and Technological Development. (Memorandum from the Commission to the Council submitted on 14 June 1972, document COM (72) 700 published as a Supplement 6/72 — Bull. EC.

II. Summary of the consultations

Use of consultative material

It would be impossible for this report to reproduce the wealth of facts, opinions and suggestions provided by some thirty talks, in a dozen European cities in eight countries.... The resultant document would be too voluminous for its purpose. It is a subject from which a fascinating book might be written. We were therefore not asked to present the views of our interlocutors, but, by basing ourselves on these views, to pinpoint the underlying principles of a Community education policy.

Our use of notes we have made must therefore be strictly limited to this sole end, regretting that we have to leave out some of the most original ideas. When these are in fact put forward by one or two people, they have no operational value—however interesting they may be—unless they really open the way to a measure with a reasonable chance of being adopted at Community level. We are well aware of our essential personal responsibility in making such a choice. But surely that is the very basis of the task we have been instructed to carry out and have accepted, with all the risks involved.

The state of education in Western Europe

The 'Background Note' (see *Annex* 'Background Note, p. 57') attempted to diagnose this. The development of educational systems 'shows' the following features:

- (i) Teaching has become, at all levels, mass teaching;
- (ii) There is an increasingly keen wish for it to be democratized;
- (iii) The knowledge imparted is developing very rapidly;
- (iv) The mass media play a considerable role in education, which has ceased to be the monopoly of the actual teaching profession;
- (v) Individuals are better informed than in the past and wish to select and plan their own training.

Our interlocutors agreed with this view. But several of them pointed out that each of the features varies in intensity according to the country. The British observed that education in England, although quite in line with general trend of rapid growth, has not yet reached the point of 'mass teaching' and has certainly not assumed its characteristics, especially with regard to teacher-pupil relationships.¹

Von Weizsäcker draws attention to the essential consequences of the mass factor: the increasing heterogeneity of pupils and students at post-compulsory levels and their sense of dissatisfaction as regards the teaching received. Nevertheless, Edding notes the positive effects: we must not forget the progress towards an improved society through the spread of information and abilities. Rován emphasizes that the phenomena in question are very pronounced in France and much less so in Germany. He adds that audio-visual aids are already much more integrated into teaching

¹ Hoggart stresses the fact that it has been possible to preserve the tutorial system.

methods in Britain than in the other countries of the Community, with Federal Germany occupying an intermediate position.

It has also appeared that mass pressure leads to compensatory effects or 'counter phenomena' (Rovan). Thus, a new selection is emerging out of the general spread of a postgraduate level (Eide), while each level of higher education assumes a more definite identity while becoming more varied: the first level in particular tends to incorporate higher technical studies and to have an objective of its own. (Goriely)

Our talks enabled us to take account of factors to supplement the diagnostics:

(i) Education is a powerful (though latent) force working for social equality: a greater 'supply' of university graduates tends to reduce their remuneration, whereas the comparatively smaller supply of school-leavers who have completed their compulsory schooling or a little more tends to increase remuneration at this level (Tinbergen). But it is noted that a greater equality of opportunities in education is represented, for the same level of studies, by a greater inequality of chances in the occupational pattern as regards individuals, since this is where the differing social 'pull' of families plays its part (Cazes).

(ii) The previous point shows that, among the most marked factors of development, we must bear in mind the integration of graduates and school-leavers into occupations: trades are constantly altering and basic economic sectors undergo large-scale changes in importance (jobs in the primary sector—agriculture—are decreasing; there is an increase in the tertiary sector, especially in the case of office workers) (Lichnerowicz).

(iii) The principle of permanent education should have appeared among the basic trends: it is perhaps the fundamental factor for future changes (mainly: Löwbeer, Husén, Becker, Kristensen, Hoggart, Briggs and, of course, Bertrand Schwartz).

(iv) Helveg Petersen and Torsten Husén stress the non-integration of the teaching system into the real life of Society, the artificiality and 'severance from reality' characteristic of school life, and the sense of dissatisfaction and resultant lack of motivation among young people.

This may be related to the centralization and red tape in teaching (Crozier) leading to a prevalence of functional and depersonalized relationships (the quality of school relationships is therefore affected and genuine 'face-to-face' contact disappears). Furthermore, the large-scale increase in the number of teachers who are still receiving conventional training cannot but reduce their average value (Gozzer).

(v) This trend is reinforced by the fact that, for the young, information and culture are no longer the monopoly of the teaching profession, which in this connection faces the competition of the mass media (Eide), that the spread of the urban way of life is sapping the strength of the traditions which were formerly so powerful in the rural environment (Löwbeer), and that the most serious problems for the young, while having repercussions in school, arise primarily within the family, which is losing ground functionally, and, within this urban environment, which has become dominant: spare-time activities (Eric Ashby).

(vi) Most of our interlocutors stress the importance of the 'deschooling' concept in defining the trend of our teaching systems. Cazes sees it as an aspect of society's tendency to dismantle its structures in order to function in the future along more individualizing lines. While Cazes approves of the trend provided it is controlled, and others accept only the need for greater flexibility and even fragmentation into small units (Bertrand Schwartz and von Weizsäcker¹), the Germans unambiguously reject this in the main, preferring studies to be planned and organized (Günter Friedrichs)². They see deschooling as a major danger for the

¹ Here agreeing with the thesis of his son Ernst on the 'Baukasten Universität'.

² Gozzer also rejects deschooling as it loosens the indispensable bond between the generations.

unity of society and are afraid that it presents the great social forces with the opportunity of manipulating individuals (Becker) and of arranging selection arbitrarily outside the safeguards of the school (Visalberghi). But Husén thinks deschooling is a normal reaction to bureaucracy (see above), whereas Becker perceives this concept (radically developed by Illich) as a first-rate instrument for criticizing the prevailing teaching system. At all events, what will no longer survive is the classroom system, which should be replaced by a poly-technic form of education tied to real work and the real environment of society without classification by yearly age groups (this indirectly links Becker with Petersen and Husén). The realization of these trends is conditional upon the granting of autonomy to educational establishments (Becker and also Torsten Husén). For Niveau, deschooling does not imply destructuring: principally it calls into question the role of the teaching staff and the, as it were, exclusive location of training in the conventional school. Unless it is to drift into chaos, deschooling requires the maintenance of strong structures in which the fundamental change is that of content. Besides, it would open teaching to the real use of the mass media and the new technologies of education, so far hampered by the rigidity of the school system.

(vii) We should also draw attention to the remarks of Lichnerowicz on the role of mathematical language, and his assertion that its development marks a transforming tendency of prime importance. Mathematics are ceasing to be 'tools' and 'prescriptions' suited to various branches of knowledge, and are tending to become 'general methodology' (the basic method of intellectual approach) in a world which is increasingly scientific and technical even where the social sciences are concerned.¹ This method of thinking—at least at an elementary level—is necessary for present-day man to understand and find his bearings in contemporary life; in the final analysis democracy is conditional upon this 'turn of mind' (otherwise there will be manipulation of 'helots' by 'sorcerers'). Piganiol expresses similar views...

To sum up, the wealth of ideas contributed by our interlocutors became apparent from the first subject. Let us recapitulate them one by one, for behind them may be discerned right away the concept of a new education policy thought out in depth:

- (i) The dialectical tension between equality of opportunities in education and equality of opportunities in occupational life (this is where the key role of the integration of graduates and school-leavers into the changing structure of the working population becomes apparent);
- (ii) The principle of permanent education;
- (iii) The non-integration of the teaching system into the real life of society; the separation of school and society, with all their consequences, in particular the sense of dissatisfaction and lack of motivation among young people;
- (iv) The increasingly bureaucratic nature of teaching and the depersonalization of relationships in School;
- (v) The end of the school's monopoly in information and culture in relation to young people (influence of the mass media and spare-time activities; the family's diminishing role; growth of the urban environment);
- (vi) The lack of motivation among young people;
- (vii) Controlled 'deschooling' as a factor of flexibility and as an instrument for criticizing the teaching system; the end of the 'class room system' and the granting of autonomy to educational establishments;
- (viii) Mathematical language as a basic method of intellectual approach, which it is necessary to master in a scientific and technical society.

¹ For, until recently, mathematics had been exclusive province only of the exact and natural sciences.

The cultural revolution and the problem of values

It is an obvious fact that there is a crisis of values in all societies. For some this is caused by the staggering changes due to their rapid scientific and technological progress, for others by changes affecting structures, ways of thought and way of life, in terms of their economic development and their 'modernization'. This is quite evident. Europe has not escaped this universal phenomenon, to which must be added the effects of a change in geographic, economic, social and political dimensions, which causes tension between the national values and the common European values arising out of practice itself or which attempts are being made to define. It is beyond doubt that the question of the cultural identity of Europe is at issue.

Moreover, it is apparent that this crisis brings the generations into conflict and that the gap between generations, or at least great differences in their attitudes have recurred throughout history. But, this time, the young have taken on some of the features of a 'social class'. They have their own cultural and ideological 'climate'. Whether it be Christianity, socialism or sex, they hold values which profoundly modify perspectives. The young are, more than ever before, an entity, and an entity which is finding itself. Thus, in a sense, they are a 'movement'. Of course, the young are neither a class nor really a movement and have no homogeneous ideology, but they have become a specific and original social unit (Goriely).

While the existence of the phenomenon is indisputable, with a difference in emphasis according to the society and the moment, its limits, causes, and the factors involved, are not clearly defined. It is not the purpose of this report to improvise in this respect. Nevertheless, it is part of our task, to the extent to which an overall view can be worked out, to harvest the personal reflections formulated by most of our interlocutors.

First of all Hoggart emphasizes that education and culture are inseparable—culture gives education its meaning. To the extent that culture ceases to be 'bourgeois' and hence directed towards economic achievements sanctioned by profit or by careers, it is this ultimate aim of studies itself which has been called in question and is losing its value in the eyes of young people.... There is a consequential tendency to change the idea of 'happiness'. Crozier shows that the image of success had hitherto been a cultural product of scientism and positivism which are concerned only with the 'measurable'.... According to Edding the current change is symbolised by criticism, rejection of, or at least grave doubts about, the economic growth in which the industrialized societies took such pride until recently. Now, on the contrary, there are anxieties about the destruction of the natural and urban environment (Peccei, Visalberghi and King), the inadequate response to collective needs (Cazes), the lack of 'quality of life' (most of our interlocutors¹) and how impossible it is for the man in the street to influence events (Cazes, Peccei). Democracy is failing, man takes no part in the decisions affecting him, he exists in a 'technosphere' (Peccei) over which he has no control, and is himself conditioned by 'gadgets' and mass communications.

And the young, put through the scholastic process in ever increasing numbers, are the first to become aware of this crisis, since they see it sharply through the deterioration in teaching and especially in the teacher-pupil relationship (Gozzer), through the swindle of equality of opportunities (Orsello) and through the way in which the school system is artificially segregated from the reality of society and of useful work (see above: Petersen and Husén). But above all it is the values of society which are questioned by the young.

¹ We should nevertheless point out that here Grosser considers we are the victim of a fashion which extends only to some groups of young people opposing the present-day system of society.

What in fact are these values? We must take care and confine ourselves to our subject, which is Europe.

To begin with, are there any values which are specifically European? And anyway, what has caused the current questioning of the European cultural system?

We shall first give the answer of James Perkins, our only American interlocutor. It is in fact likely that his comments will be somewhat detached and free from European ethnocentrism.

Perkins doubts whether specific European culture exists.¹ The Hispanic tradition has created a greater affinity between Spain and Latin America than the European one between Spain and Denmark or Germany. The Anglo-Saxon tradition has created a greater affinity between England, Australia, New Zealand, English-speaking Canada and the United States than the European one between England and Italy. And there are other similar examples...² The Europe which is being created is a 'marriage of necessity', but since this is an absolute necessity if this part of humanity is to survive as a valid civilisation, it is a foundation as solid as that of a common culture, which, in any case, did nothing to prevent the most atrocious national wars.³ If there is to be a culture which is genuinely European, it will be born of the jointly-experienced life of Europe and education will have to play a part in its creation. Teaching will be better able to do so if its inspiration is not drawn from an illusory past.

But—still according to Perkins—the European nations nevertheless have some constituents of culture in common. Granted, but these belong to 'Western' culture, so-called, which extends far beyond Europe and has been the basis of a new and vast, fairly homogeneous, culture: that of the industrialized world, which in particular includes the United States, Western Europe and the USSR. It even tends to include Japan, despite the specific nature of that country's culture⁴.

However, Perkins recalls that Western culture is founded on the axiom that man is in control

of his destiny. This culture is made up of a moral philosophy based on religion reconciled with the rationalism which produced science and with the idea of ineluctable and continuous progress.

What has caused the erosion, the 'weariness' and the questioning of this culture of the industrialized world?

(i) The two world wars.

(ii) Economic difficulties despite growth, and the discrepancy between qualifications and opportunities (cf. G. Friedrichs on this last point).

(iii) The impact of Freud, who showed the relativity of reason and the irrational bases of the mind and human action.

(iv) The henceforth non-cumulative character of knowledge, which calls into question conventional educational procedures and the real purpose of teaching (structured truths have been replaced by uncertainty and instability).

¹ This is supported by Goriely's remarks on the strength of the national cultures in modern Europe, a strength reinforced by the educational systems, which are controlled in the last resort by the States, and which are largely the products of the nationalistic ideology of the Universities. Lichnerowicz points out the dominance of culture over structural characteristics. For example he shows the wide differences in the character of bureaucracy depending on whether it is German (Prussian in origin), Russian (Byzantine in origin) or French ('classical' in origin — Roman law).

² At least, this specificity belonged to a distant past: after the XIIIth century, it undeniably crumbled... The unity of Europe was founded on Latin and religion, on communal and feudal structures spread over the whole European area in which the 'national' monarchies were only just emerging.

³ Niveau's ideas generally support this.

⁴ Peccei, while, while not denying that a culture of the industrialized world exists, nevertheless finds that it has a 'Western' European identity. There is so much bureaucracy in the Communist world that it has become dehumanized; the American world is falling apart because business, money, violence and fear are no longer restrained by puritan ethics; Japan is a very special case because of its traditional culture. Western Europe alone is still in harmony with the measure of Man and his diversity.

This invalidates the encyclopedism still prevalent in European schools (Brugmans).

(v) Scientific investigation into the universe and life, replacing traditional faith by methodical doubts and cosmologies, even rational by cosmogonies inaccessible to the mass of the uninitiated.

(vi) Disappearance of a genuine belief in an after life and the consequent impossibility of 'postponing justice'.

Von Weizsäcker, for his part, explains the current malaise by the fact that the young are aware of the means of action offered by Society to solve problems—and in actual fact we have defeated many of the ills of the traditional human condition—but that they have discovered the contradictions between words and action as far as values are concerned.

