DOC1 - 2004: KEY COMPETENCES FOR LIFELONG LEARNING
The framework is the first European-level attempt to provide a comprehensive and well-balanced list of the **key competences that are needed for personal fulfilment,** social inclusion and employment in a knowledge society.
'Competence' is considered to refer to **a combination of skills, knowledge, aptitudes and attitudes**, and to include the disposition to learn in addition to know-how. A 'key competence' is one crucial for three aspects of life:
a. **personal fulfilment and development throughout life (cultural capital)**: key competences must enable people to pursue individual objectives in life, driven by personal interests, aspirations and the desire to continue learning throughout life;
b. **active citizenship and inclusion (social capital)**: key competences should allow everybody to participate as an active citizen in society;
c. **employability (human capital):** the capacity of each and every person to obtain a decent job in the labour market.
Key competences represent a transferable, multifunctional package of knowledge, skills and attitudes that all individuals need for personal fulfilment and development, inclusion and employment. These should have been developed by the end of compulsory schooling or training, and should act as a foundation for further learning as part of lifelong learning
It is proposed to apply the framework for key competences across the full range of education and training contexts throughout lifelong learning, as appropriate to national education and training frameworks.
Table 1. Overview of key competences
Competence Definition
Communication in the mother tongue
Communication is the ability to express and interpret thoughts, feelings and facts in both oral and written form (listening, speaking, reading and writing), and to interact linguistically in an appropriate way in the full range of societal and cultural contexts — education and training, work, home and leisure.
Communication in a foreign language
Communication in foreign languages broadly shares the main skill dimensions of communication in the mother tongue: it is based on the ability to understand, express and interpret thoughts, feelings and facts in both oral and written form (listening, speaking, reading and writing) in an appropriate range of societal contexts — work, home, leisure, education and training — according to one's wants or needs. Communication in foreign languages also calls for skills such as mediation and intercultural understanding. The degree of proficiency will vary between the four dimensions, between the different languages and according to the individual's linguistic environment and heritage.
Mathematical literacy and basic competences in science and technology
Mathematical literacy is the ability to use addition, subtraction, multiplication, division and ratios in mental and written computation to solve a range of problems in everyday situations. The emphasis is on process rather than output, on activity rather than knowledge. Scientific literacy refers to the ability and willingness to use the body of knowledge and methodology employed to explain the natural world. Competence in technology is viewed as the understanding and application of that knowledge and methodology in order to modify the natural environment in response to perceived human wants or needs.
Digital competence
Digital competence involves the confident and critical use of electronic media for work, leisure and communication. These competences are related to logical and critical

thinking, to high-level information management skills, and to well developed communication skills.

At the most basic level, ICT skills comprise the use of multi-media technology to retrieve, assess, store, produce, present and exchange information, and to communicate and participate in networks via the Internet.

Learning-to-learn

'Learning-to-learn' comprises the disposition and ability to organise and regulate one's own learning, both individually and in groups. It includes the ability to manage one's time effectively, to solve problems, to acquire, process, evaluate and assimilate new knowledge, and to apply new knowledge and skills in a variety of contexts — at home, at work, in education and in training. In more general terms, learning-to-learn contributes strongly to managing one's own career path.

Interpersonal and civic competences

Interpersonal competences comprise all forms of behaviour that must be mastered in order for an individual to be able to participate in an efficient and constructive way in social life, and to resolve conflict where necessary. Interpersonal skills are necessary for effective interaction on a one-to-one basis or in groups, and are employed in both the public and private domains.

Entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship has an active and a passive component: it comprises both the propensity to induce changes oneself and the ability to welcome, support and adapt to innovation brought about by external factors. Entrepreneurship involves taking responsibility for one's actions, positive or negative, developing a strategic vision, setting objectives and meeting them, and being motivated to succeed.

Cultural expression

'Cultural expression' comprises an appreciation of the importance of the creative expression of ideas, experiences and emotions in a range of media, including music, corporal expression, literature and plastic arts.

