



THE EUROPEAN MILITARY HIGHER EDUCATION STOCKTAKING REPORT

Sylvain Paile

May 2010





THE EUROPEAN MILITARY HIGHER EDUCATION STOCKTAKING REPORT

Sylvain Paile

May 2010

This brochure is published by the General Secretariat of the Council; under the responsibility of the ESDC and it is for information purposes only.

For any information on the European Council and the Council, you can consult the following websites:

www.european-council.europa.eu

www.consilium.europa.eu

or contact the Public Information Department of the General Secretariat of the Council at the following address:

Rue de la Loi/Wetstraat 175

1048 Bruxelles/Brussel

BELGIQUE/BELGIË

Tel: +32 (0)2 281 56 50

Fax: +32 (0)2 281 49 77

Internet: www.consilium.europa.eu/infopublic

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

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

ISBN 978-92-824-2525-1

doi:10.2860/23460

QC-31-10-421-EN-C

© European Union, 2010

Printed in Belgium

Sylvain Paile is a researcher at the European Studies Unit, Department of Political Science – Faculty of Law and Political Science - of the University of Liège (Belgium).

He is the author of a study for the Royal Military Academy of Belgium about the adaptation of its education policy to the development of the European Security and Defence Policy, published in 2009.

Acknowledgement

Our greatest thanks to Professor Quentin Michel and his European Studies Unit for having made this study possible,

No less for the European Security and Defence College Secretariat, Hans-Bernhard Weisserth, Dirk Dubois, Dan Trifanescu and Cesare Ciocca for their great support, advices, trust and patience along this study,

Our thanks to those who fuelled this study with their contributions, support and discussions: the Implementation Group of the Initiative, the military educational institutions, their points of contact in the conduct of the Initiative and the Bologna Secretariat of the Benelux presidency for their constant patience and our fruitful debates.

A Virginie

Contents:

FOREWORD	11
INTRODUCTION	13
CHAPTER ONE: DEVELOPING EXCHANGES BETWEEN NATIONAL ARMED FORCES	15
ENHANCING INTEGRATION: A LONG-STANDING EUROPEAN CHALLENGE	15
<i>At the level of the Member States and their institutions</i>	<i>15</i>
<i>At the multinational level</i>	<i>17</i>
THE BIRTH OF THE INITIATIVE:	20
<i>The preparation of an EU Presidency</i>	<i>20</i>
<i>Military aims and implementation</i>	<i>21</i>
SCOPE OF THE INITIATIVE:	25
THE FIRST STOCKTAKING SURVEY:	27
<i>The results of the stocktaking: first insights into European diversity in military education</i>	<i>27</i>
<i>The need for a second stocktaking</i>	<i>29</i>
CONCLUSIONS	29
CHAPTER TWO: COMPONENTS OF AN EUROPEANIZATION OF MILITARY HIGHER EDUCATION	31
TIME ORGANISATION IN MILITARY EDUCATION	31
<i>Elements of the organisation of curricula to be compared:</i>	<i>32</i>
<i>Method used in comparing the organisation of curricula:</i>	<i>34</i>
COMPARING EDUCATIONAL OUTCOMES	34
<i>Looking for common references in terms of learning outcomes</i>	<i>35</i>
<i>The choice of reference qualification frameworks</i>	<i>36</i>
THE BOLOGNA PROCESS AND MILITARY OFFICERS' EDUCATION	43
<i>The Bologna Process: Lifting the barriers to knowledge mobility</i>	<i>44</i>
<i>The action lines of the Bologna process</i>	<i>47</i>
<i>Remaining challenges for European higher education</i>	<i>51</i>
<i>Dealing with the specificity of officers' education</i>	<i>55</i>
<i>Voluntary integration of this acquis</i>	<i>58</i>
<i>Contribution of the European military education institutions' experiences to the Bologna process: prospective views</i>	<i>59</i>
EXCHANGES BETWEEN THE INSTITUTIONS	61
LANGUAGE POLICIES	64
EDUCATION RELATED TO EUROPEAN AND INTERNATIONAL DIMENSIONS OF SECURITY AND DEFENCE	65
CONCLUSIONS	66

CHAPTER THREE: THE ORGANISATION OF MILITARY HIGHER EDUCATION IN EUROPE	67
METHODOLOGY OF THE STOCKTAKING PROCESS:	67
TIME ORGANISATION IN MILITARY HIGHER EDUCATION	68
<i>The terms of the basic education:</i>	68
<i>The actors of the basic education:</i>	70
<i>Looking for mobility windows:</i>	71
QUALIFICATIONS FOSTERED BY MILITARY HIGHER EDUCATION – COMPARATIVE APPROACH	72
<i>The lack of a common approach:</i>	72
<i>A growing culture of the qualifications:</i>	74
<i>Reading qualifications:</i>	75
IMPLEMENTATION OF BOLOGNA PROCESS/RECOGNITION CONDITIONS	80
The academic education and the Bologna process:	80
Recognition in vocational training:	90
EXCHANGES IN MILITARY HIGHER EDUCATION	95
LANGUAGE EDUCATION	100
EUROPEAN SECURITY AND DEFENCE POLICY EDUCATION	102
CONCLUSIONS	103
CHAPTER FOUR: WAR-INTEGRATED LEARNING: COMMON IDENTITY OF EUROPEAN MILITARY HIGHER EDUCATION	105
MIXING ART AND SCIENCE: EUROPEAN PRINCIPLE OF MILITARY EDUCATION	105
<i>Prepare for armed conflicts</i>	105
<i>Work and vocation: the shape of military education</i>	108
<i>Rationalisation of military education and the objective of interoperability</i>	109
<i>A theory of socialisation in the work environment</i>	111
A MERGING PRINCIPLE: INTERPRETATIONS OF THE DATA COLLECTED	112
<i>National searches for balance between vocational training and academic education</i>	112
<i>Leadership training: the heart of the specificity of military education</i>	114
<i>Towards the rise of a military science</i>	116
<i>Looking for models: work integration classification</i>	118
CONCLUSIONS	121
CHAPTER FIVE: FROM OBSERVATION TO ACTION: THE FIRST SUCCESSES OF THE INITIATIVE	123
RESULTS ACHIEVED SO FAR, THE ROAD TOWARD INTEGRATION	123
<i>The “quick wins”: the first stones of the Initiative</i>	123
<i>The “lines of development”:</i>	128

THE NEED FOR A SUPPORTIVE CONSENSUS AROUND THE INITIATIVE	136
<i>Support for the Initiative</i>	136
<i>Follow-up of the Initiative</i>	136
<i>Refining the other stakeholders' roles</i>	137
LAYING THE FIRST STONE: LEARNING ESDP THROUGH ESDP	138
<i>Preparation of the ESDP seminar pilot project</i>	138
<i>Distance learning: a tool for teaching ESDP</i>	140
<i>The residential module</i>	142
<i>Lessons learnt</i>	147
CONCLUSIONS	149
GENERAL CONCLUSIONS:	150
ANNEX: THE ORGANISATION OF TIME IN EUROPEAN BASIC OFFICERS' EDUCATION (REPRODUCTION OF SCHEDULES)	151
BIBLIOGRAPHY	173

Foreword

When the European Initiative for the exchange of Young officers was launched under the French EU Presidency in the second half of 2008, the task of supporting the Initiative was given to the secretariat of the European Security and Defence College. The secretariat then started a first stocktaking of the situation in the Member States, collecting a lot of information allowing to develop the recommendations that were agreed by the Council in November 2008.

However, even with the support of the ESDC network Institutes and the Implementation Group that was created to give the Initiative shape, the ESDC secretariat is not equipped to execute the more detailed analysis that is required to take certain parts of the Initiative forward to the next phase. Luckily we could count on the voluntary support of the European Studies Unit, Department of political Sciences of the University of Liège to collect the information that is still missing, to analyse this information and to visualise it in a more conceptual form.

One of the main characteristics of the education of young officers in the initial phase of their career is that it usually contains both purely academic aspects as well as more professional, vocational aspects. Moreover, some aspects that are approached in one Member State in an academic way, are considered in another Member State in a more vocational way. One good example of this is leadership.

To complicate things even further, each Member State has for historical reasons found different solutions to organise their educational system. There is no common understanding between the Member States about how the education of a young officer should be organised or what competences he or she should have. This report does not strive to answer that question, but does describe in detail how the curricula of the military education institutes are organised in the Member States, so that the suitable periods for exchanges can be identified.

But military higher education is not isolated in the Member States. As the military education systems of the MS provide academic and/or vocational higher education, they are influenced by the Bologna process and can participate in the European Life Long Learning Programme financed by the European Commission and more particularly in the Erasmus programme and as such are an integral part of the European Higher Education Area. This study gives an overview of how far the military training institutes of the Member States are in the implementation of the Bologna process and in what fields progress still needs to be made.

However, exchanging students and teaching staff only makes sense if the education and training is recognised in the sending Member State. For that, the learning outcomes of the training should be comparable. This report identifies the challenges that still remain in this field and looks forward to see whether a solution is in the making. Once the learning outcomes are comparable, hopefully sufficient confidence can be created between the Member States so that the education in another Member States can be recognised in the sending Member State.

The preliminary conclusions of this study were already made available to the Implementation Group in September 2009 and formed an important milestone in the implementation of the Initiative. With the publication of this report, the Implementation Group will dispose of crucial information to take its work forward and to identify new steps that should be taken to achieve the final objective of the Initiative: to provide Europe with a generation of young officers from all Member States that can work together easily, respecting cultural diversity, to achieve our common objectives.

Dirk Dubois
ESDC Secretariat

Introduction

Generally speaking, there is continuous interaction between education and the realities of the world of work. In one sense, education provides the labour market with human resources. In another, the labour market requires human resources that are adapted to the various occupations, and teaching must therefore reflect the environments in which students may find themselves working. This reciprocal influence is all the more noteworthy and necessary at the level of higher education as this is the final stage before the student enters the labour market. Hence the economic theories of supply and demand also apply to university-level education, and with that in mind, teaching establishments should incorporate the idea of competitiveness in their mission statements. The initial training of young officers, which prepares them academically and vocationally for starting out on their career, does not follow the same rules, although it also comes within the realm of higher education. In the military sphere the balance between supply and demand is maintained thanks to educational and professional continuity.

The recruitment of officer-cadets by training colleges depends on the manpower requirements of the armed forces. The idea of competitiveness is not the same as in civilian higher education since the institutes specifically set up for training young officers generally come under the Ministries of Defence, which are the “end users” of these manpower resources. While globalisation is gradually infiltrating civilian higher education as a result of the mobility and internationalisation of careers and professions, this is of little consequence in terms of possible competition between military institutions. Policies affecting the organisation and missions of the armed forces remain by nature sovereign. The armed forces have control over the guardians of national defence and they train their future personnel themselves.

That the concept of competition cannot be applied to military training does not, however, mean that competitiveness is absent. Recent decades have highlighted the need for military training to be recognised as competitive in the broad sense. With the end of the Cold War, the loss of an identifiable enemy and the removal of the threat to national territories was instrumental in leading European societies to question the legitimacy of the status of the armed forces and, in particular, their officers. The maintenance of a military elite separate from the intellectual elite, trained more in solving problems on the ground than in thinking in the round and supposedly acting as a drain on public budgets, was challenged. During the 1990s European States initiated drastic cuts in the size of their armed forces. Officer ranks were also affected and careers became shorter. Officers who had been educated in the armed forces encountered significant difficulties in retraining for the civilian labour market because of this loss of standing and the unsuitability of their qualifications in the eyes of civilian society¹. This social and societal lack of recognition led the armed forces to review military education and bring it into line with civilian standards. Thus over the last ten years the colleges where young officers receive their initial training have opted to integrate gradually into European higher education, using instruments such as Erasmus and the Bologna process, and to foster academic excellence in their curricula. However, if the move has been towards more closely resembling civilian education, complete assimilation between the latter and its military alter ego is undesirable since the specific nature of military training, that is to say the training of soldiers and decision-makers, must naturally be preserved. Hence today these institutions are recognised throughout Europe for the quality of the education they provide, and they train military and intellectual elites for national armed forces.

The actual international security framework itself is a factor in developing the competitiveness of initial training for young officers, with personnel being trained to deal with any situation that might arise in a theatre of operations or in armed forces' administration. International operations involving the deployment of armed forces, except for those relating to the defence of the territory of one of the parties or the territory of a State within the sphere of influence of one of the parties, are now in most cases multilateral.

¹ Paul Klein and Reinhard Mackewitsch, Selection and education of officers in the German armed forces, in Giuseppe Caforio (eds.), *The European officer: A Comparative View on Selection and Education*, European Research Group on Military and Society, Edizioni ETS 2000, p. 76.

Multilateralism, implying a virtual philosophy of acting in concert, is sometimes substituted by “multilaterality” where involvement is more pragmatic, as was the case in Iraq in 2003; nonetheless, it is the case that States no longer engage alone in operations to maintain or restore peace. The reason certainly lies in the fact that, as mentioned previously, defence budgets have often been cut and can no longer support intervention that may involve rebuilding State infrastructures and therefore be lengthy. Furthermore, modern societies no longer accept, or at least much less readily, the sacrifice of their soldiers on missions not regarded as vital to the nation. Lastly, it could be argued that this multinationalisation of operations is also the result of participation, in the case of United Nations operations, by “new” States from all continents; States which, before the fall of the Berlin Wall, did not traditionally take part in conflicts and which now wish to flex their muscles in a multipolar world.

The consolidation of the European Security and Defence Policy (ESDP) over the past ten years, renamed Common Security and Defence Policy (CSDP) since the Lisbon treaty², underlines the increasingly important need to train future generations of elite members of the armed forces in the Europeanisation of their missions. With the alignment of national defence policies as the basis, the progress made now needs to be perpetuated by developing a European security and defence culture through learning how to work together and live together and by becoming familiar with the shared objectives of the ESDP States. The profession of officer is, more than any other, an international one. This must be reflected right from the start in the training of young officers.

It was in this spirit that the European Young Officers’ Exchange Scheme, based on the Erasmus programme, was launched in the ESDP framework under the French Presidency of the European Union during the second half of 2008. The scheme is intended to enable future officers, and also their teachers, trainers and staff from their training colleges, to experience intercultural exchanges and gain a glimpse of European diversity before they are plunged into it in a theatre of operation and one day themselves have the power to influence the conduct of this policy. However, it is not at all a question of preparing the ground for some kind of “European army” but of relying on possible complementarities in national expertise.

This study is intended to determine the factors conducive to attainment of these objectives and the obstacles that stand in the way. A preliminary survey conducted on the basis of questionnaires returned by the 27 Member States made it possible to draft the recommendations set out in a political declaration by the Ministers of Defence in 2008. The concrete implementation of these recommendations requires an in-depth analysis of the individual national features that make up European military training. This study is the result of those investigations, carried out from January to December 2009, but it also describes the growth of the scheme and sketches the outlines of a European identity in the training of military elites.

This study is divided into five chapters. The first explains the objectives of the European scheme and defines its scope. The second describes and analyses the broad lines of the survey as it was implemented. The third reports on the results of the questionnaires and identifies potential paths for greater European integration of military curricula. The fourth chapter reflects on the outcome as regards the quest for a European identity in the matter of initial military education. Lastly, the final chapter describes the initial successes in implementing the scheme and attempts to identify long term developments.

2 In this study, we will use indifferently the two names and their acronyms (ESDP or CSDP).

Chapter One:

Developing exchanges between national armed forces

The European Initiative for the exchange of young officers during their initial education, inspired by the Erasmus programme, is based on the idea that military education aims at providing the future military elites with an understanding of the socio-political context of their work. In most European countries, this has principally been done by increasing the proportion of intellectual training and bringing initial military education ever closer to the civilian higher education model. As of 2009, 6 European military institutions have taken the name of “universities”. This name has far more than symbolic meaning and, as a matter of fact, not only do these 6 institutions provide an education to a level similar to that of their civilian counterparts but military “schools”, “academies” and “colleges” have also followed this trend, yet have preserved their military aims and traditions. We will show, in this chapter, how the integration of their educational approaches through the exchange of knowledge and know-how is not a new topic in the European arena (1), and that the Initiative is meant to facilitate realisation of this long-held objective (2). We will also provide basic definitions that can be used throughout this study as the bases for a picture of European military education as a whole (3). Finally, we will review the initial information that the first stocktaking investigation, during the preparation of the Initiative, provided as a starting point for this specific study (4).

Enhancing integration: a long-standing European challenge

The idea of exchanging or communalising defence education as it is generally understood is not new. Many initiatives have already been proposed in different configurations, which by their successes or failures influenced the shape taken by the Initiative for the exchange of young officers.

At the level of the Member States and their institutions

Progress in the internationalisation of military training courses is often initiated by a group of States following a “hard core” logic. The French and Germans, as early as 1963, launched a joint initiative deserving of mention. President de Gaulle and Chancellor Adenauer signed the Elysée Treaty on 22 January 1963 establishing a common structure called the Franco-German Security and Defence Council, and called for integration of the training of their military officers: “Exchanges of personnel between the armed forces will be increased. These particularly concern teachers and students from the general staff schools. They may include temporary detachments of entire units. In order to facilitate these exchanges, an effort will be made on both sides to give the trainees practical language instruction”³.

This desire for integration is still maintained today. Indeed, the Council, in a proposal of October 12 2006⁴, put forward a project to communalise modules of Navy officers’ training schools.

Furthermore, but this time more unilaterally, France proposed the creation of a European school-fleet, based on the model of French Navy servicemen’s training on board the *Jeanne d’Arc*⁵, of which the cost would be shared collectively by the participating States. To date, this proposal has not led to any concrete results. The project has not met with the required consensus among the potential participants. In particular it is felt that the process of socialisation at sea, necessary to the training of a naval officer, can only be effective

3 Elysée Treaty (also known as the Franco-German Friendship Treaty), joint declaration by President de Gaulle and Chancellor Adenauer, Paris, 22 January 1963.

4 Declaration of the Franco-German Security and Defence Council, 12 October 2006.

5 The *Jeanne d’Arc* is the French Navy ship used for final year training of French Navy officers. Cadets embarking on her sail around the world as a practical training.

if it takes place through the medium of the mother tongue rather than in English⁶, which would however be necessary if the training were internationalised. However, the Franco-German Council has achieved successes within the framework of the exchanges as called for in the Elysée Treaty. Indeed, since 1993 in the case of the Navy and since 2006 for the Army, France and Germany have each successfully exchanged cadets for the completion of the entire curriculum of the partner State, and still do. French cadets, around two per year and per component, complete the entire German officer's curriculum, dressed with a German uniform and in the German language before coming back to France and being commissioned as French officers. The same happens with German cadets. Such exchanges imply a high level of trust between the two educational systems because an officer is posted for the first time in his or her national armed forces without having followed the national curriculum.

Other examples of such integration may be observed in Europe today. In particular it may be seen in the training of pilots through the communalisation of equipments. French and German helicopter pilots are trained together; Belgian pilots are trained with their French colleagues⁷.

Other efforts have consisted in organising the networking of the military institutions or the cadets themselves. At this latter level, it is worth mentioning the attempt to create a network of cadets within a Conference of European Military Schools and Academies (CEEAM by its French acronym). This experimental conference was organised in 2002 in the French Army Schools of Saint-Cyr Coëtquidan, again in 2003 in Brussels and in Italy in 2004⁸. It was intended to bring together students from the military institutions of the European Union, Canada, the United States, Russia and Norway in order to consider the possibility of a true "European academy". For organisational and financial reasons relating to the travel requirements of the participants, this experience was not repeated on such a large scale. However, France for example is still pursuing this concept by allowing cadets to meet and discuss topics within the Inter-Forces Seminar of the Military Schools (SIGEM by its French acronym) and regularly invites foreign cadets to take part in these discussions. The Scandinavian cadets also convene regularly in order to discuss their common interests.

At the level of the educational institutions also, since the end of the 1990's, integration has been implemented through networking. The naval academies, acting in the field of officers' initial training, created a forum called the Conference of the Superintendents, which brings together heads of institutions from 18 States, including Norway and the United States. Its aim is to improve cooperation between the participating institutions, for example in making training available to others or in organising events such as regattas. As early as 2001, the Conference of Superintendents saw the importance of the Bologna Process initiated only two years before and started thinking about its implications and challenges for the future of military education. For Air Force officers' education, a similar forum was created and called the European Air Forces Academies (EUAFA). It brings together the heads of educational institutions of 18 countries, including Switzerland, Norway and Turkey. Its aim is similar to that of its naval counterpart and its achievements have been remarkable, in particular the fact that it gives cadets the opportunity to meet for short events, for example athletics. It may be asked at this stage whether an EU initiative is needed, given that these institutions have already found ways to cooperate. Before going into the details of the realities of cadet exchanges, it will be noticed that none of these fora actually meets in a purely "European Union" configuration in the sense that their members could all be ESDP Member States. An initiative in a configuration corresponding to the European

6 "Rapport d'information de l'Assemblée Nationale française sur la formation des cadres dans les écoles militaires" presented by Jérôme Rivière, Commission de la Défense Nationale et des Forces Armées, 26 March 2003.

7 Sylvain Paile, *L'Enseignement militaire à l'épreuve de l'Européanisation : Adaptation de la politique de l'enseignement pour l'Ecole royale militaire de Belgique aux évolutions de la PESD*, Thématisques du Centre des Sciences Sociales de la Défense n° 19 (Paris: C2SD, January 2009).

8 See for example the opening speech of Major-General Singele, Commandant of the Royal Military Academy of Belgium, on the launching of the pole of excellence for "European security" of the RMA and the Saint-Cyr Coëtquidan Schools, Brussels, 22 September 2006.

Union remains therefore desirable and necessary. More recently, the initial Army training institutions of the 27 EU Member States have followed these examples and their heads have agreed to meet within a forum known as the European Military Academy Commanders Seminar (EMACS). Since it was created in 2008, the EMACS discussions seem to focus particularly on exchange activities in the same way as its counterparts, and more particularly on the outcomes and expectations of the Initiative. For the Gendarmerie, no such forum has been created so far. The European Gendarmerie Force, composed of 6 EU Member States, is an operational network, which so far has not focused on the integration of officers' initial training.

At the multinational level

Recommendation 724 of the Western European Union (WEU), entitled *Developing a security and defence culture in the ESDP*⁹, may be considered as in the avant-garde with regard to the objective of integrating officers' education at a European level. Indeed, it not only states that the curricula of the national schools and academies should be brought closer but also that parts of the training be compulsorily conducted internationally. In the introductory part of the Recommendation, the WEU notes that initial education is not systematic and structured in the same way in the different countries that were taken by a preliminary study as a sample. More practically, the document urged in particular that:

- Existing collaboration be reinforced;
- Hard cores and permanent structures be set up for military training as well as academic education;
- The armed forces be trained to their new tasks beginning with initial training.

The Recommendation also notes that various proposals linked to these topics were made and that the Assembly of the WEU politically supported these initiatives. In 2002, Greece proposed establishing common capabilities in the field of the training of the militaries to the ESDP. Finally, Recommendation 724 welcomes the bilateral proposal of the Franco-German Security and Defence Council, set up by President Mitterrand and Chancellor Kohl and aimed at creating a European Security and Defence College¹⁰ (ESDC). According to the WEU, the creation of the ESDC would contribute to the “*opening (of the ESDP) toward the civilian institutions*” as well as to the “*implementation of a common culture of security and defence*”. The WEU Assembly reaffirmed its support for this project in its Recommendation 741¹¹, in which it asks all the Member States to “*Engage in an active policy of exchanges between European military schools, and establish a European defence college with a multinational, joint services intake with the aim of promoting higher training for officers and developing a common approach to a civil and military response to operations conducted in the ESDP framework*”. The WEU Assembly Recommendations 724 and 741 thus touch on issues concerning both initial training – notably in calling for increased cooperation between the military schools - and advanced training of officers – notably in calling for a “higher” level of training. Nevertheless, as the following examples of multinational frameworks will illustrate, more was done for the advanced level of education, i.e. education in the course of the officer's career, than for the initial level.

9 WEU Assembly document A/1816, Recommendation n°724, “Developing a security and defence culture in the ESDP”, 3 June 2003; reporter: Mrs Katseli.

10 Initiated by the Mayence Declaration of the Franco-German Security and Defence Council, 9 June 2000.

11 WEU Assembly, Recommendation n°741 “On European defence: pooling and strengthening national and European capabilities – reply to the annual report of the Council”, 3 December 2003.

The European Security and Defence College, a tangible symbol of the rise of a European culture in the field of defence, was effectively created within the framework of the EU during the Thessaloniki European Security and Defence Council, 19-20 June 2003¹², and implemented by Common Action 2005/575/ CFSP of the Council, 18 July 2005, “establishing a European Security and Defence College (ESDC)”¹³. A Secretariat, within the structure of the General Secretariat of the Council of the EU, runs the activities of the College, coordinates the action of the ESDC network of scientific and academic institutions and supports the Brussels-based training activities. Indeed, the activities of the ESDC are made possible because of the contributions of the Member States, represented in the Steering Committee of the College¹⁴, and of the national institutes, represented in the Executive Academic Board¹⁵. The first objective it was assigned, with an important symbolic load, was to “*further enhance European security culture within ESDP*”. Its other objectives, more specific, could be analysed as subsidiary to this:

- To promote a better understanding of ESDP as an essential part of the Common Foreign and Security Policy (CFSP);
- To provide EU instances with knowledgeable personnel able to work efficiently on all ESDP matters;
- To provide Member States’ administrations and staff with knowledgeable personnel familiar with EU policies, institutions and procedures;
- To help promote professional relations and contacts between training participants.

In the Council Joint Action 2008/550/CFSP of 23 June 2008, “establishing a European Security and Defence College (ESDC)”¹⁶ and repealing Joint Action of 2005, the ESDC was given two new tasks, including the task to “*support exchange programmes in the field of ESDP between the Member States’ training institutes*”. It legally enabled the ESDC to be active in the field of education, supposedly including also the initial level of the training of military officers and their respective institutions, as it became the object of the Initiative some time after. In the mean time, this joint action supplied the ESDC with a legal capacity for the fulfilment of its missions.

The ESDC gives the opportunity to around 60 participants designated by the Member States – maximum 2 per Member State - and by candidate countries or neighbourhood policy countries to become familiar with the mechanisms and values of the ESDP. Two kinds of courses were originally organised. The high level course lasts for a year, split into 5 residential modules organised on a weekly timeframe. They take place in the different schools belonging to the ESDC network, in the different Member States. The residential modules are supplemented by distance learning provided online. The first session was organised during the 2005-2006 academic year. The orientation course is a shorter one, which gives military and civilian participants the benefit of a first strategic insight into the ESDP.

12 It should be noted that it was also during this Council that a consensus was reached concerning the strategic objectives of the Union published in the European Security Strategy 12 December 2003.

13 Published in Official Journal, L 194, 26 July 2005, p.15.

14 The Steering Committee of the ESDC ensures the co-ordination and the guidance of the training and usually convenes in Brussels. It is assisted, in its tasks, by the Secretariat of the ESDC.

15 The Executive Academic Board implements the training activities and ensures the quality and the coherence of the training provided by the ESDC. The Institute for Security Studies (ISS) of the European Union is also represented at the Board. It is assisted, in its tasks, by the Secretariat of the ESDC.

16 Published in the Official Journal JO L 176, 4 July 2008, p.20.

The ESDC's courses take particular account of the relationship between civilian and military aspects of the ESDP¹⁷, not only with regard to the audiences involved but also in the content. The mutual understanding between the roles of the different actors and the management of capabilities testify to the great importance which the civilian dimension and its relationship to military capacities have for ESDP. The civilian aspect is not limited to the rule of law: exercises are organised as part of these curricula in order to stress the importance of civilian participation in this post-modern defence policy. Special courses are even available to train civilians for the role they might have in external missions of the EU, as well as in missions of the United Nations or the OSCE. Flexibility is thus one of the most important aspects of these teachings.

The ESDC offers training courses that may be seen as completing the training offer by other institutions, Member States or European institutions such as the European Police College (CEPOL). At present, however, the training offered by the ESDC does not relate to the initial level of an officer's education. This might evolve in the future because the ESDC considerably extended its range of new courses in the first few years of its existence, notably on ESDP mission planning, civil-military coordination, capability development, peace building, Security Sector Reform, international humanitarian law and the law of armed conflicts¹⁸.

A parallel might be drawn between the implementation of the ESDC and the long experience of the NATO Defence College (NDC). The NDC is a permanent structure of the Alliance created in 1951 and is located in Rome. It contributes to the implementation of the strategic objectives assigned to the Allied Command Transformation (ACT)¹⁹ in the field of education, individual training and exercises for NATO, Partnership for Peace (PfP) and Mediterranean dialogue actors. The aim of the NDC is to train personnel, high level military or civilian staff, for senior appointments within NATO or national armed forces, to promote cooperation and conduct research activities. The training courses last for a period of 6 months but the structure is also supplemented by input from other schools belonging to the same network:

- The NATO Defence School, providing educational support for operations for the ACT²⁰;
- The Communications and Information Systems Schools, also providing strategic support for the ACT mission.

The NDC and the network of structures have made an important contribution to the development of a NATO Defence culture. The main difference compared with the ESDC is that the European Union is not a military organisation. Therefore, because of the civilian aspects of the ESDP, the ESDC should not be compared directly to the NDC and the same approaches should not be expected. However, these training centres operate, as does the ESDC, at the advanced level of the education of possible officer-participants. Because a security culture must be stimulated as early as possible in the course of training, it was decided within the framework of NATO to take action also in the sphere of initial training. A PfP Education and Training Network was created and, in 1998, a PfP Consortium of Defence Academies and Security Studies Institutes was given the task of "*strengthening defence and military education through enhanced national and*

17 It should be pointed out here, that most of the ESDP operations conducted up to 2010 were civilian operations.

18 Council conclusions on ESDP, 2974th External relations Council meeting, Brussels, 17 November 2009.

19 Besides the ACT, NATO has an Allied Command Operations, which is in charge *inter alia* of collective training and evaluation of the functioning of the headquarters and the formations.