For, basically, young people are not really questioning the old values elaborated by European culture: democracy, equality, human dignity and the rights of man, Christian altruism, social solidarity, the desire for peace... Their indignation stems from the contrast between life in Society and these central values, and from the discrepancy between the behaviour of their elders and the attachment they claim to these values. They are protesting in particular against areas of poverty being accepted in the affluent society, and against the absence of real aid to the Third World even though large budgets are still devoted to armaments and wars are still being fought. What they are looking for is genuineness and an uncompromising definition of values, implying the necessity to conform to them, and to draw all the conclusions from them in the life of Society itself. The experience of this contrast is more vivid in well-to-do families, which have produced the largest number of militant 'contestors' (Eric Ashby).

This last analysis inclines one to accept Rovin's thesis: the crisis of the young is only the product of the crisis of their elders. It is a new 'treason of the intellectuals'. The neurosis is among the parents and teachers; it produces reactions in the young, who are worried

and need certainties. They are not erecting 'counter-cultures' (marginal and transitory phenomena), but it is their elders who are ceasing to believe in their own values. They have failed to offer the young a positive basis of action and have given the headlines to the critical debates on the Marxism and psychoanalysis which are undermining their own social order... A similar approach makes Visalberghi and Lichnerowicz say that Man must be involved in 'projects': his aspirations are not sufficiently satisfied by the increased consumption of goods and services.

Furthermore, teachers receive no preparation to fit them for integrating their action into a changing world: most of them, unlike doctors, for example, lack 'technical adjustment structures' and are unable to welcome innovations.

At grips with the questioning of values, with the mass of young people in school and with school bureaucracy, teachers are becoming 'conformists of social criticism' (Gozzer).

In any case, whether it is values themselves which are being questioned or the fact that actions and values do not correspond, analysis shows that the system of traditional values as created in Western Europe is badly shaken.

How should we reorientate ourselves ?

Two possibilities seem to emerge:

(i) The European culture should be based on the harmony of 'ecosystems' in which Man may again belong in equilibrium with Nature and may master his destiny through democratic participation and voluntarist control (Lichnerowicz) able to proscribe or master those techniques which unduly dominate the environment (certain industries) and social relationships (bureaucracy). These ideas were put forward several times and were developed in particular detail by Peccei and Visalberghi;

(ii) European culture should, in promoting its wealth of differences, be open on the world (especially the countries of the East and the Third World) in a spirit of cultural pluralism,

both internal and external¹ (Eide), of cooperation and of peace without ethnocentrism and without tending to economic domination (the opinion of most of our interlocutors, with an especially conclusive development by Kristensen).

These are the basic directions for education in so far as it ought to be influenced by the fact of Europe and the need to solve the crisis of culture and the young. Briggs and Eric Ashby put great stress on the fact that the objectives of education, in the existing instability of values, should be defined with the young and not for the young. In addition, it is for the older people to raise questions and suggest topics for the purpose of this encounter.

Lichnerowicz tackles the problem differently: when values are unstable and manifold, and in conflict as to the same objectives, education should be applied to developing the abilities of young people and to satisfying their personal aspirations as fully as possible. This means being pluralist for the purpose of the optimal development of the people one is endeavouring to fit for responsible choices. In short, when a system of values does not exist to create a framework for Man and to stimulate his activities, Man himself must be improved for the purpose of his subsequent choices. In support of this, Becker stresses the fact that, in changing situations, teaching must tend to the practical rather than the theoretical and that the participants must be trained to be open to manifold values.

These problems do not, in fact, constitute an alternative: to seek new directions, to decide on them with young people and to apply a personalized method of education for the purpose of developing abilities in a pluralist spirit, appear complementary to us.

As far as personalized teaching is concerned, Perkins points out that it should not be extended to the abandonment of responsibility as regards young people: personalization, in fact, too often cloaks capitulation or even intellectual bankruptcy: the fear of prescribing anything at all leaves everyone to study what

he likes as he likes, whereas, after all, young people lack experience and therefore the ability to make an independent choice. Deschooling has its limits, as we saw above (p. 15-16).

The statements of our interlocutors therefore provided some penetrating insights not to be ignored by those responsible for a Community education policy. Some dangers are brought to light, but also some very positive general directions. The problem of values cannot be neglected, despite the difficulties involved. But it appears possible to tackle it without being drawn into ideological debates in which political and social forces clash. And that is a very valuable pragmatic contribution.

¹ Von Weiszäcker observes that Europe is becoming more open to the cultures of other continents: the success of Zen, Yoga, etc.

Political aspects of the problem of education at Community level

The only points raised by our report from the political point of view are the following.

- (i) Our interlocutors' opinion on the extent of Community powers in education.
- (ii) The suggestions formulated on institutions.
- (iii) The type of powers to be assumed.
- (iv) The scope of this policy in terms of time (short, medium and/or long-term).

Extent of Community powers

Most of our interlocutors do not examine this problem: they consider the Treaty must be applied and the existing Institutions used to satisfy the needs to be recognized by the partners, in pursuance of the normal action of Community bodies. They do not see the need to add new provisions in order to create an education policy at Community level. Later on in the report they will be interested in the priorities to be given to the possible, very numerous, objectives of an education policy. Of course, they recognize at all events the need to apply Article 57 (equivalence of diplomas) and Articles 118 and 128 (vocational training).

Some interlocutors belonging to two countries which are new members of the Community (United Kingdom and Denmark) make the following remarks:

MacLure recalls that Britain's entry into the Community was accompanied by difficulties and opposition: in principle public opinion and socio-economic structures in Britain must generally be allowed to assimilate the consequences of the Treaty, without any interpretation which would increase intervention measures by the Community. This cautious attitude is also shared by Kristensen and Petersen, our two

Danish interlocutors, for whom the difficulties rising out of the 'complexities' of European agriculture are quite sufficient for the moment.

More especially as far as teaching is concerned, MacLure voices the anxiety that the Community might have more powers of intervention with regard to teaching than has the British Government itself in a situation in which autonomous status is a feature of educational establishments. He also fears that, in order to solve problems regarding the equivalence of diplomas, pressure may be exerted to bring the standard university course at the bachelor (licence) level into line with the Continent (i.e. by extending it from three years to four)... There is therefore no lack of counsels of caution regarding efforts to harmonize. On the other hand, some (especially Vice-Chancellors Briggs and Sloman) are really enthusiastic not only in accepting but in advocating a common policy for concrete achievements in education at European level—with recommendations to associate third countries such as Norway and Sweden.

As far as Norway is concerned, Eide, who was a supporter of his country's entry into the Community, explains its negative vote by its fear of 'intervention measures' in all fields, whereas all it wanted was policies which were certainly positive, but limited to exchanging information, cooperative research and free discussion (the feeling here is therefore distinctly 'intergovernmental'). The controversy relating to Norway's accession has left public opinion with the idea that the Community is a technocracy and a bureaucracy. And this is not wholly untrue if one remembers that there is no parliamentary control by directly elected representatives.

As for Sweden, Löwbeer points out that it still bears the features of an 'isolationist' tradition which is at present being countered by a strongly universalist current: this sees the European Community rather as impeding any 'opening out' towards the countries of the East and towards the Third World (this is emphasised both by T. Husén, and also, strongly by the Dane Kristensen...).

The interlocutors belonging to the Six do not share the new members' misgivings to any great extent, although some are more Community-minded than others. But this is not the place to 'weigh souls in the balance'... As for the priority in which topics should be dealt with, this will become apparent in the following chapters devoted to them.

In any case those who consider that there is a place for a Community education policy emphasize the following points:

(i) The national structures and educational traditions proper to each country must be respected. In this connection the British show how very specific their structures and traditions are. The French (especially Niveau and Gros-ser) are close to this attitude, while Lichnerowicz chooses to be more 'Community-minded'.

(ii) Where Germany is concerned, Friedrichs advises the avoidance of any intervention measures by Europe which would interfere with the reconstruction of the whole educational system recently undertaken in that country (this reorganization is just beginning and is at present particularly concerned with the secondary level). For some time German efforts will therefore be directed inwards and less disposed to welcome Community intervention in education.

(iii) All existing autonomy must be respected, and work must be carried out in a spirit of academic freedom. (There is unanimity on this point).

(iv) Education policy must not be limited to the nine member countries but there must be provision for association procedures, especially for the other European countries.

(v) Finally, there must be a clear definition of the roles the Nine intend to confer on the other international organizations concerned with education (UNESCO, OECD, Council of Europe) in order to avoid unjustified duplication and the dissipation of effort, and to place activities where they can best be developed. For example, projects which would benefit

from cooperation with North America and Japan point to the OECD, whereas those involving cooperation with the countries of the East or the Third World would be referred to UNESCO. The OECD is more technical in style and is oriented towards educational problems more closely tied to the economy, whereas the Council of Europe has a more political approach and is oriented towards problems with greater cultural connections. In the international organizations to which they belong the Nine should at least concert their positions and, in matters concerning them, see that these are consistent and complementary (Alexander King).

In their cooperation with the Third World in education, which as we have seen, is keenly desired by the Scandinavians, the nine countries might, through the Community institutions, adopt a multilateral approach no longer tied to the nation-states' policies of colonialism and economic imperialism. But Gros-ser retorts that some countries in the Third World, which have become independent, seem to prefer bilateral agreements with the former colonizing nation, since they still have linguistic, cultural, economic and personal relationships in common—briefly, elective affinities—despite ambivalent attitudes which are a paradoxical blend of bitterness and friendship, the wish for 'reparation' and the touchy awareness of independence, the former colonizer's guilty conscience and the economic interests which have to be protected. Strictly speaking, a combination of multilateral approaches by the Community with bilateral approaches would in such cases be particularly desirable in education because of the linguistic factors and the practices inherited from colonization.

Suggestions on institutions

Whatever the extent of Community powers, it is very broadly recognized that the general organs of the Community (the European Parliament, the Council, the Commission) must have available bodies for preparation

(and research), consultation, planning (and study) and implementation. A specialized administration is therefore necessary (we have seen that the nucleus exists and that the new Commission has already decided to establish a Directorate-General¹). The size of this administration and its budgetary resources, at Community level, should be consistent with the programme of activities laid down by the political bodies. Rector Brugmans calls for a 'Standing Conference of Ministers of Education'. In actual fact, when education is under discussion, the Treaty allows the Council to be composed of Ministers of education; the procedure is therefore simple to establish.² Similarly, Tinbergen's wish to see established a 'Council of Education' representing all the educational forces in the nine countries is surely tantamount to envisaging 'an Educational and Cultural Committee' modelled on the 'Economic and Social Committee'. Furthermore, where specific problems require autonomy and continuity of action, the formula of the 'foundation' might be considered. Edding and some others are in favour of this as regards the promotion and use of the mass media and the new technologies of education which will be considered later on.³

The type of powers to be assumed

This is not yet the place to define the precise objectives of a Community education policy but the type of powers to be adopted.

Gozzer and Leussink place special stress on the necessity for an 'action strategy' and a policy directed towards concrete solutions. International organizations dealing with education call for too many meetings: the conclusions reached (often too general or, on the contrary, too detailed but not very practical) have no visible results. Learned reports are never put into practice and new ideas are stultified by bureaucracy. Ministerial meetings, not prepared with an eye to active decisions, produce nothing but speeches and declarations of principle. As the Community is a new body in this respect, free

from routine and with greater capabilities for decision-making, it might in this case establish an active and effective 'style'.

Apart from 'style', two principles of political choice emerged from our consultations.

There are some (more especially Rován and Poignant), who opt for a global education policy at Community level, or in other words a policy incorporating education at all levels, from pre-primary to university and further education. There is, of course, no question of interfering with the sovereignty of States but of concerting decisions directed towards the gradual approximation of education policies, in so far as these are component parts of economic and social policy. For example, further education would be harmonized on the basis of social legislation (itself harmonized) covering paid holidays for training purposes. As regards the occupational aspect and that of harmonizing the benefits (and therefore the burdens) of such legislation, the Treaty itself calls for concerted action by the Community. Similarly, the problem of the equivalence of diplomas involves common principles of harmonisation and therefore a global policy. Such a policy, in Peccei's opinion, would be more strongly motivated and more clearly inspired if it could be based on a 'European Charter for New Education' which would take into account the aspirations and the up-to-date needs of Man and Society. We have seen (pages 21-22) that we must nevertheless be cautious about any harmonization policy, especially as far as the United Kingdom is concerned. This does not imply, in the areas considered and covered by the Treaty, that no important measures may be put in hand... They must be carried out while ensuring that all necessary safeguards are offered.

¹ Directorate-General for Research, Science and Education (DG XII).

² They have already met 'in Council', as has already been observed.

³ This has already been envisaged (see pages 12-13), as far as scientific policy is concerned.

Others advocate a policy covering well-defined concrete objectives, chosen in terms of the problems they raise at Community level. The States must be left with those areas of education in which the structures are already strong, and which incorporate a whole age-group in large numbers (majority opinion)—in particular, children's education, including secondary teaching (Kristensen). Those of this opinion, make the very logical suggestion that Community policy should be restricted to areas which are not saturated and are weakly structured (Leussink), to the 'emerging fields' in Hoggart's words (Niveau agrees).

This would therefore refer to further education, the new technologies of education and the mass media, and pre-primary education.

Still others consider (and hardly any of our interlocutors disregard these problems) that primarily the Community should put effective procedures in hand to promote the mobility of teachers and students, knowledge of languages, cooperation between scientific and educational establishments, joint experiments, information and documentation. Poignant favours these measures and thinks they should be directed towards the general objective of harmonization.

Gozzer thinks that the crux of any education policy is the training and retraining of teaching staff, with an eye to active teacher-pupil relationships. Crozier joins him in emphasizing the deterioration in the teacher-pupil relationship.¹

Thus there are several viewpoints:

- (i) Global policy (harmonization);
- (ii) A policy covering a few special points (more weakly structured and more open to action);
- (iii) A policy founded on the principle of exchanges in the widest sense;
- (iv) A policy covering teaching staff (and, Crozier adds, the administrators of teaching centres).

These distinctions are relevant in so far as they clarify the problem, but these policies are not incompatible. In any case, the final conclusion of the report will deal with the choice of actual objectives.

As regards the principles of the political approach, we are of the opinion that a global approach must be applied to implementing those explicit provisions of the Treaty concerned with education. This is justified by the very nature of these provisions. But, at the same time, the Community must become involved in a very limited number of areas—those which are least saturated and have the weakest structures (such as adult education). Bodies must also be established to promote mutual contacts and exchanges by a gradual procedure involving the choice of priorities: the means of mutual contacts and exchanges in their widest sense, apart from their intrinsic value in promoting a 'Europe of education', are the indispensable instrument of an education policy covering special areas. Here, the means should match up to the numbers of students and teachers concerned.

Finally, we must certainly consider the question of training teaching staff (even if only by reciprocal information and joint research). The outlines of an education policy are thus emerging. It will be necessary to define the priorities and content of its objectives and take account of the apportionment of effort in terms of time.