DOC2 - 2005: A New Framework Strategy for Multilingualism
The more languages you know, the more of a person you are.
(Slovak proverb)
I.1 MULTILINGUALISM AND EUROPEAN VALUES
The European Union is founded on 'unity in diversity': diversity of cultures, customs and beliefs - and of languages. Besides the 201 official languages of the Union, there are 60 or so other indigenous languages and scores of non-indigenous languages spoken by migrant communities. It is this diversity that makes the European Union what it is: not a 'melting pot' in which differences are rendered down, but a common home in which diversity is celebrated, and where our many mother tongues are a source of wealth and a bridge to greater solidarity and mutual understanding. Language is the most direct expression of culture; it is what makes us human and what gives each of us a sense of identity. Together with respect for the individual, openness towards other cultures, tolerance and acceptance of others, respect for linguistic diversity is a core value of the European Union.
I.2 What is multilingualism?
Multilingualism refers to both a person's ability to use several languages and the co-existence of different language communities in one geographical area. In this document, the term is used to describe the new field of Commission policy that promotes a climate that is conducive to the full expression of all languages, in which the teaching and learning of a variety of languages can flourish. The Commission's multilingualism policy has three aims:

• to encourage language learning and promoting linguistic diversity in society;
• to promote a healthy multilingual economy, and
• to give citizens access to European Union legislation, procedures and information in their own languages.

The ability to understand and communicate in more than one language – already a daily reality for the majority of people across the globe - is a desirable life-skill for all European citizens. It encourages us to become more open to other people's cultures and outlooks, improves cognitive skills and strengthens learners' mother tongue skills; it enables people to take advantage of the freedom to work or study in another Member State. In March 2002, the Heads of State or Government of the European Union meeting in Barcelona6 called for **at least two foreign languages to be taught from a very early age**. The Commission's long-term objective is to increase individual multilingualism until every citizen has practical skills in at least two languages in addition to his or her mother tongue. As a recent Eurobarometer survey shows half of the citizens of the European Union state that they can hold a conversation in at least one language other than their mother tongue. The percentages vary between countries and social groups: 99% of Luxemburgers, 93% of Latvians and Maltese, and 90% of Lithuanians know at least one language other than their mother tongue, whereas a considerable majority in Hungary (71%), the UK (70%), Spain, Italy and Portugal (64% each) master only their mother tongue. Men, young people and city dwellers are more likely to speak a foreign language than women, old people and rural inhabitants, respectively. The percentage of primary school pupils learning a foreign language is increasing. However, the average number of foreign languages taught in secondary schools is still some way from the target set in Barcelona. Furthermore, there is a growing tendency for 'foreign language learning' to mean simply 'learning English'; the Commission has already pointed out that 'English is not enough'.

DOC3 - 2008: White paper on Intercultural dialogue
1.1 The Council of Europe and intercultural dialogue
Promoting intercultural dialogue contributes to the core objective of the Council of Europe, namely preserving and promoting human rights, democracy and the rule of law.
3.1 The notion of intercultural dialogue
For the purpose of this White Paper, intercultural dialogue is understood as a process that comprises an open and respectful exchange of views between individuals and groups with different ethnic, cultural, religious and linguistic backgrounds and heritage, on the basis of mutual understanding and respect. It requires the freedom and ability to express oneself, as well as the willingness and capacity to listen to the views of others. Intercultural dialogue contributes to political, social, cultural and economic integration and the cohesion of culturally diverse societies. It aims to develop a deeper understanding of diverse world views and practices, to increase co-operation and participation (or the freedom to make choices), to allow personal growth and transformation, and to promote tolerance and respect for the other. Intercultural dialogue may serve several purposes, within the overriding objective to promote full respect for human rights, democracy and the rule of law. It is a powerful instrument of mediation and reconciliation: through critical and constructive engagement across cultural fault-lines, it addresses real concerns about social fragmentation and insecurity while fostering integration and social cohesion. Freedom of choice, freedom of expression, equality, tolerance and mutual respect for human dignity are among the guiding principles in this context. Successful intercultural dialogue requires many of the attitudes fostered by a democratic culture – including open-mindedness, willingness to engage in dialogue and allow others to express their point, a capacity to resolve conflicts by