20 Five other training bodies are also included in the NATO training network: the Joint Analysis and Lessons Learned Centre, the Joint Forces Training Centre, the Joint Warfare Centre, the NATO Maritime Interdiction Operational Training Centre and the NATO Undersea Research Centre.

*institutional cooperation and increasing the scope of multinational research on critical issues confronting nations*²¹. Despite the fact that these objectives relate more to the countries outside the NATO sphere, it should be stressed that some of NATO's activities do in fact fall within the scope of the initial education of military officers. In September 2009, the Partnership Action Plan for Defence Institutions Building (PAB-DIB), launched during the Istanbul summit in June 2004, produced a "reference curriculum" that can be used as a basis for the organisation of officers' initial education in requesting countries²². This curriculum is inspired by the necessity to bring the security sector institutions of a requesting country under democratic and effective civilian control. Three themes are developed in this model: *public administration and governance, defence management and economics, ethics and leadership*.

Finally, it is worth mentioning that multinational attempts to integrate officer training are not limited to the action of international organisations. There are cases in which more than two countries have decided to integrate their education systems. Within the EU, this is the case of the model of the Baltic Defence College, providing for example an *Army intermediate command and staff course* or a *Joint command and general staff course* to the military officers of the three Baltic countries, over the course of their careers. The frame is multinational but the objective, rather than European and linked to ESDP, is regional.

From the review of all these experiences, it may thus be said that an initiative focused on the European Union area and the initial training of military officers remains to be attempted. However, existing structures such as the *fora* of the military institutions - in which it may not be easy to discuss the implementation of European educational reforms because of the possible presence of actors external to the EU - need to be taken into account as an important condition of the success of any initiative.

The birth of the Initiative:

The Initiative for the exchange of young officers, inspired by Erasmus, was launched under the French Presidency of the EU during the second semester of 2008. Its preparation, as is the case for all matters dealt with during a Presidency, was a long process that had its roots before this timeframe.

The preparation of an EU Presidency

In September 2007, the French Ministry of Defence (MoD) decided to create, within its own Military Staff structure and the "Presidency" unit, a special "Military Erasmus" sub-unit, to be in charge of the preparation of the Initiative intended to boost exchanges of cadets and educational personnel between military higher education institutions. The task of this unit, assisted by the legal services of the MoD, was to evaluate interest in this project, and promote it at European level. It accordingly focused in its first few months, on assessing the main characteristics and specificities of officers' education in general, helped by the French military schools, and detailing the directions to be taken by the project. Since the very beginning of its preparations, indeed, it seemed clear to the unit that any project in this area would have to take due account of the autonomy and traditions of the different Member States in military education. If there was one principle to be followed, at this stage, it was that the Initiative would not foster European integration through standardisation, but only by harmonisation.

At the beginning of 2008, the "Military Erasmus" unit focused its investigations on the shape that this project should take and met with the Brussels' actors to define the broad outline of its organisation. The

21 PfP Consortium of Defence Academies and Security Studies Institutes' webpage <https://consortium.pims.org/blogs?from=10> (19 November 2009).

22 Partnership Action Plan for Defence Institutions Building - Reference Curriculum, released 9 September 2009 (<https://consortium.pims.org/reference-curriculum-partnership-action-plan-for-defense-institution-building>).

ESDC agreed to lend its support to the project and its cultural objectives. Information was provided by the European Commission on the Erasmus exchange programme, notably regarding its suitability for use by military educational institutions. Some of the national military institutions had already signed an Erasmus charter and used it for exchanges. At that point, therefore, preparation of the Initiative faced a fundamental question: is the Initiative a project to be included under the first pillar of EU policies (Community) or does it come under the second pillar (Common Foreign and Security Policy CFSP/ESDP)? It was, indeed, also true that the project might be considered to fall within the field of higher education as much as within that of defence. Furthermore, the Commission had no objection to the military institutions using the Erasmus programme. On the one hand, as the project's first objective was to contribute to a European culture of defence, it was decided to take the ESDP option. On the other hand, the Erasmus programme as it exists was not to be duplicated, but its use was to be promoted among the military institutions.

In parallel to this thinking and in order to involve a maximum of EU Member States in the project, the unit prepared questionnaires, in cooperation with the ESDC, to be circulated among the 27 MoDs and investigating their officers' initial educational systems and their opinions on the directions to be taken by the Initiative. The project and its objectives were also informally presented and discussed within *fora* of military pedagogy scientific experts. During summer 2008, the questionnaires were distributed and the replies were processed by the ESDC in a stocktaking report²³. On the one hand, the project seemed to benefit from strong support, not only from the Member States willing to participate, but also from the European Parliament, which in June 2008 called for the launch of such an initiative²⁴.

However, the stocktaking document showed wide variation in European military education not only in the organisation of the curricula – some Member States having basic training only at Bachelor level and others at Master's level - but also in the form of their exchanges - ranging from complete integration of their curricula to simple courtesy visits. This brief study also demonstrated the need for more extensive education in ESDP-related issues and a major interest in the development of exchanges, expressed even by Member States having no national education capacity²⁵. This stocktaking, which will be analysed in greater detail in a later section of this chapter, has revealed itself extremely helpful for the drafting of recommendations by the Politico-Military Group (PMG). After discussions during the Deauville informal meeting of the Defence Ministers on October 1 and 2, the Council of the European Union, in its Defence configuration, endorsed these recommendations in the political declaration (hereafter called the Declaration) of November 10 2008²⁶.

Military aims and implementation

The Declaration, a politically binding document, states that this initiative – officially entitled “European Young Officers Exchange Scheme, modelled on Erasmus” at this stage - is meant to develop interoperability in the initial training of officers, while respecting national specificities and traditions. The various measures recommended should not therefore be seen as a “harmonisation” in the sense of “standardising” the curricula, but more as reducing the differences that might impede the mobility of students and teaching staff. Three directions were stressed for achieving this objective.

The first part of the recommendations deals with measures to be taken at European level. Those that are common to both academic and vocational training - i.e. professional and military - include the measures

23 General Secretariat of the Council, Document 12843/08.

24 European Parliament Resolution of 5 June 2008 on the implementation of the European Security Strategy and ESDP (P6_TA(2008)0255).

25 Cyprus, Luxembourg and Malta.

26 Council Conclusions on the ESDP, 2903 External Relations Council meeting, Brussels 10 and 11 November 2008, Annex II. Council of the European Union, Document 5155/1/08.

necessary in order to compare the skills and competences required of the cadet during his/her curriculum, to create a database presenting the programmes offered by the military institutes and the demand for/supply of these in exchanges, and to identify obstacles to the enhancement of these exchanges. On the academic aspects of the training more specifically, the Declaration recommends developing ESDP and international security training modules to be proposed to the military institutions and facilitating access to internet-distance learning in order to expand the range of what is offered by the institutions, notably in the field of ESDP education. The ESDC is to play a major role in that particular area since this already forms part of its educational mandate, but addressing other audiences. It is also asked to develop, on the model of academic training, credit transfer systems such as the ECTS and methods of encouraging exchanges in military vocational training.

The second part of the recommendations concerns the Member States and their military institutions. Two points relate to the implementation of the Bologna process. Member States are asked to encourage this integration of the *acquis* and to recognise education received in other Member States, which is a major point of the process. Moreover, they are asked to encourage mobility of students and teaching staff and to promote the development of education in foreign languages, and learning of, two foreign languages within the institutions.

The third part concerns the arrangements for implementation of the Initiative and the organisation of short-term developments. A working party is to be created within the framework of the ESDC Academic Board in order to implement the directions set by the Ministers and supplement them with other measures.

The Initiative as conceived is intended to enhance a European culture in the field of security and defence, fostering awareness of sharing a single identity and objective among those concerned.

At the individual level first of all, simplified mobility and the acquisition of new knowledge, both theoretical and practical, would greatly contribute to the professional development and broad-mindedness of the future officer. The open educational context would also favour his/her absorption of the ethics and values which go into building the European concept. This would apply to both the exchange students and to the hosting institution's own students through social interaction. The scientific, academic and instructing staff exchanged would also benefit, in their own work, from interaction with new ways of thinking and doing.

Military institutions, then, would obviously benefit from this opportunity to show the excellence of their education and to demonstrate their role and visibility in the European Higher Education Area.

Member States would have the use of the capacities of these experts both in the conduct of ESDP and in multilateral contexts. Their armed forces would have improved abilities to work with foreign partners and allies.

Finally, the European Union itself would quite certainly benefit from the experience of interoperability gained by officers for any multilateral operations it might be willing to engage in.

On an abstract level, we would suggest distinguishing two main approaches whereby the Initiative is used to promote ESDP consciousness and stimulate two corresponding aspects of an emerging culture: a formal direction and a normative one.

The purpose of the formal approach, in our view, is to accustom students to their potential role in the European defence context. Although European armed forces may be involved in various forms of multinational operations such as United Nations missions or NATO operations, flexibility must be emphasised as a major ingredient of the European officer's make-up. At the institutional level, this suggests that there needs to be a

debate within military institutions on the role of the use of languages such as English, adaptation of the ECTS system to vocational training, or the use of cooperation instruments such as Erasmus. The recommendations outline some of these points, as explained above, in stressing the mobility challenges. Through exchanges of knowledge and values, the Initiative would trigger a process of “Europeanisation” of defence education and consequently stimulate the emergence of what might be termed a “European culture of defence”.

The normative approach is concerned with the extent of students’ knowledge of European defence issues, improvement of which is urged in the recommendations. Accordingly, the matter is a subject for debate only at the national institutions’ level: the number of courses related to such issues, the importance of this kind of instruction in the curricula (compulsory or not, whether the ECTS should be attached, dedicated time, etc.). The military institutions are therefore asked to teach the cadets the “Europeanisation” of defence, which is expected to contribute to another aspect of European culture in the area of security and defence: a “European defence culture”.

Besides these two main approaches followed by the Initiative, a third may be outlined: the possibility of “crossover”. This combines both formal and normative approaches by providing an appropriate European environment for a specific type of ESDP training. A practical implementation of this idea might be developed through the combined training projects that are called for in the recommendations. The organisation of common academic modules by partner institutions, probably under the aegis of the ESDC, would provide the students with shared knowledge in a shared environment. To this end, academic resources might also be rationalised and common values may arise from the resulting social interaction. This particular possibility would thus combine both the two cultural aspects mentioned above and constitute an important symbol for the emergence of a European culture of security and defence.

At the end of November 2008, the French EU Presidency organised a European seminar for an initial discussion of the measures to be taken among the European authorities concerned with the first phase of training. The discussions held stressed once again the diversity existing between the various educational systems but the seminar also enabled the opportunities offered by participation in the Erasmus exchange programme to be set out. Notwithstanding general support for the Initiative, already pledged by the respective Defence Ministers, discussions focused on the means of improving exchanges. As has repeatedly been stated, military institutions had exchanged cadets even before the Initiative and it is one of the objectives of the branches’ *fora*. All those involved seemed to be looking for reassurance that their traditions and know-how would be protected from a top-down approach. The discussions and information were thus very helpful in ensuring that the principle of subsidiarity would also apply to the Initiative and that it would preserve existing synergies.

Following this first contact between those concerned with European military education, the implementation phase started. The ESDC began by inviting the Member States to designate points of contact for participation in the Implementation Group (IG) to be set up, and the legal and political framework in which the IG could work in coordination with the ESDC Steering Committee, the ESDC Academic Board and the EU Military Committee. In parallel, the ESDC Secretariat started organising the work for a second, and more detailed, stocktaking process aimed at comparing the training curricula offered by the national institutions and supplying information to the database to be created, as prescribed by the political declaration. This stocktaking task was given to the European Studies Unit of the University of Liege (Belgium), which had already made a similar study on a smaller scale for the Belgian Royal Military Academy²⁷, the aim being to continue and detail the stocktaking surveys carried out in 2008, provide scientific support for the actions of the IG and make an evaluation of the first results that might be achieved by the action of the IG.

27 Sylvain Paile, *L’Enseignement militaire à l’épreuve de l’Européanisation : Adaptation de la politique de l’enseignement pour l’Ecole royale militaire de Belgique aux évolutions de la PESD*, op. cit.

New questionnaires were prepared at the end of 2008 and circulated among the 27 EU Member States in January 2009. The rules of procedures of the Implementation Group²⁸ were established on 29 January 2009 by the ESDC Steering Committee. According to these rules, the IG is a project-oriented configuration of the Executive Academic Board of the ESDC, with the mission to “*implement the measures agreed at European level and to contribute to the implementation of those recommended at national level*”. It is also “*a forum to share best practices and experiences in the area of exchanges of young officers*” and its measures with an impact at the European level shall be endorsed by the Steering Committee. It is chaired by the EAB Chair, assisted by the Secretariat of the ESDC, and its members, designated by the Member States or their institutions involved in the initial training of the military officers on a voluntary basis, convene at least four times a year, usually in Brussels. However, in order to fit the purposes of the Initiative and to make the best use of the progresses achieved in the European higher education in general, the IG can invite representatives from the European Commission or the Bologna process’ structures. Eventually, the first IG meeting took place on 19 February 2009 in Brussels and started work on 5 “quick wins”:

- Implementation of a common module on ESDP (quick win 1);
- Provision of internet access to raw data of detailed stocktaking (quick win 2);
- Creation of a dedicated forum for the exchange programme (quick win 3);
- Creation of a framework agreement for administrative and legal challenges linked to the Initiative (quick win 4);
- Development of other common training modules (quick win 5).

Finally, it is worth mentioning here the debate held regarding the name of the initiative, because it illustrates the full complexity of issues connected to the enhancement of exchanges of young officers and of the personnel of military institutions, within a European decision-making process. At the outset, the preparation phase of the project was also aimed at promoting it, and the name “military Erasmus” came to mind as a natural and easily remembered name. However, the project is in no way intended to be a duplication of the Erasmus programme. It is intended to promote all the possible methods the military institutions might use to increase their cooperation and the conditions to achieve this integration objective. For this reason, the name “military Erasmus” was not only inadequate to describe the project but was also confusing regarding the existence of the Erasmus programme as a solution for exchanges. It was decided to adopt, by including it in the political declaration by the 27 EU defence ministers, the title of “European young officers exchange scheme, modelled on Erasmus”, which finally turned into “European initiative for the exchange of young officers during their initial training, inspired by Erasmus”²⁹. Inconvenient though it may be for the promotion of the project, the media still often refer to the “military Erasmus” initiative. However, even with regard to the content of the Initiative, to include the term “Erasmus” in the name is not appropriate. The Initiative is intended to promote and provide conditions for the enhancement of mobility at European level. In this respect, the term “military Bologna” would have been more in line with the spirit of the Initiative because these objectives correspond to what the Bologna process originally tried to implement in European civilian higher education.

Discussion of the title to be given to the initiative continued for some time but the task was not easy in that any name referring to a common character of European military history, as seems to be the tradition, would suggest that the initiative is meant to duplicate the existing Erasmus programme. It was therefore

28 ESDC Steering Committee, Document SC/2009/003 REVI, 29 January 2009.

29 See for example: General Secretariat of the Council of the European Union, document COSDP452 (9820/09).

decided to propose that the Member States agree on a shorter name based on the name of the website that was created in connection with quick win 3: “Emilyo” (Exchange of MILitary Young Officers). Although this name did not achieve the necessary consensus for it to be changed officially, it has been retained by the members of the IG for convenience of informal communication. In this study, however, the official name will be kept, or at least shortened to “the Initiative”.

Scope of the Initiative:

In order to define the scope of the Initiative more clearly, it is necessary to define terms already employed in the previous sections, which will be the basis of developments of this study hereinafter.

To define the initial training of an officer, the Declaration refers to the definition given by the ESDC in the first stocktaking report: “The officer’s training/education starts after recruitment and includes vocational training and academic training up to and including master’s degrees (if included in the initial training)”³⁰. It should be noted above all that in this context the terms basic and initial and the terms education and training will be used interchangeably when associated together. “Basic” and “initial” represent the same thing³¹: the Initiative focuses on the first part of an officer’s education after his, or her, secondary education. “Training” and “education”, in this definition, are integrated and do not need to be differentiated.

What is more important is the extent of this initial training. According to the definition, it starts after recruitment as a member of the national armed forces. However, what is learned before recruitment can in some cases also be considered as a part of military education. For example, during the recruitment process, tests are made in order to check the applicant’s fitness according to military standards. What is taught during this period need not be taught again once the applicant completes the process. Another, more illustrative, example is the national military service that may be compulsory in some Member States in order to be recruited as a cadet. Both these cases might conceivably be included in the initial training definition, but as regards the objective of the Initiative, i.e. enhancing cooperation, it can logically be said that these possibilities will not be in the most appropriate timeframes.

The end of the initial training in the definition provided in the first stocktaking report is “up to master’s degree level”. It would be possible, as will be seen later in this study, for the academic and practical aspects of military education to be separated, for example with the second aspect covered after the first. In such a case, it would mean that the initial training of a national officer is only academic. For the purposes of this study only, it may be asked whether the commissioning or the first posting of an officer might not be a better conclusion. However, it can happen, as in the Belgian system³², that a student-officer is commissioned and becomes an officer-student while still completing the first part of training (bachelor’s level in the Belgian case) even though the second part (master’s level in the same case) is also compulsory.

The same thing can occur in connection with the criterion of first posting. In Germany, a student is first posted after his or her practical training for a period before enrolling in the academic curriculum. These two criteria are not satisfactory in trying to reach a European definition of the conclusion of initial training.

30 General Secretariat of the Council, document 12843/08.

31 However, the combination of terms “basic military training” is used only when referring to the learning of basic military skills by the cadets, at the beginning of their curriculum, which is only a part of the initial officers’ education.

32 Sylvain Paile, *L’Enseignement militaire à l’épreuve de l’Européanisation : Adaptation de la politique de l’enseignement pour l’Ecole royale militaire de Belgique aux évolutions de la PESD*, op. cit.

Nevertheless, with regard to the first posting, it may be also be said that in the case of Germany, while the student has not complied with the curriculum requirement in order to be fully recognised as a leader, the intermediary period between the practical and the academic training may be equivalent to a period of practical training or internship. Therefore, in attempting to define the scope of initial training, it may be said that the end is marked by the first posting of an officer after his or her completion of the commissioning curriculum, possibly including application/specialisation training. The debate about the end of the initial training is important in that it separates basic education from advanced education, which takes place during the officer's career. Advanced education, like Command and Staff training, is completely outside the goals of the Initiative. When it comes to the education of the European military officers, therefore, the term "basic" shall not be interpreted according to its first meaning. "Basic", or "initial" education, is always higher education. However, "advanced" education is not always "higher" education in its form.

More symbolically, there could also be discussion of the title to be given to these "young officers", because that term also is ambiguous. However, in the context of the Initiative, it is always linked to "initial training". Thus, when referring to them, we will use the terms "students" or "cadets" indifferently in the context of this study about the Initiative. In the most accepted sense, the two terms reflect different aspects of the nature of a future officer: "cadets" is used to reflect a military predominance in the educational tradition although "students" reflects a predominance of the academic tradition. Sociologically also, the choice between these two terms reflects different conceptions of the educational process. In the course of this study, it will be made clear that neither of these terms can be exclusively used when describing the education of an officer. In fact, a similar choice is made, for the purpose of this study, regarding the term "institution". In Europe, there is wide diversity in the names given to the institutions responsible for initial training: academy, college, school, and university. It would be an over-simplification to say that these names reflect the variable proportion of academic or vocational instruction in initial training. This, as is mentioned later in this study, is not generally confirmed by observations and the reasons should perhaps be looked for in the difficulty of translating the names of the institutions into English. The common characteristic of all officers' initial training institutions, in the European Union, is that they all provide qualifications at higher education level.

Higher education, in Europe, is education provided at the level above secondary level, within universities for example. The term applies not only to the academic but also to the practical aspect insofar as it is based on the *acquis* of at least secondary education. In the context of a study on the initial training of military officers, therefore, "military education" and "military higher education" are coterminous.

Military education is generally made up of two aspects: academic education and vocational training. As will be detailed in this study, the two are sometimes difficult to differentiate, because what is considered academic in one country can be vocational in another. "Academic education"³³ should be defined as any curriculum leading to a graduate (bachelor's) or post-graduate (master's) degree³⁴ equivalent to a degree conferred by the civilian higher education system. This first part of the definition needs to be supplemented because of the fact that practical training may be an integrated part of the curricula. In this respect, the academic content will be part of the definition. The academic topics are most commonly research subjects. Some, such as ethics or leadership apprenticeships, are more debatable where this criterion is concerned, as will be further discussed later in this study, but in most cases the scientific elements of the teaching contribute to the academic definition of a training.

33 For reasons of convenience the term "education" will mainly be used when linked to "academic" although "training" will most often be used with "vocational". However, there is nothing to preclude interchangeable use of the two terms.

34 In the EU military educational systems, doctorate studies (post-graduate level) are available at the advanced level of officers' education.

Vocational training is the practical aspect of the education process. On the one hand, it includes basic military training, usually at the beginning of an officer's curriculum in order to teach him or her basic military skills, and the physical training that is needed throughout a military career. As the basic military training is often the first point at which a cadet is introduced to the military environment, traditions and discipline, it is an aspect of the training that is more difficult to Europeanise. However, the military training courses which may be organised throughout the curriculum for continued training in military skills, notably in the form of military camps, may be the object of exchanges. On the other hand, it includes officers' professional training. The professional training is different from the military training described above in that it trains the officer for his or her function within the national armed forces. Therefore, the professional training includes application or specialisation training. Such training needs larger timeframes than military training because it aims at integrating and socialising the cadet into his or her future work.

The first stocktaking survey:

The results of the stocktaking: first insights into European diversity in military education

The first stocktaking report³⁵, produced by the ESDC from the questionnaires sent out during the summer of 2008, enabled the priorities of the forthcoming Initiative to be defined.

Regarding the current state of international cooperation between military institutions, an important part of the stocktaking was given up to evaluation of exchanges. On the basis of the information provided, it appears that the political weight of a Member State is not necessarily an indicator of the cooperation policy of its institutions. Indeed, the 3 Member States with the largest number of identified EU exchange partners were France, Italy and Austria. Otherwise exchanges are generally more frequent with the neighbouring areas of the different Member States. It also appeared that many "exchanges" were too short for a real exchange of knowledge and know-how. Although they are an important part of the relationship between the different institutions, the courtesy visits of commandants, staff or students have a limited added value with regard to the objective of integration of military education. Most of the exchanges, it was found, were focused on the academic education rather than on vocational training, perhaps because of the differences in the equipment that is used. In addition, it appeared that the exchanges took place mainly at the undergraduate level. This can easily be explained by the fact that the initial academic curriculum of an officer, within the national systems, often leads to a bachelor's degree. However, in the case of France, initial military education begins at the master's level. Ultimately, the number of students exchanged was relatively large (1000), as it was for the staff exchanged (100). The report suggests that the number could be increased by investigating ways of developing exchanges further in vocational training.

Regarding the general question of recognition, the first stocktaking survey produced an important result, because there would be a practical advantage for the development of exchanges if students were not required to attend training courses they would have missed during the period of their exchange. In this context, it was stressed that the situation was not as good as might be expected since only 56% of the countries responding recognised the training provided in an other EU Member State as a rule. 65% said that they recognised it on a case-by-case basis, which considerably diminishes the predictability of the outcome of an exchange for a student. This means also that for some Member States, distinctions are made according to the partners with which they arrange exchanges. Therefore, as is confirmed by the relatively high percentage (45%) of the Member States declaring that they also subject exchange students to their national training, recognition remained an important issue to be dealt with in the context of the Initiative. However, it seems that, informally, the exchange confers benefits. Indeed, 70% of the Member States answered that a training

35 General Secretariat of the Council, document 12843/08.

stay abroad contributes as a bonus to the career of the officer. It is thus proposed, by way of formalising this recognition, to adopt the same approach as the Bologna process in the academic sphere.

The stocktaking report noted the great diversity of the curricula offered by the different Member States to future officers. The length of the initial training also varies greatly from one State to another, as mentioned earlier. This diversity is likely to make it more difficult for an institution to identify potential partners. However, it may be noted that military institutions took a major step towards their recognition as actors in the European Higher Education Area in implementing the general lines of the Bologna process, or launching reforms in order to do so. Out of 22 of the respondent Member States, the institutions of 17 of them had already completed the implementation at the time of the survey and made full use of the ECTS (this will be further defined in the next chapter) for the accreditation of their courses. Furthermore, it seems that, in general, the European military institutions are using the semester as the basic unit for organisation of their education. Only in one case was the trimester the model followed.

As to the instruments in the exchange, it appeared from the survey that the institutions were increasingly willing to use those created for European higher education as a whole. Indeed, at the time of the stocktaking, 15 respondent institutions out of 34 had already signed an Erasmus university charter, a document necessary for institutions wishing to benefit from the programme. Invited to give their views on their signature of an Erasmus charter, the institutions' answers were unanimously positive. They stressed the fact that it would provide valuable foreign experience for the cadets and teaching staff and contribute to broadening their minds, but also that, for the institutions themselves, it was a good way to improve international networking and to ensure that the quality of the education they provided would be perceived as appropriate. As major barriers to the enhancement of mobility, the survey in general confirmed that national differences in organisation of the curricula and timetables and more broadly in the visions of what initial training should be (short/long, exclusively vocational/mixed), appear to be the major obstacles. The replies also mentioned the fact that the language skills of students or teachers may not be at the level required for an exchange, that exchanging may be too costly and that information with regard to the compatibility of the qualifications provided by any given institution was lacking entirely.

When subsequently asked to state their expectations with regard to the Initiative, the institutions mentioned first and foremost the facilitation of exchanges. They also suggested different ways of attaining this objective: creating a list of contact points in order to facilitate networking, creating a legal framework for exchanges, creating an internet base on which requests and offers of exchanges could be presented. In addition, the institutions expected the Initiative to contribute to a benchmark for the quality of education. To this end, it was even proposed to create a system of European accreditation and evaluation of the programmes, possibly including the creation of a European label. It should contribute also to harmonisation – but not standardisation - of the timetables and also of the contents in creating combined education and training modules or in helping to identify a set of qualifications allowing comparison of the outcomes of the educational processes. They also thought it should enable improved interoperability with regard to the ability of people to understand and respect each other's way of working. Lastly, they expected it to contribute to their European identity by giving them the same possibilities for exchange in vocational training as those offered in academic education by the Erasmus programme. Clearly, these developments should also benefit Member States with no national facility for the training of their officers.

The last part of the stocktaking report investigated the interest of the Member States in the projects conceived for the Initiative, such as the introduction of a standard ESDP training module in military curricula, the use of the internet-distance learning as an instrument for this training module and the introduction of training

modules other than for ESDP. To all these questions, the Member States' answers were overwhelmingly positive, thus paving the way for "quick wins" in the implementation of the Initiative.

The need for a second stocktaking

The aim of the first stocktaking document, as stated therein, was to be a living one and to be more detailed in future, in order to provide the necessary information for practical implementation of the measures decided on by the Ministers and developed by the Implementation Group. Notably, in the first survey, data were most often gathered at the level of the Member States. Diversity between the institutions themselves was not as visible as would be necessary for evaluation, for example of their implementation of the Bologna process. Work on a second stocktaking investigation started in late 2008 with the drafting of new and more detailed questionnaires to be circulated to the educational institutions.

Another key point is that the expected information was intended to constitute the database to be created to help the military institutions in developing mobility strategies. The questions therefore had to be formulated so as to elicit clear answers, which would be rapidly identifiable and reproducible in the database.

The first replies, on the basis of the first stocktaking, suggested that European countries followed very different organisational models for the education of officers. This diversity had to be anticipated when drafting the document and consequently particular attention was paid to the need for flexibility as to the awaited answers. To this end, it was decided to separate the academic and vocational aspects, which together are the core of effective military education. In many European countries indeed, these two dimensions are organisationally separate - with different institutions being in charge of one or other aspect of the educational process - or are at least different in substance. Vocational training serves different purposes from academic training, notably regarding the scope of the Bologna process and the use of foreign languages; and this had to be reflected in the drafting of the questionnaire, which is always influenced by expectations with regard to the replies. It was also clear that, following the preparatory discussions held during the EU French Presidency in particular, the different branches of the armed forces - with different educational models and concerns - had to be differentiated in order to provide a sort of subsidiary approach in the presentation of the results. The final "document" was thus rather a set of questionnaires related to all the aspects stressed by the Initiative as conceived.

Conclusions

The Initiative for the exchange of young officers, inspired by Erasmus, is derived from previous projects developed in the context of military education. It is accordingly an initiative intended to take over the ambitions of fora or other individual entities by connecting up all integration projects at European Union level. In the process of developing the Initiative it became clear that there was a need to take into account the different paces and expectations of the military participants to ensure that harmonisation would be pursued without becoming standardisation. It is also based on the latest developments in the field of higher education, such as participation in the Erasmus programme, but its objectives need to be clearly stated to prevent any confusion regarding its meaning. In this connection, the debates over the name are a perfect translation of the concerns that were raised regarding the preservation of what had already been achieved and of each country's power to act on its own national system for educating the future military elites.

The Initiative will have to address all the obstacles that were faced by the other projects but it can count on recent developments observed in higher education in general and in military higher education in particular.

Chapter Two:

Components of an Europeanization of military higher education

The aim of the stocktaking process is to provide information on the characteristics of national systems to ascertain how far they are ready for Europeanization of their education policies through the development of exchanges. The first task is to identify the components of these policies which may be subject to European convergence. The diversity of systems in Europe and their educational resources resulting from national, sometimes institutional, and historical military traditions and perceptions must be anticipated when preparing a comprehensive comparison. The next step is to identify the “elements of Europeanization” – conditions of the enhancement of mobility when met - in military education, taking into account the lines of the European initiative set out in the political declaration. In this chapter, we will define, sometimes on the basis of observations made during preliminary research, the concepts retained and investigated in the stocktaking process and pinpoint the challenges raised by the use of such concepts.

With regard to the objective of development of exchanges between military officers’ basic education institutions, two types of conditions might be distinguished: structural and conjectural.