Date by which powers should be fully assumed

Alexander King emphasized the importance of this aspect. The international organizations are rather slow in producing results. This is because many factors have to be combined and many powers and people have to be won over

¹ According to our two interlocutors, this relationship has been unable to adjust—without damage—to the mass expansion and democratization of the school system. Crozier emphasises that the heterogeneity of pupils makes teaching more difficult.

at each successive stage on the way to the ultimate decisions. Each organization has its own rhythm in this connection. The Community's composition—one of the most homogeneous as regards type of civilization and technical level—its limited number of members (as compared with other organizations), and its collegial power of decision according to political procedures, raise hopes of shortening the time which elapses between the decision to deal with a problem and the decision providing a solution. But the nature of an international organization is inescapable. King, who has exceptional experience in this area, points out that the Community's pace of work must inevitably favour long-term problems and plans. Fortunately, this seems well suited to the educational system, as its evolutionary process, also by its very nature, is a long one: years go by between the maturing of a new idea and its widespread application. According to King, target dates should be fixed about 10 years in advance. As to any decisions with a view to meeting these dates, they must of course be taken as a matter of urgency. This approach seems correct to us.

It is confirmed by Peccei, who considers that the Community education policy ought to be, in the full technical sense, a 'forward plan', which he expresses by the terms global, integrated and long term. By 'global' he does not mean grasping the whole educational system at once, but that any area covered—even if very specialized—must be covered completely. 'Integrated' means that every educational problem must be 'situated' in its socio-ecological context. We think these approaches are fundamental, and that treating educational problems without incorporating all the internal factors concerned and ignoring the interaction of external factors, is one of the reasons why many national policies fail. On the other hand it is noticeable that the most outstanding successes have taken Peccei's advice into account, more or less consciously (this applies, among others, to the Swedish achievements and British experience).

We must also include an observation by Lichnerowicz that the educational needs of the individual are now long-term. It is no longer a matter of providing valid information (abilities and techniques)—at a specific level—for an occupation which is followed with no radical changes during the development of a life-long career. Neither does it mean a final and specialized training, designed in the present, and thus for the short term. From now on, extremely adaptable, multi-purpose methods of approach must be provided, valid for occupations which are followed in a constantly and rapidly changing technical and social environment and for which frequent retraining will be required. Consequently, this training is becoming more general (although no less thorough) and less specialized. It requires the desire and ability to learn as a constituent dimension of every individual life.¹

This training, based on the continuous education principle, is therefore devised from an angle, no longer immediate, but anticipating future changes in a lifetime's career. It is thus a long-term projection. In our opinion, this view should be adopted by those responsible for education policy at Community level, because, as a rule, national education systems are in fact fated to concern themselves with

¹ This view of Lichnerowicz is supported by Spinelli with a significance beyond the technical training aspect. The following is a quotation from his *Agenda pour l'Europe*. Paris (Hachette) 1972, p. 172: 'Man goes through several stages in his life. During each one of them he has the right and the duty to express his personality to the full. Since Man's destiny is not to receive, once and for all and for the remainder of his life a powerful conditioning (from which only a few individuals sometimes succeed in escaping) but to live in a certain way until he knows and understands how to do it to the full, while changing his way of life as the years go by and according to circumstances, it is obvious that the organisation of Society should be such that, for young people, for adults and for the old, the possibility shall exist of working, studying and enjoying life, in equilibrium, to the rhythm of the stages of their lives' (our *underlining*). Therefore a functional requirement (Lichnerowicz) corresponds to a cultural requirement (Spinelli). This coincidence should be consciously exploited in an education policy.

short-term measures—by reason of their very weight, their inevitable inertia, the worry of coping with emergencies, their traditions and habits (not to say routine), and the training of teachers, which in many ways soon becomes out of date and is not readapted by refresher courses, which continue to be inadequate in many respects because they compete with priority requirements, both practical and immediate. We must emphasize that this does not here signify any penury of human thought but the lack of decision-making machinery capable of overcoming structural fatality at national level. Here we see the emergence of a ‘compensatory’ function at the Community level. This function may have fundamental consequences for the development, of our civilization. The States will be the first to benefit from it, since, according to Crozier, they will be able to define their objectives as ‘means’.¹

A European dimension in the matter of education

Two passages of the notes, drawn up to serve as a starting point for our exchanges of opinions were stressed in order to provoke reactions from our interlocutors:

(i) In the ‘Background Note’ (section 3, p. 57): ‘The Europe of education will add at least two further aspects to European construction:

- ...
- a change of direction due to the will for union and the choice of a common destiny which must be lived in the richness of a diversity, fully recognized and exploited’.

(ii) In the ‘Memo on Talks’ (section 3, p. 58): ‘Teaching should have a European dimension wherever possible. In this context geography, history, cultural, political and civic education can be mentioned. This teaching should be made real, that is to say immersed in fully developing life and creativeness. In this respect, according to Bertrand Schwartz, it should mobilize the resources offered by the environment. The school should no longer be the only training ground, but also the firm, the city, the institution, the social organization, the cultural centre, etc. Here again mobility between European countries should be used extensively. This is another Community responsibility which should extend beyond the bilateral aspect of cultural agreements, which moreover normally cover activities that are too traditional and too conformist. An enterprising Community body, a European UNESCO should be set up to impart the necessary stimulus.’

Here we come face to face with a question of principle; the feeling of political, social and cultural belonging can no longer be exclusively national if a part of the attributes of the nation-state has gone over to the Community: that is to say, the territory to the extent that borders disappear, decisions are transferred to supranational bodies and jurisdictions, the right

¹ That is in technical and financial terms, whereas the ‘ends’ will have been concerted at the Community level of the Council and the Commission.

of establishment of aliens is introduced, etc. All this, and many other things, point the road towards a common destiny lived in the diversity of nations. This being so, can we escape from the idea that teaching should include a European dimension, wherever possible?

But here a warning is immediately formulated. Prudence is preached. The great fear is of creating a European nationalism, a new 'power', which would rank with the United States and the USSR, a super-neocolonial State (this fear breaks surface a little among the Scandinavians we have spoken to, even though all five are 'European'). There is also the traditional attachment to historic nations and the feeling that their autonomy is being threatened.

It was in these colours that the people who opposed accession already represented the Community during the Danish and Norwegian referenda campaigns—as we know with varying degrees of success. I now quote Galtung, a Norwegian sociologist and professor: '... I see in the European Community a rebirth of old Continental Western European imperialism, mainly directed towards the Third World and to a lesser extent towards Eastern Europe'. Certainly this last statement is obviously exaggerated. However, the passionate search for a European identity which would serve as a basis for an idealist education to form patriotic Europeans must be rejected, and we should make sure that we are not swept along by it. Kristensen and Petersen stress this point also. MacLure and Niveau fear any 'artificial' effort also, but they would favour a European component in schools as long as this was a spontaneous reaction to needs born of 'European practice', that is to say a progressive Europeanization of economic, social and cultural life on the basis of freely developed international exchanges. What MacLure fears in particular is the introduction of an official Community doctrine into British education. Nor does Grosser accept the legitimacy of positive supranational action either, but he does believe in the need for a systematic plan—stimulated by the Community—which would aim at giving European societies a more exact

mutual picture of each other. He stresses the ignorance of life styles and problems in neighbouring countries and points out how deep-rooted some stereotyped and pejorative judgments are. Here I think one should mention that very often foreign language teachers distort the culture behind the texts which they are explaining by giving false ethnocentric interpretations. And what can one say then about the teaching of history—which is officially national—in spite of the first international attempts to 'correct' the textbooks? According to Grosser, what we need is to make an immense effort to really understand other people within Europe of the Nine. Eide advocates comparative information. This first act is the preliminary condition for the desire really to live in a spirit of solidarity.

Education would have a large part to play in this policy and it should be reformed accordingly. In this respect one should take Schwartz's proposal into consideration, which is to popularize Europe by the choice of examples and illustrations which serve as teaching aids, and which up until now have reflected national life alone. The choice of reading matter for all courses is equally important.

But the method of teaching history is therefore a point of extreme importance. Grosser pointed out that international correction does not allow for a true rectification of errors because of the fear of displeasing partners and also because national representatives refuse to introduce really negative aspects into their text-books.

Piganiol believes that the only remedy is completely to abandon the 'events' history which is the vehicle of ethnocentricity, particularly in large countries (Husén) and introduces an element of passion into the facts, which, moreover, are disputable when detailed. One must teach the broad lines of history which will bring out the symbiosis—even if hostile—between the peoples (Goriely). In school timetables, details of events should give way to subjects such as history of the sciences, of technology and of work, history of the evolution of

law and institutions, of nourishment (and famines), of health, medicine (and epidemics), of philosophies and of religions of political ideas, culture and the arts. It is through this that an authentic European identity, a European 'social anthropology', will emerge in a natural way. Moreover Eide believes that the teaching of history should be used to situate each society in Europe, and Europe in the world, in each age. Tinbergen proposes that part of teaching in Europe should be prospectively turned towards the future and its virtualities, taking into account the European framework and spreading integration. This proposal echoes Spinelli, who writes: 'The Community is not primarily a continuation of a past: it is a resolution for the future, or it is nothing'.¹

Piganiol and others also put forward geography as a subject which could contain European components. For example, geography could show how many frontiers are unnatural and unnecessary. It seems also that differences, for example between Wallons in Hainaut and French in the Nord department even though real, (they result from belonging to different States for a long time), are not as wide as the differences between French from the North and from Languedoc, even though between these certain similarities exist due to a strong historical integration by French society. Human geography can also highlight the similar methods of adaptation of people of different nationalities to environments of the same type.

New subjects for teaching could help Europeans to recognize their *de facto* community and also the interdependence of their problems.

In this way, Piganiol advocates the teaching of linguistics in secondary schools. Linguistics would reveal the relationship between Community languages, and their structural similarities, which correspond to similar thought processes.

Moreover, reflection on language is essential in a society where communication is improving thanks to new technical media and mass social relations. Poignant and Schwartz ask for interdisciplinary teaching on environmental conditions and problems. This education would

entail the association of biology, chemistry, the economic and social sciences and law. Let us remember that Lichnerowicz urges a reform in the teaching of mathematics in terms of the change in its ultimate aims.

Niveau recognizes the value of everything we claim here on behalf of history and the value of new teaching subjects such as linguistics, but he warns against expecting such methods to have a mobilizing effect in favour of the European idea.

Löwbeer, Tinbergen, Kristensen, Hoggart and Rován stress the fact that all European education should include information on Third World societies, their historical development and culture, their contributions to humanity and sometimes to Europe, and their present problems. This is what they call forming a European identity by opening up to the outside world.

Some of the people we have spoken to have said that nation-states are not the best type of institution sincerely to encourage the formation of a European civic spirit in the sense of feeling that one simply belongs and recognizes political, economic, social and moral duties.² Peccei, Crozier and Brugmans say that we must 'overcome this idea of the nation-state'. In this respect, Petersen believes that the Community should develop interrelations in Europe at all possible levels, whether between young people or adults, but without the State playing any part. So he shares MacLure's spontaneity and expects real contacts to provoke many changes in attitudes. We have here an aspect of the European 'practice', of Rován who believes that any method which might involve the slightest propaganda aspect is dangerous because of the consequences it can cause and the reactions it can provoke: European atti-

¹ Agenda pour l'Europe. Paris (Hachette), 1972, p. 165.

² Those who have expressed opinions on this subject have said that one must inculcate the rules and practices of democracy among these duties (the Swedes observed that this is one of the principles written at the head of their study programmes).

tudes must be born of living, day-to-day experience. On this point Rovin is at one with MacLure, Grosser and our own 'Memo on Talks'. Like Niveau, we believe that it is right and necessary that the Community, with help from the States and from private organizations, should make the most far-reaching effort possible to give better European 'contents' to thought and culture by contact, exchanges and travel.

What are the proposed methods for establishing a policy which would create European attitudes in old and young alike, by banning any tendency towards an inward-looking nationalistic or ethnocentric society?

Brugmans would like to see military service being replaced by a social service which would be undertaken in other European countries: in this way a useful service would be linked with study of the language and participation in the life of the country concerned. The extent of the problem and the questions of principles to which it gives rise in the present state of affairs, make it unfortunately necessary to consider this project as one for the future despite its undoubted value.¹

We find European components in education within the following framework: history, geography, linguistics, mathematics, modern languages, knowledge of the Third World, European civic feeling (prudent, however, and founded on 'practices' and not forgetting democracy). And let us not omit the resources of cultural education which we mentioned in our 'memo on Talks' (section 3, p. 58). These possibilities should be studied, experimented with, and then lead to technical agreements on the basis of Community recommendations.

Leussink, Cazes and Briggs believed that it would be a good idea to set up an agency at Community level which would produce didactic material, ranging from books and maps to audio-visual equipment, in order to supply educational institutions with instruments of study conceived by the best teams of experts and which would stimulate educational activities, aiming at creating or reinforcing positive

attitudes towards the European Community in young and adult alike.

We will see later on what a promotion policy for exchanges and mobility on all levels could be.

¹ However, pilot experiments in 'services' of this type could be envisaged. I would like to point out in passing that young foreigners participate in this type of activity in Yugoslavia during their holidays...

Some particular aims of a Community education policy

Knowledge of languages

Definition of the need

One of the fundamental factors in the formation of Europe and of the expression of the dimension proper to it in the form of intensified relations consonant with this new scale, is the capacity to communicate by the written and spoken word. Materially, the rapid means of transport of persons and the media for communications of the human voice or texts offer unlimited possibilities, but the extent to which they can be used and with what success depends on knowledge of languages. Eric Ashby considers this as an essential need and the tendency towards interpersonal exchanges as irresistible. Peccei maintains that a knowledge of foreign languages makes the mentality of individuals less provincial.

There is unanimous agreement: 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.

Nobody has forgotten that it is equally important to improve the teaching of languages to adults, and this need is linked to promotions in certain professions and to the new structures which the principle of permanent education implies.

Although the Communication aspect is the most important one in a European perspective and moreover recognized as such, B. Schwartz maintains that one should not lose sight of the formative value at the intellectual level, of the study of another language. He says that every language, apart from the mother tongue forces 'changes of reference' on the mind, which is a fundamental exercise in permitting speech to stand at a distance from facts and get them

into perspective, to define them exactly and assess their relativity. In addition, these changes improve mastering of the mother tongue (role of translation). This latter factor was, moreover, the positive side of the study of ancient languages... From this angle, the formative function should be taken into account when considering generalizing the study of modern languages and the age at which this study should begin.

However, the problem is very complex if one considers Ashby's criticism of the inefficiency of teaching foreign languages by traditional methods, which are still used to a large extent: languages are still taught too much as dead languages on bases which are much too philological. Is this surprising when we know that foreign language teachers at the secondary level of education, are trained more as philologists than as pedagogues in their subject?

Doubtless, this traditional method of teaching sufficiently satisfies the 'humanistic' criterion for the shaping of the intelligence, but it does not give a practical command of the language as an instrument of communication. Would not modern technology and the greater facility of students and teachers to obtain traineeships abroad (which must be further increased) help solve the problem by compounding the intellectual and socio-economic advantages of language studies?

We should therefore not omit the cultural aspect either (which Ashby stresses so much): the effort which the Community has to make in this respect (see p. 12) should not only employ knowledge of languages as a factor which conditions exchanges, but also use the cultural exchanges to promote this knowledge. It is in this that the cultural importance of tourism comes to the fore (Rovan underlines the enormous spontaneous potential which lies in this practice).