peaceful means and a recognition of the well-founded arguments of others. It contributes to strengthening democratic stability and to the fight against prejudice and stereotypes in public life and political discourse, and to facilitating coalition-building across diverse cultural and religious communities, and can thereby help to prevent or de-escalate conflicts – including in situations of post conflict and "frozen conflicts".

4.3 Learning and teaching intercultural competences

The competences necessary for intercultural dialogue are not automatically acquired: they need to be learned, practised and maintained throughout life. Public authorities, education professionals, civil-society organisations, religious communities, the media and all other providers of education – working in all institutional contexts and at all levels – can play a crucial role here in the pursuit of the aims and core values upheld by the Council of Europe and in furthering intercultural dialogue

4.3.1 Key competence areas: democratic citizenship, language,history

Education for democratic citizenship is fundamental to a free, tolerant, just, open and inclusive society, to social cohesion, mutual understanding,intercultural and interreligious dialogue and solidarity, as well as equality between women and men. Education for democratic citizenship involves, *inter alia*, civic, history, political and human-rights education, education on the global context of societies and on cultural heritage. It encourages multidisciplinary approaches and combines the acquisition of knowledge, skills and attitudes – particularly the capacity for reflection and the self-critical disposition necessary for life in culturally diverse societies. Language is often a barrier to conducting intercultural conversations. The interculturalist approach recognises the value of the languages used by members of minority communities, but sees it as essential that minority members acquire the language which predominates in the state, so that they can act as full citizens. Language learning helps learners to avoid stereotyping individuals, to develop curiosity and openness to otherness and to discover other cultures. Language learning helps them to see that interaction with individuals with different social identities and cultures is an enriching experience.

The Committee of Ministers' recommendation on history teaching in 21st century Europe (2001) stressed the need to develop in pupils the intellectual ability to analyse and interpret information critically and responsibly, through dialogue, through the search for historical evidence and open debate based on multiperspectivity, especially on controversial and sensitive issues. History teaching is instrumental in preventing recurrence or denial of the Holocaust, genocides and other crimes against humanity, ethnic cleansing and the massive violations of human rights, in overcoming the wounds of the past and in promoting the fundamental values to which the Council of Europe is particularly committed; it is a decisive factor in reconciliation, recognition, understanding and mutual trust between peoples. History teaching in a democratic Europe should occupy a vital place in the training of responsible and active citizens and in the developing of respect for all kinds of differences, based on an understanding of national identity and on principles of tolerance. History teaching must encompass the elimination of prejudice and stereotypes, through the highlighting in history syllabuses of positive mutual influences between different countries, religions and schools of thought over the period of Europe's historical development as well as critical study of misuses of history, whether these stem from denials of historical facts, falsification, omission, ignorance or re-appropriation to ideological ends.

4.3.2 Primary and secondary education

In a multicultural Europe, education is not only a means of preparing for the labour market, supporting personal development and providing a broad knowledge base; schools are also important fora for the preparation of young people for life as active citizens. They are responsible for guiding and supporting young people in acquiring the

tools and developing attitudes necessary for life in society in all its aspects or with strategies for acquiring them, and enable them to understand and acquire the values that underpin democratic life, introducing respect for human rights as the foundations for managing diversity and stimulating openness to other cultures. Within the formal curriculum, the intercultural dimension straddles all subjects. History, language education and the teaching of religious and convictional facts are perhaps among the most relevant. Education as to religious and convictional facts in an intercultural context makes available knowledge about *all* the world religions and beliefs and their history, and enables the individual to understand religions and beliefs and avoid prejudice.