“Structural” conditions shall be understood as the inner organisational elements that make a national educational system a potential exchanging or hosting actor. They are tied to the core of the education and reflect the traditions in training of the military elite. This does not mean, to our mind, that they cannot absolutely be changed. They might be subject to reforms, but at a slow-moving pace and relating to the form of education. The questionnaires addressed these conditions by investigating the chronological organisation of models of education (1).

“Conjectural” conditions shall be understood as flexible elements of education policies that ease - or make more difficult - the enhancement of mobility. These conditions, which relate to the content of education, are the product of the educational environment and trends. Changes or developments in them do not necessarily require a deep rethink of the system. Then, in line with the recommendations contained in the political declaration, the following aspects were considered to be the most central issues for comparison and consequently commented on:

- Knowledge, skills and competencies fostered by a national educational system (2);
- Implementation of the recognition of other forms of education, notably through the Bologna process actions (3);
- Existing exchanges traditions between European officers’ institutions (4);
- Language policies (5);
- Education in the European dimension of Defence (6).

Time organisation in military education

Identifying relevant periods in the curricula proposed for the enhancement of exchanges of young officers is an important challenge that needs to be approached on a case-by-case basis. Every national system follows its own traditions and culture regarding the organisation of educational time, starting with the recruitment of the cadet until he or she joins his or her first unit. However, European basic officers’ education is often punctuated by some deadlines and events that are common to each national tradition, such as the completion of an academic and/or vocational curriculum taught by one or more institution(s). In order to facilitate the enhancement of mobility among these systems, the competent institutions will be provided with comparison instruments that can allow them to identify potential exchange partners who share not necessarily the same “timetable” but at least compatible timeframes. Exchanges will neither impede the normal course of an

officer’s education nor interfere with the organisational traditions of the host system. The entire exercise of comparing the way in which the time factor is organised must take into account the amount of learning undertaken by a cadet in the academic or vocational field at a given time, in order to enhance exchanges at the same level of qualification. A combination of these two fields of training within one exchange would be even more meaningful given the dual characteristics of this particular form of higher education.

Elements of the organisation of curricula to be compared:

Duration of the basic education:

The duration of officers’ initial training differs very much from one system to another. In some systems, such as the British one, this training component lasts for a few months only, while in others, such as the German system, it extends over a 6 to 7 year period. This difference can also be observed at the level of academic or vocational training. The following table is an example extracted from a 2008 study for the Royal Military Academy of Belgium³⁶ and shows the gap that existed at the time between the length of academic training at master’s level in a sample of Army education systems. Table 1: Organisation of academic periods in some European Army officers’ education

at Master’s level (academic year 2007-2008)

	Royal Military Academy of Belgium	Ecoles de Saint-Cyr Coëtquidan (ESCC) / Ecole Spéciale Militaire (ESM) of France	University of the Bundeswehr of Munich	Military Academy of Portugal	Military Academy of Lithuania	National Defense University of Romania	Finnish National Defense University
Academic learning time (average in weeks)	61 – 62 for social and military sciences	78 - 79	76	66 – 67 (military sciences) 97 – 98 (engineers)	57	39 - 40	66 - 67
Organisation of academic education	Semesters (total: 4 years for social and military sciences, 4,5 for engineers)	Semesters (total: 4 years)	Trimesters (total: 5 years)	Semesters (total: 4 years in military sciences, 6 in engineering)	Semesters (total: 3 years)	Semesters (total: 2 years)	Semesters (total: 4 years)

It should be noted that, although at the time the study was made the Lithuanian and Romanian masters were on average shorter than the others, this might be explained by the fact that these masters were only accessible to career officers as part of their advanced education, not their initial training.

36 Sylvain Paile, *L’Enseignement militaire à l’épreuve de l’Européanisation : Adaptation de la politique de l’enseignement pour l’Ecole royale militaire de Belgique aux évolutions de la PESD*, op. cit.

Furthermore, the initial differences observed must be analysed together with the substantial content of the training proposed. Some institutions only train their cadets in academic matters during these dedicated periods, but others may combine both academic and vocational exercises within a period declared as being an academic one³⁷.

Terms of the training:

In the light of the observed duration of education components, particular emphasis will be placed on the terms and boundaries of officers' basic training, and notably on the scope for "delegating" responsibilities. Initial training of officers shall not be regarded as the responsibility of Defence Ministries alone. Sometimes responsibility for aspects of this training might be conferred on other institutions, such as civilian ones. It is necessary to take into account this interaction between civilian - presumably academic - and military institutions because modern military education today appears like a puzzle in which different actors have an important role to play. The military socialisation that is so important in the acquisition of professional behaviour, codes and practices differs depending on whether a future officer only wears the hat of a cadet in the first stages of his education and then the hat of a student in the second, compared to systems in which he or she wears both throughout his or her learning path. Furthermore, when dealing with European integration – which we will come to later in this chapter - it should be kept in mind that the presence of these non-military institutions, which follow the rules and objectives set by their national Higher Education Ministries, can also open the door to indirect integration of military education into the European Higher Education Area. The action of these institutions behind the military scene will therefore undoubtedly be taken into account when examining the scope of the basic education of a military officer.

Flexible learning paths may also be encountered in some countries; they concern the education of specialised officers, such as lawyers and medical officers. Generally, their curricula are similar to those of their civilian counterparts and they can involve the contribution of civilian higher education institutions.

Within the basic education component, terms are used that may reveal important issues with a view to improving mobility. The structuring of academic education in either trimesters or semesters - as shown in table I above - is an example. A cadet from an institution which follows a semester system would have difficulty in following academic courses in a trimester system institution: either he or she might not attend a full course if it has already started when he or she arrives at the host institution, or the student would be early or late for national courses when returning to the sending institution. There is a risk of overlap here. The same risk applies to the organisation of national "events" in vocational training, notably in the form of military camps. A student exchanged too late in the year for the host education system and too early to participate in national training might face difficulties in the normal course of his/her education later on³⁸. Once again, these conditions for exchanges, which are structural in origin, will be dealt with on a case-by-case basis.

Thesis drafting issues:

37 This combination and more generally the duality of military education in most European systems raise the issue of the co-existence between the academic and vocational dimensions in education. According to Alex Alber, conflicts may occur when these two aspects and their providers, i.e. teaching staff, compete for greater importance in the educational process, and also affect the cadets' expectations regarding their own perception of the profession of officer. Students tend to consider academic training as a minor need in their professional preparation. Alex Alber, *La formation initiale des officiers : Une comparaison européenne*, Doctoral thesis, Université de Saint-Quentin-en-Yvelines, 27 November 2007.

38 Once back at his home institution a student may be asked to complete the training he or she missed when on the exchange.

At first glance, periods spent writing a thesis might seem to be a point of detail in the whole curricula. Nevertheless, they take on extra importance in the context of exchanges between educational institutions. Thesis are often required from students in order to complete a part of their academic curricula, sometimes at bachelor level but more often at master's level or equivalent. Given its importance in a student's final graduation, the thesis is a special scientific and academic moment. A high scientific standard of work is required of the student. There is a greater need for international communication, networking and exchanges in order to obtain access to available information and resources. Such periods might therefore be seen as suitable for European cooperation in all its forms: pooling of resources, exchanges of students, academic and scientific staff, etc. However, although in many European systems education is rounded off by a thesis, it is organised in many different ways³⁹. Some institutions reserve specific timeframes in their curricula for research and drafting, others do not and students have to attend academic lessons besides their research. This difference in organisation might raise obstacles to mobility. A student from an institution of the latter type hosted in an institution of the former would have to attend courses on site, which may lead to schedules incompatibilities. Even if a student did not have to attend courses while writing a thesis under his national system, access to resources might be restricted by the absence of support staff or by vacation periods.

Method used in comparing the organisation of curricula:

The objective of investigating time organisation in military education is to look for possible "mobility windows", as they are called in the Bologna process⁴⁰. These windows are timeframes in the curriculum that can be potentially used for a greater number of exchanges. This can be thesis-drafting periods, as outlined above, academic semesters, military periods, or a combination of these aspects in the context of the Initiative. The final choice naturally remains with the institutions themselves, and it is unlikely that a universally shared timeframe - as for example the second semester of the first year of a master's - will appear in the form of a "European semester", due to the diversity of schedules. Providing a European overview may nevertheless be helpful in identifying the most adequate individual timeframes.

It was suggested that a calendar of the same kind as those proposed in the first questionnaire and the 2008 study for the Royal Military Academy of Belgium be filled in for the detailed stocktaking exercise in order to obtain a detailed overview of the curricula offered by Member States' systems. For ease of comprehension it was proposed that a week be used as the reference unit and one separate calendar for each branch of the armed forces be completed. Four parts referred to supposed important stages in the course of a single officer's education: the so-called "pre-academic" stage - potentially an introduction to military techniques and cultures -, two "academic" stages - graduate and post-graduate education being separated - and a "post-academic" stage - including the application course or arms training. "Delegation" of parts of education to non-military institutions, before or after recruitment, were also to appear in the figures. Different colours were then chosen for the most important activities in military education: green for military training, brown for professional training, purple for practices and stages, blue for academic training and yellow for thesis drafting periods. Possibilities were left to combine colours to present combinations of vocational and academic teaching, or of academic teaching and time left to thesis research.

Comparing educational outcomes

It emerged from preparatory discussions of the Initiative that a common language for the educational outcomes to be attained in the officers' curricula would have to be adopted. Exchanges are not intended

39 Sylvain Paile, *L'Enseignement militaire à l'épreuve de l'Européanisation : Adaptation de la politique de l'enseignement pour l'Ecole royale militaire de Belgique aux évolutions de la PESD*, op. cit.

40 Bologna Process Stocktaking Report 2009.

to concern only similar knowledge developed by different programmes but are, for the exchange student in the first place, about acquiring qualifications presented in a different way in another educational system. The political declaration at the basis of the Initiative itself highlights the need to “*compare the training offered by the various colleges on the basis of national indicative lists of skills*”. However, no European common reference to skills development in military education could be found at the time of the declaration. The common language therefore had to be created in order to provide a comparison based on a non-national perspective.

Looking for common references in terms of learning outcomes

When comparing qualifications developed by Member States’ military education systems there is a danger of getting caught up in a debate about the shape of the “ideal officer”. Scientifically and politically, as was stressed in discussion of the Initiative during the seminar organised by the French Presidency, this is a very ambiguous subject with no possible or satisfying answer. National systems are still considered the most appropriate formula for the education of one’s own officers, in line with the intergovernmental governing principle of the ESDP itself. A scientific comparison of the “outcomes” - in the generic meaning of the term - developed by these systems has to be made using non-national definitions and instruments. There are two options to be considered when planning exchanges between education systems. The first is about exchanging educational content, transmitted through teaching delivered by an institution. In this case, two institutions look at the variety of subjects offered for study to the learner, which are eventually his/her “educational baggage”, and exchange only on the basis of a programme match. This option is, in principle, rather easy to undertake as there is no risk for the sending institution that deadlines in the exchange student’s training will not be met. His or her programme will be respected and no particular additional training will be required when coming back to his/her institution. In practice however, it might be very difficult, in the most optimistic scenario, to find a programme in a partner institution which matches exactly, especially if multiple courses or training courses have to be chosen by the cadet during his or her exchange.

The second option is less easy to quantify because it is not related to observable elements. It concerns the way the educational offer is assimilated by the public, i.e. students. In other words, it is how the students make the learning their own at different stages of their education. It is a very subjective aspect of education. Nevertheless, in recent decades, efforts have been made in the European area to outline these aspects of education and define what the “learning outcomes” might be. Today, they are “*best understood as a collection of useful processes and tools that can be applied in diverse ways in different policy, teaching and learning settings*” and “*provide a key role in organising systemic aims, curricula, pedagogy, assessment and quality assurance*”⁴¹. As will be discussed later in this chapter, they play a central role in the certification of teaching in terms of European Credit Transfer System (ECTS). The learning outcomes are subjective; they depend on institutional practices and educational instruments, and can vary greatly from one curriculum to another. Basing exchanges on learning outcomes is conceptually difficult to achieve due to the lack of a common understanding of these outcomes. Nevertheless, this is the most complete form of exchange. It may be less difficult to find matches between learning objectives in a given timeframe than programme matches. Learning outcomes are a goal set by the institutions and entail an obligation as to the result only, while exchanges based on programmes suggest that the means of education are binding. Moreover, this option makes it possible to define mobility windows: a student may be exchanged for a flexible timeframe and may participate in the whole host training course as long as it corresponds to the outcomes expected by his or her sending institution. It involves a high level of trust from the sending institution in the education provided by the host institution, and this is where quality assurance comes into play.

It may prove more difficult to implement exchanges of the second kind than of the first in military higher education. It must be kept in mind that basic education institutions train cadets for the direct needs of the

41 Cedefop, *The Shift to Learning Outcomes – Conceptual, political and practical developments in Europe*, 2007.

armed forces, whereas civilian institutions usually train students for the labour market in general, and not for a predetermined employer. They must deliver “finished products” ready to command their first unit immediately upon completion of their curricula. All knowledge provided is necessarily considered to be core knowledge, and exchanging future officers on the basis of learning outcomes might imply that this knowledge is non-essential. Therefore, a transition from the first option to the second, as suggested by the Bologna process, may require a major switch from military educational traditions.

For a comparison of these learning outcomes with a view to evaluating the scope for military institutions to base their exchanges on the second option, the choice of method is important. Learning outcomes are, according to the legally set definition, “*the statements of what a learner knows, understands and is able to do on completion of a learning process, which are defined in terms of knowledge, skills and competence*”⁴². They are normally defined by the military institutions themselves, and apply only at institutional level. Therefore, in order to provide a common reading of these outcomes, efforts were made to coordinate, at national level first, a process defining the qualifications that are deemed necessary in higher education in general, and not only at institutional level. According to the legally set definition, “*qualifications*” are “*the formal outcomes of an assessment and validation process which is obtained when a competent body determines that an individual has achieved learning outcomes to given standards*”⁴³. In this sense, qualifications are learning outcomes translated into an extra-institutional language.

At the time the stocktaking process started, institutions or Member States could have developed their own lists of outcome references or published curricula texts in programmes or national qualifications frameworks. However, as this is a subjective area of education evaluation, it might be difficult to reconcile the language of qualifications that have been developed separately. Some might have focused their evaluation on specific competences, i.e. outcomes with regard to one subject, and others on generic competences relating to the educational process in general. Furthermore, not every institution had published their expectations in terms of pedagogical outcomes at the time of the stocktaking process. For the purposes of comparison, a “neutral” language in existing external initiatives will be identified and proposed to military institutions by means of questionnaires. Given the subjective nature of this exercise it would have been scientifically more accurate to carry out an external review of these outcomes, but this would have been inconvenient from a practical point of view. In resorting to self-assessment, however, it will be interesting to see how the institutions evaluate their expected outcomes, perhaps published in the form of lists or curricula texts, with regard to external references.

The choice of reference qualification frameworks

In looking for trans-national references for a qualification language, five frameworks, originally intended for civilian education, might be applicable to military education if they take its dual specificity into account:

- The overarching framework of qualifications of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA-FQ);
- The European Qualifications Framework (EQF);
- The Tuning project competencies;
- The Dublin Descriptors;
- And the OECD’s DeSeCo project.

42 Recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council on the establishment of a European Qualifications Framework for lifelong learning (2008/C 111/01), 23 April 2008, annex I.

43 Idem.

The overarching framework of qualifications of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA-FQ):

The EHEA-FQ framework was adopted by the Conference of European Ministers responsible for Higher Education in 2005 in Bergen. In order to raise awareness of a more integrated educational area based on exchanges of pedagogical outcomes, the Ministers based their initiative on pre-existing examples that had been developed at national level in some countries. This framework, created as part of the Bologna process, is an “international” framework based on a generic definition of qualifications. According to the will of the Ministers, participating countries committed themselves to elaborating national frameworks based on this overarching framework by 2010. It describes the outcomes to be attained in the three cycles of higher education. However, in the context of the initiative for the exchange of young officers during their basic training, only the first two will be set out in detail below.

Table 2: The EHEA-FQ qualifications at bachelor and master levels

Level of higher education	Expected qualifications from the students
First cycle	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Have demonstrated knowledge and understanding in a field of study that builds upon their general secondary education, and is typically at a level that, whilst supported by advanced textbooks, includes some aspects that will be informed by knowledge of the forefront of their field of study; - Can apply their knowledge and understanding in a manner that indicates a professional approach to their work or vocation, and have competences typically demonstrated through devising and sustaining arguments and solving problems within their field of study; - Have the ability to gather and interpret relevant data (usually within their field of study) to inform judgments that include reflection on relevant social, scientific or ethical issues; - Can communicate information, ideas, problems and solutions to both specialist and non-specialist audiences; - Have developed those learning skills that are necessary for them to continue to undertake further study with a high degree of autonomy.
Second cycle	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Have demonstrated knowledge and understanding that is founded upon and extends and/or enhances that typically associated with the first cycle, and that provides a basis or opportunity for originality in developing and/or applying ideas, often within a research context; - Can apply their knowledge and understanding, and problem solving abilities in new or unfamiliar environments within broader (or multidisciplinary) contexts related to their field of study; - Have the ability to integrate knowledge and handle complexity, and formulate judgments with incomplete or limited information, but that include reflecting on social and ethical responsibilities linked to the application of their knowledge and judgments; - Can communicate their conclusions, and the knowledge and rationale underpinning these, to specialist and non-specialist audiences clearly and unambiguously; - Have the learning skills to allow them to continue to study in a manner that may be largely self-directed or autonomous.

The European Qualifications Framework:

The European Qualifications Framework (EQF) was adopted by the European Parliament and the Council on 23 April 2008, in the form of recommendations⁴⁴. The EQF aims to “encourage countries to relate their qualifications systems or frameworks to the EQF by 2010 and to ensure that all new qualifications issued from 2012 carry a reference to the appropriate EQF level. The core of the EQF are eight reference levels describing what a learner knows, understands and is able to do – ‘learning outcomes’. Levels of national qualifications will be placed at one of the central reference levels, ranging from basic (Level 1) to advanced (Level 8). It will therefore enable much easier comparison between national qualifications and should also mean that people do not have to repeat learning if they move to another country. (It) applies to all types of education, training and qualifications, from school education to academic, professional and vocational”⁴⁵. Levels 6 and 7, respectively, correspond to bachelor’s and master’s degrees on the EQF scale.

The Framework is not intended to be binding but to be implemented through national qualifications frameworks to be created with respect to national needs. The language developed is rather “generic” in order to allow national autonomy in discussions and decisions. Nevertheless, the EQF promotes definitions of what it stresses as being the main components of the learning outcomes:

- “Knowledge”, described as theoretical and/or factual;
- “Skills”, described as cognitive (involving use of logical, intuitive and creative thinking) and practical (involving manual dexterity and use of methods, materials, tools and instruments);
- “Competence”, described in terms of responsibility and autonomy.

The following tables present the yardsticks set by the EQF at level 6 and 7⁴⁶ in evaluating these outcomes.

44 Idem.

45 European Commission: http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learning-policy/doc44_en.htm (27/01/09).

46 Bachelor and master levels being the first curricula of interest for exchanges in the context of the initiative. Level 8, doctoral studies, are not a particular focus in this present study although exchanges, easier to enhance, do not meet the same obstacles.

Table 3: EQF level 6 and 7 expected outcomes

Level	Knowledge	Skills	Competence
6	Advanced knowledge of a field of work or study, involving a critical understanding of theories and principles	Advanced skills, demonstrating mastery and innovation, required to solve complex and unpredictable problems in a specialised field of work or study	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Manage complex technical or professional activities or projects, taking responsibility for decision-making in unpredictable work or study contexts - Take responsibility for managing professional development of individuals and groups
7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Highly specialised knowledge, some of which is at the forefront of knowledge in a field of work or study, as the basis for original thinking and/or research - Critical awareness of knowledge issues in a field and at the interface between different fields 	Specialised problem-solving skills required in research and/or innovation in order to develop new knowledge and procedures and to integrate knowledge from different fields	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Manage and transform work or study contexts that are complex, unpredictable and require new strategic approaches - Take responsibility for contributing to professional knowledge and practice and/or for reviewing the strategic performance of teams.

Source: Cedefop, 2008⁴⁷

The Tuning project:

The Tuning project was created after the start of the Bologna process and aims to accompany the realisation of the Bologna action lines, notably with regard to the definition of the ECTS. It now gathers 35 countries who are thinking about the definition of generic and specific (subject-related) competences, with the participation and governance of the European Commission. Nine subject-specific competences are defined at the present time in various topics such as nursery, European studies, languages, chemistry, etc. In the Berlin communiqué of 19 September 2003 – meeting in the context of the Bologna process follow-up - the European Ministers for higher education presented a framework of generic competences representing “a dynamic combination of attributes, abilities and attitudes”⁴⁸, which might serve the purpose of the present comparison study. Three types of competences are developed in the project and proposed as applicable to all levels of higher education:

- Instrumental competences, which encompass cognitive, methodological, technological and linguistic abilities;
- Interpersonal competences, which encompass individual abilities like social skills (social interaction and co-operation);

47 Cedefop, *The Shift to Learning Outcomes – Policies and practices in Europe*, 2009.

48 Outi Kalliainen, “Generic competences in producing expertise in Military Academy – case Master of Military Sciences, Finland”, paper presented at the conference of the International Association of Military Pedagogy, May 2008.

- And systemic competences, which encompass abilities and skills concerning all systems (combination of understanding, sensibility and knowledge; prior acquisition of instrumental and interpersonal competences required⁴⁹).

The yardsticks used in the Tuning framework are presented in the following table.

Table 4: Tuning project competences' framework for higher education

Instrumental competences	Interpersonal competences	Systemic competences
- Capacity for analysis and synthesis	- Critical and self-critical abilities	- Capacity to apply knowledge in practice
- Capacity for organisation and planning	- Teamwork	- Research skills
- Basic general knowledge	- Interpersonal skills	- Capacity to learn
- Grounding in professional knowledge	- Ability to work in an interdisciplinary team	- Capacity to adapt to new situations
- Oral and written communication	- Ability to communicate with experts in other fields	- Creativity
- Knowledge of a second language	- Appreciation of diversity and multiculturalism	- Leadership
- Computing skills	- Ability to work in an international context	- Understanding of cultures and customs of other countries
- Information management skills	- Ethical commitment	- Ability to work autonomously
- Problem solving		- Project design and management
- Decision making		- Initiative and entrepreneurial spirit
		- Concern for quality
		- Will to succeed

Source: Cedefop, 2009⁵⁰

The Dublin Descriptors:

The Dublin Descriptors were created by the Joint Quality Initiative, an unofficial network gathering representatives of higher education quality assurance organisations from 12 western EU and non-EU European countries. It was also created after the Bologna Declaration⁵¹ in order to provide European coordination in quality assurance related initiatives. It developed descriptions applicable to bachelor, master and doctoral degrees, which were presented in Dublin on March 23rd, 2004, further to the Berlin communiqué. Generic criteria for awarding the relevant degrees resulted from this initiative. They are not related to specific definitions of the terms for competences, and are thus easier to use in a comparison exercise:

- Knowledge and understanding;
- Applying knowledge and understanding;
- Making judgements;
- Communication;
- Learning skills.

The following table presents the descriptors required for being awarded bachelor and master degrees.

49 Outi Kallioinen, "Generic competences in producing expertise in Military Academy – case Master of Military Sciences, Finland", loc. cit.

50 Cedefop, The Shift to Learning Outcomes – Policies and practices in Europe, 2009.

51 Joint Quality Initiative website: <http://www.jointquality.nl/> (30/12/09).

Table 5: Dublin Descriptors for bachelor and master degrees

Level	Knowledge and understanding	Applying knowledge and understanding	Making judgements	Communication	Learning skills
Bachelor	[Is] supported by advanced text books [with] some aspects informed by knowledge at the forefront of their field of study	[through] devising and sustaining arguments	[involves] gathering and interpreting relevant data	[of] information, ideas, problems and solutions	have developed those skills needed to study further with a high level of autonomy
Master	provides a basis or opportunity for originality in developing or applying ideas often in a research context	[through] problem solving abilities [applied] in new or unfamiliar environments within broader (or multidisciplinary) contexts	[demonstrates] the ability to integrate knowledge and handle complexity, and formulate judgements with incomplete data	[of] their conclusions and the underpinning knowledge and rationale (restricted scope) to specialist and non-specialist audiences (monologue)	study in a manner that may be largely self-directed or autonomous

Source: Joint Quality Initiative, 2009

The DeSeCo project:

The Organisation for the European Cooperation and Development (OECD) Definition and Selection of Competencies (DeSeCo) project also stresses the need for a clear definition of outcomes expected from educational processes. The OECD launched its own exchange programme PISA in 1997 and noticed the need for a comparable framework of qualifications parallel to that of the European Communities including the Erasmus programme and reflections on ECTS certification. It classifies key competencies in three broad categories that the learner must master for successful completion of his or her studies. According to the DeSeCo project, a learner needs to:

- Use tools interactively;
- Interact in heterogeneous groups;
- Act autonomously.

The corresponding key competencies are presented in the following table.

Table 6: Key competencies in the DeSeCo project

Using tools interactively	Interacting in heterogeneous groups	Acting autonomously
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Use language, symbols and texts interactively - Use knowledge and information interactively - Use technology interactively 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Relate well to others - Co-operate, work in teams - Manage and resolve conflicts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Act within the big picture - Form and conduct life plans and personal projects - Defend and assert rights, interests, limits and needs

Source: OECD, 2005⁵²

Choosing referential frameworks for the stocktaking:

Globally, all the above international frameworks for learning outcomes may be useful comparison tools. However, during the study military institutions will answer questionnaires to self-assess their outcomes evaluation. It would have been far more cumbersome and time-consuming to investigate this issue from the point of view of the cadets and teachers involved, for example. It was also decided for scientific purposes to double-check the answers, which are supposed to be given honestly by the institutions' management staff, by using not just one but two of these tools in the field of academic education. The dilemma was to pick not the best but the two most appropriate frameworks. As for vocational training, on the other hand, it was decided that only one tool should be used because it is highly country-specific. Differences in equipment and strategies mean that the integration of military vocational training systems is more likely to encounter obstacles with regard to mobility.

None of them formally objects to use for the evaluation of military vocational training, apart from a brief mention of "text books" in the EHEA-FQ and the Dublin Descriptors. One issue was also the choice between the two most important official frameworks, namely the EHEA-FQ and the EQF. The first is linked to the Bologna process, which is a central aspect of the present initiative, and is deemed to be, according to the declaration of the Ministers responsible for higher education in Bergen, an overarching framework at the basis of all other implementing frameworks. The Recommendation creating the EQF claims that it is "compatible" with the EHEA-FQ, without saying that it is intended to "implement" it, however. The Bologna Follow-Up Group, in the 2009 stocktaking report, expresses its concern that implementation of the EHEA-FQ might not meet the 2010 deadline because of parallel implementation of the EQF by EU countries. It even suggests that countries should focus their national qualification frameworks first on the EHEA-FQ before linking it later to implementation of the EQF. A kind of competition is thus starting and divergences might therefore remain. The coordination group of the Bologna process itself stated that "(...) there is a need to clarify further the relationship between (the two frameworks) so as to ensure that Europe has a widely understood and accepted approach to lifelong learning that facilitates recognition of all forms of learning and the transition between vocational education and training and higher education"⁵³.

52 OECD, The Definition and Selection of Key Competencies – Executive Summary, 2005.

53 Bologna Process, Coordination Group for Qualifications Framework, Report on Qualifications Frameworks, submitted to the BFUG for its meeting on February 12-13, 2009, p.6.

Even if they are not from the same source, the two frameworks share common elements which are more important than their differences⁵⁴, and it is possible to develop individual mechanisms that are compatible with both of them. For example, even if not expressed in terms of knowledge, skills and competences, the EHEA-FQ outcomes may be divided as such according to the definitions retained in the EQF Recommendation.

It is not the role of this stocktaking exercise to act as the referee between the two overarching frameworks, because they both determine the national frameworks to be set although neither of them have legal force. However, the EQF was issued by the European Communities for the 27 member States and can thus be theoretically considered as more adapted to the objectives pursued by the Initiative than the framework agreed for what are now 46 countries.

Accordingly, as the Initiative is undertaken at the European Union level, EQF levels 6 and 7 were retained for investigating academic training courses in military higher education. Level 6 was retained for a similar investigation of military vocational education, as advised by representatives from the European Commission because it is also applicable to this particular form of training and it allows for more flexibility of interpretation in its formulation.

Regarding military academic education specifically, all the other frameworks presented might also have been used as instruments. However, the Tuning and DeSeCo projects do not assess timelines for the completion of these qualifications. The purpose of this comparative study is to evaluate how qualifications are assimilated, or deemed to be assimilated, by students at many stages of their learning process. The fact that the formulation is adapted to several stages - in this case there are two, bachelor and master - guarantees the accuracy of the information provided by the institutions themselves. The Tuning and DeSeCo projects themselves do not give information on the relevant timelines when the assimilation of these qualifications might be completed and verifiable. They have a more “finished product” approach.

Finally, even though the Dublin Descriptors do not use the knowledge-skills-competence vocabulary, it is rather easy to classify them in these categories thanks to the definitions provided by the EQF. Every descriptor could be connected to the EQF structure:

- “Knowledge and understanding” descriptors – formulated in a theoretical way - to EQF knowledge classification;
- “Applying knowledge and understanding” and “making judgements” – formulated in a cognitive way - to the skills classification;
- “Communication” and “learning skills” – very much linked to responsibility and autonomy in their formulation - to the competencies classification.

The choice was made to use the official EQF framework and the non-official Dublin Descriptors for the comparative study of outcomes in military education.

The Bologna process and military officers' education

The Bologna Process - which was launched at the end of the 1990s - promotes the idea of a common culture of higher education on the European continent by enhancing an open space for intellectual knowledge. In the distinction made in the introduction between the structural and conjectural conditions for the improvement of mobility, the Bologna process cannot be strictly placed in one or the other category. It has

54 *Idem.*

structural effects in that it suggests and encourages changes in the organisation of education itself, but its origin is trans-national and its effects largely depend on the will and strategies of the member countries. Trying to qualify it as either a structural or conjectural condition becomes arbitrary; we choose to follow the argument of its origins. Unlike civilian institutions, at the beginning of this study only a few military institutions were engaged in exchange programmes for academic education - such as Erasmus - because of structural differences⁵⁵, although the European Union monitored programme incontestably helped in creating a European consciousness in civilian higher education.