Nature of the Community response

Shades of difference—even divergences—have arisen as regards the political procedures of Community intervention.

Most of the people we have spoken to believe that the problem is so important that it requires decisions being drawn up which would commit the member countries: either ratified 'directives', or special agreements between all or some member Governments, or at least Community recommendations. Osello, Leussink and Poignant use the expression 'action decided on'. Eide is a little less direct and talks about the necessity of 'general approval' but including 'flexible implementation'. The British believe that in itself any directive, any intervention which was felt to exert pressure on the educational systems would be out of place, in any case before participation in the Community was fully assimilated in accordance with a strict interpretation of the Treaty. Moreover, the inclination to learn languages is a personal fact, according to them: only persuasion founded on a European practice, which is about to develop more and more intensively, can create the motivations, which are the very conditions of success in language studies, at all ages. MacLure insists on the fact that the individual himself must appreciate the personal usefulness—immediate or future—of knowing a language. There is nothing more frustrating or useless than a knowledge which is not employed.¹ But there will always be many people whose life will remain totally national, regional or even local.

In fact this debate has been overtaken by realities and limited by the immediate possibilities.

What is certain is that the Community is qualified:

(i) To make an inventory of the situation as regards acquiring knowledge of languages (Cazes);

(ii) To give a general picture of the latest state of science as well as experimental applications and to fill in the gaps in research, particularly as regards the optimum age for learning a second language and also as regards the most efficient methods of attaining well defined aims and levels in the knowledge of languages;

(iii) To introduce exchange machinery on an even larger scale for teachers and pupils (here agreement is unanimous); this point will be included in the following paragraph, which deals with mobility and exchanges;

(iv) To use the mass media (notably Eurovision-Rovan) to popularize and to 'carry' knowledge of the widely-used languages.

After this first phase, whose intrinsic importance must be stressed, the problem of political intervention at Community level can be approached differently in a Community which will be more democratic and into which the new members will have been able to integrate harmoniously.

Choice of languages

Three preliminary remarks. Grosser stresses that the field of foreign language study is less good when the native tongue is widely disseminated (in the Community this applies firstly for English and secondly for French). Ashby points out that linguistic affinities play a part when choosing a second language: Germanic and Latin languages. Tinbergen warns against ethnocentrism even if indirect: if Europe wants to open out to the world, one must popularize knowledge of a parent language like Spanish, but above all knowledge of languages which are genetically different and very little known in the Community countries, like Russian and Chinese.

We are taking these three considerations into account and we would like to point out that they should be kept in mind in any discussion or action on this problem.

Having said this, we find ourselves faced with three tendencies, which are less irreconcilable than would seem at first sight.

Some—not only the English—believe that the second language which one should promote

¹ Knowledge of a language is lost very rapidly through lack of practice (Cazes).

(no matter what position is adopted on the nature of Community interventions) is the one which enjoys the widest dissemination in Europe and in the world: that is to say English, which should become the common language of Community Europe. G. Friedrichs, who shares this opinion, adds that it is also the easiest language to learn, which is one of the reasons for its present dissemination.

Schwartz believes that in any case, English will dominate more and more as an instrument of communication in the long run. (Also: Leusink, Cazes, Perkins). Therefore, for some it is a choice, for others a forecast, with the latter influencing the former.

Some of the other people we have spoken to—and here not only the French—express the opinion that French and English should be put on the same footing as second European languages (Peccei and Becker are resolutely for this solution).

A third group stress that the only politically acceptable solution in a Europe where the positive value of national and cultural varieties is recognized, is to promote a free choice in studying foreign languages (not only Community ones). Brugmans, Briggs, Tinbergen and Lichnerowicz are particularly strong in favour of this theory. Rector Brugmans adds that young people or their families can have economic, professional, scientific, cultural or traditional motives in choosing a foreign language with a limited dissemination. Is this not the necessary approach to give a meaning to right of establishment, the exercise of which it should be possible to prepare oneself for in the country of origin? Briggs points out that frontier interests will play a decisive role in choosing a second language in some areas, and that education should provide for this on the basis of interregional cooperation between the countries concerned.

We think we should give a personal opinion on this very delicate subject: We believe that free choice should be accepted as the principle.

This means that one must meet the needs which are expressed, that is to say answer the demand. In reality it will be noted:

- (i) That the demand for English will continue to grow and generally be present everywhere;
- (ii) That to a lesser degree French will have to meet a large demand, particularly in Great Britain, where it will necessarily be the 'first' of the 'second' languages, if we may put it in this way;
- (iii) That there will be specific demands for all languages, the intensity of which will grow following currents of exchanges and establishment;
- (iv) That the educational arrangements will also have to allow migrant workers to adopt easily to the ways of life in the host countries and, if they wish to, to have the possibility of maintaining knowledge of their mother tongue among their children.

This approach which is both realistic and democratic, seems to us to be the only one which could serve as a basis for—uncontested—Community interventions whose aims are to make a positive contribution to meeting the needs expressed. So each member country will thus have both a national and a Community interest in cooperating as much as possible in promoting its language or languages in Europe, according to the cooperative procedures which the Community can define in a spirit of reciprocity and multilateral exchanges, defined and organized according to the appropriate norms and stimuli. This is the personal opinion which we believe we can base on our conversations, in spite of the 'traps' which the complexity of these conceals.

The optimum age for the study of a second language

Opinions expressed on this point have been so numerous that they call urgently for a scientific study of the question (see page 31, where we propose that the Community should mobilize the means necessary to clarify this question).

We will formulate a 'theorem': the lower the age chosen to generalize the study of a second language, the greater the extent and the burden of the efforts demanded of the educational systems (school populations—by year of age—to be covered by efficient arrangements). However account must be taken of the level of the objectives fixed: understanding (passive knowledge), speaking, reading, writing—basic knowledge or complete command. This fact emerges from the variety of solutions reached explicitly or implicitly by the people we have spoken to. In reality we have seen that languages differ according to the ease with which they can be assimilated. Their affinity with the mother tongue is another factor which helps this assimilation. Moreover, the teaching of a language requires all the more time if it is desired to go beyond the technical—instrument of communication side in order to use one's study to obtain a better knowledge of the society which speaks this language,¹ and above all its cultural achievements ('humanistic' aspect of education). On the other hand, it should be pointed out here that, although knowledge of the life of other societies is necessary and can be assimilated from primary level (but this can be attained without employing the language, particularly thanks to good up-to-date and modern didactic material), the study of cultural achievements becomes fruitful only at secondary school from 11 to 12 years onwards, with wider development each subsequent year.

All these factors must be taken into consideration when establishing the optimum age for the initial study of a second language.

Some people, like Alexander King, believe that this study should begin in nursery school: thus the foreign language is learnt at play and with a better accent and respect for its particular genius, much more completely than after learning the grammar and writing of the national language. King believes that after the age of eight, having an intuitive and global solid base, the child can pass on to a systematic study.²

MacLure, like Becker, has reservations on this point. He thinks that a start should not be made

until the age of 8 or 9 years. Löwbeer is inclined to share this opinion and situates the period of study of a second language between 8 and 16 years of age, but does point out that the initial age should be reduced progressively in accordance with the means available. However, for the future he wonders if one should start systematic teaching only at the age of 16 because the possibilities offered by the mass media and new technologies for the practical teaching of languages outside school would satisfy the needs. So up to the age of 16 one would make a beginning with understanding, speaking and reading. Beginning at 16 one would learn to write and translate, this implying knowledge of lexicography and syntax. Husén simply states on the choice of age that no teaching on a grammatical basis can start before the age of 11, whereas learning to speak can be accomplished very early (but not before nursery school).

Here we have an important technical question. If teaching starts on a primary level, must it be done by specialized teachers³ (it would be difficult to provide these in rural schools in certain areas) or to train and further train 'all-purpose teachers' to make them capable of teaching the second language at elementary level.⁴ In this case it should also be noted that

¹ For Grosser exact knowledge of each other among the peoples is an absolute necessity if the cause of Europe is to advance, given the prejudices and stereotypes which reign at present.

² Piganiol believes that the second year in primary school would be the best one to start studying a second language, because a year's integration to life in school is necessary first. Tinbergen, Gozzer, Schwartz, Peccei, Orsello believe in starting in primary school (the exact year to be specified technically).

³ Gozzer points out that in Italy thousands of new teachers would have to be found, and also the means to pay them.

⁴ An easier solution for the teaching of foreign languages is the system of 'open area schools', where children between 5 and 11-12 years of age are put into continuously changing groups without age distinction, under the leadership of all the teachers who are working as a team (thus 15 teachers for a school of 300 to 400 children), and who daily share out fixed 'tasks' between themselves.

a real choice of a second language can only be offered in thickly populated areas.

This being so, Cazes, while pointing to the immediate and growing needs of adults which it will be increasingly important to meet in an efficient manner (mass-media video-cassettes, discotheques, language laboratories—Leussink agrees here) wonders whether wide distribution of these rapid methods would not lead to the belief that the need is not as acute in schools as was imagined up to now. On the other hand defects in teaching at schools could be overcome by the young people themselves using the means offered to adults, and this from secondary school age onwards, thus allowing the secondary school greater freedom to bring its language teaching to bear on intellectual and cultural education. The two studies (instrumental and academic) would complement each other judiciously.

Rovan considers that introducing a second language before secondary level would create too many pedagogical, technical, financial and human problems to be chosen as a matter for Community action. This action should be limited to reinforcing language studies at secondary and adult level. In this context, one should think of the establishment—with Community aid—of numerous centres, technically well equipped for teaching languages and having a rich supply of cultural documentation. This would be available for both individual study outside teaching institutions (especially for adults, but also for young people) and collective systematic study in secondary school programmes under the control of teachers. All the documentary resources of these centres would lend its cultural dimension to the teaching of languages. Intra-European exchanges of teachers and pupils would complete the effort (here a Community cooperation body would be necessary).¹

On the basis of the European Schools experiment, B. Schwartz believes that to assimilate a language well, a part of the general classes should be conducted in that language. Pigniol shares this opinion and also maintains that

teaching which is carried out in the 'other' language should deal with positive sciences (chemistry, physics) rather than the humanistic disciplines, as used to be generally believed... In fact, the expansion of international schools like the European Schools or United World Colleges² would make it possible to test and to expand this type of multilanguage teaching.

Today, a European initiative to introduce plurilingualism into the national educational systems seem to us premature, in the order of priorities, and also taking into account the difficulties which would arise.

Teachers

Whatever formula is adopted to teach European and foreign languages, important problems will still arise as regards teachers:

(i) If 'all-subjects teachers' have to teach a foreign language even at elementary level, they must be trained for this in the service: according to Eide traineeships abroad should be specially provided for them.

(ii) In any case a larger number of language teachers will have to be trained to respond to increased demand (particularly for adults, and where language-teaching hours are increased for technical education);

(iii) Practising language teachers should be 'recycled' for suitable periods of time and at proper intervals;

¹ Husén mentions the Swedish experiments of establishing secondary sections (with the Swedish programme) in England. The outcome of this experiment is worthy of interest from the angle which interests us here.

² The College of St. Donat's Castle (South Wales) which covers the last two years of secondary schooling has been in existence since 1962 (it awards the international Baccalaureat, which is also awarded by many other schools and is already recognized by many countries and universities in the world). This system of international boarding school education seems likely to be adopted by the 'International Council' of these colleges for new establishments on the continent (Berthoud and Blackburn).

(iv) Procedures, supported by the indispensable financial and administrative resources, will need to be established to promote exchanges and traineeships for teachers, pupils and students. Orsello advocates sabbatical periods abroad with training obligations: Löwbeer lays particular stress on in-service training abroad, which calls for balanced and enterprising intervention by the Community, justified by the very effectiveness of this approach and by the promotion of a European spirit.

Some of the people we have spoken to believe that tuition in a language is normally better if it is the teacher's mother tongue (Tinbergen). But on the practical level, Friedrichs states that in any case one year or, even better, two years of a language teacher's training should be spent in countries where these languages are spoken. Sloman points out the need for the maximum possible number of refresher courses, each one lasting some weeks. Teacher exchanges between European countries for long periods of time are advised (Crozier).¹ Sloman, Bruggmans and Grosser hope that recruitment of language teachers by convention will drop the nationality criteria. All these ideas express the conviction that the teachers concerned should have a long 'incubation' period in the societies where the language they teach is spoken.

However, this implies the procedures of which we have already spoken, except for the suppression of the nationality criterion, which is a very special case of right of establishment but which certainly complies with the spirit of the Treaty.

Mobility, exchanges, cooperation

First of all we would like to refer to our 'Memo on Talks' (section 2, p. 58).² Our principal conclusion on these points was the suggestion to establish institutional and financial mechanisms within the Community, calculated to stimulate the mobility of teachers and pupils and exchanges of these and also to encourage the founding of university consortia.

Starting from here, the people we have spoken to formulated comments and suggestions which are worthy of interest. We shall take these into consideration below.

Mobility and exchanges

Leussink stresses that the most important problem is professional mobility, that is to say, the right to engage normally in activities covered by degrees and diplomas in all Member States of the Community. At the teaching level, the issue at stake constitutes the preliminary to providing a system of equivalence for degrees at various levels of learning. The problem is at present blocked and, in so far as the solution prepared is likely to succeed, it would seem to entail consequences detrimental to progress in studies. Several of the persons we have spoken to believe that the formal importance of equivalences has been grossly exaggerated. Leussink emphasizes that in the Europe of the Nine the difference in value between the same degrees in a particular country were greater than the difference between the average value of the same degrees of several countries...

In Germany, the difference in value of degrees awarded by the Länder is fully accepted... The price of formal equivalence, following adjustments which for the most part would prove practically useless, would be to render more difficult any significant later changes in curricula and, consequently, to reduce these to a state of rigidity as regards fundamentals. Our interlocutors, Briggs and Sloman, Vice-Chancellors of two new British universities which have won recognition as innovators in many respects, took the view that the approach to the problem of equivalence should be more broadminded. This was also the opinion of Peccei and Cazes, who would like to see the provision of detailed guarantees limited to the right to engage in certain professions carrying

¹ Such a period of time implies agreements being reached on job security, the intangibility of promotion rights and pensions.

heavy responsibilities, such as medicine or civil engineering. Nor is this all. According to von Weizsäcker, present-day methods are being increasingly left behind by the fact that any comparison of the same type of studies is becoming impossible as, in each country, the wider range of options available is leading to more and more fragmentation of such studies.¹ We can personally vouch for the fact that, in Belgium, 'licence' degrees in the social sciences, which a few years ago were still relatively homogeneous, now not only differ more and more from one university to another but also cover, in each university, diplomas whose content tends to vary to a significant extent owing to the greater number of options available. In Europe, all reforms, either in the process of implementation or still in the planning stage, are aimed at greater flexibility and less homogeneity.