DOC4 - 2008: Levels of Autonomy and Responsibilities of Teachers in Europe
1.1. Teaching responsibilities, school autonomy and decentralisation

In the great majority of European countries, new responsibilities were originally assigned to teachers as a result of growing school autonomy and, more broadly speaking, to decentralisation. While in most school systems – even the most centralised – teachers had already long been free to choose their teaching methods and materials (school textbooks, etc.), the reforms concerned with school autonomy, often coupled with decentralisation measures, now enabled them to become actively involved in devising school education plans. It is expected that this new-found autonomy and the freedom which in principle goes with it will lead teachers to develop their creativity and ability to innovate, while becoming more actively engaged and thus more motivated, and encourage more differentiated provision better suited to the heterogeneity of the school population that has occurred with 'mass secondary education' and comprehensive education. Except in certain pioneering countries such as Finland, which from the 1980s embarked on an education policy anchored in a 'culture of trust', the majority of these policies for curricular autonomy gathered momentum in the 1990s. This occurred, for example, in Estonia with the *National Curriculum for Basic School*, as well as in Spain with the 1990 LOGSE strengthened by the 2006 Education Act, 8(...) in Lithuania with the 1992 'General Concept of Education' Act, or yet again in Slovenia with the major reform of 1996.

In other countries, the trend towards greater curricular autonomy has been more recent. This applies to Italy in which, in accordance with the subsidiarity principle, the central government has since 2000 enacted national recommendations instead of detailed curricula as in the past. (...) France is now considering the prospect of greater teaching autonomy and recently convened the Pochard Commission to institute broad discussion of the working conditions of teachers (with a view to redefining and broadening their responsibilities, establishing the number of hours they should work annually and diversifying their duties). Overall, in virtually all countries that have long been centralised from an educational standpoint, new more flexible guides to teaching content have been introduced. They have enabled teachers to contribute locally to the development of educational content.

That said, in 2007, the trend towards greater curricular autonomy has not been universally followed in all European countries. On the contrary, some of them have moved in the opposite direction. Restrictions in autonomy and broadening of the responsibilities assumed by teachers are occurring both in countries in which educational provision has long been decentralised, as in Belgium (grant-aided private schools), the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, and in those, such as Hungary, which followed broader policies in this respect from the 1990s onwards. These exceptions highlight the fact that greater curricular autonomy does not fully account for the increased responsibilities of teachers in all contexts. Thus in the three Communities of Belgium, the responsibilities of teachers were broadened overall, while the room for manoeuvre of schools and their administrative authorities or bodies, as education providers, was at the same time steadily limited by the development of standards specifying the aims of this provision. In the United Kingdom (England and Wales), centralising measures were introduced by the Education Reform Act 1988, which established compulsory minimum curricula for the first time. More detailed curriculum frameworks and resources were subsequently introduced in England, such as the literacy and numeracy strategies. Whilst teachers valued the additional support provided through these initiatives, they often found that the pace and manner of change added to the pressures they were experiencing. Since 2003, measures to tackle workload pressures have been introduced in England and Wales. Additionally, since 1995, reviews of the curriculum have increased the