Even though it was originally designed for civilian higher education, many military institutions⁵⁶ decided to implement the Bologna Process to remove their structural differences in basic officer education so as to facilitate the enhancement of mobility⁵⁷. Nonetheless, the process is not intended to standardize curricula between civilian and military curricula, nor among military ones. Military and national organisational specificities will remain, which leaves this field of investigation open for scientific comparison.

The Bologna Process: Lifting the barriers to knowledge mobility

Historical developments

The process of creating an open space for higher education in Europe formally began with the signature of the Lisbon Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region, April 11th 1997⁵⁸. It was jointly established between the Council of Europe and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) in order to ease access to higher education and set the first stone for the recognition of study periods in the context of student mobility. One year later, the four ministers responsible for higher education of France, Germany, Italy and the United-Kingdom, at a meeting at the Paris-Sorbonne University, called on their European counterparts to go further in that direction in forging the link between the European Union's expectations concerning education and those of the continental and cultural area: "*We must strengthen and build upon the intellectual, cultural, social and technical dimensions of our continent*"⁵⁹.

Even though the Sorbonne Declaration was drafted by a limited number of countries - merely members of the European Union - it accurately heralds the shape the Bologna Process was to take a few months later. It expressed its intention to:

- Improve transparency in higher education and enhance mutual recognition of qualifications through gradual convergence of the national systems;
- Facilitate the mobility of students and teaching staff with a view to their integration into the European labour market;
- Design a common degree level system based on two main cycles (undergraduate and graduate).

55 General Secretariat of the Council document 12843/08, Stocktaking of existing exchanges and exchange programmes of national military officers during their initial education and training, 10 September 2008.

56 Idem

57 Sylvain Paile, *L'Enseignement militaire à l'épreuve de l'Européanisation : Adaptation de la politique de l'enseignement pour l'Ecole royale militaire de Belgique aux évolutions de la PESD*, op. cit.

58 Council of Europe – UNESCO joint Convention, Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region, the European Treaty Series, No 165.

59 Sorbonne joint declaration "On harmonisation of the architecture of the European higher education system", Paris, the Sorbonne, 25 May 1998, p.1.

From a declaration...

The Bologna Declaration, signed by the higher education ministers of 29 European States on June 19th 1999, paves the way towards the effective lifting of mobility-related obstacles. It is not really an intergovernmental legislative act, even though the European Union's Commission, the Council of Europe – with regard to the European Cultural Convention - and associations of universities, rectors and students did contribute to the drafting of the document. It is neither compulsory nor enforceable from a legal point of view and does not contain any legal sanction for non-respect or delays in implementing its content. The wording itself is not meant to force harmonisation but expresses the will to give an impetus to the convergence of national higher education habits. However, its content may be considered as the cornerstone of the new face of higher education in Europe: “A Europe of knowledge is now widely recognised as an irreplaceable factor for social and human growth and as an indispensable component to consolidate and enrich the European citizenship”⁶⁰. To realise the European Higher Education Area (EHEA), six directions are stressed:

- Aiming for an “easily readable and comparable degrees” system;
- Implementing a system based on essentially two cycles (undergraduate and graduate);
- Implementing the credit system - such as the ECTS system that already existed for Erasmus exchanges - also for education received in non-higher education institutions;
- Promoting the mobility of students, teachers and researchers by lifting obstacles to free movement, particularly by granting students access to training and study opportunities or utilizing exchange periods for staff;
- Promoting European co-operation in the field of quality assurance;
- Promoting the necessary European dimension in higher education, notably with regard to curricula developments, inter-institutional co-operation, the integration of programmes, research and training.

The 26 signatories also agreed in the Declaration to meet again in 2001, which eventually took place in Prague.

...To a process

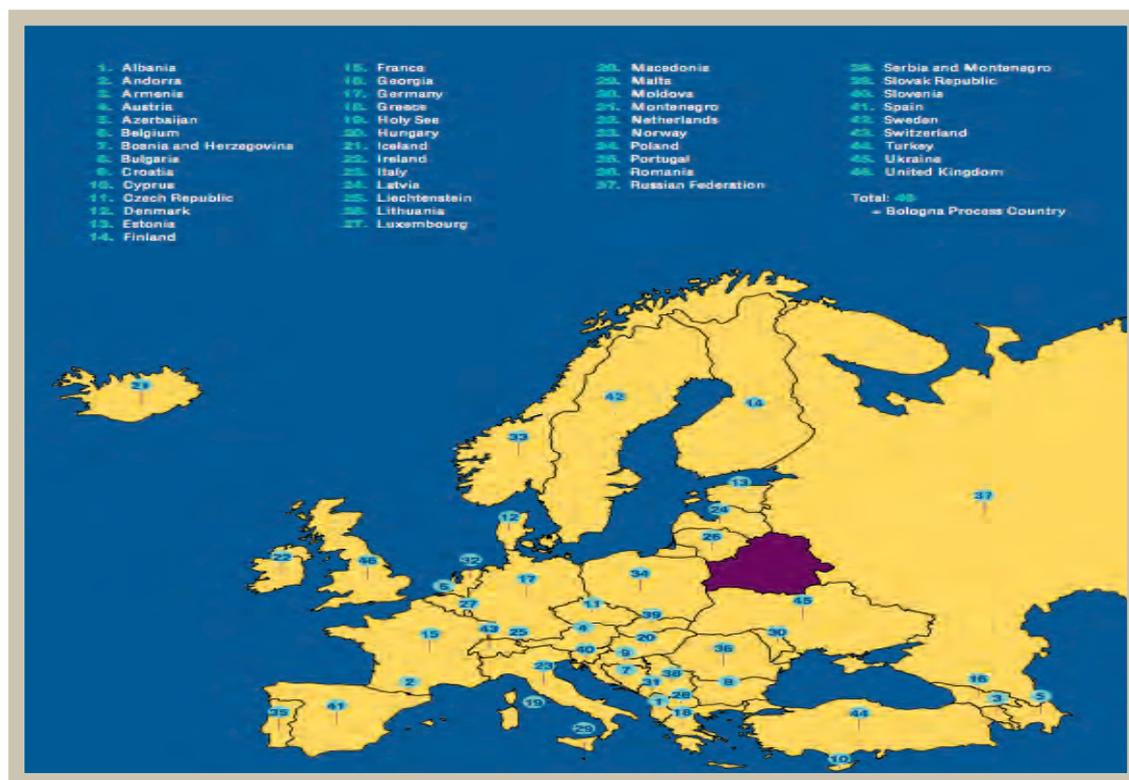
The Prague summit transformed the Bologna initiative from a single declaration to a real process, which it still is today. The final *communiqué* established the Bologna Follow-up Group (BFUG) to monitor implementation of the Declaration's content. It is composed of representatives of the signatories to the Declaration and the European Commission, and chaired according to the rotating EU Presidency ⁶¹ The Council of Europe, the European University Association (EUA), the European Association of Institutions in Higher Education (EURASHE) and the National Unions of Students in Europe (ESIB) are invited to contribute to the work of the BFUG as observers.

In 2003 in Berlin, the final *communiqué* outlined general priorities concerning implementation of the measures contained in the Declaration. It notably stresses the importance of quality assurance development, the mutual recognition of degrees and periods of study for good governance of higher education and insists on the implementation of two cycles of study. It also included a third cycle in the Bologna process: doctoral studies. In relation to the governance of the Process, it also asked the BFUG to issue a report on the measures taken by the signatory States to implement the Declaration, by the next biannual meeting.

60 Joint declaration of the European ministers of Education, Bologna, 19 June 1999, p.1.

61 All the EU Member States were signatories of the Declaration at that time and still are.

Figure 1: Participating countries to the Bologna process (2009)



Source : NAFSA, 2009⁶²

This first report – “Stocktaking” – was presented in 2005 at the Bergen meeting. It was decided to repeat this form of monitoring every two years since. The summit issued a document about Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education Area, based on a contribution of the European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ENQA). The latter association, together with the Union of Industrial and Employer’s Confederations of Europe (UNICE) – in relation to concerns about professional employability related to the Bologna actions - and others were invited to contribute to the work of the BFUG as consultative members. The *communiqué* insisted on the necessity of setting efficient quality assurance structures in higher education, but also stressed the need for recognition of joint degrees awarded between education institutions, and for a social dimension to the EHEA. It also developed the shape of the EHEA-FQ, as discussed in the previous part of this chapter.

The 2007 London summit *communiqué* builds on all these expectations of BFUG monitoring and - with regard to the 2010 deadline for the passage from the Bologna Process to the EHEA - launches reflection on an extra period that would be required to fully implement those measures.

Finally, the Leuven/Louvain-la-Neuve summit held in April 2009 under the Benelux presidency focused on the realisation of the objectives set in previous *communiqués* rather than setting new ones. This is because the process now involves 46 countries, which have different roadmaps and priorities depending on when they joined the process, and the 2010 deadline for completion of the EHEA is not conducive to the addition of new action lines. The final *communiqué* consequently stressed the implementation needs identified in the stocktaking report. One important point, however, was a change in procedure for the follow-up to the

62 Association of International Educators website (30/12/09)
<http://www.nafsa.org/resourcelibrary/default.aspx?id=16420>

process. The presidency would henceforth not be chaired by just one country – or by a group as was the case of the Benelux presidency - but co-chaired by the EU presidency and a non-EU country. There would thus be a representation of EU as such and, informally, a link between the process and the further initiatives undertaken by the European Communities in the field of higher education. The next ministerial meeting is scheduled for 2010 in Vienna and Budapest to mark the start of the EHEA. New action lines completing the process will be decided on there in order to reinforce the full-mobility area.

The signature by the current 46 member States is not legally binding, and the purpose of the Process is not standardisation but convergence of national systems on a voluntary basis. It is therefore only natural that differences in implementation can be seen⁶³ between the member States.

The action lines of the Bologna process

The BFUG's monitoring of implementation of the process and realisation of the EHEA is set out in the "stocktaking" reports provided at the biannual conferences by the rotating presidency. This document is intended to check progress made by the Member States with regard to the process and the recommendations made in the *communiqués* of previous conferences. A working group of experts from the higher education ministries of the participating countries is thus appointed and assisted by the Secretariat of the Presidency for the collection of data. The working group drafts the report, based on national contributions submitted by the participating ministries and reports delivered by the European University Association (EUA) and the European Students' Union (ESIB) to highlight the progress achieved from a non-governmental point of view. Scorecards of progress made regarding the recommendations and objectives set out in the Declaration are then sent to the ministries, which add data collected since their previous national reports. The scorecards are finally included in the stocktaking and briefly analysed. Fields for further action are then suggested to help identify future priorities in the conference final *communiqué*.

In addition to the Stocktaking, the Eurydice "Focus on the Structure of Higher Education in Europe"⁶⁴ also provides a helpful comparative overview of European higher education. Eurydice is a network created by the EU Commission's Education and Culture Directorate-General and the EU member States together with the European Free Trade Agreement (EFTA) countries⁶⁵ and Turkey, to give a comparative overview of national structures and policies in higher education. In its 2006/2007 report, Eurydice tried to give a global overview of the structures of education in the – at that time - 45 Bologna process participating countries with the help of national reports provided by non-Eurydice countries. The collection of the data was incomplete in the 2006/2007 document. A general description of national higher education structures was given, however, and proved helpful in analysing the achievements or lack of progress in implementing Bologna actions. In a 2008/2009 report, Eurydice continued its investigations and provided data on implementation of the main Bologna process action lines⁶⁶.

The results of this monitoring are widely circulated and made available to interested parties. The method used for the overview involves a process of comparison, which it is not our place to review in this area of research. Nevertheless, the conduct of the Bologna process has highlighted major concerns for higher education institutions in Europe in refining definitions of important concepts for their education policies. It may be more interesting to introduce briefly the main concepts that were developed during the process and their level of implementation according to the monitoring: the organisation of higher education in

63 See Bologna Process Stocktaking report 2009.

64 Eurydice, Higher Education in Europe 2009 : Developments in the Bologna Process.

65 Iceland, Liechtenstein and Norway.

66 Eurydice, 2009.

cycles, the recognition of studies and joint degrees, the diploma supplement, the accreditation system, and quality assurance.

The organisation of study cycles:

The organisation of higher education in cycles has been very much subject to historical developments in the Process. It was stated in the 1999 Declaration that European higher education should follow a two-cycle organisation: one undergraduate and one graduate. It was not until the Berlin communiqué that doctoral studies were withdrawn from the graduate cycle to become a fully autonomous third cycle. According to the monitoring review the three cycles, known as bachelor, master (undergraduate/graduate) and doctoral levels, are now universally implemented or on their way to being accredited as such in the countries participating in the Process, with a few exceptions. Nevertheless, it is not compulsory for higher education institutions to have these three cycles set, and many of them, such as business schools, do not.

Recognition of external training and the diploma supplement:

The recognition of studies is one of the less flexible Bologna actions. National higher education systems must fully recognise the prior studies of an incoming student conducted in a foreign country or in other educational institutions. The student's prior learning is deemed equivalent to national learning. In practice, certain forms of protectionism are encountered in many cases studied during the monitoring process as a result of the consecutive waves of enlargement of the process. Fears remain concerning the level of quality of education in other participating countries, notably. However, the certain "right of scrutiny" the partners exercise over each other's level of education when creating joint degrees explains the fact that more and more national systems are allowing recognition of this form of common training and jointly awarded diplomas.

In the same way, the Bologna process encourages institutions to develop diploma supplements when awarding degrees. The diploma supplement is a document that was created by the European Commission together with the Council of Europe and UNESCO. It is produced in a standardised template attached to a higher education diploma and describes the nature, content, level, context and status of the curriculum successfully completed by the student⁶⁷. It is intended to allow a student moving from one institution or one country to another to have his or her qualifications recognised. Moreover, it symbolically guarantees that if the student has spent an exchange period in another institution, the pedagogical content of his or her stay is recognised as equivalent to the part of the programme he or she missed during that period.

The accreditation system:

The European Credit Transfer System (ECTS), which existed for Erasmus countries even before the Bologna Declaration, is the main instrument for granting mutual recognition. It allows countries to recognize the equivalence of foreign study periods to national study periods. The ECTS system is based on assessing a certain number of credits for educational units, such as courses, related to student workload⁶⁸ and "learning outcomes". One ECTS generally corresponds to 25 to 30 hours of student workload. The London Stocktaking stresses the fact that only a limited number of countries effectively link ECTS accreditation to learning outcomes. This preponderance of student workload over learning outcomes can certainly be explained by the fact that the former is a more objective yardstick than the latter. Learning outcomes are subject to internal debate during the assessment process within educational institutions.

Moreover, 31 European countries and social partners – in the same spirit as that of the Bologna process, but not only limited to EC Member States - worked on translating the credit transfer system into the vocational

67 Eurydice, 2009.

68 Not the same as the "contact hours" criterion, which is the time spent by a student in class.

training language. The Ministers of vocational education and training and the European Commission agreed, on November 30th 2002, on a common declaration – the Copenhagen Declaration - aimed at increasing European “*cooperation in vocational education and training, in order to promote mutual trust, transparency and recognition of competences and qualifications, and thereby establishing a basis for increasing mobility and facilitating access to lifelong learning*”⁶⁹. The main strands of this declaration were:

- Strengthening the European dimension in vocational training and education for competitiveness of the European area worldwide;
- Increasing transparency in implementing and rationalizing information tools into one single framework and strengthening national instruments of governance in vocational education;
- Developing cooperation in mutual recognition through common certification and qualification frameworks;
- Promoting cooperation in quality assurance.

The creation of a certification framework based on the model of the ECTS was stated in the Declaration as one of the main priorities for its implementation. After investigation and consultation processes, the European Commission released its final proposal in the decisional process in April 2008 and the European Parliament and the Council issued a recommendation in 18 June 2009⁷⁰, giving birth to the European Credit in Vocational Education and Training (ECVET) system. The ECVET system, contrarily to the ECTS accreditation that is designed in connection with the architecture of a curriculum (for example 180 ECTS for a bachelor degree), is related to the outcome of the training, i.e. the profession. Owing to the differences that may exist with regard to the trainings for a same profession in the different Member States, the ECVET accreditation is only made according to the qualifications expected. The workload is not a criterion. In order to do so, the different professional sectors are invited to organise the training in modules and to define the qualifications, possibly in prioritising them, that reflect the profession. In the implementation, the stress will be put on the quality assurance of the ECVET accreditation, possibly through the definition of common standards, regarding the evaluation of the qualifications by the training institutes. In the text of the Recommendation, the ECVET shall be fully compatible with the ECTS, allowing the use of them both by educational institutions, and the EQF, but the basis for a certification of ECVET is -for the time being- not defined. Nonetheless, an “ECVET effect” has been almost immediately met after the Copenhagen Declaration: an equivalent of the Erasmus programme has been created for vocational training and education mobility, named Leonardo Da Vinci. However, since 2007, the Erasmus programme includes also possibilities for the exchanges of students in vocational training institutions and, through its “placement” branch, in companies or public bodies, thus becoming a most useful toolbox for the European mobility.

Quality assurance in higher education:

Quality assurance is the most flexible concept for monitoring implementation, and aims to assure a certain level of excellence for European higher education. The survey of quality in institutional educations will be conducted through both internal and external processes, nationally and internationally. Standards and Guidelines were adopted at the Bergen conference, as mentioned earlier, and deal with the three dimensions of this issue: internal quality assurance (at the level of institutions), external quality assurance (provided by

69 Declaration of the European Ministers of vocational education and training, and the European Commission, “On enhanced European cooperation in vocational education and training”, Copenhagen 29-30 November 2002 (“The Copenhagen Declaration”), p.2.

70 Recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council of 18 June 2009 (2009/C 155/02) “On the establishment of a European Credit System for Vocational Education and Training (ECVET)”.

actors outside the institutions but for the institutions), and quality assurance agencies (mainly at national level for all of a country's institutions).

The "standards" can be defined as goals or yardsticks to be reached in terms of quality assurance organisation, while the guidelines are sorts of best practices designed to achieve these goals. The European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ENQA) is in charge of the follow-up of experiences, the development of standards and the definition of good practices, and provides information about quality assurance issues in close cooperation with the European Commission. In the third revised version of the Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance⁷¹, the original Bergen definitions were considerably developed. Regarding internal quality assurance, the standards⁷² now require the following from higher education institutions:

- Strategy, policies and procedures, which are publicly available and have formal status, for the continuous enhancement of quality of institutions' programmes and awards and demonstrating the institution's commitment to the development of a quality assurance culture and involving a role for the students;
- Formal mechanisms for the approval, periodic review and monitoring of their programmes and awards;
- That students should be assessed using published criteria, regulations and procedures which are applied consistently;
- Mechanisms and available data ensuring their satisfaction regarding the qualifications and competence of their teaching staff;
- Available and adapted resources for the support of student learning for the programmes offered;
- Assurance that they collect, analyse and use relevant information for the effective management of their programmes of study and other activities;
- Regular, updated, impartial and objective information, both qualitative and quantitative, about the programmes and awards they offer.

Regarding external quality assurance procedures reviewing the practices of educational institutions, they must ensure that:

- The procedures take into account the effectiveness of standards for the internal review of quality assurance;
- The aims and objectives of the external review are determined before the process by all the actors involved and are published;
- Any decisions resulting from the reviewing process are taken in accordance with explicit criteria applied consistently;
- All the reviewing processes are designed to fit the aims and objectives set for them;
- Reports are published in a readable style and indicate the recommendations they might contain;

71 ENQA, Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education Area, third edition, 2009.

72 It will not be dealt, here, with the guidelines, which are too numerous and, by nature, only suggested and do not bind the institutions.

- Any measures resulting from the review are followed up according to pre-determined procedures;
- The review is conducted in cycles of a pre-determined length;
- Quality assurance agencies produce periodic reports on their assessments, reviews, evaluations, etc.

The standards for the organisation and functioning of quality assurance agencies will not be dealt with here because they do not directly concern the institutions which form the focus of the present study. A European Quality Assurance Register for Higher Education (EQAR)⁷³ was recently created and has been fully operational since the second semester 2008 to list the agencies dealing with the application of the Standards and Guidelines. Although implementation requires creation of national agencies structures, a broad range of implementation was noted by the survey. Although the vast majority of participating countries have included student participation mechanisms in their quality assurance reviews, only half of them have implemented the Standards⁷⁴. It should also be kept in mind when dealing with quality assurance that qualifications and learning outcomes issues are always inextricably linked. Quality assurance is meant to ensure that the outcomes defined for a learner are effective in the programmes. The quality of the reviewing process depends on the progress made in the definition of learning outcomes, and ultimately in the implementation of qualifications. Quality assurance is certainly one of the most open issues of the Bologna process, because of the multiple ways in which its objectives can be implemented institutionally, nationally and internationally. It is a real science related not only to administrative organisation and planning but also to educational and pedagogical science as such.

It should be noted that monitoring, for both the BFUG and Eurydice, is based on national contributions for the collection of data. Thus information largely depends on the accuracy of the delivered data and the way ministries choose to present them. Furthermore, the BFUG -and thus the stocktaking- gathers information provided by higher education Ministries even though some forms of higher education do not administratively depend on these ministries. Instruments have been created to assist some of these institutions in their implementation of the Bologna process, such as for example the “Tuning”⁷⁵ programme for art and music curricula, which in many countries come under the authority of arts and culture Ministries. Nevertheless, these forms of education are not included in the data collected for the monitoring of the Bologna process. Military education -in the context of the present study- remains for most of the European countries under the authority of the Ministries of Defence (MoDs) and no Tuning program has been planned yet to include military officers’ basic curricula.

Remaining challenges for European higher education

The Bologna process in its institutional configuration ended with the Leuven/Louvain-la-Neuve Ministerial summit. As of 2010, European higher education will officially enter into the EHEA phase, making the 2009 stocktaking report a special one particularly given the fact that the Bologna action lines must be implemented by this deadline. The process called for reforms in national educational systems which have now either been completed or are under way in participating countries. However, new actors, demands and participating countries have gradually appeared along the way to Europeanization of higher education. Levelling out the differences will take time, and might delay full implementation of the Bologna process with regard to the 2010 expectations.

73 Website: <http://www.eqar.eu/> (30/12/2009).

74 Bologna Process Stocktaking Report, 2009.

75 See : <http://www.tuning.unideusto.org/tuningeu/> (2008/16/06)

The BFUG usually issues its Work Programme for the two-year presidency period. In the 2007-2009⁷⁶ document, the BFUG takes stock of implementation of the Bologna process, in particular with regard to quality assurance developments and reflections on the nature of ECTS accreditation, employability of students, lifelong learning and recognition of prior learning. It also plans future activities related to Bologna process actions, such as conferences and discussions, and launches the debate on the importance of Bologna for the global governance of education, such as redistributing responsibilities for removing mobility obstacles. One major concern outlined in the document was for example the social dimension that should be given to the EHEA and the mission that other actors -such as the European Commission and national governments- have to fulfil for removing financial or visa obstacles to actual mobility at the most appropriate level: “*Specific questions related to EU legislation, which concern EU countries only, should (...) be dealt with in the EU context*”.⁷⁷

The survey made in the Stocktaking and Eurydice documents at the end of the Benelux Presidency⁷⁸ demonstrates general optimism concerning the progress made from one ministerial conference to another in implementing the recommendations. The Bologna process seems to have successfully removed a certain number of barriers to the effective mobility of students in the European area. The survey conducted by the Directorate-General for Education and Culture of the European Commission on the Erasmus-Socrates exchange programmes confirms these trends. According to it -and focusing on the most probable relevant periods of effective Bologna implementation- student mobility increased by 7,2% between 2004-2005 and 2005-2006 and by 3,2% between the following two academic years. Teaching staff mobility increased by 10% between 2005-2006 and 2006-2007⁷⁹.

The 2009 Eurydice and Bologna process stocktaking documents are thus very useful in order to identify the remaining challenges for full realisation of the EHEA. It should nevertheless be remembered that the process must be followed up at national level, for practical reasons, and not at institutional level as the investigations made in this study will focus on.

The organisation of study cycles:

The organisation of higher education into the three study cycles has almost been completed in European countries. Only special fields of study remain outside this trend, such as medicine or arts curricula. Doctoral studies are also increasingly integrated into the educational offer of the institutions, even though the status of students at this level remains unclear because of different national or institutional practices. They can be classed as students or early stage researchers or a combination of the two. However, it will only be possible to measure how far this harmonizing measure is valid once the first students following these new curricula arrive on the labour market in the coming years. The priorities now are to identify “mobility windows” within the cycles to create opportunities for the exchanges of students.

Recognition of external trainings, joint degrees and diploma supplement:

The recognition of studies or qualifications acquired by students in other institutions is a general challenge which participating countries have taken on. In this field, obstacles remain, which are linked to additional requirements possibly asked from a student when applying for a superior cycle. These conditions may intend to broaden access to studies, notably for qualified people who want to return to education, but they may also suggest, according to the Bologna stocktaking, that higher education institutions do not fully recognise

76 Bologna Work Programme 2007-2009, consolidated version, issued 2 March 2008.

77 Idem.

78 Eurydice, Higher Education in Europe 2009 : Developments in the Bologna Process

79 See: <http://europa.eu/rapid/pressReleasesAction.do?reference=IP/08/736&format=HTML&aged=0&language=EN&guiLanguage=fr> (Press communication IP/08/736, 13/05/2008)

qualifications -even in the same field and/or country- issued by other institutions. There is therefore the need to make these possible additional requirements more transparent so that they are not regarded as transitional obstacles.

The recognition of and participation in joint degrees is generally on the increase, and a number of actions are being conducted to underpin this trend, such as legal measures, creation of financial support mechanisms or efforts regarding the quality assurance and accreditation of joint forms of training. Legislation has been amended, but in half of the 46 participating countries only 1 to 25% of institutions participate in joint degrees.

The diploma supplement, which might be important for the recognition of knowledge acquired through joint degrees and through exchanges in general, is not as widely implemented as could be expected, according to the Bologna stocktaking. In 2009, only half of the countries automatically deliver the document.

The accreditation system:

The accreditation issue has been globally assimilated in the EHEA, either through the ECTS or compatible national accreditation systems. Two main challenges remain with regard to accreditation criteria: measuring credits in terms of student workload and linking them to learning outcomes. The shift from contact hours to student workload is under way but estimating the workload objectively, i.e. in numbers, still poses problems. The learning outcomes introduced more recently as a criterion remain the most difficult part of the accreditation process not only because it is a subjective criterion which is difficult to estimate in numbers, but mainly because the notion of “learning outcome” itself is also a difficult concept to deal with⁸⁰, certainly in the light of ongoing debates about qualifications. The Bologna stocktaking adds that one reason may be the fact that the countries might have pursued these two action lines – accreditation and learning outcomes - separately.

Quality assurance in higher education:

According to the stocktaking, internal quality assurance is developing more slowly than external because in some countries it is seen as limited to writing a self-assessment report with a limited observer role for students. The BFUG, without challenging the fact that quality may be assured in different ways, indicates goals to be achieved in order to develop a system in line with the Bologna recommendations, thus developing further the Standards and Guidelines. For example, it bases its evaluation of student participation on the fulfilment of the following criteria:

- Participation in the governance of national bodies for quality assurance;
- Participation in the external review of educational institutions and/or programmes in expert teams, observers in expert teams or in the decision-making process;
- Participation in consultation during external reviews;
- Participation in internal quality assurance processes;
- Preparation of self-assessment reports.

It also bases its evaluation of international participation in quality assurance processes on the fulfilment of the following criteria:

80 Eurydice, Higher Education in Europe 2009 : Developments in the Bologna Process.

- International participation in teams for external review of institutions and/or programmes as members or observers;
- Participation of the national quality assurance agency in the ENQA or other similar networks;
- Participation in the governance of national bodies for quality assurance;
- Participation in the external evaluation of national quality assurance agencies.

Here again, it should be kept in mind that the stocktaking process directly addresses the countries and not the institutions themselves. However, what is emphasized and also addressed to the institutions is the general observation that quality assurance is linked to the learning outcomes issue and, as such, is expected to evolve in the future with the progressive definition of the qualifications' frameworks and their implementation.

Challenges ahead and recommendations:

In the 2007 stocktaking, the participating countries were asked to identify, according to their experience and expectations, the challenges that they consider to be the most important facing their higher education systems, and to rank them in order of priority.

Table 7: National perceptions of remaining challenges in the Bologna process (2007):

Future challenges mentioned in national reports:	Number of countries (%: n=48):
Quality assurance, accreditation	27 (56%)
Student and staff mobility (more related to students)	23 (48%)
Employability and stakeholder involvement	20 (42%)
Research (including doctoral studies)	18 (38%)
National qualifications framework, outcomes-based qualifications	17 (35%)
Funding (including better allocation of resources; management)	17 (35%)
European dimension in programmes, joint degrees	14 (29%)
Issues at institutional level (including autonomy)	13 (27%)
National level governance, strategy and legislation for higher education	9 (19%)
Degree system	8 (17%)
Lifelong learning	8 (17%)
Widening participation	8 (17%)
Recognition	5 (10%)

Source: Bologna Process Stocktaking Report 2007

No such table was made in the 2009 stocktaking report. However, starting from the observations mentioned above, in the 2009 document the BFUG issued a series of recommendations directly connected to the main priorities identified two years before and among which four might be of direct importance at institutional level:

- Working towards achieving coherence in describing programmes using learning outcomes, enhancing transparency of qualifications and facilitating the full implementation of ECTS and the diploma supplement;
- Ensuring that the European Standards and Guidelines for quality assurance are fully implemented;
- Engaging fully in developing and implementing coherent and transparent practices for the recognition of higher education qualifications, so that a qualification has the same value across the EHEA;
- Promoting greater mobility for students within and between cycles.

Additionally to these recommendations, the BFUG suggests that the stocktaking process be continued even after the 2010 deadline as to monitor the realisation of the EHEA.