Furthermore, from the level of secondary education onwards, the principles to emerge from the most recent research, conferences, symposia, etc., tend towards the individualization of education (or self-training), increases in the number of options, and more decentralized administration of education, thus towards a wider measure of flexibility and heterogeneity. As a result, the formal status of degrees of the same kind will, in each country, become increasingly blurred, as will also the precise and unambiguous definition of academic qualifications... Consequently, the 'reading' and 'assessment' of each degree will become increasingly necessary and generalized within each country concerned. Against this background, what will be, in future, the meaning of 'equivalence' at the European level? Is this not a case of trying to catch—in slow motion—a hare running faster and faster?

Taking all this into consideration, would it not be advisable to direct our effort towards the institutionalization of the procedures governing admission in each specific case? Clearly, this would require the organization of departments to deal with the admission of candidates to our universities.² After checking the candidate's degree or diploma (or 'record book') on his

enrolment, an additional programme of studies might, if necessary, be arranged (confined to essentials so as to follow effectively the course of education) while admission on a trial basis would be instituted for a specific period with a view to making sure, through and in the light of, these studies (with adequate supervision) that the candidate is, in fact, suitable for the projected programme. Plans might be considered for the appointment to each university or educational district establishment of a 'European Delegate for Admissions' (a kind of Ombudsman for studies), who would be of foreign nationality, selected from a 'European' list (in the manner of bank or company auditors), to whom appeals could be addressed in the event of dispute, and whose powers would be limited to pupils and students other than nationals of the country concerned.

Rector Niveau has put forward an alternative solution, i.e. that each Embassy of the other eight countries in each Community Member State should include a specialist with the diplomatic status of Counsellor or Attaché to concern himself with 'admissions'. As the number of applications for admission steadily increased at all levels of learning, this section of the Embassies would become a full-fledged technical service operating on the principle of 'precedents'. The role of this diplomat-cum-specialist would be to resolve, by amicable agreement with the educational institutions of the host country, any collective or individual problem concerning admission by defending the legitimate interests (giving their proper weight to national educational requirements) of those planning to continue their education in the country concerned. Provision should be made for the right of appeal to a specialist Chamber

¹ Taking his stand on this trend which, in his view, is a felicitous one, Ernst von Weizsäcker supports the concept of the 'Baukasten Universität'. (Literally: the Building Blocks University.)

² Ashby and Sloman recalled that, according to a very old-established tradition, it is customary in Britain for a student to be educated throughout at one and the same university.

of the European Court of Justice. Periodic meetings of the eight diplomats with the representatives of the relevant departments of the host country might ensure the standardization of admissions and contribute to the adoption of a general 'case law' in each host country. The Community would have to provide co-ordination and, in particular, arrange European meetings to ensure, under the best conditions, an interchange of views at more or less regular intervals on what progress had been made in respect of reciprocal admissions and on action to be taken by the Community. That, at least, is how we think we can best explain the very interesting approach advocated by Rector Niveau.

These are but a few examples for a solution... Sloman is strongly in favour of a broad-minded approach.¹

The lack of assured recognition of studies abroad accounts for the fact that these have so far been limited in scope. Moreover, examinations taken abroad are held in low esteem in many educational institutions and also in many countries.² Students fight shy of going abroad for fear of their career prospects (Goriely). Proof of this, according to Leussink, was provided by the Conference of European Rectors, which noted that students were not using all the scholarships made available to them to study in other Community countries.

As for final degrees, they should be recognized as of equal value in all the Member States—except in a few cases involving highly responsible activities—provided they have been entered on a Community list confirming their validity for the same purposes in the country of origin.

Flexible solutions are needed, as the present method would make it impossible to arrive at any 'equivalence' in value between continental and British degrees (where the course of studies extends over a shorter period), and Danish degrees (a longer period of studies). Indeed, it is clear that—at least for the time being—any suggestion that periods of study should be brought into line would be rejected in Britain. Existing differences in the courses of studies

might be compensated by arranging for appropriate in-training to be given in the foreign country, where, for the first time, the student will exercise his profession (cf. Sloman above).

How much longer must we tolerate in Europe a state of affairs where it is easier to move goods from one place to another than for men to move about once it is a question of following a calling?

We put the question: do you agree that it should be compulsory for a student to spend at least six months at a foreign university out of the customary 3 to 4 years of university education?

Such a requirement calls for a Community directive for which the Council would have to assume responsibility. It is clear that all those who refuse to accept Community obligations in the matter of education, at least at the present stage (see pages 21-22) are bound to reject such a suggestion as unacceptable. For their part, both Goriely and Tinbergen endorse it.³ Generally speaking, the objective itself is regarded very favourably. However, it is hoped to achieve it by stages through stimuli put into effect by the Community and cooperation agreements between universities (Peccei, Cazes, Friedrichs, Eide, Schwartz).⁴ Lichnerowicz takes the view that young doctors preparing their thesis and future members of the

¹ He added: 'in those countries where professions founded on a university degree are, by and large, on the same level and, in any case, susceptible of being placed on an equal footing through in-training arrangements'.

² It is worth noting that in the USA degrees vary considerably as regards standards and content even though they confer the same academic titles... The solution adopted by the universities consists in appointing a 'Dean of Admissions' who, in the major institutions of learning, heads an extensive administrative and technical service... Some universities jointly operate consortia for admissions (Perkins).

³ Poignant, too, approves 'but, in that case, there must be unanimous agreement'.

⁴ Schwartz suggests that the semester to be spent abroad should be allowed only where studies are founded on the application of methods and practice, otherwise this would give rise to the problem of 'pre requisite' knowledge.

teaching staff of universities should be required to spend one year in a department of a foreign educational institution. He thus attributes priority to the postgraduate level. He believes that, at the level of admissions, BA's, BSc's and master's degrees, involve an excessively large section of the student population, so that, if the aforementioned requirement were adopted, it would merely lead to the large-scale export of existing difficulties, crises and troubles at that level. The great majority of persons we spoke to believe that the statutory period of one semester for well-defined studies in whatever stage should be a specific objective of the consortia formed by universities, which, in this way, could exchange students by organizing all the reception facilities required and making the necessary adaptations of the teaching concerned and the methods of assessing its results. Goriely recommends that, in any case, the student should, throughout the time spent in higher education, retain a permanent institutional link with the university where he will take his degree.

The preceding discussion easily explains why Lichnerowicz, Löwbeer, Sloman, Briggs, Cazes and Becker all insist that university exchanges and mobility should be generalized only in so far as the postgraduate level is concerned.

As for the primary and secondary levels of education, it is the unanimous hope that educational trips and holidays abroad will be intensified. This activity should be linked with the teaching of languages (Edding). In this connection, Cazes points out that the organization of reception facilities and meeting all expenses are essential prerequisites for such trips, as class distinctions would otherwise arise and meetings between young people would be confined to the well-to-do classes of society, which would be very damaging to the moulding of a European spirit with its roots among the people.

The twinning of towns could provide a suitable operational and moral framework for the purpose of promoting such exchanges (Orseillo). Lichnerowicz notes that the current pro-

pensity for tourist travel should make it possible to extend public interest in show places, works of art and monuments to attainments in the social and economic fields... Travel and student exchanges should, according to Becker, be directed towards the promotion of vocational training and be contemporaneous with the practical phases of the latter. Friedrichs asks that the needs of trade unions should not be overlooked in this respect.

But what should be the Community's role in this matter? Rován and Piganiol stress the need for an 'Equalization Office', so that salaries and statutory benefits can be brought into line in so far as exchanges of teaching staff and research workers are concerned. These persons should be afforded all necessary guarantees that periods spent abroad for professional purposes will not entail unfavourable consequences with respect to their careers or their promotion or pension rights. The Equalization Office must make sure that their living standards are in keeping with the cost of living and status of the foreign country during their stay abroad, while the university of origin would be responsible only for normal expenses. Furthermore, the Equalization Office should meet the cost arising from transfers, financed for that purpose by conventional quotas for each Member State.

Similarly, a compensation agency should be established to take care of travelling scholarships and mutual expenditure arising from pupil and student exchanges in view of their different unit costs (suggested by Rován and Piganiol).

Cooperation

There are innumerable forms of cooperation in the matter of education. As regards statistics (to be made comparable),¹ information, educational research, the exchange of experiences, etc., suggestions abound. However, we do not

¹ Ashby stresses the importance of this aspect, which is far from being achieved.

propose to elaborate on these points here because

(i) They fall within the competence of the 'European Centre for Educational Development' (Guichard proposal) which is at present being considered by a committee of senior officials (see page 10);

(ii) They are more or less functions carried out by the OECD (and the CERI), the Council of Europe and UNESCO. Consequently, if the Centre in question should be established, the Community would have to 'apportion' such activities, taking into account the work being done on an international scale and its own objectives.

These aspects of the matter were therefore straightaway removed from the scope of our report.

We shall confine ourselves here to dealing with the concept of university consortia, which originated in the USA. However, although there is considerable enthusiasm in Europe for this concept, Perkins has told us that in the USA disillusionment with it is already becoming apparent. For these consortia, whose object is to bring universities together, need the services of administrators when, in fact, the professors think of external cooperation in terms of their respective disciplines, according to the exigencies of their work and to the personal contacts they have been able to establish. It is without any enthusiasm that they now see themselves called upon to give priority to relations devised by a consortium of which their university happens to be a part.

This shows that consortia between European universities should not be generalized but concern themselves with specific matters put forward by departments whose views would be based on their own interests in regard to research and higher education. Husen has pointed out that, as far as the smaller countries are concerned, this is a matter of necessity as regards a large number of disciplines. By way of example he referred to the study of Chinese,

Chinese society and culture in Sweden. Without international cooperation, this branch of teaching could not be carried on satisfactorily. On that point there is practically unanimous agreement. Eric Ashby, however, believes in universities operating in pairs, for experience has shown that a greater number of participants made cooperation very difficult and bureaucratic. Everything depends, of course, on the nature of the objectives. King considers that pluridisciplinary studies and research, such as those relating to the environment are particularly suitable for handling by consortia. Kristensen thinks of organizing groups on these lines so that costly facilities could be used jointly. For advanced research work the consortia might also consider setting up 'centres of excellence' (King) so as to enable the countries of the Community to benefit, through the Community, from scale, as has been done in the USA. From the point of view of studies the above examples relate to the post-graduate level. Goriely points out that research exchanges are by far the most numerous.

Kristensen and Grosser take the view that consortia are particularly essential in the social sciences, because comparative methods are part of their fundamental approach and, Kristensen adds, because they are thus beyond the reach of the attractions of 'ethnocentrism'—which is a threat to their existence. Equally, the Institutes of European Studies should avail themselves of the same formula: their very nature inclines that way and there is no lack of suitable topics. Brugmans anticipates agreements on specialization and interchange involving libraries and documentation. Poignant believes that generalized consortia would provide the most suitable framework for a Community policy at higher education level, for they ensure decentralization ruling out excessive bureaucracy at the top.

Orsello insists on the beneficial effects that could be expected from the creation of special consortia made up of universities in the frontier areas as, for example, Strasbourg, Basle, Fribourg in Brisgau, Besançon, Neuchâtel or Geneva, Lausanne, Grenoble or Turin. Proxi-

mity would make relations easy and less costly. Goriely, however, argues that, in the past, universities in the frontier areas never evinced a 'plurinational' spirit.

While it is evident that, from the operational point of view, consortia require that the partners concerned should be complementary (Lichnerowicz), they also need substantial financial assistance (Leussink). The former German Minister of Education considers that an official body should be set up by the Community for precisely that purpose and provided with the resources to grant the indispensable subsidies. The Community would also act as a go-between for those circles which it had reason to believe were interested in cooperation. Furthermore, the Community could initiate measures to fill the gaps and remedy the shortcomings of European universities by promoting the creation of consortia.

Certainly there are more fields that offer scope for cooperation. Chief among them are permanent education and new educational technology. Both these subjects are sufficiently important to deserve a special section each in this report.

Permanent education

This is a field of activity which, a priori, appears to be privileged with regard to the Community. Indeed, if we refer back to 'The type of functions to be assumed',¹ it is clear that, if the type of overall approach is to be adopted, permanent education would constitute one of the 'points of entry' for such a policy inasmuch as it calls for an overall prerequisite: the harmonization of laws governing paid study holidays, as provided for by the Treaty. On the other hand, should the principle rejecting overall intervention be adopted, intervention being ruled out even in 'structured' or 'saturated' sectors, permanent education would still be the first to call for action as an 'emerging field' (Hoggart) and, generally speaking, a field with few structures, little inte-

gration and, consequently, more open to combined action.

The great majority of the persons we spoke to think along those lines and consider that permanent education—some of them referred to 'adult education' and 'recurrent education'—should be regarded as a matter of priority in the context of Community policy. This opinion was forcibly expressed by Briggs (who spoke of 'the challenge of our times'), and also by Orsello, Hoggart, Tinbergen and Edding, all of whose opinions converge on this score. Eide, while agreeing with the others, fears that the magnitude and complexity of the problem are beyond the Community's present capacity to act: he feels that the individual Member States are better placed to take appropriate measures in a sphere of activity where they are urgently required.² Crozier said it would be deplorable if the probable importance of such a policy should cause the Community to neglect the highly structured fields which were in urgent need of reorganization. Poignant is undecided on the question of how far intervention should go, which will be difficult to determine. Leussink notes that, although the ground has been cleared, no practical road for Community action is so far in sight. Admittedly, discussions could be initiated on this subject (but that would merely provide yet another topic for 'speech-making'). On the other hand, it would be desirable, at all events, to intensify the exchange of individuals and experience (which though very useful would not be tantamount to a policy getting to the heart of the problem). In conclusion, Leussink recommends the adoption of a prerequisite which holds out prospects of major developments later on, i.e., the harmonization of all laws relating to paid study holidays ('time credits', etc.). The question, he says, would thus be dealt with from the social and economic angle. Poignant and MacLure also see in permanent education a possible field for European cooperation, but would accord priority to retraining schemes.

¹ See pages 23 and 24.

² However, one does not preclude the other.

For our part, we would stress that although permanent education is a field operationally more open than the others (a fact nobody denies), it also constitutes in itself a principle of change affecting the educational system as a whole. This principle can be formulated as follows: if the training of Man is no longer limited to what he is taught when young, but becomes a social and cultural dimension of his whole life (a trend confirmed by the many needs—in terms both of quantity and quality—for adult training courses), this phenomenon stands out as a factor in the fundamental transformation of the traditional system of education, whose objectives, structures and content must be radically changed because they no longer constitute a complete, but only a preparatory, or, to be more precise, an 'introductory', process.¹ In fact, permanent education is now very widely recognized as a factor in the transformation of education as a whole. This was also the view propounded by the persons we spoke to, albeit with varying degrees and shades of opinions. According to Visalberghi, the main thing now is to go over from the programme of studies to involvement in projects.

If this is so, the implementation of this policy at Community level would have the advantage of finding, as it were, a building site where little work has so far been done and which, in addition, would lead the Community to draw conclusions on educational policy in general. In addition, we have seen that the handling of this particular problem involves the harmonization of social legislation in the countries concerned. Leussink thinks that this is an indispensable institutional basis.

The danger threatening any general policy at international level is the dissipation of efforts which, inevitably, leads to incoherence. If, on the other hand, it should be decided to concentrate action on some particular field, it is the lack of an overall policy which is acutely felt. In this case, the development of the situation itself would provide the Community's policy with an objective which, by its very nature, would avoid both these perils.