level of flexibility available to schools and teachers. The new *National Curriculum* for 11-16-year-olds, which is due to come into effect in September 2008, should allow for greater flexibility when devising curricula at local level. In the Netherlands, the teaching programmes of school competent authorities or bodies and of schools themselves have also been guided since 1993 by the introduction of standards that were reformed in 2006. Curricular autonomy is also called into question in countries that have more often than not developed strong policies towards it since the 1990s. The substantial freedom that teachers still undoubtedly exercise in these countries now goes hand in hand with new frameworks to guide their action. For example, measures limiting the curricular autonomy of teachers in Hungary, including the obligation to undertake in-service training, were initiated at the end of the 1990s and introduced over several years. The 2003 *National Core Curriculum* has become more detailed even though it still leaves teaching staff substantial scope for flexibility. Similarly, 'educational programmes and packages' have been tested in 120 schools at ISCED 1 and ISCED 2 since 2005. These new educational resources are intended to provide teachers with practical guides, mainly in the form of teaching materials, to help them plan their work, prepare their lessons and assess pupils. Likewise in Denmark, in which freedom of education remains the basic rule, a 2003 amendment to the Act on *Folkeskole* states that the Ministry of Education is now responsible for defining national 'common objectives' for observance in principle. Furthermore, in the case of compulsory subjects, the Ministry now produces more detailed curriculum guidelines. While admittedly these documents have only advisory status, they appear to be very widely followed by municipalities and teachers alike. Sweden – which back in 1993 introduced a goal-based curriculum in place of its former content-based one – has called into question its extensive school autonomy. Policy-makers are now envisaging a reform that would represent a move towards more strictly specified curricular content. Their desire for action stems from the findings of many surveys by the inspectorate revealing that goal-based curricula become difficult for teachers to interpret and lead to major inequalities in school academic requirements. The 'Inquiry on Objectives and Follow-Up in Compulsory School' reporting in 2007 highlighted the need to provide teachers with curricular content that was more precise and easier to interpret. It emphasised that the wide variety in local interpretations of the curriculum had created marked differences between schools that were tending to compromise the existence of the 'comprehensive school' in any meaningful sense.

These contrasting developments in the freedom of teachers in education clearly characterise this area of school autonomy. While in the administrative and financial fields as well as human resources management,the last two decades have witnessed the virtually non-stop transfer of responsibilities from the central authorities to local players, in the area of teaching itself, reforms have tended to converge less, clearly demonstrating the lack of any consensus regarding the benefits of curricular autonomy. In some types of system, this approach to school organisation is viewed as a powerful factor in improving the quality of teaching and learning, whereas in very decentralised systems it is regarded as a potential risk liable to prevent the priority goals of educational effectiveness and equality from being achieved.

To sum up, the increase in responsibilities entrusted to teachers for some 20 years may, in the majority of European countries, be seen as one outcome of greater school autonomy, at least from a collective standpoint. The broader range of options in education should indeed not be confused with the acquisition of greater individual freedoms. On the contrary, in many countries it is clear that these newly acquired collective responsibilities actually reduce the capacity of individual teachers to take their own classroom decisions. Where the curriculum is worked out in detail at school level in terms of content, timetable and pupil assessment, teachers are obliged to cooperate in a way that inhibits their individual classroom independence. However, a number of noteworthy exceptions demonstrate that other factors also lie behind current changes in the teaching profession, including the search for improvement in school performance.

DOC5 - 12.5.2009: Council Conclusions on a strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training ("ET 2020")
Strategic objective 2: Improving the quality and efficiency of education and training:
Pursue work on :

• Language learning: To enable citizens to communicate in two languages in addition to their mother tongue, promote language teaching, where relevant, in VET and for adult learners, and provide migrants with opportunities to learn the language of the host country.

• Professional development of teachers and trainers: Focus on the quality of initial education and early career support for new teachers and on raising the quality of continuing professional development opportunities for teachers, trainers and other educational staff (e.g. those involved in leadership or guidance activities.).

• Governance and funding: Promote the modernisation agenda for higher education (including curricula) and the quality assurance framework for VET, and develop the quality of provision,including staffing, in the adult learning sector. Promote evidence-based policy and practice, placing particular emphasis on establishing the case for sustainability of public and, where appropriate, private investment.

Develop cooperation on :

• Basic skills in reading, mathematics and science: Investigate and disseminate existing good practice and research findings on reading performance among school pupils and draw conclusions on ways of improving literacy levels across the EU. Intensify existing cooperation to improve the take-up of maths and science at higher levels of education and training, and to strengthen science teaching. Concrete action is needed to improve the level of basic skills,including those of adults.

• "new Skills for new Jobs": Ensure that the assessment of future skill requirements and the matching of labour market needs are adequately taken on board in education and training planning processes.