Dealing with the specificity of officers' education

Incentives and obstacles to the Bologna implementation by officers' education systems:

Due to the dual specificity of military institutions' action for officer education, i.e. academic education and military training, the objective of mobility according to the Bologna Process is slightly different in civilian and military education. For the 31 States of the Erasmus area⁸¹, Bologna is the appropriate tool for improving civilian mobility by removing practical obstacles. The mobility instrument existed before the arrangements were put in place. In the military context, only a few institutions developed proper Erasmus exchanges before the inception and implementation of the process⁸². There is a need for instruments to be created, but eliminating existing differences in forms of education is incontestably an advantage in the preparation of mobility discussions.

There is nothing in the Bologna process, as described in previous sections, to suggest there is any objection to the use of this new tool by military institutions. Its implementation is not exclusive and its scope applies to higher education as a whole. However, as mentioned earlier, monitoring of the process is almost exclusively based on reports delivered by higher education Ministries. To a certain extent this rules out the possibility of obtaining an accurate survey of other forms of higher education as provided by institutions remaining outside the most familiar structures. Military institutions come into that category. The Tuning programmes that were created for some of these institutions are not dealt with in the Stocktaking and, so far, no such programme has been designed for military institutions. A look at the Stocktaking confirms this observation. Only four mentions of military studies could be found in the 2006/2007 Eurydice report: one stating that Serbia's Military Academy is fully integrated into the higher education system and participates in joint degrees⁸³; one legal reference to the merge of Slovakian military institutions⁸⁴; one mention of Hungarian military studies as following the same organisation as engineering and social sciences students, with a description of

81 The 27 member States of the European union, the EFTA countries (Iceland, Norway, Liechtenstein) and Turkey.

82 The two universities of the Bundeswehr in Munich and Hamburg notably. Sylvain Paile, *L'Enseignement militaire à l'épreuve de l'Européanisation : Adaptation de la politique de l'enseignement pour l'Ecole royale militaire de Belgique aux évolutions de la PESD*, op. cit.

83 Eurydice - Directorate-General for Education and Culture, Focus on the Structure of Higher Education in Europe 2006/07: National Trends in the Bologna Process, p.268.

84 Idem, p.293.

the study cycles⁸⁵; and one specific description of the Finnish officer curricula in study cycles⁸⁶. No mention could be found in the 2009 document. There may be reports on implementation of the Bologna process by military institutions, but there is no systematic monitoring at this stage.

In the context of basic officer education, institutions have – by nature - mainly a national Defence related role. They educate future officers of national armed forces and might thus need some “privacy” in order to socialise them with their fundamental environment⁸⁷. At the same time, they seek to be recognized – even by their peers - as centres of excellence in education in order, to a certain extent, to legitimize the military profession in the eyes of the public and to educate their cadets for the modern kinds of mission they will face in their career. Consequently, it might be difficult to strike a balance between these two aspects when considering the requirements for implementing the Bologna action lines.

The process aims to facilitate the mobility of students⁸⁸ and open the educational area up to competition, but this may be at odds with the logic of military education. The purpose of military education is inextricably linked to the substance of the State itself, and the knowledge that is transmitted through the process is of national interest, given that military careers necessarily have national roots. The teaching of techniques, tactics and strategies of violence which a State could exercise against third parties remains, in most perceptions, a national affair. Mobility is very differently thought depending on whether we are dealing with civilian or military education. A few European States have already introduced elements of competition into their military higher education; Luxembourg – but without any national education capacity - Ireland, United Kingdom, Spain and Belgium – in 2003 - opened their military curricula to European Union nationals⁸⁹. Examples however remain limited in practice⁹⁰.

Regarding action lines defined by the Bologna process, their implementation in practice might also, in some cases, conflict with the traditional conduct of military education. This is not necessarily the case for the setting up of a three cycle structure, apart from the recommendation that the creation of doctoral level education in the institutions be promoted. In practice, this option has been chosen by a limited number of countries and remains costly for the MoDs, for the service of which the officer is educated.

Recognition of external training, joint degrees and diploma supplement:

Recognition of prior learning, and above all recognition of foreign study periods, is very difficult to attain, in theory, for the same reasons as mentioned for the competition issue: the basic education of an officer obeys nationally defined objectives and strict programmes that cannot be conceptually substituted by other forms of education. Along the military career, there are opportunities to engage in learning paths. In most countries possibilities are already in place, for example for a non-commissioned officer, to access the officer career through learning bridges. These adapted “bridges” take into account the knowledge acquired as non-commissioned officer. In European countries, also, an officer is meant to follow advanced education

85 Idem, p.177

86 Idem, p.153

87 We will not deal here with the distinction that should be drawn between non-commissioned officers’ and career officers’ education in this issue. Short-term officers’ education does not meet the same needs as the others in terms of higher-level education provided by military institutions. We will concentrate on the latter issue.

88 And also the mobility of staff, but this is not subject to the same obstacles in practice.

89 André Dumoulin, Philippe Manigart, Wally Struys, La Belgique et la Politique Européenne de Sécurité et de Défense : une approche politique, sociologique et économique (Brussels: Bruylant, 2003).

90 Since the implementation of the legal act in Belgium, only a very few –French nationals so far- cadets have joined the RMS curricula.

in the course of his or her career if willing to evolve professionally, but the recognition of this experience is professional, not institutional. So, exception made of the case of specialised officers such as lawyers or medical officers who might be trained in civilian institutions also, and possible access to training after completion of a prior curriculum like in the French system, the challenge of recognition of prior learning in the initial education of officers is not among the most important.

In theory, joint degrees can also be encountered in military higher education. However, it is probably less likely for the military and professional aspects of training as there might be issues with technical differences in the material used by individual armed forces. The socialisation to the arm –the acquisition of skills and habits by a cadet for becoming a full actor of the armed forces- as well as the training language, might pose a challenge to plans for setting joint degrees, *a priori*.

Implementation of the diploma supplement is not a major issue for the initial training of officers following a predetermined curriculum, but it could be important with regard to the recognition of non-national training in the context of the Initiative. For example, with a view to possible joint degrees that could be organised, it is important to mention the completion of this kind of course because it would suggest that, symbolically, the armed forces consider international experience equally valuable to national training. Although this is linked to projects to be developed in the context of the Initiative, no investigation regarding the diploma supplement issue will be conducted in the stocktaking process, at this stage.

The accreditation system:

ECTS accreditation is also complex for the military basic education. As in civilian higher education institutions, the process of accreditation implies global reflection on the nature of education, and the expected professional and learning outcomes of courses. As outlined above, the monitoring Bologna reports judged that not enough consideration had been given to outcomes in the accreditation process and that the process focuses too much on workload evaluation in practice. Outcomes should however be dealt with in the accreditation process; this might be an issue for teaching units in both civilian and military institutions as programmes increasingly offer a choice between specialised courses. Unlike the civilian institutions however, military ones have to make two important choices: How do we credit general sciences in comparison to military sciences? Do we credit military training and how?⁹¹

The employability concerns raised in the Bologna process with regard to civilian education may also be different from the military perspective. Military institutions educate their students for only one professional purpose, i.e. becoming military officer. Due to the *raison d'être* of the military institutions, Ministries of Defence act as both providers and customers of this education. The BFUG's efforts to integrate representatives of professionals and industry into the process for improving the employability of students do not apply to implementation of Bologna by military institutions. Cadets are educated by the MoDs and for the MoDs.

Quality assurance of higher education:

At first sight, quality assurance as provided for by the Process does not conflict with surveys of military institutes since, like higher education institutions, they need to be recognized as centres of quality education. Some institutions, however, have a special status in their national higher education structure that might prevent them from benefiting from the quality assurance structures. This is notably the case, most certainly an extreme one, of the Royal Military School of Belgium (RMS)⁹². Responsibility for higher education in

91 Remembering also that ECTS accreditation, according to the Bologna Process, is decided according to workload and outcomes.

92 Sylvain Paile, *L'Enseignement militaire à l'épreuve de l'Européanisation : Adaptation de la politique de l'enseignement pour l'Ecole royale militaire de Belgique aux évolutions de la PESD*, op.cit..

Belgium is shared between the cultural Communities⁹³, as are the quality assurance agencies⁹⁴. However, the RMS is the only “federal” educational institution and no specific agency had been set up for this particular exception in the system. The RMS thus planned to resort to a double-check system for its external survey: the Nederlands-Vlaams Acreditatieorganisatie (NVAO) –jointly created for the Flemish Community of Belgium and The Netherlands- and the French Commission des Titres d’Ingénieurs (CTI) for its engineering curricula. Together with this external -and international- survey, the RMS set up a quality assurance unit (AQWZ) within its administrative structure. The Belgian experience of quality assurance worked out well in the end but, as described in the Bologna process recommendations, some difficulties were faced in implementing it. Naturally, military institutions are the only institutions competent to fulfil their national mission, above all in countries where joint institutions exist. Moreover, they might feel uncomfortable with the idea of international surveys, peer reviews, or, due to hierarchical organisation of the armed forces, student involvement in the quality assurance process.

Subsidiary issues in the Bologna process:

Other issues dealt with in the Bologna process are worth mentioning and checking against the characteristics of basic military education. Employability, for example, is an action line that is obviously to be waived when investigating the process of implementation by national educational systems. It is dealt with at the recruitment stage, which is not the scope of this initiative, when the armed forces –the only employers- anticipate their needs in terms of personnel⁹⁵. Similarly, the social dimension concerns of the Bologna process do not apply to initial officer training either. They do not concern implementation and therefore will not be investigated in this stocktaking. As far as military education is concerned, this issue will be assimilated into the social dimension of the armed forces, involving issues like the gender, ethnic and minorities composition of national armed forces. The subject is too wide to be approached in an exercise of the present kind and needs a more comprehensive and sociological tool, which is not our capacity to provide hereby.

Voluntary integration of this acquis

The Bologna Declaration and the subsequent actions proposed by the process are not based on a legal obligation. They are not binding under international law, either. A declaration is not a convention and does not prescribe legal sanctions for non-application. Therefore, implementation of the process is the sole responsibility of the participating countries. However, the comparative overview drawn up in the Bologna survey does imply a global and informal constraint in the conduct of the process. This is not, as stated earlier, directly applicable to implementation by military institutions. Many of them did implement the process on a voluntary basis for recognition as legitimate actors in the European Higher Education Area, which does not mean that no structural differences in the organisation of the curricula remain. This will most certainly be outlined in the stocktaking to be undertaken in this study.

The process does not prescribe any particular form of structure for the cycles. Duration is not as relevant as ECTS accreditation in the definition of the study cycles: 180 ECTS for bachelor, 90-120 for master, free for doctoral studies⁹⁶; but might constitute an issue for mobility. Consequently, there is a need to determine whether this possible difference in implementation challenge the normal running of the process.

93 Flemish and French. The German Community does not have any major university.

94 No independent agency had been created at that time for quality assurance monitoring in the French Community of Belgium.

95 Nevertheless, it can be talked about employability concerns in relation with redeployment of short-term officers because, in this particular case, the education has a decisive impact on the adaptability of the former officer on the civilian labour market. It will not be dealt with this aspect here because it wider than the search for optimal exchange conditions.

96 In parallel with the ECTS system, the ECVET system uses also the 60 credits’ unit per year.

Concerning vocational training, for which the Bologna process was not primarily designed, “Europeanization” of training does not cover the same order of priorities. The organisation of studies in cycles is not relevant in this particular case and mutual recognition is, as it can be supposed, not widely expected since military training remains very traditional and nationally focused. Consequently, with regard to vocational training, quality assurance is not expected to be a priority either. Nevertheless, it is likely that progress, such as in qualifications or mobility improvements, is sought after by the responsible institutions as a sign of the quality and reputation of the training they provide. Investigation of the relevant progress in the action lines inspired by the Bologna process would therefore be interesting.

Contribution of the European military education institutions’ experiences to the Bologna process: prospective views

As outlined in other studies⁹⁷, military institutions and more generally military education systems taken as a whole made great efforts to integrate the Bologna *acquis* before the 2010 deadline, notably in the structural organisation of officers’ basic education. In that sense, the military education is not a challenge to the process itself. The specific understanding of Bologna by the institutions is however giving the process a new dimension in stressing obstacles that are particularly important for this area. The spirit of mutual recognition of education is difficult to integrate due to the particular interests involved in officer education. This is particularly noticeable in national systems where all the education is provided by specific military institutions⁹⁸. Systems like the French one, where students with different backgrounds and diplomas may be incorporated according to their level, remain exceptional⁹⁹.

The question of the utilization of outcomes through ECTS accreditation in institutions faces very much the same difficulties as in civilian higher education, as we mentioned earlier. It implies, at the start of the process, a general reflection on the expected outcomes and skills in relation to the “finished product” – i.e. the shape of the officer - and then questioning the importance of each teaching course in the overall education. As far as military higher education is concerned, this evaluation is equivalent to launching a debate about the nature and role of officers in the Defence policy environment, especially when considering the potential need for doctoral education: Do we expect them to be elite battlefield soldiers or intellectual global deciders?

Quality assurance is one of the most frequently mentioned concerns in the BFUG surveys and recommendations, which shows that it remains an important challenge even for civilian higher education. It is, in that sense, very difficult to conceptualize for military institutions, which are – naturally - monopolistic and the most appropriate institutions for educating these specialised professionals. With aim at building peer review mechanisms, interaction with institutions not taking part to the same educational process is not as relevant as it is for civilian institutions. Even for these latter ones, the integration of this openness requirement is slow and follows individual strategies. Then, given the nature of military higher education, it can be said that quality assurance is growing “organically” and should therefore be left to develop naturally and according to the will of the institutions. It is however possible and desirable to encourage this natural dynamic in the framework of the Initiative.

97 Sylvain Paile, *L’Enseignement militaire à l’épreuve de l’Européanisation : Adaptation de la politique de l’enseignement pour l’Ecole royale militaire de Belgique aux évolutions de la PESD*, op.cit..

98 General Secretariat of the Council, document 12843/08, “Stocktaking of existing exchanges and exchange programmes of national military officers during their initial education and training”.

99 The British system, even if studies showed that on average students joining the Sandhurst Academy have bachelor degrees from civilian higher education, does not count as one of those exceptions because prior learning is neither a criterion nor recognized as an advantage in the curriculum. See Alex Alber “*La formation initiale des officiers : Une comparaison européenne*”, op. cit.

Finally, the question arises as to whether the civilian and military higher education have the same priorities for future implementing efforts. To reflect in advance on the main elements mentioned in the Stocktaking document (table 7 above), some priorities might be, to our mind, re-evaluated. We will, for reasons of clarity, remove global policy elements and only focus on institution-related objectives from the potentially most important to the less considered:

- Student and staff mobility: nowadays a major expectation of the institutions;
- European dimension in programmes, joint degrees: networking logic;
- Quality assurance: for being identified as educational centres of excellence;
- Funding: as mentioned, military education is costly and would be even more if mobility is implemented;
- Research (including doctoral studies): a desire to achieve excellence in education;
- Recognition: natural difficulties;
- Degree system: already dealt with in a majority of systems nowadays;
- Lifelong learning: not relevant for basic education of officers except in the situation of master's advanced education;
- Employability: not relevant in military education of career officers.

If this ranking - drawn up as a personal reflection exercise - proves accurate, the particularities of military higher education would reflect differences from civilian priorities. There would also be a focus on the networking and exchange priorities because the use of knowledge and student exchanges tools has not been widely shared until now. Bologna is intended to remove obstacles to mobility but there is a need for an adequate toolbox, including the existing programmes, for cooperation between institutions in the increasingly European context of defence.

The Bologna process is finally not an end in itself but an instrument for institutions to achieve mobility of students, cadets and staff. It is a means for these military institutions to be identified as full actors in European higher education and for officers to be recognized as intellectual elites and legitimate holders of defence-related knowledge.

The Process was designed for civilian higher education but depending on the results of the survey planned for this study, military institutions might demonstrate a strong willingness to implement it –even if they are not covered by any monitoring- on a fully voluntary basis. They might somehow adapt it to military education specificities and prove that the Bologna process can also deal with national identities by converging without harmonising systems.

Exchanges will be, in the near future, one of the main concerns for the institutions. It is time for the military institutions who have joined the European Higher Education Area to reap the fruits of the Bologna process. Due to their dual role, they might look forward to exchanges with both military institutions and civilian ones. They are in a position that might considerably reinforce political European defence initiatives in creating, even at the basic educational level, the roots for a common European defence culture in the minds of the future actors and decision makers. The Bologna process can thus be seen as the first step towards this aim in facilitating the natural growth of exchanges between military institutions.

In order to evaluate the level of its implementation, use was made of instruments already created by the Bologna Follow-Up Group and its Secretariat, which are in charge of monitoring implementation. The Bologna

Secretariat agreed to help this initiative by making its own questionnaires – usually to be addressed to higher education Ministries - available to the drafters. Only a few changes in the form of the questions were made in order to fit military education specificities – for both the academic and vocational aspects - and they were addressed to institutions. The present stocktaking investigation therefore uses the latest updates to the Bologna lines, for example regarding the definition of the ECTS, and the methodology that is normally applied to civilian higher education. At this stage, however, it should be repeated that implementation of the process itself is not meant to standardise European higher education but only to provide the basis for a common understanding. National concepts and traditions of basic officers' education are thus expected to appear in the present investigation, especially when it comes to vocational training.

Exchanges between the institutions

Exchanges between the institutions, although they are the objective sought by the Initiative, are also a central element in the enhancement of internationalisation strategies for military schools. The form, the content, the administrative framework and the partner in an exchange reveal the features of these individual strategies and, prospectively, allow identifying expectations of the institutions in terms of future collaborations.

Exchanging is also a demonstration of the conception one institution might have of its surrounding environment and its own situation in it. Then, the logic underlying the cooperation strategies might be either national, regional, European or international, depending on the military culture and the political-diplomatic traditions of the Member State. Exchanges might also involve civilian higher education institutions as well as military ones. In all cases nevertheless, they reflect the confidence in a counterpart regarding the education of one's own officers.

This trust is undoubtedly met in particular forms of exchanges that combine both the diplomatic and institutional aspects, as in the “full-curriculum” exchanges notably occurring between France and Germany¹⁰⁰ where, for many years now, students have literally been exchanged for the completion of the whole duration of the basic education in the other system before being commissioned in their own Member State. Some countries also showed European trust in allowing nationals from other EU Member States to complete the basic education and be commissioned as officers in the host country¹⁰¹.

Mobility in military institutions, as in civilian universities, concerns both students/cadets and the scientific, academic or administrative staff. Staff exchanges might possibly be more frequent than student exchanges due to financial reasons. Mobility, in the sense of the spreading of knowledge and culture, is costly in terms of travel and accommodation expenses. Then, in order to spread knowledge to a greater number, it could be more advantageous to exchange one member of teaching staff than a group of students. Furthermore, student officers are also an important investment in terms of education for their armed forces. Confidence in the partner institution therefore has to be strong because the exchange is expected to bring a real added value to the qualifications of the future officer. That is why the question of the form of the exchange is of central importance in networking between the institutes. Often, they may choose between mobility instruments widely acknowledged and experienced in the civilian educational system like Erasmus, but sometimes they try to create their own exchange tools together.

100 Sylvain Paile, *L'Enseignement militaire à l'épreuve de l'Européanisation : Adaptation de la politique de l'enseignement pour l'Ecole royale militaire de Belgique aux évolutions de la PESD*, op. cit.

101 André Dumoulin, Philippe Manigart, Wally Struys, *La Belgique et la Politique Européenne de Sécurité et de Défense : une approche politique, sociologique et économique*, op. cit.

“Erasmus is the EU’s flagship education and training programme”¹⁰² aimed at creating a European Higher Education Area and fostering innovation and competitiveness in European educational institutions. It was created in 1987 and has since successfully allowed around 2 million students travelling for their education. 31 countries¹⁰³ participate today in this programme and assure the successful running of exchanges through national agencies, under the control of the Commission. It enables students but also teachers, scientists and administrative staff, to be exchanged for a flexible period of up to one year, thanks to the ECTS system of educational credit transfer. 90 % of European universities are, at the moment, using this instrument and other institutions of higher education do so or intend to so. It is a very flexible toolbox not only for mobility but also for the creation of thematic networks in which similar educational sector institutions may discuss common exchange strategies. It is also an accessible instrument for both the students – who can benefit from financial subsidies for their stay abroad - and the institutions for their academic, scientific or administrative staff. The process for obtaining the now famous Erasmus “label” is rather simple: institutions apply for it to the national agencies following a call from the Commission and specify their Erasmus policy statement - the strategy of co-operation with regard to the institution’s mission - and the Erasmus University Charter may be awarded and signed by the institution. There is no discrimination as to the educational sector of the institution and basic officer education institutions may apply to participate in the programme. However, the minimum duration of an Erasmus exchange between two institutions is three months. This might explain why, as it appeared from the first stocktaking, no exchange of young officers on this basis could be met. The needs for practical training during an officer’s education, depending on how it is organised, can be an obstacle to exchanges for such a duration. Military trainings or academic periods (due to the fact that military trainings can be organised during a semester), for example, rarely extend on a period of more than three consecutive months. The present initiative is therefore, from this point of view, reinforced in its *raison d’être*: finding solutions for exchanges adapted to military specific needs.

Since 2003¹⁰⁴, the EU completed the Erasmus structure with another programme called “Erasmus-Mundus”. This programme “also offers a framework for valuable exchange and dialogue between cultures”¹⁰⁵ and intends to “enhance attractiveness of European higher education worldwide”. It allows the creation of joint degrees at graduate level by European institutions aimed at European and third countries’ students and awards scholarship to students for the duration of their courses. On December 2008, Erasmus-Mundus entered its second phase and now includes also doctoral programmes. This programme represents a very positive development in the context of integration of European education but, due to its compulsory opening to third-country nationals, it is not very likely that this programme will be followed in military education.

The EU also created an instrument especially dedicated to vocational education and training mobility, called “Leonardo Da Vinci”. This programme is very similar to Erasmus in that it allows exchanges and the creation of thematic networks in the field of vocational training and education. It is also applicable to people already on the labour market, and uses an ECVET system comparable in design to the ECTS system. In 2007 this programme ceased to be available to students still following a curriculum in higher education, which also includes basic education officers, and their mobility has been transferred to the Erasmus programme under

102 European Commission, Directorate General for Youth, Education and Culture website: http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learning-programme/doc80_en.htm (30/12/2009).

103 The EU 27 countries and Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Turkey.

104 Decision of the European Parliament and of the Council of 5 December 2003 (2317/2003/EC) “Establishing a programme for the enhancement of quality in higher education and the promotion of intercultural understanding through cooperation with third countries (Erasmus Mundus)” (2004 to 2008). See also website of the Commission: http://ec.europa.eu/education/external-relation-programmes/doc72_en.htm (30/12/2009)

105 European Commission, Directorate General for Youth, Education and Culture website: <http://europa.eu/rapid/pressReleasesAction.do?reference=MEMO/07/292&format=HTML&aged=1&language=EN&guiLanguage=en> (press release, 12 July 2007).

the name of “placements”. Erasmus thus extended its scope. The ECVET-ECTS distinction is made in parallel to the distinction between vocational training and education-higher education. However, military education encompasses both these dimensions and the question arises as to whether the institutions could take part in both programmes. In fact, the Recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council establishing the ECVET¹⁰⁶ set as a requirement that the ECVET and the ECTS be compatible in order to contribute to “*permeability between levels of education and training*”. It is legitimate therefore to ask whether the fact that military institutions belong to both categories, notwithstanding the status of the military student, opens the doors to participation in both exchange programmes. Naturally, indeed, the military training systems have strict mechanisms of evaluation and monitoring of the qualifications in place. Furthermore, the profession of officer may be conceptually divided in two distinct parts: the “peacetime” support to the activities of the armed forces, for which the training is similar to the training of equivalent similar positions, and the warfare. For the training to the first aspect of the profession, the ECTS may be already used, as it shall be highlighted by the investigations, but the accreditation for the exchanges regarding the second aspect of this profession, if not existing, could be possibly assured by the ECVET system.

Despite the great success of these notable instruments in civilian institutions of higher education, their military counterparts are only progressively assimilating them and have tried to create other means more adapted to their educational specificities. The European Air Force Academies (EUAFAs) forum for discussion between air force academies has already shown it is willing to enhance exchanges between national institutions, and chose to follow a step-by-step approach in organising, at first, occasional activities such as cultural events and sporting competitions. Even though they are of limited importance, this kind of exchange paves the way for longer ones and greater knowledge and culture mobility. Such fora, as the EUAFAs for air forces or the Conference of Superintendents for navies and the European Military Academies Commandants conference for armies, remain very much active in the field of mobility discussion and gather the national institutions, which ultimately decide on the nature of the exchange. Their role is therefore of great significance for mobility in military higher education.

Preliminary observations¹⁰⁷ have shown that national institutions have sometimes created their own path for exchanges. In the French Army officer education, for example, the Saint-Cyr School has organised a system of “international semesters”. Every cadet in the last year of their master’s curriculum has to go abroad for a few months in order to foster his ability to deal with other cultures and languages, in the EU or third-countries. The cadets may be hosted by a higher education institution -military or not- or do an internship and take this opportunity to do research and draft their master thesis. This semester does not take into account the ECTS that might be acquired in the hosting institution, but it is a necessary step in one officer’s curriculum. Other kinds of sui generis exchange programmes would certainly be encountered in a stocktaking of the European dimensions of military educational systems and might be important in the context of the European initiative: the example given by the “international semesters” might, for instance, be helpful with a view to predicting the costs of exchanges.

These networks and individual initiatives already highlight the fact that there is a need for a subsidiary approach in dealing with mobility. EUAFAs efforts, for example, take into account the specificities of the air force professions and traditions. The Initiative for exchanges of young officers should accompany their own initiatives, and not substitute them.

Due to their importance, questions regarding the development of exchanges by military institutions took

106 Recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council of 18 June 2009 on the establishment of a European Credit System for Vocational Education and Training (ECVET) (2009/C 155/02).

107 Sylvain Paile, *L’Enseignement militaire à l’épreuve de l’Européanisation : Adaptation de la politique de l’enseignement pour l’Ecole royale militaire de Belgique aux évolutions de la PESD*, op. cit.

a central place in the questionnaires used for the first and second stocktaking. The questions were very similar, while differences in replies revealed some inconsistencies at a first glance which certainly arose from differences in interpretations as to what an exchange means or includes in terms of its target public, form and aim.

Language policies

Foreign language education has rapidly expanded in military institutions over the last decade to reach a high level of passive knowledge today. The enhancement of specialized structures such as language centres as well as technical courses have made languages a major challenge in the development of a European and international dimension to their educational arsenal. This aspect was particularly stressed in the political declaration calling on the Member States to “*encourage the teaching of EU languages, in particular the teaching of a second foreign language*”¹⁰⁸, which is a fundamental requirement with regard to the objective of more enhancing interoperability. Some educational systems are proactive and often orientate their students towards learning more than one foreign language. It is a very central concern with a view to exchanges between institutions and, following the expectation of long-term interoperability, between the armed forces. Nevertheless, it should be kept in mind that an imbalance remains between the powers of attraction of different foreign languages. The scope for an “exchange market” for Greek students learning Finnish, for example, is very limited in theory. Nevertheless, individual curricula arising from personal backgrounds have to be taken into account. The emphasis will have to be on one or more languages, English first of all, if this “market” is to be opened up.

Languages in education can be divided into two distinct aspects of equal importance. The teaching of foreign languages is the first dimension. It consists in teaching mechanisms and use of language in an academic way, as in primary education. Education in foreign languages is more technical, and linked to the teaching of other subjects. In this case, language proficiency is not only a goal but also an instrument of education. This form is more widespread at a higher education level. Civilian higher education institutions paved the way in this domain in progressively opening some of their courses to English. In so doing, they are trying to give their students the power to pull the technical strings of their professional projects and, for themselves, to attract exchange students to specific courses. Officers’ curricula have already begun to follow this path by including technical courses, notably in English, in their range of courses. However, it seems at the first sight that these initiatives are motivated by a more utilitarian logic: hosting outside professors and scientists, teaching courses dedicated to foreign students, technical needs of the subject¹⁰⁹. Strategies are slowly developing for making the English language an educational vector and an argument of the educational policies of the military institutions.

The specificity of vocational training comes into play again when dealing with language education issues. Its needs are different from those of the academic aspects of military education, which are ultimately fairly close to those of civilian higher education. In vocational training, the use of language as a vector for education must be thought differently and, in practice a priori, is much less widespread. This might be explained by the fact that vocational training, in basic education, is more of a phase for a military socialisation and learning national traditions. Giving these specific courses in foreign languages potentially undermines the efficiency of this aspect of education. This is actually one of the reasons why the project of a European navy school-boat planned for training future officers in sailing failed, as already mentioned.

108 Council Conclusions on the ESDP, 2903 External Relations Council meeting, Brussels 10 and 11 November 2008.

109 Sylvain Paile, *L’Enseignement militaire à l’épreuve de l’Européanisation : Adaptation de la politique de l’enseignement pour l’Ecole royale militaire de Belgique aux évolutions de la PESD*, op. cit..

We do not think that recourse to English would present a challenge to the “fortress” of national languages. On the contrary, it might contribute to their preservation by initially attracting foreign students and making them more at ease with the idea of eventually learning national languages later on. Offering the opportunity to both international and national students to learn in a foreign language can reinforce the European socialisation promoted by the military institutions. However, the speed with which this new *acquis* is adopted might vary depending on the administrative arrangements to be made and possible internal resistance. An evaluation of the capacities to transmit knowledge in English or other EU language, in terms of resources, has to be made by each institution before moving ahead.

Since it was not dealt with in the first stocktaking, the state of language policies in military education was dealt with in the second questionnaires. An attempt was made to “quantify” and “qualify” the supply of language education by the institutions responsible, drawing a distinction between the teaching of foreign languages and teaching in foreign languages.