B. Cazes agrees with this interpretation and says that adult education is not a new grade in the educational system, but a factor in its total transformation. For his part, Gozzer points out that to confuse adult education with the possibility of catching up with the studies one was unable to pursue when young, or the acquisition of additional knowledge, is to be guilty of a misconception: the point at issue involves a functional change in the entire school system.

Niveau is of the same opinion. By catering for adults permanent education naturally tends to the deschooling of education. This, however, should not be construed as the complete removal of educational structures. New structures will have to be designed to serve as a framework for new methodologies and material.² As a result of this complete reorganization, whose new pupils are adults, the structures which emerge will be better qualified to use mass media and new educational technologies. At the same time, the role and, consequently, the training of teaching staff are, basically, called into question (at this point Niveau encounters the main concern expressed by Gozzer). Finally, by involving industrial enterprises in the professional aspect of the training of adults, permanent education takes training out of the school building... This analysis by Niveau clearly emphasises the impact of permanence of education.

¹ We elaborated on all the consequences of this principle in an essay entitled 'L'éducation permanente, facteur de mutation', pp. 11 to 46, in *Education permanente*, Council of Europe, Strasbourg, 1970, 542 pages.

² In this connection, an important statement was made by Visalberghi: i.e., the ruling classes have realized that greater democracy in education and the social mobility resulting from it jeopardize their system of social 'reproduction'. For that reason, they are in favour of removing the schools from the traditional system of education and of permanent education (in which the main role is allotted to industrial enterprises). The removal of the schools from the traditional pattern is rather loosely described as a 'left-wing' concept. Catholic schools will find that this particular field affords scope for manoeuvre (this is evident from the Illich group (the 'education voucher' (le 'cheque-education')).

The principle in question will thus enable a cogent reply to be given to the key problem which Petersen and Husén have so aptly brought to the fore: what should be done to liberate education which, in terms of space, is at present separated from real life and, as it were, imprisoned in the school building; how is one to integrate education, according to its needs, into Society in action and, in particular, make use of practical work as a means of education? Petersen also points out that the issue at stake involves deschooling. This meets the requirement laid down by Piganiol, who believes that training, based on the enterprise, should not only provide Man with an instrument but also with the general and theoretical culture onto which such essential education should open out. Moreover, this echoes Husén's remark that the dividing line in training between 'general' and 'professional' is becoming increasingly blurred—a trend which gives its full significance to permanent education, for occupational work, because of its rapid development, becomes a source of culture and needs training methods more general in scope, multipurpose, and more adaptable. Edding's concern anticipates these considerations when he suggests that education should be founded on general training alternating with practical work. Consequently, it is easy to understand Cazes' assertion that the key to any education is the training the student received from 16 to 19, because, next to compulsory school attendance, it is now becoming the first stage of adult education rather than the last stage of education in school—which it had been up to now. This observation is, in any case, logical, bearing in mind that youngsters of over 16 years of age, who are not attending school, are engaged in an occupation (except for the intermediary status of apprentices). In this spirit Edding's scheme for alternating training with practical work could be generalized—taking into account the inescapable fact that some study levels are higher than others—to include the entire 16 to 19 age groups and, in this way, put an end to social discrimination.¹ Visalberghi suggests a system of work rotation allowing every citizen to spend

a few years of his life in working on tasks that tend to be neglected.

Löwbeer, recalling that the Swedish report U68, while offering some alternatives, nevertheless tends in the directions outlined above, believes that, once legislation concerning paid study holidays has been harmonized, the Community should endeavour to establish what he calls a common pattern of permanent education. Löwbeer insists on the need for giving every individual authority to decide the development of his training (option and self-training). This is one of the requirements of a democratic society if it is to lean on responsible citizens, that is to say, citizens capable of making their own decisions. Perkins and Brugmans are at one with Löwbeer in hoping that the Community will plan its policy on those lines.

What ground will be covered by such action? Sloman recommends the adoption of a policy aimed at combining education with trades and professions by means of highly flexible systems of education (day schools, vocational training in firms, reciprocal training periods, evening classes, correspondence courses, individual or group courses provided by the mass media, supported in future by the use of video-cassettes). This deschooling must lead to the integration of these multiple resources so as to satisfy the most variegated requirements. A rigid structure must be replaced by a functional organization which, generally speaking, should be able to adapt itself to all types of demand.

¹ All these considerations are in line with the view held by Crozier that a system of school education, thoroughly reorganized to serve as the preparatory stage to recurrent training, should be operated by means of ever-changing small groups under the leadership of teaching staff working in teams. However, the important factor here, according to this sociologist of organisation, is that school management is bound to undergo a complete change as a result of such a transformation, shifting from a type of paternalistic, degraded, and 'closed' bureaucracy to functional self-administration, and 'open' to the outside world. This organization will have to resolve the difficult problem of the leadership of complex human communities at a time when the development of society involves a demand for quality in social relations.

As has been stated before: from now on learning will be 'à la carte' and no longer 'what's on the menu'.

Briggs shows that universities will have to adjust themselves to the essential requirements of permanent education. They will be able to do this even better by using concepts emanating from European research and experience in conjunction with assistance provided by the Community. The Open University is, in that respect, but one concept—though very interesting—among others. Lichnerowicz, who had already spoken in that vein in connection with the teaching of languages, emphasized that provision must be made for the training of foreign workers in such a way as to improve their vocational abilities and, consequently, their remuneration, to give them a general formation and to enable them to adjust themselves socially and culturally to their new environment.

However, the positive aspects of permanent education do not of themselves provide a definite solution. Visalberghi points out that the destructuring of the educational system and the deschooling implicit in permanent education were liable, if carried too far, to culminate in making the industrial enterprise the overlord of study programmes and of the selection of persons. Now, the schools system, even though fraught with uncertainties, provides the dual safeguard of general and multipurpose training as well as non-arbitrary selection. Inevitably, the industrial enterprise would seek to train workers, employees and supervisory staff according to its own needs and would organize promotion in such a way as to fit in with its own criteria for technical and managerial skills. The abolition of the legal value of degrees and diplomas, the institution of systems providing completely free options (e.g. 'education vouchers') might culminate in the emergence of a meritocracy regulated by the interest of private enterprise. However, Cazes added, the position would not be better if the destructured and deschooled regime were to result in a system of options approved and dominated by a centralized State bureaucracy.

Cazes sees the solution in the creation of a balance between individual choice and self-training, on the one hand, and supervision by the public authorities and, finally, intervention by industrial enterprises, on the other. This, to quote his own words, would amount to 'controlled deschooling'. Gozzer, too, stressed the dangers arising from total deschooling on the lines advocated by Ivan Illich. In his opinion, it should be confined to providing great flexibility. Here the system of study 'units' advocated by Bertrand Schwartz, or the 'fragmentation' (Baukasten) suggested by Ernst von Weiszäcker represent technical possibilities for a solution. Friedrichs points out that, although training in industrial enterprises is desirable in itself, and offers the best safeguards as to efficiency and promotional value, it must be supervised by the trade unions. Leussink expresses himself to the same effect.

The persons we spoke to suggested some forms of action by the Community:

- (i) A systematic balance-sheet should be drawn up concerning the situation in respect of adult education (Cazes), together with an assessment of the results from the angle of permanent education (Husén);
- (ii) Legislation relating to paid study holidays and the financing of such holidays should be generalized and harmonized (Leussink and Löwbeer);
- (iii) Cultural agreements should in future include a chapter on the promotion of permanent education (through exchanges and other means);
- (iv) Universities should be assisted in adapting and extending their educational resources for the purpose of training adults, either by their own individual efforts or through consortia (see pages 38-40, *Cooperation*), with recourse to adequate financial aid. Edding suggests a joint investigation of the possibility of establishing a European Open University, with a curriculum that could be adapted by the countries concerned in their own languages, either wholly or in part (English and/or French being used in equal measure);

(v) Initiatives to promote retraining should more frequently assume an international character (Husén);

(vi) An experiment should be arranged in establishing multinational frontier districts for the purpose of ensuring the implementation of adult training programmes (Schwartz);

(vii) Should a positive conclusion be reached with regard to the possibility and expediency of setting up a 'data bank' for education, a decision should be taken to start with adult education (because of the existing lack of accessible and classified information in this field—Ashby).

For the purpose of drawing up a priority programme for submission to the Community, Rován suggested convening a European conference of non-governmental organizations engaged in permanent education. Those taking part in this conference would include, in particular, representatives of industrial enterprises, trade unions, universities and educational organizations.

Action by official institutions would be taken later within the framework of the Community drawing on the results of the conference.

New educational technologies

Our 'Memo on Talks' put the problem as follows (paragraph 6, p. 58): 'New educational technologies and the systematic application of the mass media are still in their infancy throughout Europe. In particular, the sophisticated nature of software, the considerable expenditure involved, the industrial guidance to be promoted and the problems arising from the checking of the contents, pedagogics and the objectives of education supported by new technologies make it desirable to establish in Europe a 'Centre for Coordination and Incentives'. Here, however, we must ask the question of the most suitable 'agency' for this purpose. The European Communities? The OECD (the CERI)? The Council of Europe?

The same question also applies in respect of educational research (King).

Actually, there are two different aspects to this question. There is, first of all, the use, for educational purposes, of mass communication media (TV and radio), which have long ceased to be 'new' in the sense that they are now part and parcel of everyday life. Despite their power of dissemination, both these media are not yet properly integrated into the educational system. Generally speaking, the lessons given on TV bear little relation to the development of scholastic programmes. The preparation and use made of such lessons in schools are non-existent, or leave much to be desired. However, a great prospect is emerging on the educational horizon: the widespread use of video-cassettes, which can now be fitted to any TV set (Husén emphasized the multiple use that can be made of this instrument for the preservation and dissemination of knowledge).

The second aspect is the use of computers (computerized learning) and teaching machines. Thanks to these instruments the study of a particular subject can be individualized, for they can make the provision of further knowledge or problems conditional on a satisfactory feedback proving at the end of each stage the student has acquired the necessary qualifications for starting on the next. To this must be added the current use in schools of closed circuit television and video-cassettes under the supervision of, and with encouragement from, teachers (Gozzer and Edding).

The prospects in question have aroused great enthusiasm, for in principle, they hold out the possibility of a transition from the artisan state of schools (the classroom as a 'primitive' work-shop) to the industrialization of the search for knowledge (and this while enhancing the individual role of students, whereas a priori homogenization might have been feared). As in the production of goods and services, industrialization of education foreshadows a considerable lowering in unit costs, provided, of course, that the essential investments are made.

Following a few experiments in various directions quite a number of illusions have now vanished. Löwbeer and MacLure emphasize that, although audio-visual aids and new technology are instruments of individualization, they have so far failed to reduce costs. Quite the contrary! At least, it has now become apparent, according to MacLure, that the key problem of education lies in the further improvement of curricula, that is, improvements in content rather than in the transmission and control of that content. Leussink holds that the use of new technology has failed to replace the pedagogical 'master-and-limited-number-of-students' relationship which remains the framework essential to any training system. Certainly, such a relationship can be 'helped', by the use of new technology but only at great expense. However, there is one particular field where such assistance is already producing excellent results: the language laboratories which, for that reason, are spreading and should be promoted so as to come into general use. Löwbeer remarks on the considerable time lag, particularly in education, of software compared with hardware. Even the use of video-cassettes for educational purposes has still not reached a satisfactory stage of development. Husén attributes this to opposition by the teachers, who rationalize their motives by sublimating the traditional interaction between teachers and students. Yet, he adds, the expansion called for by education could not continue to include budgets of which at least 70% were spent in teacher's salaries... This state of affairs was becoming untenable, if only from the political point of view.¹ Löwbeer adds that the failure to generalize the mass media in education was in contrast to their widespread adoption by individual families. At present, 80% of students are born into an urban environment, whereas not so long ago 80% were of rural origin. In fact, 'receptiveness' among students has, generally, grown very much. It is the teachers who are resisting more or less consciously. Let us recall in this connection a remark by Gozzer, that the teachers had not been endowed with sufficiently adaptable mental structures. Fail-

ure to make full use of the mass media and new technology contributed to separating the school environment from social and cultural life (another theme put forward by Petersen). Becker, in any case, stresses the fact that no educational technology can be studied in itself and, a fortiori, applied in isolation: it is inseparable from a school and social context with which it must absolutely be linked. Non-integration of these techniques is a mistake frequently made.

How should this problem involving so many factors be resolved?

MacLure forecasts a spontaneous expansion in the use of video-cassettes, through commercial channels, for the purpose of entertainment and, at the best, of leisure devoted to culture. This trend is bound to increase, resulting in a situation where it will become habitual to the family to use their equipment for this purpose, thus constituting a potential basis for action in the field of education. It will then be possible successfully to produce video-cassettes with an educational content in line with approved programmes and suitable for exploitation by means of appropriate incentives and education supervision. On this point, Hoggart raised an objection: educational content should not be left to industry and the selection of the 'market'. In his view, this was a matter where supervision was called for, as in the case of the schools, within the framework of the principle of the freedom of education. Lichnerowicz points to the similarity between the problems arising from the widespread adoption of video-cassettes and those that arose from the original use of the printing press and, currently, from the use of books specially designed for educational purposes. In connection with this last point one cannot but ask: adopted by whom? utilized by whom? by what procedures? with what safeguards? It is unthinkable that anarchy should reign in the use of

¹ The potential value of the mass media has become all the greater where the population, as in Sweden, is, to some extent, scattered over vast areas (Löwbeer).

video-cassettes for educational purposes.. Selection and control are called for. However, as in the case of books, freedom must be preserved vis-à-vis the procedures used. Edding and Leussink have also stressed the danger of allowing powerful private companies to market video-cassettes, at any rate as far as education is concerned.

One cannot help noticing that a problem of 'competition' within the meaning of the Treaty of Rome, is also involved here, and that the Commission will not be able to ignore it. Perkins takes all these aspects into consideration: he recommends, as regards the production and use of video-cassettes for education, the creation of a 'mixed economy' comprising a private sector engaging in production but with an extensive public sector concerned with distribution and consumption. Such an arrangement would require permanent and institutionalized cooperation between the two sectors: cooperation in selection and content, standardization of apparatus and products, prices policy and the existence of a private market with guarantees for the consumer. MacLure noted that this raised the problem of copyright. Various persons we spoke to suggested the adoption of Community 'labels'—to be allotted on the basis of educational criteria by specialist colleges—so as to ensure freedom of the market while at the same time providing safeguards for the private consumer (whether individual or collective)¹. Hoggart and Cazes referred to this formula, which, at the level of Member States, corresponds to certain procedures for the approval of school textbooks. Cazes, however, expresses concern about the possibility of eliminating all bureaucracy from such a field of activity.

On the political plane, having regard to its institutional character, which is more highly integrated than that of any other international organization, the Community seems destined to play a central part in this field. Nevertheless, compared with North America, Europe is lagging behind considerably as regards the educational use of mass media and the promotion of new technologies in education. King, Poignant,

Löwbeer and Orsello all declared strongly in favour of scientific and technical cooperation in those fields remaining under the OECD, it being understood that the Community would have the necessary administrative bodies to coordinate its requirements in this matter.