However, the questions asked were formulated differently in the academic and vocational parts of the questionnaires. For example, since military exercises conducted in foreign languages were in theory not expected to take place as often as academic courses in foreign languages, only a single question was formulated regarding this issue. In line with the qualifications expected from the curricula, a question might also have been added regarding the knowledge, skills and competencies acquired thanks to language education, as a kind of “networking” or “internationalisation” competence^{110 111}. It could have reflected the ability of individuals to move in an open educational area. In the end no question was added regarding this point for the sake of the clarity of the questionnaires.

Education related to European and International dimensions of security and defence

As the political declaration of the EU 27 Ministers of Defence stresses the need for developing modules on international issues, it gives a central place to the training of future officers to the ESDP/CSDP. ESDP is the European integration of national defence policies in its most tangible form. It should thus be at the heart of initiatives to enhance a common culture of military education.

The political declaration enshrines both the international and European dimensions in its text, and does not put them in order of importance. This might be explained by the fact that the ESDP is based on the sum of Member States’ individual policies, notably in terms of capacity building. As such, the limited integration of the ESDP and its functioning as a second pillar issue means it has more in common with the features of an international construct, for which national sovereignty remains the rule. The ESDP is thus integrated into the international concept of security and defence. And vice versa, the ESDP is about conceptualizing Europe and its security in an international environment. International security is thus also completely integrated into the ESDP concept. The learning of these comparative - and at the same time very integrative - dimensions would undoubtedly give military students, through dedicated courses, the means for a comprehensive analysis of their defence environment. The ESDP can indeed be, given the specialties of cadet training, a scientific and academic interest, but it can also be a source which contributes to the leadership training of future leaders. It forms part of the future mission of officers because even an engineer-officer may be sent to an ESDP operation field and have to work together with forces of other member States. In this case, prior training in the instruments and functioning of the ESDP would necessarily improve his readiness.

110 Outi Kallioinen, “Generic competences in producing expertise in Military Academy – case Master of Military Sciences, Finland”, op. cit

111 A Tuning thematic network, called TNP3, is working on the construction of a qualifications’ framework in language education and related to sectors’ needs. For more information: <http://www.tuning.unideusto.org/tuningeu/index.php?option=content&task=view&id=25&Itemid=48> (30/12/09).

Institutions may educate cadets in these dimensions of their future responsibilities either directly or indirectly. The direct way, on the one hand, means that the institution offers modules especially dedicated to these subjects, namely “European security”, “International defence”, or “NATO security” for example. The subjects appear in educational programmes and in curricula if published. The indirect way, on the other hand, means that institutions offer courses on these issues that are included - “hidden” somehow - in more generic courses, such as “EU politics” or “International relations”. They might not appear in drafted programmes or curricula, making them more difficult to notice. When taking stock of courses relating to European and international issues, needs might be assessed. In this respect, the political declaration noted that the ESDC has prepared modules which might be delivered to cadets.

Again, practical differences between vocational and academic instruments for teaching European and international dimensions of security and defence might be conceptually envisaged. These topics are linked to political and theoretical frameworks, which define them. There are not expected to be many vocational training exercises putting their operational concepts into practice at the basic level of education. It would financially and logistically cost a lot of effort for institutions to organise, for example, multinational ESDP exercises in operational conditions. There is very little expectation that national curricula will include such training, but the question needs to be asked in both the academic and vocational questionnaires because, in some countries, these two aspects are covered by different institutions with different views on ESDP. Nevertheless, it would mark an important step in the European integration of basic education if this kind of practice were implemented, possibly with European Union coordination. Vocational training stimulates the transmission of behavioural codes¹¹² specific to the officer profession, and using this vector to “inject” ESDP cannot but benefit both officers and European integration. The question was therefore asked, keeping in mind that even an overall negative answer might be analysed through an integrative definition of the ESDP itself: a sum of separate national policies and practices unified under a European banner.

The learning of European and international dimensions of defence have also been evaluated in the questionnaires. No specific pre-established framework was found, although the Tuning programme had established one for civilian European studies curricula. However, it was too focused on long-term studies, such as Master periods, and was not adaptable to the stocktaking exercise. For the sake of convenience and the uniformity of the questionnaires, and since no international counterpart could be found, this specific question was eventually abandoned.

Conclusions

In this chapter, the concepts used for the stocktaking investigations were defined and the main lines of the questionnaires that were circulated among the military basic education institutions explained. The methodology of the study was largely based on preliminary observations concerning military education itself, but also on experiences of European higher education in general. The questionnaires were consequently drafted and influenced by pre-emptive thoughts, taking into account similarities and differences in the field of military institutions and in that of their civilian counterparts. Not anticipating these would have given a biased slant to the investigations because the dual specificity of the learner being both a student and a cadet will have to be kept in mind when analysing the replies to the questionnaires. None of the calendars is expected to be returned all marked in blue, which was the colour proposed for symbolizing academic training in the questionnaires.

When defining and commenting on these elements, which are considered the cornerstones of Europeanisation, a certain number of assumptions concerning the military use of these concepts were made and now need to be checked against the realities of the field.

112 Alex Alber, “*La formation initiale des officiers : Une comparaison européenne*”, op. cit.

Chapter Three:

The organisation of military higher education in Europe

This chapter presents the results of the investigation made through the questionnaires that were circulated among the 27 EU Member States in 2009. The report it is based on is the continuation, in details, of the first stocktaking processed to in 2008 and is intended to provide the implementation group of the Initiative with the necessary information regarding the challenges set in the political Declaration.

This chapter follows the notions and concepts that were developed in Chapter Two and provides facts on how the European military education understood, assimilated and implemented these definitions. It is also the opportunity to verify the adequacy of some ideas that were formulated in the previous chapter.

Besides, the provision of facts and statistic data –which will be illustrated by graphs hereunder - were expected to have impacts on the works proceeded by the Implementation group. Therefore, as a scientific support to these actions undertaken, the report and this subsequent chapter are also drawing lessons from these facts exposed. Orientations for the lines of developments of the Initiative are discussed and proposed.

Methodology of the stocktaking process:

The breakdown of European military institutions from which replies were received is as follows:

	Land Forces	Navy	Air Force	Gendarmerie	Total
Academic education	21	14	18	4	57
Vocational education	29	18	23	4	74
Total	50	32	41	8	131

It should be noted that the numbers previously shown in the table are based on the fiction of considering joint institutions¹¹³ as one entity in each of the branches and aspects of education (academic and vocational) they provide. This “fiction” will be maintained in this chapter. Total numbers are thus generally the number of answers from national education systems and not the number of institutions. In vocational education especially, it may happen that the number of replies be superior to the number of answering Member States because of the application level: schools are often dedicated to the training of one arm only (i.e. infantry, artillery, cavalry, etc.), which multiplies the number of replies received¹¹⁴.

Some member States, concerning notably Medical officers¹¹⁵, communicated additional replies that were not included in this document due to the limited amount of questionnaires and the diversity of the national forms of these officers’ education. Medical officers’ training may either take place, formally, in the educational institution of their branch, regarding their future position in the armed forces, or possibly in a national joint

113 11 Member States have “joint” institutions, either for the three (possibly four with Gendarmerie) main branches of the armed forces or for two of them only.

114 On the other hand, Ministries of Defence might have decided to provide one general description of the vocational training system although several different institutes train different specialties within the same armed force’s branch. Therefore, the number of replies can also be inferior to the actual number of institutions.

115 Medical: BE, CZ, HU, IT.

institution, or in a specialised military institution dedicated only to their training, or the training might be done in the form of short-commissioning courses, *i.e.* in completing a military training after their graduation from civilian universities. Substantially however, exception made of the specialised institution or short-commissioning course cases, their academic training is not entirely, nor even mainly, assured by military institutions but very often by civilian higher education institutions collaborating with the basic training institutions. It was not possible, at this stage in the process, to construct a basis for effective comparison between these educational systems.

Additional information was also provided concerning specific branches of armed forces. Owing to the lack of comparable information, they were not integrated into this study¹¹⁶.

In general, the answering institutions are those that train the cadets to their future role as officers. They are, depending on the names given in their member States, academies, schools or universities of defence. More rarely, replies¹¹⁷ were also provided concerning the training to the arms given at the application level within application or arm schools where the officers experience the apprenticeship of the arm they choose. The decision to provide or not specific replies from these schools was left at the appreciation of the Member States themselves. The few replies effectively received might be seen as a sign that application is not considered on the same level as higher education, with similar interests in exchanges in the context of the Initiative. One element of explanation may certainly be found in the observable differences among the Member States in the equipment and arms used, which is an issue wider than the Initiative itself.

In order to allow the most efficient comparison between the different national systems of military higher education, the data are presented separately for the four¹¹⁸ major armed forces branches, when relevant.

Time organisation in military higher education

The organisation of time in military officers' curricula is presented in the form of schedules in annex, in order to allow comparison with a view to exchanges between Member States. The intention is to give an overview of how officers' basic education is organised and its time shared between academic and military (practical and vocational) aspects of the training. Nevertheless, specifically national features observed make it difficult to categorise as related to basic education or not some of the elements presented.

The terms of the basic education:

The stocktaking is not intended to include an in-depth study of the recruitment processes of the European cadets while not related to the objectives of the Initiative, *i.e.* enhancing mobility for cadets in the course of their military education. The recruitment obeys national traditions and ends, which would require extensive sociological studies and is not to be reviewed in the context of the research for mobility improvement. However, national conditions for the entry of young students into military life, which were intuitively communicated by the Member States¹¹⁹ may give us clues about how the educational systems define themselves. First, and certainly the most important feature, it is clear from the replies that the European officers educational systems are unanimously in the higher education category. All the recruits must have

116 Italy provided notably information related to the education of *Guardia di Finanza* officers.

117 Belgium and Finland.

118 Gendarmerie officers' educational systems are shown as belonging to a specifically dedicated branch of military education and in accordance with the structure of the European Gendarmerie Force.

119 No proposition of answer was made in the questionnaires. The Member States thus replied intuitively, according to what they considered as the most important criteria for the recruitment.

completed at least their secondary education and, in some countries, some of the higher education. Therefore, basic officers educational systems also face the inherent challenges of the modern European higher education, which include notably the implementation of the qualifications and the Bologna process *acquis*.

Then, it appears from the replies intuitively given that some Member States allow citizens from other EU countries to become officers of their armed forces through the completion of their national curricula, which is important with regard to the issue of recognition: recruiting foreign citizens imply that their secondary education is necessarily recognised as such by the hosting Member State. However, their number was relatively limited¹²⁰ compared to the number of Member States allowing the recruitment of nationals only.

Intuitively, the Member States also answer that the recruitments are often conditioned by age limitation, by the success in passing physical, psychological and medical tests, and more rarely by the examination of physical standards (such as a minimum height) or criminal records.

Finally, it appears from almost all of the replies that the access to basic military officers education is conditioned by the success to knowledge examination organised under the form of competitions. This observation confirms the fact that, academically also, military education wants to be seen as a pole of excellence in allowing only the best students in. It shall be acknowledged, at this point, that one out of two of these Member States¹²¹ setting entrance examinations or reviewing applicants' educational background include tests of the English language into these. Many of the European cadets are thus expected to be able to communicate in English.

Finally, five Member States emphasised the importance of conscription¹²² in their replies, either in the schedules or in the recruitment conditions.¹²³ As conscription constitutes a person's first experience of military practice, it has been described verbally in the schedules at the beginning of the curriculum of a young officer.

Basic education prepares the cadet for the first post as a military officer and, as such, is separate from the advanced education conducted during the career, which is intended to allow the officer to take on new and higher positions within the armed forces. Formally, a young officer's first posting represents an objective and distinctive criterion for differentiating these two stages of the lifelong learning path.

In practice, master education might be an issue for some countries. It can be an option for the cadet, but, while the choice in this case is made before the first posting, our formal criterion applies and the master's course is legitimately presented in the schedules. In some countries however, master's curricula are not offered to officers in post until a few years¹²⁴ after their commissioning. Formally, this new stage in education is an advanced one. Regarding the objective of the Initiative, *i.e.* enhancing exchanges of young officers, the master's level may be the most appropriate stage for exchanges in view of the more international pedagogical content (the bachelor's course is certainly more "nationally" focused) and the more advanced language

120 Three Member States only mentioned this possibility: Belgium, Greece and United-Kingdom.

121 5 Member States in Army education, 6 in Navy, 5 in Air Force and 1 in Gendarmerie.

122 As of 2009, 8 Member States still have conscription in force: Austria, Cyprus, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Germany, Greece and Sweden (on the way to be ended).

123 Five Member States mentioned the prior completion of the military service as a condition for the recruitment of the cadets: Austria, Estonia, Finland, Lithuania (soon ended) and Sweden.

124 2 to 4 years for these Member States

skills, in particular. Furthermore, the first posting, if not too long, could be assimilated to a practice period, therefore linked to the basic educational process as a whole. This argument regarding the prospects for exchanges applies only if the students are not of too high a rank, otherwise the social aspects (interaction with other students) of the exchanges would be far more difficult to meet. For three Member States¹²⁵ then, advanced master's education was integrated into the initial training.

Doctoral studies may, in some countries, be undertaken right after the master's course. They are important also for the development of exchanges because, at this stage of the educational process, the social dimension in the exchanges is not as relevant as it might be for class-based training courses. Science is the priority here and exchanges at this level of education may be envisaged more flexibly. However, because of their flexible duration and accreditation from one educational system to another and because of individual practices, doctoral courses are not shown in the annexed schedules.

The actors of the basic education:

The basic education of an officer, represented through the schedules in annex, is the sum of education a cadet shall attend before being posted in units for the first time. From the replies, however, it appears that contributions from multiple educational actors may complicate the puzzle of the basic training. There may be a coexistence of institutions according to the academic-vocational axis or according to the level of instruction, but what is the most fundamental is the possible involvement of civilian actors in the academic training of the future military officers. As they bring an effective contribution to this education, it is necessary to ask whether the training possibly provided outside the military sphere¹²⁶ is to be considered as a part of the initial training or not. In the systems concerned, this "delegation" of educational competence to external actors may be either informal or formal.

By "informal delegation", it is meant that the contribution from an external actor other than those under the control of the Ministries of Defence is not a prerequisite in the initial training of the national officers. It is the case of the United-Kingdom system, in which a prior university curriculum is not a condition for the recruitment of a cadet: facts, however, showed that the cadets acquired an important university background prior to their entry into the academies¹²⁷. The informal presence of civilian entities is not relevant regarding the objective of exchange investigation because, at this stage of the educational process, students do not have any experience of the military socialisation. They are not yet future officers, conceptually. Consequently, this part of their academic curriculum, even if it is knowledge-contributing, do not appear in the schedules of the initial training.

By "formal delegation", it is meant that the contribution from civilian actors is a prerequisite for the commissioning of young officers, and therefore, that the Ministries of Defence intentionally gives competence to these actors for the training of their future officers. It is the case, for example, of the Slovenian system in which cadets are recruited from civilian institutions after the completion of their bachelor curriculum, or the Maltese Navy educational system regarding the prior completion of navigation watch or engineering watch

125 Estonia, Finland, Lithuania. Their master's courses are delivered at Captain level at the highest.

126 Delegations of educational competences to foreign systems by Member States having no national facility (Cyprus, Luxembourg and Malta) remain outside this debate while the external contribution is the initial training. However, in the Maltese educational system, the participation to foreign courses is only proposed: cadets can either be graduated before their recruitment from civilian institutions or chose to follow an additional military curriculum abroad.

127 See: <http://www.sandhurst.mod.uk/courses/cadets.htm> (30/12/09)

certification in a specific civilian institution¹²⁸. This delegation may also be met at the end of a curriculum as for example in Italian Navy and Air Force educational systems for some specialties like engineering, law or medicine. This form of delegation, due to the compulsory attendance expected from a future officer, is thus to be included into the scope of basic education: it is his/her educational baggage. Regarding the objective of the Initiative for the enhancement of exchanges, considering these parts of the curricula is relevant in different ways following the fact that the delegation is at the beginning or at the end of the military education. Indeed, at the beginning of the curriculum, this delegation does not allow the students to experience military socialisation and the behaviour that is required from a future officer. Considering the delegation at the end of curricula, potential exchanges would be similar to those experienced with other civilian institutions, adding the considerable value of knowing that a European military educational system already entrusted the institution and its education.

Formal delegation, finally, is also hiding behind the flexible learning paths, which are often proposed for some specialties like law or medicine. The condensed learning paths for cadets recruited after they have already obtained a diploma, such as a master's degree in civilian education, are not shown in the calendars, because the limited duration of their military education makes it more difficult to develop exchange programmes. Furthermore, these cadets might have already experienced exchange programmes in the course of their civilian curricula. Four Member States¹²⁹ mentioned the existence of specific curricula for graduate students in their replies. Besides, other Member States, like the Netherlands, mentioned the fact that they propose short-commissioning courses independently from the cadet's educational background. These options were not shown in the schedules either, for the same reason.

Looking for mobility windows:

In line with the requirement formulated in the context of the Bologna process of defining mobility windows in the curricula, the schedules highlight the strengths and weaknesses of the national systems regarding the objective of the enhancement of exchanges. The first observation that can be made is that no commonly shared window, which would mean that every systems have the same colour at a given stage of the curriculum (e.g. first semester of master curriculum), can be found. Bilaterally however, flexible match can be found, allowing willing institutions to organise an exchange for a suitable period, either academic, vocational or both. It shall be emphasised that this is a choice to be made internally by the responsible institutions.

The presentation of the curricula under the form of schedules might be helpful in order to identify possible match. To this regard, it is interesting to notice that almost all academic trainings are organised under the form of semesters, which makes a common basis for the discussion of the exchange duration especially for instructing staffs, and that these semesters very often combine both the academic and vocational aspects of the military education.

There are also, at the first sight, opportunities to be studied regarding the periods dedicated to the drafting of study thesis. On the one hand, their object is scientific. It implies that the supervisors trust the work of their European counterpart, which makes the exchange more the product of an "organic growth". On the other hand, the supervisors are often members of scientific societies acting as meeting circles, which accelerate

128 The French educational system meets the same form of delegation but experiences a different organisation of it. It is indeed possible for a student to be recruited after bachelor studies in civilian universities, like in the Slovenian system, but a majority of the cadets actually come from "preparatory classes". These classes of a normal two-years duration are organised within civilian institutions but due to their exclusive *raison d'être*, i.e. preparing the students for the entry competition, they shall remain very connected to the military education itself and be its anteroom.

129 Belgium, Czech Republic, France, Lithuania (Army).

the growth of trust needed by the exchange, and these periods might be –in cases where additional courses are not required - free from accreditation concerns. From the multiple occurrences of such entirely yellow periods, it seems that these scientific exchanges could be organised between many educational systems.

Regarding the specificities of the vocational training, it shall be said that the definition of mobility windows is not only linked to the match of the schedules, but also and certainly even more to opportunities, national equipments, facilities and know-how. Apart from the completion of a basic military training course at the beginning of the cadets' curricula, vocational training may be done according to different orders in the Member States. It is not organised in study cycles but mostly in modules of different contents and skills that can sometimes be considered independently one from each other and be taught in different orders. Concretely then, a vocational exchange organised bilaterally between first year cadets and last master year ones may be "balanced", conceptually. Therefore, in order to identify mobility windows in this aspect of the training, it might be interesting to look at the content of the vocational programme itself or to generalise the preparation of vocational activities catalogues¹³⁰ presenting the training proposed in a given timeframe, thus allowing institutions to define the modalities of their exchanges.

Sub-conclusion:

Decoding the military education genome is very complex insofar as the organisation of time obeys the needs and traditions of national armed forces. For the time being, there is no single shared timeframe allowing a kind of multilateral "European semester" to be defined. Nevertheless, the parallel presentation of the timelines of the national educational systems emphasises the fact that periods of correspondence may be found bilaterally for an academic exchange, a vocational one, or a combination of both in a given timeframe.

Qualifications fostered by military higher education – comparative approach

The lack of a common approach:

With regard to the Europeanisation of higher education in general, notably through the conduct of the Bologna process, qualifications are expected to become the engine of the European mobility area. It means that the exchanges between responsible institutions be no longer motivated by programmes' similarities only, but mainly by the contribution an other institution may bring to the set of required knowledge, skills and competencies a student is deemed to attain when achieving its education. A switch of mentalities is thus expected to take place but as it requires adaptations from the educational systems and also from the teaching institutional policies, it is a sensible issue for which implementation takes time, as it is observed from the Bologna process surveys¹³¹.

Owing to the specific nature of the cadets' education, however, differences in the level of implementation might be conceivably expected in comparison to the civilian higher education. Civilian higher education aims at "delivering" graduate students for the labour market in general. Their adaptation to their future positions is rather done on the job than during their education. In military higher education, the educational institutions are expected to deliver "finished products", i.e. newly commissioned officers ready to command a unit for the unique employer; that is the national armed forces. To this end, it is less easy to enhance mobility, notably

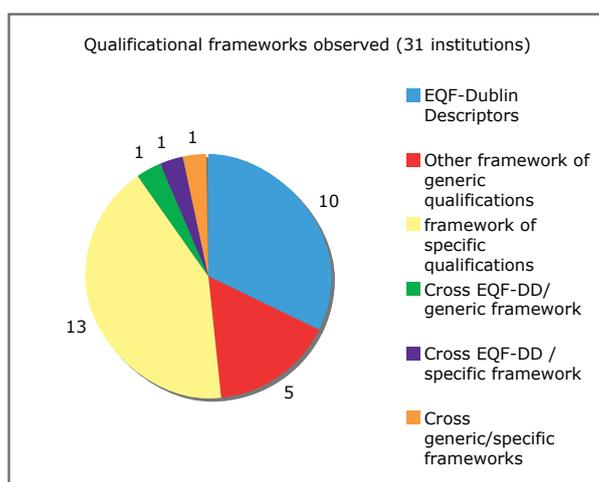
130 The European Air Force Academies forum (EUFAFA) launched a similar idea in drafting catalogue of activities proposed by the participating institutions, including thematic academic, practical, vocational, sporting and cultural events. The catalogue of activities are made available to the schools on the *fora*' websites, such as <http://www.euafa.eu/output/login.php> (30/12/09).

131 Bologna Process, Coordination Group for Qualifications Framework, Report on Qualifications Frameworks, February 2009.

in the field of vocational training, if this means that the cadets would not attend parts of their core training. Therefore, by nature, the national institutions are the most adapted to train their national military officers and, even if their teaching might be already expressed in terms of qualifications, the European harmonisation efforts with regard to mobility can possibly be implemented differently from their civilian counterparts.

The replies provided on the generic competences, as defined by the European Qualifications Framework¹³² (EQF) and the Dublin Descriptors (DD), and timelines for implementation were, at this stage of the stocktaking, very diverse.

Regarding academic education, some institutions expressed their expected outcomes in terms of specific competences, some used other sets of generic competences, and others used a combination of different qualification vocabularies. The combinations are thus called “cross” in the graph below when an institution provided answers using the definitions of generic qualifications, i.e. using the correspondence knowledge/theoretical, skills/cognitive and competence/responsibility, but differently formulated (“cross EQF-DD/generic framework”) or applied to the different subjects contained in the programmes (“cross EQF-DD/specific framework”). In some cases also, institutions developed their own set of definitions, which they applied in a consistent and specific manner to the teachings proposed (“cross generic/specific framework”). Consequently, the replies collected did not allow effective comparison in this field.



In the case of vocational education, a similar exercise with the EQF proved impossible: 3 out of 36 replies referred to the EQF, 1 referred to another set of generic qualifications, 1 reconciled specific and generic qualifications, and 32 described the content of the programme or used specific qualification descriptors¹³³.

From this investigation, it was not possible to assign a value to either system, regarding specific or generic competence comparison, and not possible either to create a tool to be proposed to the institutions for the comprehensive comparison of their qualifications discourses. A specific competences’ comparison is more difficult to make because of the link with the content of the programmes. Since educational programmes all differ from one institution to another, the sum of competences developed by national educational systems would not be comparable¹³⁴. This does not mean, however, that the educational outcomes are

132 Levels 6 (undergraduate education) and 7 (postgraduate education) for academic training, level 6 for vocational training.

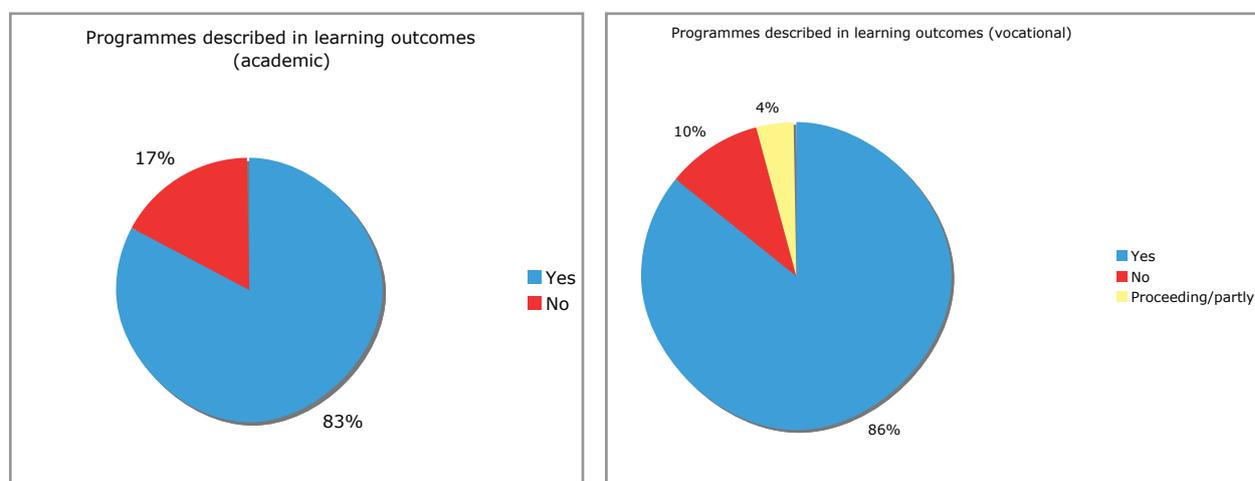
133 In the questionnaires, it was proposed that generic qualifications defined by the EQF be evaluated in relation with the different modules of vocational education, which is methodologically biased. The result turned out to be closer to a specific qualifications exercise than a generic qualifications’ one.

134 The Portuguese Army educational institution provided an “intermediate” solution in its replies. It produced

not comparable in military education. In order to allow comparison, only a reference framework serving as a common language is needed. To this end, the EQF remains the best option because it is a framework created by the European Communities, which provides clear definitions of its components and separates the different stages of the higher education. Mechanisms for the reading and presentation of qualifications will be proposed in the next parts of this chapter.

A growing culture of the qualifications:

However, even if they do not allow comparison at this stage, these replies outline the fact that the institutions have developed individual visions of the qualifications to be attained by the cadets. The importance of the description of qualifications is generally assimilated and expressed in individual statements, either in generic or in specific terms. Many of the institutions replying referred to the EQF or the Dublin Descriptors in their statements. Furthermore, a large number of institutions have already described their educational programmes in terms of learning outcomes, as shown in the following figures¹³⁵:



At this stage of the stocktaking process, it shall be reminded that the learning outcomes are “the statements of what a learner knows, understands and is able to do on completion of a learning process, which are defined in terms of knowledge, skills and competence”¹³⁶. According to this definition, agreed in the European context, learning outcomes are meant to be the translation of the qualification frameworks at the instruction level. They may thus be updated when the national qualification frameworks will be finalised and accredited on the basis of the overarching framework of qualification of the European Higher Education Area (Bologna process) and the EQF (European Communities), but regarding the present stocktaking, it appears that there is a growing culture of the qualifications in the military educational policies, in both academic and vocational aspects.

Regarding the end of this investigation, i.e. to outline the qualification equivalences between educational systems with the objective of exchanging their respective know-how, other indications may be provided

a table which matches the generic competences defined by the institutions with the educational modules and then describes the way the qualifications are attained. Other institutions, when receiving their Bologna accreditation, may well also have prepared such tables.

135 Overall replies. Joint institutions are repeated in the data for the different branches.

136 Recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council “On the establishment of a European Qualifications Framework for lifelong learning” (2008/C 111/01), 23 April 2008, annex 1.

by the quality assurance systems to which the various institutions are subject. The questionnaires were also intended to elicit information on the steps toward the acquisition of qualifications but the replies did not provide it; however, quality assurance partly solves the problem. The idea is to ensure that education is provided in time and in conformity with qualification expectations. Its role is to build confidence when a military institution is looking forward to benefit from the knowledge developed by an other institution. In order to build a common culture of confidence in European military higher education, two elements proved to be of major importance: common trends in quality assurance, together with a common understanding of the basis of quality, i.e. a common language in qualifications. Member States' replies allow similarities in the field of quality assurance to be highlighted, notably the use of ISO 9001 guidelines (certified or in line with) or, in Navy officers' education, the STCW 95 prescriptions of the International Maritime Organisation. Further information will be given in the next section. Consequently, institutions' commitment to generally follow a commonly understood qualification framework appears an essential step towards perfecting the construction of mutual confidence.