The tasks suggested for the Community are set out below:

(i) Competition, copyright, consumer protection, European 'label', particularly with regard to video-cassettes (this last question should be thoroughly investigated);

(ii) Studies, research and experiments in the field of mass media and new technology in education as applied in the training of adult students in the context of permanent education (Gozzer, Löwbeer, Ashby and Edding—Edding recommends, for this purpose, the establishment of a European supernational Foundation and stresses the significance of the concept of an Open University); the problem of standardization of teaching equipment; the establishment of a 'centre for the transfer of any successful schemes' (Sloman), and a 'centre for assessment information' (Cazes);

(iii) Promotion of the provision of software by the teachers themselves (Schwartz), and by the students (Lichnerowicz sees in this the foundation for the establishment of youth clubs based on schools); the object should be to use new technology as a creative instrument, regardless of whether it is employed by teachers or students.

In conclusion, the Community should set up a specialized body for the purpose of promoting the mass media and new technology from the angle of permanent education. This specialized body would also serve, on the technological plane, as adviser to the Community so as to ensure the concerted participation of its members in the activities of the OECD and the Council of Europe.

¹ There is, at present, a label for 'European' bread ...

Plan for a Study Group on Educational Affairs

Mr Spinelli and we ourselves thought it desirable to ask the persons on our list whether it would be expedient to set up a Study Group on the following lines:

- (i) The Study Group should not be an official agency, not even in an advisory capacity, but a semi-official body which would however, receive from the Community the resources necessary for its activities;
- (ii) The members of the Study Group would only serve on it in a purely personal capacity;
- (iii) Their number should not exceed 20 at the very most;
- (iv) The members should be nationals of the Community countries or, alternatively, belong to international agencies having links with Europe;
- (v) Members should not be members of a government or civil service of the Community member countries (Becker);
- (vi) They would be selected on the strength of their personal influence, or their competence in educational matters, and would be drawn from a wide spectrum of disciplines and activities;
- (vii) The task of the Study Group would be to answer questions forwarded by the competent Commissioner, or the Commission, with regard to education, or to take the initiative in submitting suggestions to the Commission through the relevant Commissioner.

Nearly all the persons we spoke to gave an answer in the affirmative as regards the principle of setting up such a Study Group. The majority felt that, in the initial stage, a Group constituted on these lines would be able to play an intellectually creative role. Eide opposed the idea of any kind of Standing Group endowed with general powers. Such bodies, which are not bound by any specific problem, act in an irresponsible manner, indulging in 'high policy' that leads nowhere. According to him, semi-official groups may be useful,

provided each one of them is made up of specialists, with a view to studying some well-defined problem.

Von Weizsäcker, while accepting the idea of a Study Group raised the question of its effectiveness. This, in any case, would depend on regular attendance by its members at frequent meetings which, in his experience, had proved impracticable with well-known figures of very high calibre. In order to guarantee attendance, it is, therefore, necessary to appeal to younger men of lesser distinction but still of a very high standard. This is a difficult problem. Visalberghi can only see an effective role for the Group in terms of what might be called militant innovation.

Leussink agrees with the suggestion of creating a Study Group, but thinks it necessary to ensure the appointment of a type of man who would save the Group from the disgrace of producing, perhaps, in a brilliant manner, a few more speeches.... It is imperative to banish self-satisfied generalities.

Some of our interlocutors put forward new conditions, or alternatives, in relation to those outlined at the outset:

- (i) Ashby suggested that a 'Panel' of correspondents should be set up which the Group might consult on certain problems; the starting point in constituting this Panel might be the list of persons we have questioned.
- (ii) Hoggart, Piganiol and Cazes argued that the rotation of members who would only be allowed to serve for a limited period was the prerequisite to prevent this Study Group becoming rapidly ossified.¹

¹ Nevertheless a certain basic minimum of participation is needed because consultations as such are worthless unless they originate from persons who establish links with the institution concerned and are familiar with its methods, its specific problems and its climate. Such contact must, from the outset, be fostered in a systematic manner with the specialists and executive staff of the Institution. These views are particularly apposite in so far as the EEC is concerned. Unless there is adequate 'incubation' supplemented by fairly frequent contact, any Study Group is bound to remain an extraneous body and of little use in terms of results.

(iii) Briggs stressed the need for conferring upon the Group an extensive interdisciplinary character, concerning the exact and natural sciences, the humanities and social sciences.

(iv) Peccei and Friedrichs thought it imperative that the Study Group be equipped with a competent and full-time Secretariat headed by a prominent academic;

(v) According to Becker, absolutely no publicity should be given to the activities of the Study Group.

Rovan observes that the the 'Study Group on Educational Affairs' would have functions similar to those of Advisory Committees of the White House, to certain Royal Commissions in the United Kingdom, to the French Commission for 1985 (Massé), which was set up by the General Planning Commission, to the Club of Rome, etc.

The 'Study Group on Educational Affairs' might, in the initial stage of a European educational policy, fulfil a useful function. The consequences of its possible failure would not be dramatic. It is doubtless an experiment worth trying, every stage being carefully calculated.

III. General conclusion

We shall now endeavour to present in synthesis the results of our conversations.

General data and framework of the education policy

Education is already a recognized responsibility in the framework of Community policy. The Council has already met at Ministers of Education level. One of the members of the Commission is explicitly assuming this responsibility. On the administrative level a specialized Directorate-General has been set up.

The preceding stage had consisted of the creation of the Working Party on Teaching and Education and the Working Party for Interdepartmental Coordination (representatives of the Directorates-General concerned). It should be noted that a body for coordination at administrative level between the Directorates-General will continue to be necessary.

There exist at present as educational bodies linked with Community: the European University Institute (in the course of establishment), the European Schools and the European Community Institute for University Studies. The College of Europe (Bruges) has a special position. At the same time mention must be made of the International Baccalaureat (Geneva) granted in particular by the International World Colleges (at present there is only one functioning, at St. Donat, Wales).

The Treaty comprises provisions relating to vocational training, the right of establishment and the equivalence of degrees and diplomas which directly depend on a Community education policy. We think we have been able to establish that the 'bit-by-bit' approach is inadequate and that the solution to the problems raised implies an overall concept which is inseparable from economic policy, as also from scientific policy (which derives from Euratom) and from cultural policy (awareness of which

is gradually emerging). In its turn this overall concept may not be divorced from the training of adults, which emerges from our survey as one of the priority points of a Community education policy. The cultural policy has, in any case, a potential basis: the negotiation of the contents of the cultural agreements concluded between the member countries of the Community and by these with third countries. We have mentioned that a deep current of opinion conceives cultural policy no longer only as 'show-culture' or 'inheritance-culture' but, above all as a way of life, as practices based on active and creative participation.

The scientific policy which must lead to the better use of the nuclear centres (with their biological extensions) and to a common research and development policy covering priority fields (the environment, basic resources) has led to the raising of the question of the creation of a 'Joint Research Centre' and of a 'European Foundation for Science'. How is it possible not to see that such a policy and bodies of this kind are closely linked with a European policy for universities and with the role of the 'European University Institute' now being set up in Florence ?

The major trends and the problems connected with them

We refer again below to the diagnosis of the 'Background Note' concerning the trends of education in Western Europe (see page 57):

- (i) Teaching has become, at all levels, mass teaching;
- (ii) The wish for its democratization is becoming increasingly stronger;
- (iii) The volume of knowledge to be imparted is expanding very rapidly;
- (iv) The mass media play a considerable role in education, which has ceased to be the monopoly of teaching in the strict sense;
- (v) Individuals, who are better informed than in earlier times, are determined to guide their own education.

This basic information was supplemented by the contributions of the persons we consulted:

- (i) Conflict between equality of chances in education and equality of chances in professional life (here there appears the key problem of the insertion of graduates in the changing structure of the gainfully employed population);
- (ii) The principle of permanent education;
- (iii) The absence of integration of the system of education into real social life and the separation of the school from Society, with all their consequences, particularly dissatisfaction and lack of motivation among young people;
- (iv) The bureaucratization of education and the depersonalization of school relations;¹
- (v) The end of the school's monopoly in information and culture, as far as young people are concerned (influence of mass media and leisure; decline in the role of the family; growth of urban surroundings);
- (vi) The lack of motivation among young people;
- (vii) Controlled 'deschooling' as a factor of flexibility and as an instrument of criticism of the system of education; the end of the classroom system and the growing autonomy of establishments;
- (viii) Mathematical language as a fundamental method of intellectual approach, the mastery of which is necessary in a scientific and technical society.

The crisis of values and the cultural identity of Europe — General replies

On the situation of the educational system considered in itself are grafted the effects of the crisis of values in our Society (the 'cultural revolution'). For the rest, appreciations diverge as regards the cultural identity of Europe (concerning all this, see pages 17 to 20).

As the crisis is marked by the opposition of the generations how can we solve the problem of values with a view to education ?

A few convergent appear to emerge from the discussion:

- (i) Base European culture on a harmonization of the technical and the natural environment (well-balanced ecosystems) and on social relations which restore to man a real influence on the orientations of his own life ('opaque' bureaucracy replaced by informed and democratic participation).
- (ii) Conceive European culture as being open to the outside world and welcoming its contributions. This implies that Europeans cure themselves of all feelings of superiority (the 'ethnocentrism' about which we spoke) and that Europe conceives of itself as an entity called upon to serve the world, and especially the Third World.
- (iii) Establish the final objectives of education pragmatically and in a pluralist spirit not for youth but with it.
- (iv) Aim at the best development of personalities with a view to making them more capable of mastering a changing world and more apt to make responsible choices, since the latter cannot be made a priori in a society in the process of change.

The broad lines of a Community policy

The examination of the political aspects of the problem of education at Community level (extent of functions, institutional apparatus, types of questions to be dealt with, length of the period of functions) has led us to a few conclusions, the justification of which with regard to each point is to be found in the main body of our report:

¹ However, one cannot ignore the reaction constituted by experiments and reforms in various countries and at various levels of teaching, which tend towards varied forms of this 'deschooling' taken into account in the lines which follow...

(i) It is advisable scrupulously to respect national structures and traditions where education is concerned, but to promote a necessary harmonization by means of permanent concerted action at all levels and through more and more educational exchanges;

(ii) The association of non-member European countries (more particularly Norway and Sweden) with Community initiatives must be promoted;

(iii) It is necessary to concert, at Community level, member countries' participation with other international organizations, bearing in mind particularly the advantages offered by their special fields of interest (for the OECD, technical trends and cooperation with North America and Japan; for UNESCO, cooperation with the east European countries and the Third World; for the Council of Europe, a more political and cultural approach);

(iv) It is advisable to envisage the creation of an 'Educational and Cultural Committee' on the model offered by the Economic and Social Committee;

(v) If the member countries discover that they have truly common objectives and an adequate feeling of European specificity, the idea of a 'European Charter of Education', which would provide a framework for the whole of educational thought in our region of the world, should be considered;

(vi) In Community action endeavours should be made to impose a style of effective achievement, avoiding ambitious but sterile concepts and speechifying;

(vii) It would seem that the overall concept of the policy should be based on the subjects covered by the Treaty; the approach by the choice of concrete points appears applicable preferably to fields which are not strongly structured or yet saturated (the emerging fields) and this being so, the choice should fall on adult education, the new technologies of education and the mass media and, finally, the pre-primary level, all this still from the angle of permanent education. In any case, the crux

or, if preferred, the 'crossroads' of all the problems arising here is the training or refresher training of the teaching staff concerned;

(viii) The range of action of Community education policy can only be the long term and, consequently, must be seen in terms of forward-planning;

(ix) Finally, it must be noted that, by the style of its policy, by its dimension, by the principle of the choice of its objectives and by its term, the Community has a function which is compensatory and complementary to the national policies, however with effects, spontaneous or prudently intentional, of gradual harmonization.

The European dimension to be introduced into education — Limits and possibilities

The Europeans' feeling of political, social and cultural belonging can no longer be exclusively national if a part of the attributes of the nation-state has been tested in the Community: the territory in as far as the frontiers disappear, the transfers of powers of decision to supranational bodies, the supranational jurisdictions, the right of establishment of foreigners, etc. This being so, is it possible to escape from the idea that education should comprise a European dimension wherever this is possible ?

Here we met two dampening factors:

(a) the traditional attachment to the historic nations;

(b) the fear of creating a European nationalism, a new 'power'.

The effort of European education must therefore avoid being artificial. It must be based on European practices and resort mainly to the organization of exchanges freely developed.

Above all, education must be used so that the European peoples may get to know each other better and more precisely than in the past,

when disparaging stereotypes and prejudices reigned supreme.

The actions proposed at Community level are the following:

- (i) insertion into teaching practices of a suitable proportion of examples and illustrations as well as reading texts—which are generally confined to the national sphere—tending to increase knowledge of Europe and the other peoples which are members of the Community;
- (ii) Continuation of the ‘correction’ of history textbooks with a view to expurgating or amending nationalistic, biased passages or those of a kind which would create hostile or erroneous judgements.
- (iii) Replacement of history as a catalogue of events by the study of the ‘major currents’ of the development of the sciences, techniques and labour, of the movement of law and the institutions, of nutrition (and famines), of health and medicine (and epidemics) of philosophy and religions, political ideas, culture and the arts;
- (iv) Use of geography to transcend national frontiers and to mark the relative nature of the differences and similarities of human groups; positive influences of the frontier regions;
- (v) Creation of linguistics teaching, throwing light in particular on the common structures of the European languages;
- (vi) Prudent and gradual teaching of European ‘civics’ to be based mainly on Community practices and institutions, on pluralism and on democracy;
- (vii) Examination of the opportuneness of creating an ‘agency’ at Community level to produce (or to promote the production of) didactic equipment, ranging from books to illustrative plates and from cartography to audio-visual equipment with a view to supplying teaching establishments on advantageous terms, with instruments of study of high pedagogic quality and creating or strengthening positive and well-informed attitudes with regard to Europe.

Knowledge of languages

Agreement is unanimous: one of the aims of a Community policy must be the stimulation of the knowledge of languages, as this is a necessary condition for the intensification of communications and relations of all kinds.

The fact that the study of languages also has an educational function could not justify modern languages being taught in a philological spirit.

If the Community must intervene it is asked to avoid any pressure of whatsoever form being brought to bear with a view to the study of a language. The learning of a language is a personal act which requires a personal motivation. After all, nothing is more frustrating than knowing a language without using it (many Europeans live and will live only an exclusively national, regional or even local life). And yet the need and use of the widely employed European languages will extend more and more rapidly, since cable television is being installed everywhere and offers everyone the possibility of receiving many broadcasts from foreign television stations (just as videocassettes will be edited in many different languages). Access to culture and to various types of leisure activities will consequently make at least the passive knowledge of languages in Europe more and more desired. In a future which is already beginning this reduces the problem of frustration to smaller proportions.