Reading qualifications:

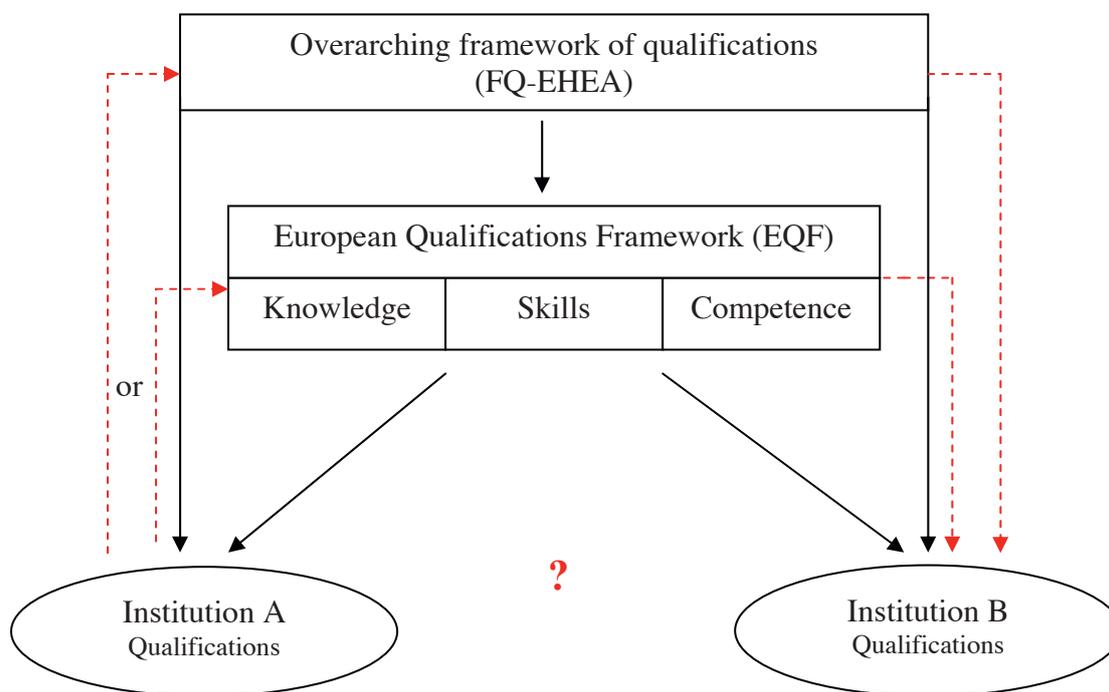
The exercise proposed in the questionnaire did not allow a clear comparative instrument on generic competences to be developed, but mechanisms may be proposed in order to compare different frameworks, for both academic and vocational training. In the recommendations formulated in the last Bologna process stocktaking¹³⁷ the participating countries were asked to *“engage fully in developing and implementing coherent and transparent practices for the recognition of higher education qualifications, so that a qualification has the same value across the European Higher Education Area”*. This recommendation aimed at organising the recognition in the intermediary period between the start of the national works on frameworks and the general accreditation of them, which is the aim of the process. The difficulty is that educational institutions, including civilian ones, are currently standing in this transitional period, but not at the same stage. Some Member States have already defined their national qualification frameworks and had them accredited¹³⁸ on the basis of the overarching framework prepared in the context of the Bologna process (FQ-EHEA) and/or the EQF, while others have not yet done so. In practice, there can be no intermediate level between the EQF and the institutional framework of qualifications for the time being.

Reading mechanisms of the qualifications can be proposed. During this transitional period, the newly defined EQF may serve as a reference tool when trying to compare different institutional frameworks. To see if the qualifications awarded by institution B are equivalent to institution A's own set of qualifications, institution A will read B's framework through the EQF or FQ-EHEA “translation”, their common denominators. At this stage of the implementation, more work might have been done by the Member States on their national qualifications framework with regard to the overarching framework of qualifications designed in the context of the Bologna process in 2005 than with regard to the EQF, which was designed later in 2008. It could then be conceivably easier to take the overarching one as the common reference needed.

137 Bologna Process Stocktaking Report 2009.

138 Numbers of Member States having already accredited their NQFs will be given at the end of this section. Early accreditation of NQFs on the basis of the EQF is more limited than FQ-EHEA accreditation because of the youth of the EQF.

Figure 2: Searching for equivalent qualifications in the transitional period



--> : Reading equivalence

—> : Influence on the definition of qualifications

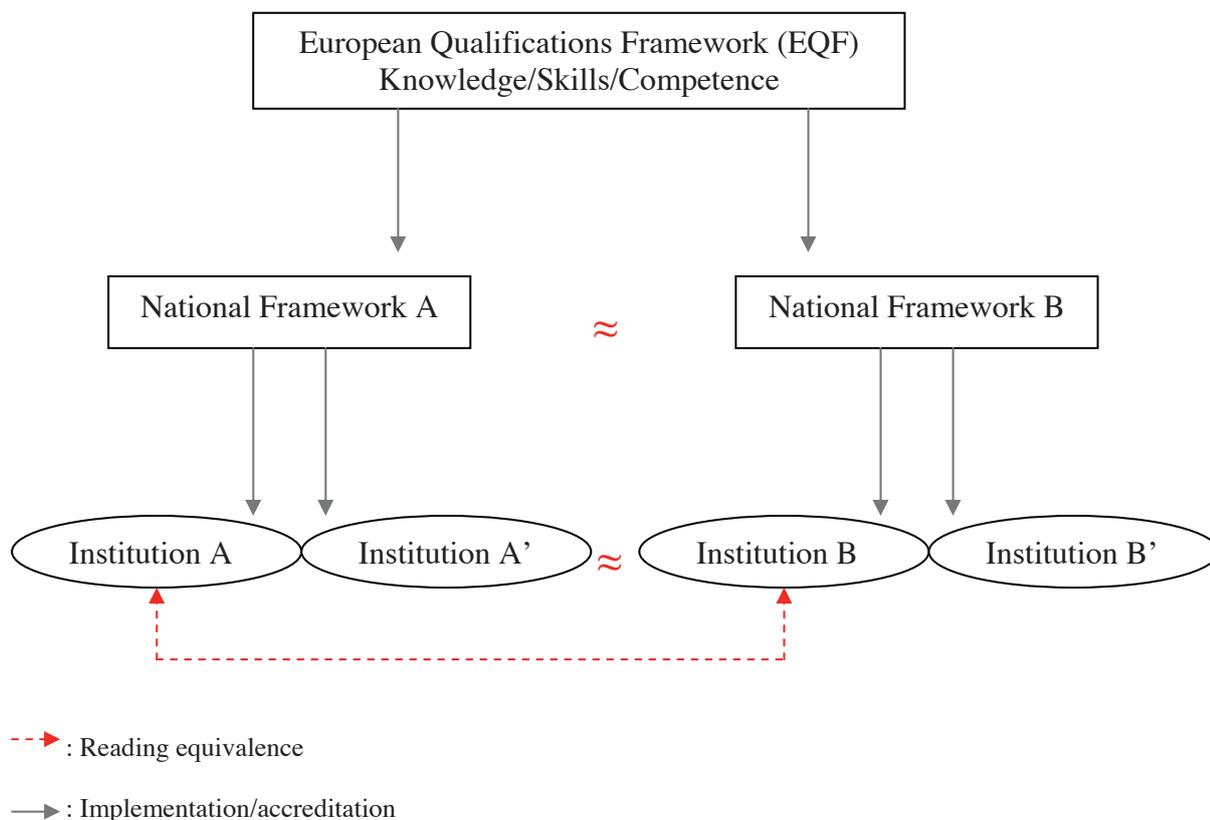
However, even if the EQF is not a formal implementation of this one, it inspired from it and has the advantage of defining the constituting concepts of the qualifications¹³⁹. Practically, it might thus be easier to use the EQF as the most adapted common denominator.

After this transitional period¹⁴⁰, the Member States will have set national qualification frameworks, implemented and accredited on the basis of the FQ-EHEA and the EQF. Then, institutional frameworks will have a formal link – even if it is an indirect one – with the EQF. Institution A should then consider the institution B’s framework as describing equivalent qualifications, even if formulated in a different way. The accreditation is a formal self-certification process aimed at guaranteeing that a national qualification framework is designed according to the overarching framework, be it FQ-EHEA or EQF. In the figure below, the FQ-EHEA was not mentioned because the EQF, which will be a reference framework for the 27 EU Member States, is to be considered as the most adapted one with respect to the governing principle of subsidiarity. Nevertheless, it shall be said here that the same pyramid could be designed from the FQ-EHEA, which reinforces the equivalences to be found at the bottom.

139 “Knowledge”, described as theoretical and/or factual; “Skills”, described as cognitive (involving use of logical, intuitive and creative thinking) and practical (involving manual dexterity and use of methods, materials, tools and instruments); “Competence”, described in terms of responsibility and autonomy.

140 Expected in the context of the Bologna process to end in 2013 as regards implementation on the basis of the FQ-EHEA.

Figure 3: Comparing qualifications in the EHEA (after the transitional period)



Practically, in order to ease the reading of qualifications among institutions during this transitional period, in which mobility is dealing with both programmes and outcomes issues, it could be proposed to the institutions to develop tables based on the same model as provided by the Portuguese Army Academy combining both programmes' contents and the EQF itself. In doing so, it would allow potential partners to look at the "pace of the education" and the way the educational modules foster qualifications. If an institution focuses its exchange on the programme, the outcomes give an idea of the match between two similar courses given by different institutions¹⁴¹; if, as it is suitable, an institution bases its exchange on the qualifications, it can compare if the outcomes of a part of its curriculum are similar to those fostered by a foreign training. In the mean time, such instruments would allow identifying both generic and specific qualifications developed by a curriculum. The table below summarizes this particular proposition for automating the reading of qualifications, taking the example of a bachelor curriculum:

141 Which are specific qualifications because in connection with the content of the programme itself.

Table 8: Proposition of matrices for reading qualifications

		Knowledge			Skills		Competence	
		A	B	C	D	E	F	G
Year 1	Course X	X			X			
	Course Y	X	X					
Year 2	Course X1	X	X		X		X	
	Course Z	X		X	X			X
	Course Y1	X	X	X	X		X	X
Year 3	Course W	X	X			X		X
	Course X2	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Course Z1	X		X	X		X	X

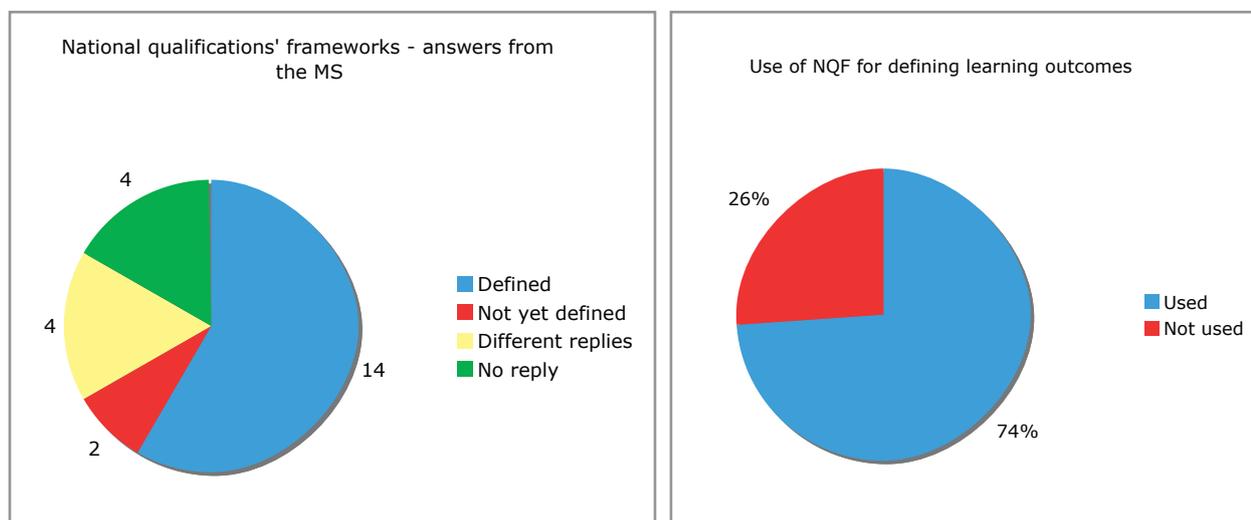
This kind of tool would allow seeing when the education provided by an institution meets the requirements suggested by the EQF. The reading of the lines allow defining the specific competences linked to a teaching, although the reading of the columns allow observing the pace of the implementation of the generic competences linked to the curriculum. It shall be noted that such a table could also be set, separately as not to flood the analysis of the information for a possible partner, for the vocational training on the basis of the EQF level 6.

It appears from the questionnaire replies that some Member States have already implemented their national qualification frameworks (NQF). Nevertheless, the replies also show that the issue of qualification frameworks is not entirely clear in all cases. Some institutions stated that the NQF was implemented while others of the same Member State said that it was not. However, in the countries where the NQF was unanimously said to be implemented and in those where divergences exist, it appears that the issue is considered to be a priority: 72 % of their military academic institutions define their learning outcomes with regard to their NQF. According to its own survey, the coordination group for qualifications frameworks of the Bologna process¹⁴² showed that, for the European higher education in general and on the basis of the national reports provided, this implementation would take time and efforts. At the beginning of 2009, 9 EU Member States had declared having implemented, or were about to do so, their national frameworks while it was undergoing for 9 other Member States. 7 of these 9 Member States having implemented their national frameworks stated they had self-certified their framework with the FQ-EHEA while 11 other were currently planning to do so¹⁴³. These numbers, however, do not take into account the link that shall be made between the national frameworks and the young EQF, which is now an important issue according to the

142 Bologna Process, Coordination Group for Qualifications Framework, Report on Qualifications Frameworks, February 2009, pp.20-24.

143 Self-certification is the next stage after implementation in the Bologna process, which explains why two Member States had already implemented their national framework but had not self-certified it at the time of the review.

Bologna-related documents¹⁴⁴. Then, countries where the link is already made or about to be made between the national framework and the FQ-EHEA might be in the situation where updates will be needed in order to fit the EQF also. The mechanisms for the recognition of equivalence between institutional qualification frameworks are thus gradually converging.



Sub-conclusion:

Conceivably, there could be a difference between civilian higher education and its military counterpart with regard to the use of the qualifications as an engine of the exchanges, as it was foreseen in the previous chapter. It is too early to effectively observe this difference in facts because the implementation of qualifications is an ongoing process requiring a coordination of all the actors involved in higher education. Nevertheless, military institutions show their willingness to integrate this trend of modernisation, thus proving their pro-activity in the development on the European Higher Education Area.

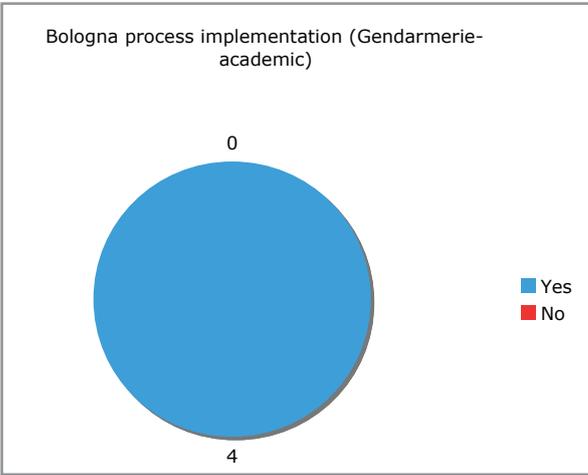
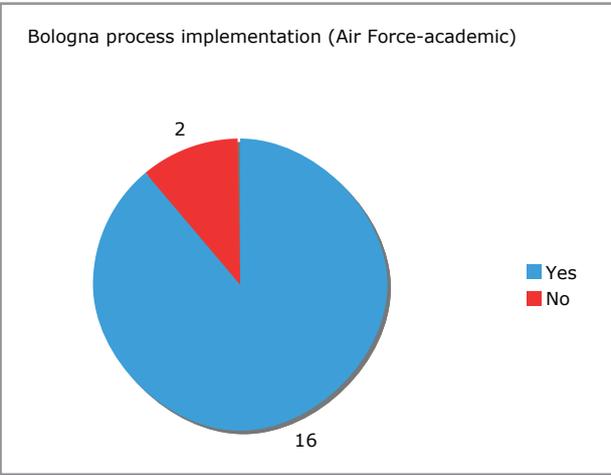
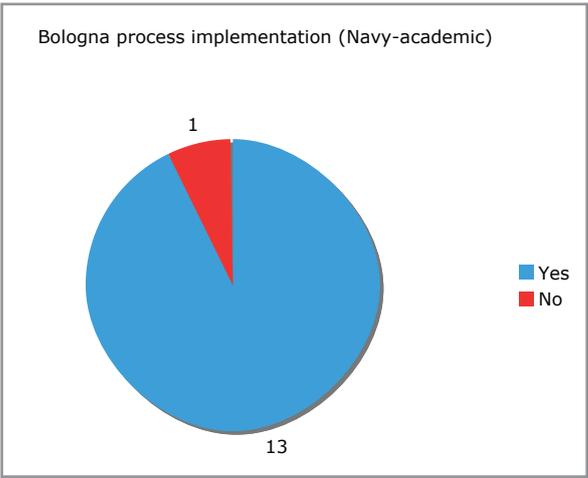
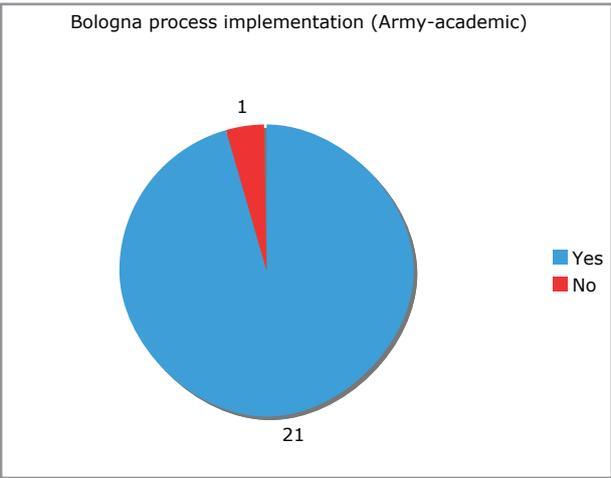
The replies to the questionnaires did not make it possible to develop a common understanding of the knowledge, skills and competences to be achieved by European military higher education. Individually however, the institutions showed that they have a vision of the qualifications to be attained by young officers, either generically or specifically, and that they have developed cultures of excellence for their education. The issue of qualifications in higher education in general is still pending while national implementation remains an ongoing process. Although no comparative instrument can be developed from the replies to the questionnaires, institutions should ideally refer to a common overarching framework, such as the EQF, when accrediting their curricula, in order to show the equivalences that may exist between the education they provide and education in other countries. To this end, they may use a tool crossing both the programmes and the qualifications, which would allow their potential partners identifying their educational similarities. The institutions may also be invited to communicate on this central issue for mobility through the structures created for the Initiative for the exchange of the young officers, acting as a forum and resource for coordination.

144 Bologna Process, Coordination Group for Qualifications Framework, Report on Qualifications Frameworks, February 2009, p.6.

Implementation of Bologna process/recognition conditions

The academic education and the Bologna process:

The Bologna process was referred to in the political statement by the 27 Ministers for Defence as a major element for the recognition of education provided by the military educational institutions with regard to the objective of improving exchanges. In the second questionnaire circulated to the Member States, answers provided showed that general implementation is almost completed as regards the academic aspects of military higher education¹⁴⁵.



The four institutions which gave a negative answer also said that they are currently proceeding with implementation.

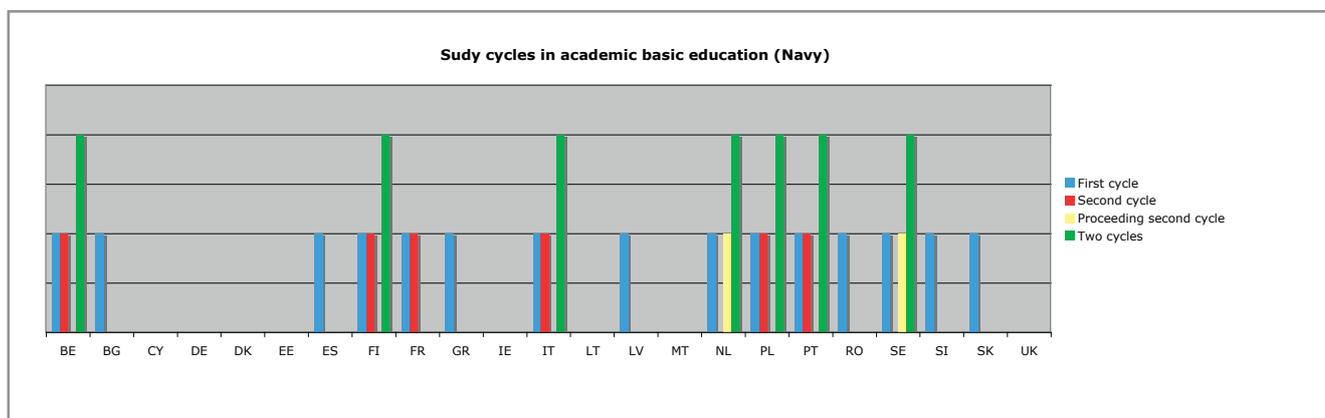
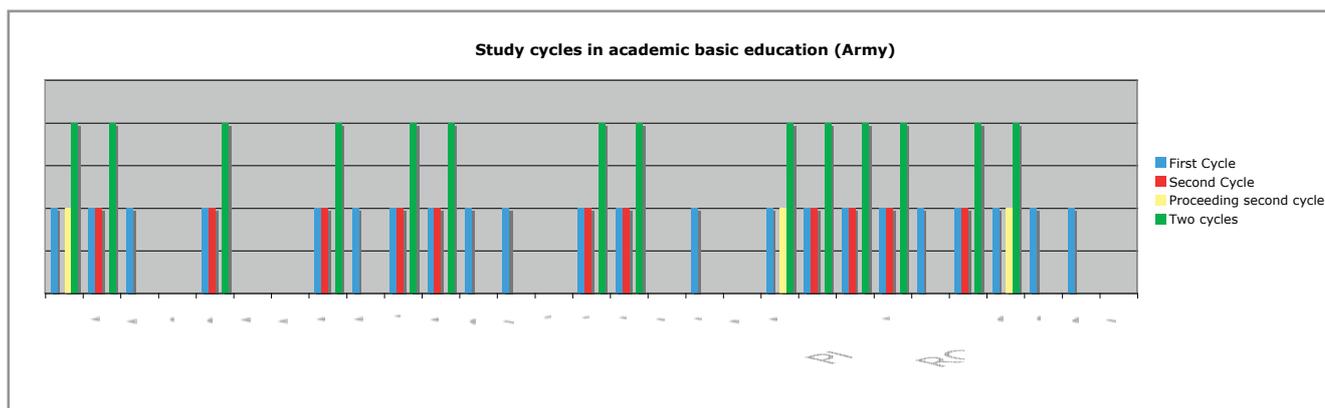
¹⁴⁵ In the first stocktaking, the question of the implementation of the Bologna process was asked with regard to the Member States themselves and their military education taken as a whole. In this second stocktaking, the question was asked regarding the branches and their academic education. Systems in which military education does not have an academic part do not appear anymore in the “noes”, then.

In these data, however, the delegation phenomenon observed in the first part of this chapter is not taken into account. The contribution of other actors, notably civilian, to the education of cadets is not to be forgotten: it might have an impact on the recognition of academic levels. A cadet who has previously obtained a degree from a civilian institution of his/her Member State should not be discriminated in his/her exchange for not having acquired it in a military institution. Thus, the recognition of the studies shall go beyond the military characteristics of the curriculum and focus on the degrees. This would considerably reinforce the integration of the military higher education and, therefore, its visibility in the European Higher Education Area.

As the Bologna process is not a standardisation process, differences legitimately remain between the basic officers' curricula. Two models of study-cycle organisation appear:

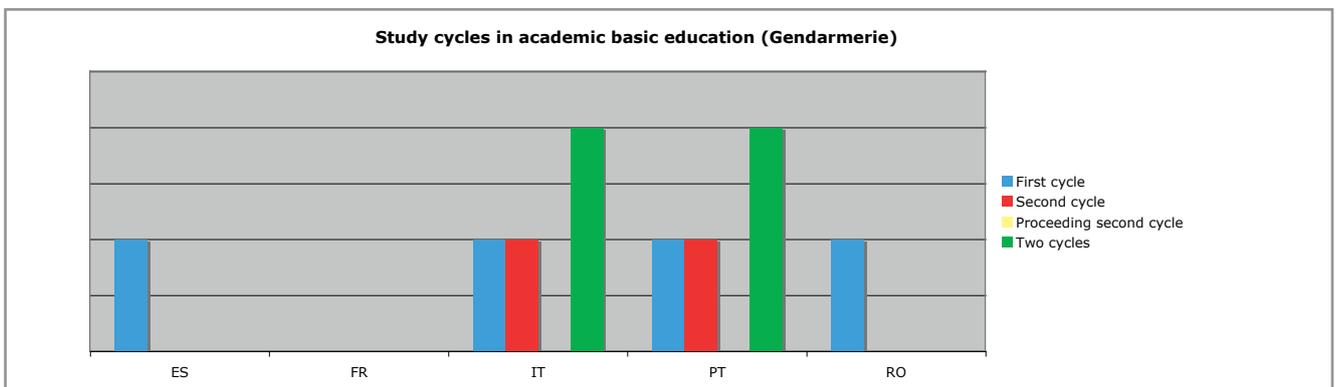
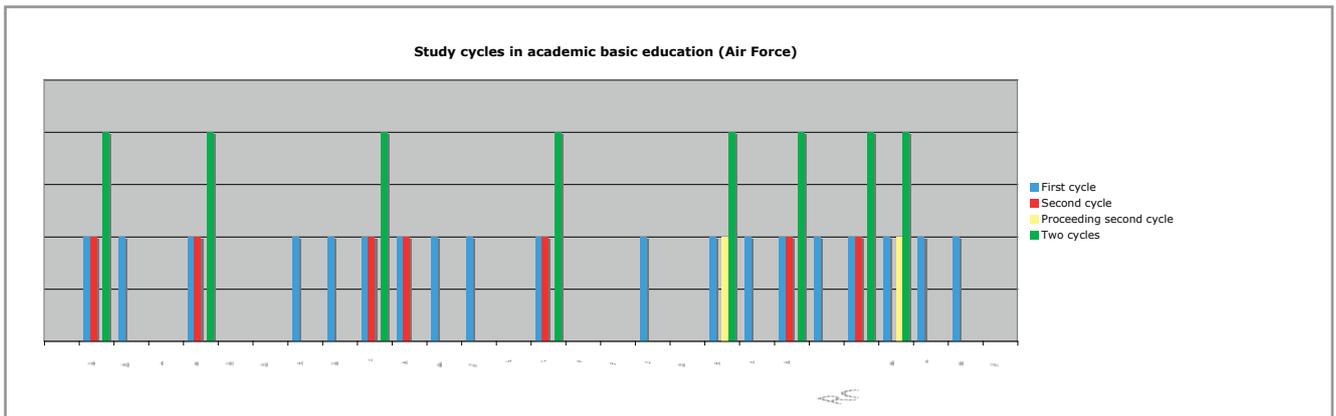
- Organisation of the undergraduate (first) cycle only¹⁴⁶;
- Organisation of the two cycles, undergraduate and postgraduate¹⁴⁷.

The following four graphs show the curricula proposed by the Member States at the basic level of education (first cycle in blue, second cycle in red, systems currently preparing the implementation of a second cycle in yellow). For systems proposing both cycles a green bar has been added to show that they would be able to exchange with any other system in the academic field. Systems where a master's degree is formally provided at the advanced level of education but nevertheless included in the context of the Initiative have been incorporated.



146 The Slovenian military system does not organise the first cycle of academic education. Candidates are recruited on completion of their studies in civilian institutions. Thus, a cadet must have completed bachelor education in the course of his/her basic curriculum.

147 The phenomenon of formal delegation is included because contributing to the educational baggage of a cadet.



The question one might ask about the organisation of the military education is if it corresponds to the organisation of the civilian higher education. With other words, it is about characterizing cadets' education as being fully "higher education" or revealing a "military approach" with regard to the study-cycles. In looking through the calendars of the national educational systems, it appears that there is indeed an important diversity in the duration and accreditation of similar degrees. Military bachelors, or first cycles in general, can thus extend from 3 to 5 years (from 180 to 240 ECTS) and masters, or similar degrees, from 1¹⁴⁸ to 3 years (from 60 to 180 ECTS). In the civilian higher education, similar observation can be made¹⁴⁹: the implementations of the cycles' system nationally differ. They may even leave space for internal differences; for example one country may authorise both 180 and 240 ECTS bachelors.

A quick look at the annexed schedules allows drawing an almost perfect parallel between national higher education and national military education. Only a few differences may be found regarding the accreditations but they are sometimes caused by the transition toward the Bologna process. The differences remain exceptional. Nevertheless, it shall be noticed that the military specificity of these curricula appears when looking at the durations of the cycles. As shown in the schedules, the cadets often cumulate academic and military training within the same period. The transmission of the academic knowledge takes thus more time than in the civilian educational systems¹⁵⁰. Only a deeper investigation¹⁵¹ could help concluding that the final

148 In the case of the Lithuanian Army master, studies are extended on a 2 years period but the total amount of study is inferior to one year.

149 Eurydice, Higher Education in Europe 2009 : Developments in the Bologna Process.

150 In some systems, the difference of the lengths between civilian and military educations is compensated by an extra load of hours in the schedules of the cadets.