In any case the choice of a second language must as far as possible remain free, but this is no reason not to note that:

- (i) The demand for English will not cease to increase and will be omnipresent;
- (ii) To a lesser degree French will have to respond to a very widespread demand, especially in Great Britain;
- (iii) There will be specific demands for all the languages depending on the patterns of trade and establishment;
- (iv) Teaching arrangements will have to meet the needs of migrant workers and their children;

(v) There will have to be possibilities of studying 'third' languages such as Spanish, Russian and Chinese.

It must be noted that the use of mass media in language study will continue to grow and could partially lighten the burden of school teaching by intelligent coordination, the practical aspect of the language being acquired outside the school, while the educational and cultural aspect would depend on the latter.

The Community could act in the following ways:

- (i) Take stock of the situation and regularly assess its development;
- (ii) Survey the state of science and stimulate research regarding the best age for learning a second language and the most effective methods to train young people, adults and their teachers;
- (iii) Stimulate the generalized creation of centres technically well equipped for the teaching of languages and richly endowed with cultural documentation;
- (iv) Intensify exchanges between teachers and between the taught; generalize refresher training courses abroad for teachers;
- (v) Abolish the nationality criterion for the recruitment of language teachers.

Exchanges and equivalence of degrees and diplomas

Everyone questioned considers that the Community must make appropriate arrangements to stimulate exchanges of teachers, pupils and students.

With regard to young people the solution of the problem of the equivalence of degrees and diplomas constitutes a prerequisite.

However, the question is at a dead end. Moreover, at university level, it could no longer be solved at present, since the first degree course lasts three years in Britain and four on the continent of Europe and the idea of

an alignment in one direction or another appears to be unrealistic. Other methods than the alignment of the durations and contents of degree courses must therefore be employed, since the trend is in the opposite direction, as studies are becoming more and more diversified owing to the multiplication of options.

Another approach has been proposed: eligibility procedures accompanied by concrete guarantees which would build up a system of 'case law' and as such relegate the formalism of present negotiations into the background.

As regards the procedure itself, there are variants: either an arbitrator in each country, working on a basis of conciliation but with a right to intervene and appeal—an educational Ombudsman or mediator—or Embassy Counsellors checking on admissions. In both cases there would be a final appeal to the European Court. Reference may be made to the section 'Mobility and Exchanges', pp. 35-38.

Final degrees and diplomas, except those for responsible activities, would be accepted as equivalent by all Member Countries, on condition that they are mentioned on a Community list, noting that they are valid for the same purposes in the country of origin. Differences in the length of studies could be compensated by appropriate traineeship systems in the country where the profession is exercised abroad for the first time.

Teacher and student exchanges call for the setting up of an 'Equalization and Compensation Office' at Community level, which would be in charge of the promotion of teacher, pupil, student and researcher exchanges.

Cooperation and university consortia

We have indicated that the many possibilities for cooperation in education at Community level would be implemented in the light of the urgency of the needs compared with the resources which can be mobilized. Such problems raise management and priority questions rather than matters of principle and they can only be solved properly by Community bodies

having an administrative basis. They would normally come under the powers of the 'European Educational Development Centre' (Guichard proposal) at present being studied by a committee of high officials.

Therefore we thought that our report was not the proper framework to propose actions priorities, which moreover would need to be broken down in the light of the activities—either in train or possible—of the other international organizations where the Nine are involved: Council of Europe, OECD and UNESCO.

Let us therefore confine ourselves to recalling that the activities in question deal with statistics (to be made comparable and categorized according to the needs of analysis) with information, pedagogical research, the exchange and joint execution of pilot experiments (technological, pedagogical and relating to didactic material, ranging from infant school to university and adult level.

But we chose the idea of having university consortia, often suggested by the people we have spoken to.

The general drift of the conclusions is as follows:

- (i) In principle, one should not opt for general consortia but for agreements which would coordinate action on specific points and well-defined departments;
- (ii) In principle, over-large consortia should be avoided, as very often bilateral agreements are easier to 'administer' and produce more results;
- (iii) In principle, the fields of teaching and research should be linked; this being so, consortia with a view to setting up 'centres of excellence' and enabling the European university to benefit from the 'scale' factor, seem to be called for, preferably at postgraduate level (with particular attention to interdisciplinary projects);
- (iv) Consortia at first or second year or 'bachelor' level present difficulties or even

dangers: the numbers which must be taken into account, the advantage involuntarily given to the better off students, the lack of pedagogical and scientific supervision of the 'guest' students, due to the number of national students at this level. In any case this type of mobility must be ruled out in the first study year, as the selection procedure has not been completed in the majority of cases;

(v) Appropriate types of consortia can be envisaged between universities in border areas;

(vi) The Community should set up a University cooperation and exchange service¹ which would endeavour to promote the conclusion of consortia by assuming the following roles in particular: working out of model statutes with the university representatives, subsidies (at least for the initial period), information and creation of contacts.

Priority for permanent education —

Some proposals

The vast majority of our interlocutors believe that the field of permanent education should be the priority one for Community intervention and this for the following reasons:

First of all, this field responds to multiple and concrete needs, in a domain much less structured than the classical levels of education and where less work has been done. On the other hand its development relies on one prerequisite: the generalization of legislation on paid study holidays (the essential material basis for real expansion) and their harmonization (which is laid down by the Treaty: in fact they are social burdens which will become increasingly heavier as time goes by. The principle of permanent education unavoidably implies the transformation of the whole educational

¹ This could be part of the office which has been suggested for exchanges in general and for the financial compensations which these entail (see above).

system: if training is no longer limited to young people but becomes a socio-cultural dimension of life as a whole, then this phenomenon appears as a factor of fundamental transformation of the traditional educational system, whose objectives, structures and contents must change radically, as they are then no longer a complete process but only preparatory or, better, introductory. Though for some time considered revolutionary, this opinion is accepted as being obviously true today (Council of Europe, OESD, UNESCO, reform programmes, such, for example, as that of the Swedish Committee U68).

Moreover, by its 'open' attitude and because of its extremely individual needs, adult training—in the framework of permanent education—offers the best possible scope for experiments with the mass media and new educational technologies.

This field is less 'organized', less covered by homogeneous interests, less affected by inertia, and has closer links with the working and business world, and is thus more open to experiments with new didactic methods. In this way, it will lead to the problem of training and retraining of teaching personnel as a whole being posed in fresh terms.

Therefore, it will appear that one of the 'cross-roads' of the problem is education of the 16 to 19 age group, which must now form the first phase of adult education rather than the last phase of school education, as has been the case until now. It is also a period where non-obligatory study and professional work occupy their respective places and where, consequently, systems of alternation and reciprocal traineeships could be imagined (some exist already).

As regards adult training the data collected argue in favour of very flexible methods of organization which would combine teaching and professions, schools and firms: day studies, instructive work in business, reciprocal traineeships, evening classes, correspondence courses, individual or collective classes by mass media, with video-cassettes or video tapes, etc. tomorrow.

Universities should put themselves, or be put, in a position at this level to respond to adult needs for regular studies, or retraining or complementary training. The Open University is a good method of responding to needs which are being increasingly expressed.

All in all, the aim is to establish a system which would constitute a balance between three factors:

- (i) Individual choice and self-training;
- (ii) Control by public authorities;
- (iii) Contribution by firms but with trade union participation.

That is what 'a controlled deschooling' is.

In conclusion, our talks brought out some Community aims and forms of action:

- (i) Taking systematic stock of the situation in adult education with an evaluation of the results from the angle of permanent education;
- (ii) Generalization and harmonization of legislation relating to study holidays and their financing;
- (iii) The promotion of permanent education by including it in cultural agreements;
- (iv) Assistance to universities in broadening their teaching methods in adult training, either by themselves or by the formation of consortia;
- (v) Study of European Open University;
- (vi) The progressive internationalization of retraining measures;
- (vii) Experiment in creating multinational border districts for adult training.

Before deciding on a priority programme and in order to ascertain how the needs are interpreted, the Commission should convene a European Conference for non-governmental organizations, which are active in permanent education.

Mass-media and new education technologies

The employment of mass-media for an educational end and of new educational technologies, after arousing general enthusiasm, has in

fact proved very disappointing. It had been hoped to reduce unit costs considerably in this way, by replacing artisan practices (school classes) with industrial methods. When these methods were introduced, they were used only as auxiliaries to the normal pedagogical services—certainly extremely enriching ones—so that, instead of lowering costs, the operations was in fact extremely expensive. Teachers show a great resistance to a complete change in their teaching methods, more by inertia than by deliberate opposition.

This is therefore one of the problems which be taken up by the Community. For the reasons mentioned earlier the most suitable area for doing this would be adult education. In this framework one of the most promising aspects would be the use of video-cassettes, which can be utilized by small groups with extreme facility, on condition that a few problems are solved (competition rules, copyright, consumer protection, quality labels, standardization, etc.).

These guidelines incline one to propose that the Community should act by setting up a body competent to deal with software as well as hardware problems. This body would also be the Communities' adviser in concerting the Member States' participation in OECD and Council of Europe activities. One must look for the best institutional method, which is perhaps the foundation.¹ As regards the most practical methods of employing the mass-media and new technologies, one could perhaps be guided by the open university or, at primary level, the open-area school. The Community body should promote research and experiment in this field, both in the technical and the pedagogical field.

*

Our conclusions as a whole imply priority choices. Everything cannot be launched at the same time. One must adopt the best type of actions and also be in a position to develop each initiative to the full.

It is from this angle that a Study Group could be established.² Such a body could be set up fairly quickly. It would not need large resources and it would work discretely.

At the beginning an educational policy should have sensitive antennae directed towards the whole socio-cultural environment. With a view to contacts, surveys and necessary investigations, a Study Group, because of its unofficial nature, would therefore be preferable to the immediate setting up of an Educational and Cultural Council; this will, however, be necessary in the second phase on the basis of experience already acquired.

Henri JANNE

¹ This legal form is perhaps the best one to associate the private and public sectors in order to set up a 'semi-public economy' in this field.

² P. 47.

Annex

Background note

1. Today young people entering on their working life have been educated in surroundings where educational systems have profoundly changed.

These changes, which are influencing present day Society and will model that of the future, are characterized by the following facts:

- (i) Teaching has become mass teaching on all levels;
- (ii) The aspiration to make it more democratic is becoming increasingly stronger;
- (iii) The knowledge imparted is developing very rapidly;
- (iv) The mass-media play a considerable part in education, which is no longer a monopoly of teaching as such;
- (v) The individual, who is better informed than in earlier times, wants to determine himself the lines on which he will be educated.

2. As regards culture, a veritable revolution is rocking the different social classes in all European countries. This revolution is calling the affluent society into question and is seeking other values to serve as a basis for a new civilization. As a result, our younger generations and those which will follow them are, or will be, at the confluence of today's problems and those which the future will present.

As all the implications of these problems cannot yet be discerned, public authorities and teachers are questioning themselves on the content, methods and means of education, whose aim is to prepare Man to accomplish his tasks and to attune him to tomorrow's realities.

3. The Institutions of the European Community must play a part—with the natio-

nal and, possibly, regional or local authorities—in adapting education as a whole.

Educational Europe will add at least two further aspects to the European edifice:

- (i) A change of dimension, due to the widening of national horizons to a Community which has itself been enlarged and which henceforth is in a position to assume worldwide responsibilities;
- (ii) A change in direction, through the desire for union and the choice of a common destiny which will have to be lived in the richness of a diversity fully recognized and exploited.

We must draw up and define the education policy, which should be implemented at Community level, so that the educational process (transmission of learning and diffusion of culture, teaching and adaptation to the cultural environment) will satisfy the aspirations of the individual and at the same time respond to the present and future needs of Society.

Memo on talks

1. In the European unity which will progressively come into being, education must preserve diversities, but in a spirit of change. Each national community must, therefore, continue in the future to promote its culture and to educate people in it.

Diversity and exchange will be best achieved by teaching a second language, from the first level of education. Once a sufficient knowledge of this language has been acquired, it will be employed as a medium to assimilate the culture of which it is the instrument. Mass-media and new educational technologies will give easy access to this second language; numerous stays in the surroundings where this language is spoken will do the rest (see below: 'mobility'). The Communities are competent for this.

Can one envisage Community regulations or directives to bring about a generalized knowledge of a second language ?

2. Education at European level must be based on a process of mobility for teachers and pupils (languages in particular should be taught by teachers of corresponding nationalities). The acquisition of knowledge abroad should also be given its full value and recognized and made materially possible.

For higher education one semester at least should be spent in an establishment in another European country during a 'standard period' of two or three years of study. The system of study periods should be compulsory, given official sanction and make provision for this mobility. Here again, the Communities are in the best position to act and produce results. It is above all a question of conceiving and creating institutional and financial machinery.

3. Teaching should have a European dimension wherever possible. In this respect, mention can be made of geography, history, cultural, political, and civic training. This

teaching must be brought up to date, that is to say immersed in the full development of life and creativity. In this respect, according to Bertrand Schwartz, it must mobilize the 'resources' offered by the surroundings. School should no longer be the only training ground, but also business, cities, institutions, social organizations, cultural centres, etc. Here again, mobility between European countries must be given full scope. This is another matter for the Communities, which must go beyond the bilateral aspect of cultural agreements. (These, in any case, cover activities that are too traditional and conformist). A Community body to provide the necessary stimuli, a European 'UNESCO' should be set up.

4. At university level, the forming of consortia with well-defined goals seems to be the best method for exchanges and the best framework for mobility. Here, the Communities must play the role of promoters, particularly by creating the necessary means, encouraging the preparatory contacts and suggesting objectives.

5. Permanent education, which has become necessary because of rapid change in knowledge and techniques, implies, for its progressive generalization, large expenditure and the mobilization of major resources, but it improves Man's calibre in every field of production. Concerted action at European level is necessary from the outset because of too sharp differences between European countries in this effort or costly experiments which duplicate each other. Political and technical bodies should be set up for this end at Community level. Permanent education, as against the school systems—rigid and cumbrous—and the sporadic diversity in traditional adult education, appear to provide a 'worksite' open and ready for Community action.

6. New technologies in education and the systematic application of the mass media are in their infancy all over Europe. The sophisticated nature of the software in particular, the considerable expenditure which has to be envi-

saged in this field, the industrial orientations to be promoted and the problems raised by control of educational syllabuses, pedagogics and objectives borne along by new technologies, create the need to set up an agency for coordination and initiative in Europe. Here, however, one wonders what kind of agency is best equipped for this end: The Communities? OECD (CERI)? The Council of Europe? This same question is also pertinent in connection with research in education.

7. We will here leave aside, despite its importance, the question of creating a general body like the 'Educational Development Centre' (Guichard proposal), because it is a problem that has already been raised on the political level and is being dealt with by a committee of high officials. Should this body be a Community one or intergovernmental? This is a problem that comes within the field of political possibilities.

In any event educational policy in Europe requires at least the setting up of a powerful Information Centre covering all aspects of this vast field. But once again, to which organization should it be linked? Communities? OECD? Council of Europe? Should it be an organ *sui generis*? On any assumption, experience indicates that up-to-date and complete information is the raw material of any efficient policy and saves sometimes extremely heavy expenses resulting from duplicated effort or insufficient knowledge of what has been or is being done.

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