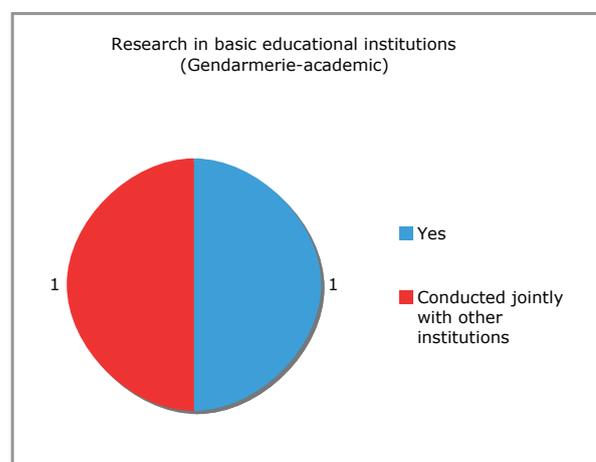
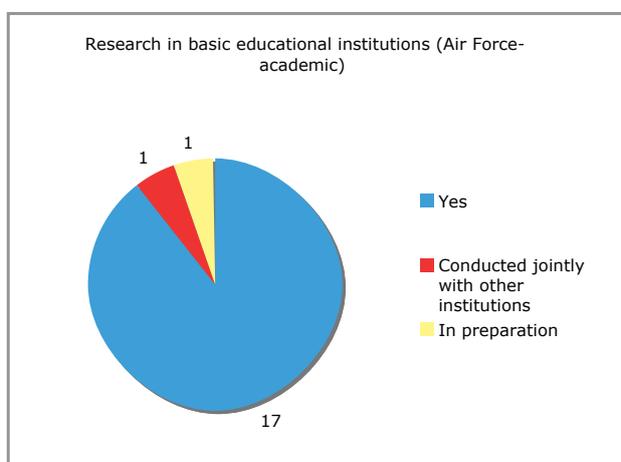
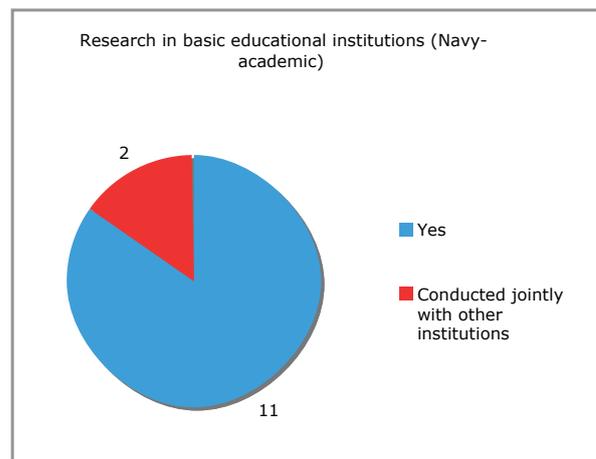
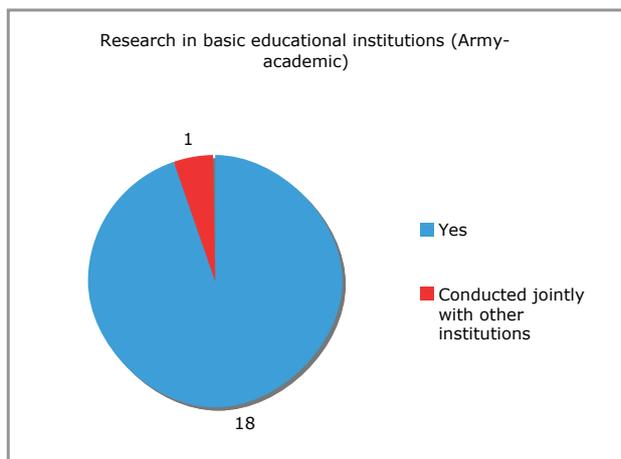
151 As it will be done in Chapter 4.

amount of academic studies equals the civilian learning paths, but there is undoubtedly a search for the most perfect equivalence by the military institutions. Therefore, it can be concluded that military education strictly obeys the rules and developments of the national higher education systems. The responsible institutions prove once again the curricula they offer do not differ from the excellence that is looked forward by their civilian counterparts.

Third cycles (doctoral studies) do not appear in these graphs because of their very ambivalent nature regarding the distinction between initial and advanced education. However, possibilities exist for some young officers to complete doctoral studies within initial training institutions (7 Member States in the Army, 3 in the Navy, 7 in the Air Force, none in the Gendarmerie). Other replies provided stated that the implementation of doctoral studies within military educational systems was envisaged. The number of possibilities, either within military institutions themselves or in collaboration with civilian institutions is thus expected to grow in the near future. This development, in parallel with trends observed in civilian higher education, reinforces the perception of officers' education as being fully part of the EHEA. This point may be important in the sense that doctoral studies are flexible, not only in terms of time organisation but also as regards accreditation, which remains free according to the Bologna process action lines. Therefore, the implementation of doctoral studies open new opportunities for the mobility of the officers in general.

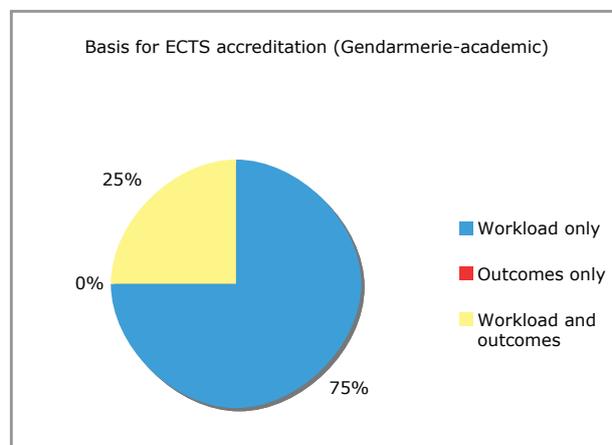
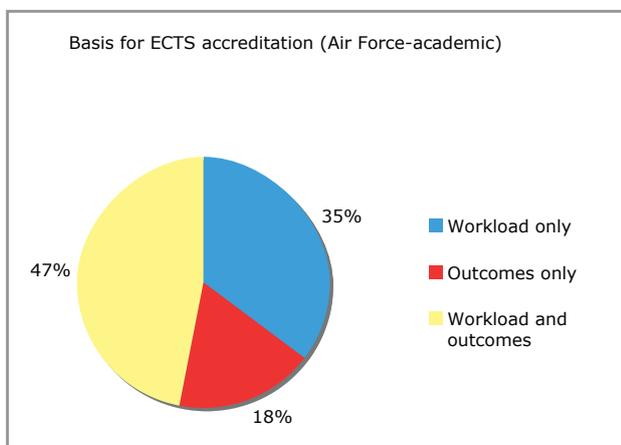
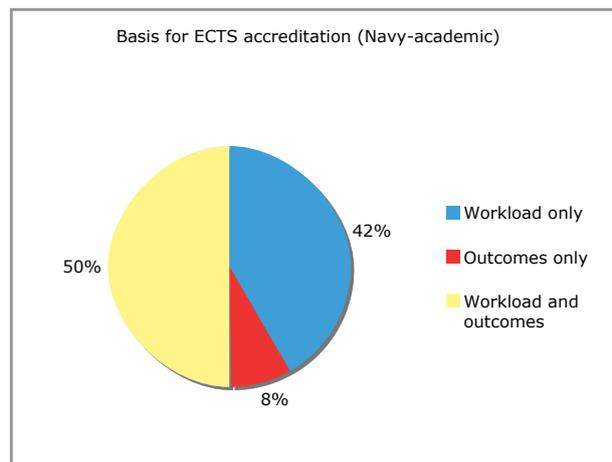
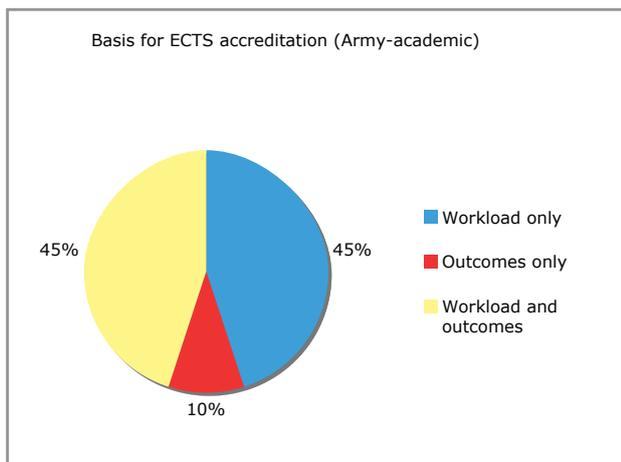
In the same vein, it appears from the questionnaires that research is a widely shared asset of military educational institutions, whether conducted individually or jointly with other institutions, often civilian. As a resource for developing and updating academic education, research may also be an instrument for ensuring the quality of a curriculum and, in the context of the Initiative, it may be a pro-active field for exchanges of scientific and academic staffs. These exchanges can only be the results of a slow maturation obtained from the connections established among the different staffs and the discussions of their respective fields of activity. Exchanges could then be organised within tight deadlines provided that they can rely on pre-existing connections. As a matter of fact, excepting the Gendarmerie, almost all institutions in every branch organise research activities¹⁵².

152 It shall be noted that the Netherlands Defence Academy is counted twice (one in "yes" and one in "conducted jointly") in the graphs because research is organised on both an institutional and shared basis.



A central element of the Bologna process is the implementation of an accreditation system allowing courses and modules to be exchanged between different institutions by considering a course in another country as equivalent to a nationally provided course. The ECTS system, or at least a compatible system with regard to credit transfer and accumulation, is also generally implemented in the institutions following the Bologna prescriptions (100%)¹⁵³. Nevertheless, differences remain regarding the basis for accreditation used by the different institutions. Some use only the student workload estimate, some only the learning outcomes expected from the course or module, while others use both of these criteria. The Bologna process particularly encourages this latter trend and intends it to become general practice. One question was if the number of hours used for the estimation corresponded more to simple contact hours of students and teachers than actual student workload. From the replies provided by the institutions, in general, the criterion of a 20 to 40 hours estimation fits the 25-30 average usually retained in the context of the Bologna process for the student workload. The use of this criterion seems to be generally assimilated by the military institutions.

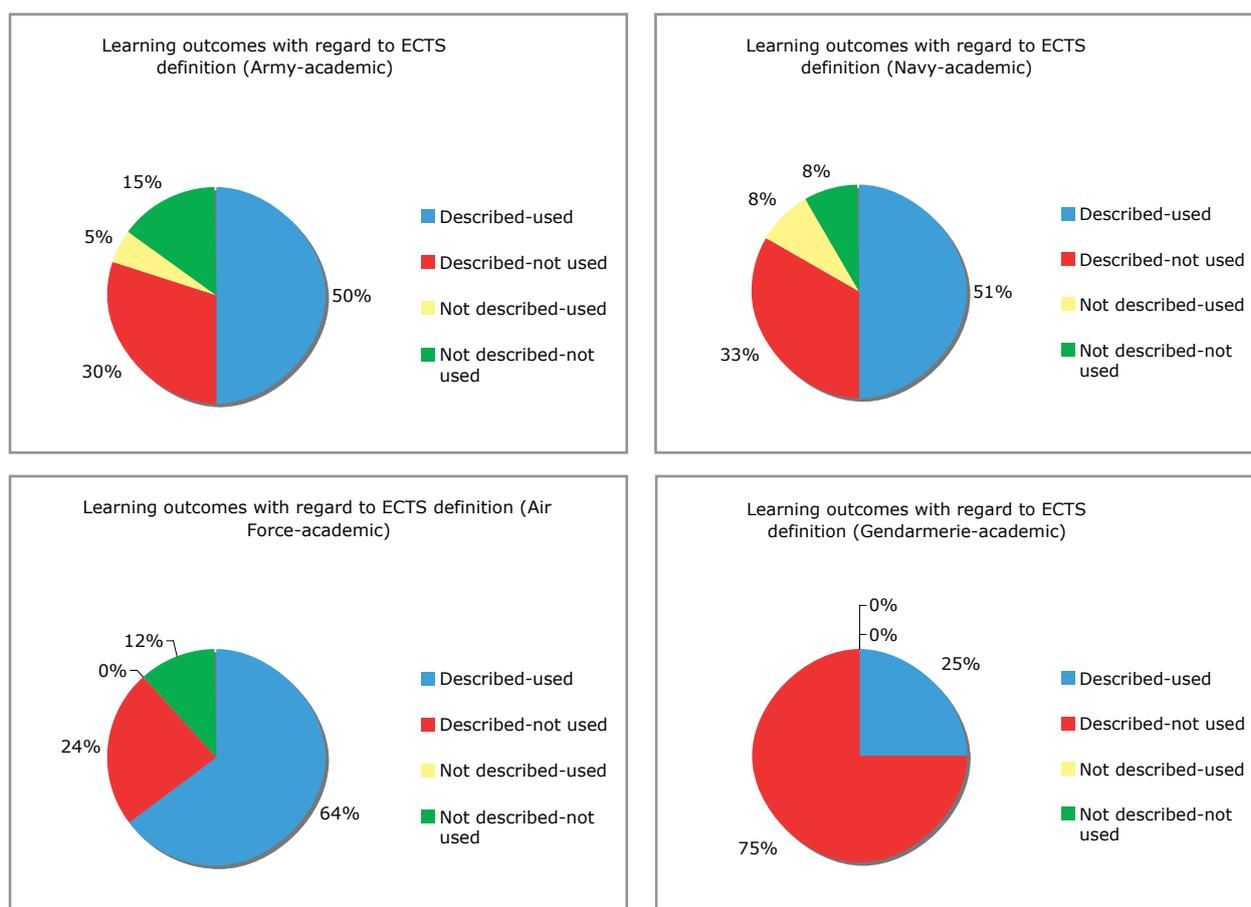
153 The Polish Air Force Academy, which has not yet implemented the Bologna process, is also using ECTS accreditation for its educational content.



The use of the workload estimate in a large majority of accreditation processes may be explained by the objectivity of this criterion¹⁵⁴. It can be expressed in figures, unlike the learning outcomes that involve a more subjective assessment of the qualifications by the institutions. However, it should be noted that some institutions do not use learning outcomes as a criterion for accreditation although they described them in the education programmes. For these institutions, full completion of the Bologna expectations is thus only a small step away. The quality assurance section of the questionnaires highlighted some diversity in the systems adopted by the educational institutions, as shown by the data. However, common trends emerge. All academic institutions have the quality of their education reviewed, both internally and externally. According to the survey, internal quality review is carried out by regular internal investigations, internal institutional structures (such as commissions – permanent or not – or educational councils), scientific research, often in accordance with ISO 9001 standards, and in most cases students are involved in the process through filling in questionnaires or participating in programme approval and review.

154 The objectivity of this criterion nevertheless depends on a unanimous definition of what is to be considered in a student's workload, notably regarding the self-studies. According to the replies provided, an ECTS workload estimation varies from 15 to 60 hours in the military education. The average is nonetheless close to the civilian higher education average of 25 to 30 hours.

On the latter point, military education, given its hierarchical social structure, has created a system of daily monitoring of cadets' opinions regarding the quality of the education. As part of the military socialisation process, senior cadets are designated to act as the link between the students and the commanding officers¹⁵⁵. Therefore, the analysis of the facts contradicts the first idea developed in the previous chapter of the quality assurance being a weakness of the military higher education.



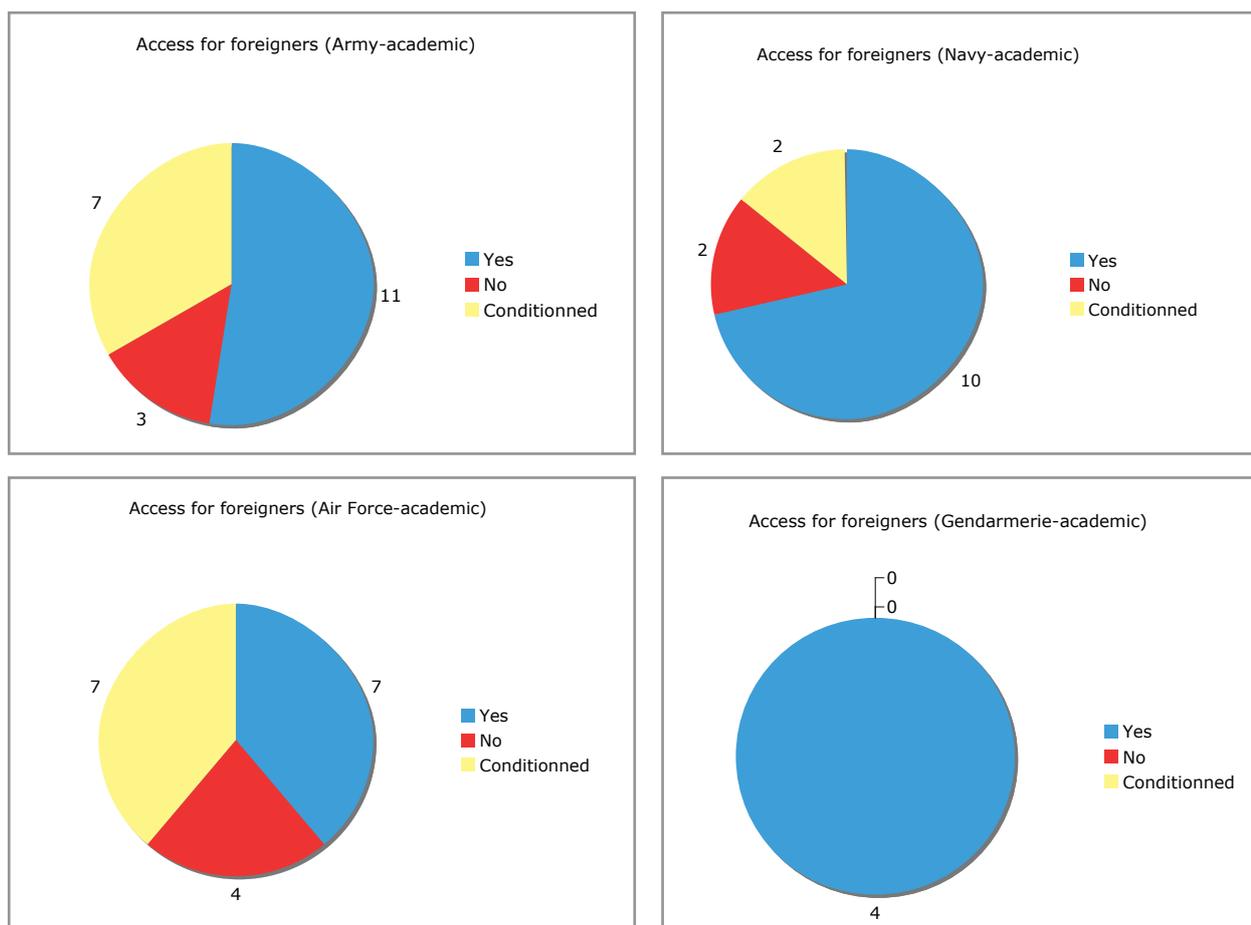
External review of the quality of education is notably carried out by the Ministry of Defence, which is the end-user of the education. As such, it might be seen as both an internal and an external reviewing process. Further review might be also conducted by agencies linked to the Ministry of Education – which are in most cases reviewed by international audits and belong to international networks¹⁵⁶ – or by international associations dealing with quality assurance in higher education, such as the European University Association, once again contradicting the idea intuitively developed in the previous chapter. This external review may sometimes involve student unions and/or international participation and these European structures act also as advisors when coming to the preparation of an external quality assurance system. They may thus be consulted also by military institutions.

155 Unlike civilian student representatives, these senior cadets fulfil a daily role, which includes responsibility for every aspect of a cadet's life, not just the academic aspect.

156 This explains why, in the database, mention of the international reviewing process was added when an institution stated its external quality assurance system is reviewed by national agencies although it was not appearing in the replies received. According to the Bologna Process Stocktaking 2009, most of the EU countries have their national quality assurance agencies internationally connected or reviewed.

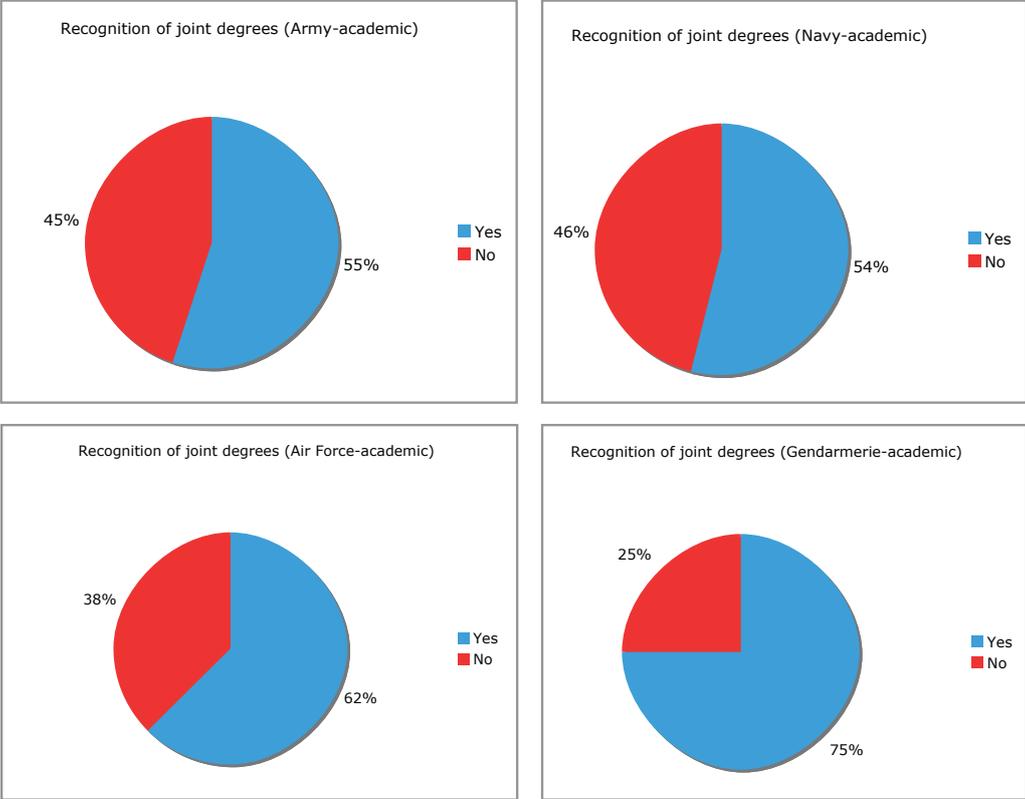
It is not a purpose of this stocktaking to review the quality assurance mechanisms set by the institutions because they fit the idea one institution has about the level of quality its education should have and about the means to engage in order to fit the standards defined in the Bologna process. Guidelines towards the realisation of the standards were also suggested by the Bologna process documentation and they can be helpful to the institutions that are currently working on the structures of their quality assurance review. Owing to the possible feeling of disconnection between military education and civilian higher education purposes, it may be suggested to organise, in the context of the Initiative a dialogue between institutions having already organised their review and those which are currently doing so. Indeed, the object of the quality assurance -i.e. the programmes, qualifications and their subsequent practical consequences on education in general – differs from one system to another, but the instruments of the review may be similar.

Another fundamental obstacle to mobility dealt with by the Bologna process is access for foreigners to the curricula, which may be different from civilian education because of the sensitive nature of security and defence education. Nevertheless, Member States' replies showed that, in general, their academic educational systems were open to foreigners, with EU nationals being first in line. This access to the whole academic curriculum¹⁵⁷, sanctioned by a degree, is often subject to requirements such as an additional diploma and/or the review of the application by a jury or by the national Ministry of Defence.



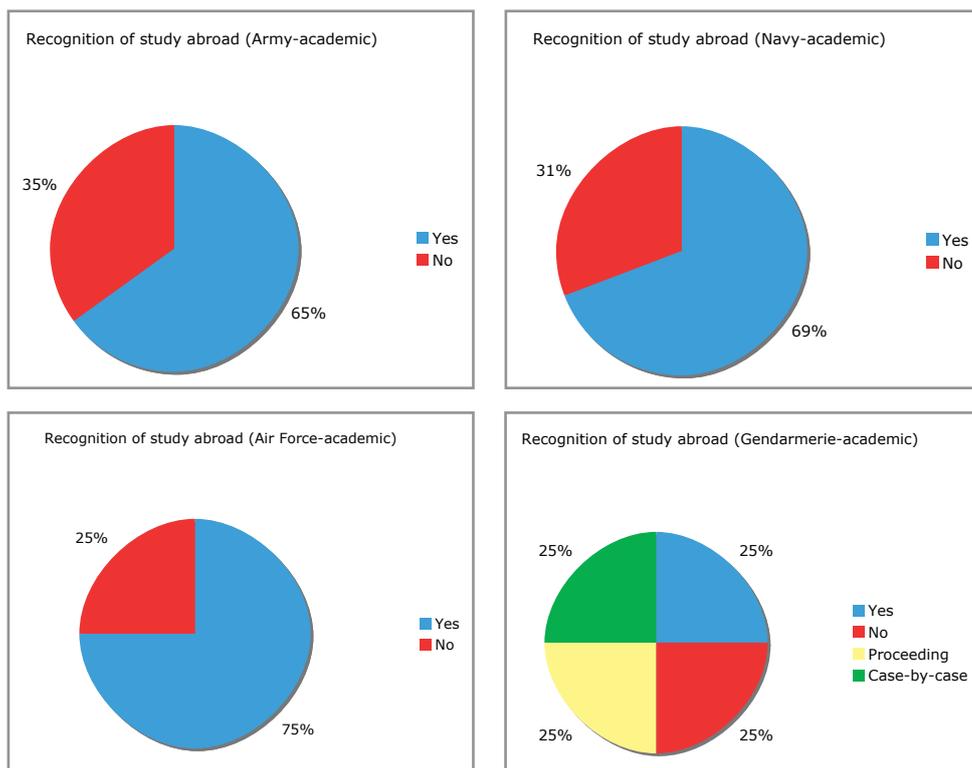
157 These are not conditions for hosting an academic student for an exchange period but for access to a curriculum. This should be also differentiated from the possibility offered by some Member States to train foreign nationals for becoming hosting country's commissioned officers. This latter possibility might be observed from the data related to the recruitment.

Mechanisms for recognition of joint degrees, i.e. educational modules proposed by at least one external institution to the cadets of a military institution as a part of their national academic training, do not seem to have been put in place yet in European military higher education. To be effective, the creation of joint degrees would need notably that mechanisms for accreditation be convened, visibility in the programmes assured and recognition in the diploma supplement granted. This might prove important for the future of academic cooperation on exchanges and sharing of knowledge, notably through the creation of joint diplomas or common modules. As such, the implementation of mechanisms for recognition of jointly prepared degrees shall become a short-term priority of the initiative for the exchange of young officers. Projects are already prepared for giving a common instruction in a European environment, like the common module on ESDP, and further possibilities are offered by the Erasmus programme in creating joint degrees¹⁵⁸. In order to concretize these efforts toward integration, coherence in the importance given to these projects needs to be organised.



As regards the recognition of study periods abroad, it should be noted that the national prescriptions do not yet allow full mobility in the sense that knowledge acquired abroad would be considered as equivalent to knowledge available at national level. This issue is linked to the outcome of the qualifications' implementation: if the content of the programmes is the basis of the exchange (considering that the national curriculum is by definition the most adapted one for the commissioning of an officer) it might restrict the recognition of foreign education and therefore the possibilities of exchanges. In facts, a majority of military institutions stated they recognise, either by principle or on a case-by-case basis, education taken abroad. Despite the limited number of negative answers, this might be a significant obstacle to the outward mobility of cadets.

158 Notably through helping to the creation of Erasmus Intensive Programmes. See: http://ec.europa.eu/education/erasmus/doc900_en.htm (30/12/2009).



Finally, when asked about the challenges they face in the Europeanisation of their higher education, the military institutions, irrespective of the branch of the armed forces concerned, ranked the priorities proposed as follows:

Table 9: Perception of the challenges linked to the Bologna process by the military institutions

Rank	Challenges faced by military higher education
1	Quality assurance, accreditation
2	National level governance, strategy and legislation for higher education
3	National qualifications framework, outcomes-based qualifications
4	Student and staff mobility (more related to students)
5	Research (including doctoral studies)
6	Funding (including better allocation of resources; management)
7	European dimension in programmes, joint degrees
8	Degree system
9	Issues at institutional level (including autonomy)
10	Recognition
11	Employability and stakeholder involvement
12	Lifelong learning
13	Widening participation

The ranking of the priorities is thus different from the first idea that was developed in the previous chapter, in which we expected the “student and staff mobility” and the “European dimension in programmes” to be on the first two ranks. However, these two and the “quality assurance”, “funding” and “research” are on the top part of the ranking although “recognition”, “degree system”, “lifelong learning” and “employability” are on the bottom one, as it was supposed. After having collected new information for building the puzzle of military higher education, complementary explanations can be proposed.

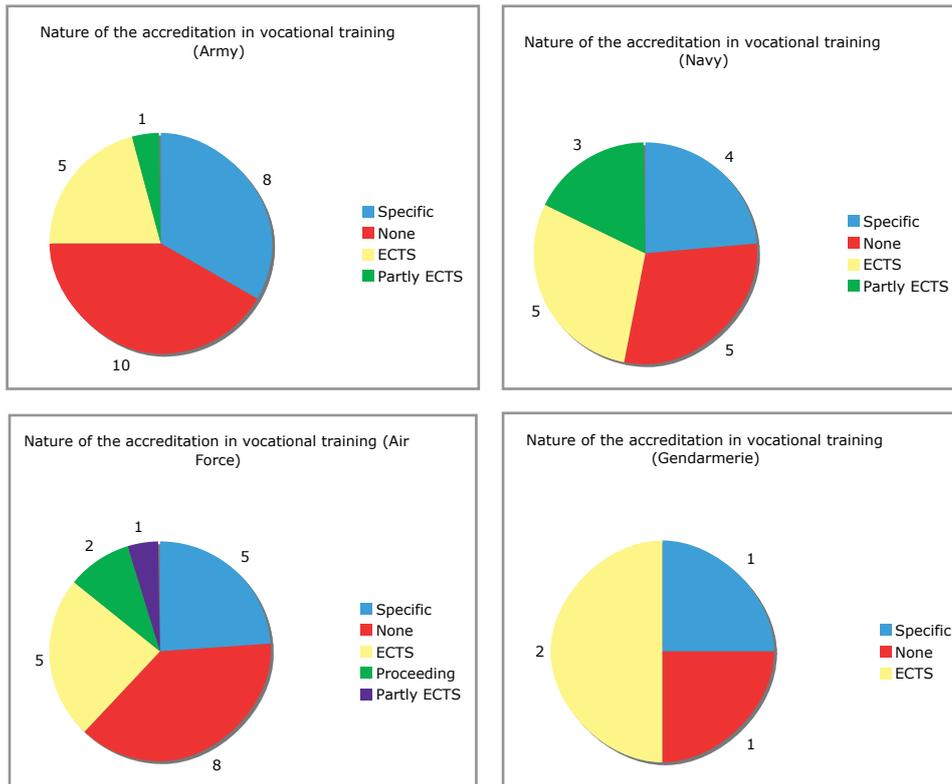
It should be remembered here that the respondents are initial training institutions and that they necessarily work closely with the Ministries of Defence, for which they have a monopoly in educating the future “employees”. Among the potential reforms needed, “widening participation” is thus, not surprisingly, considered as the least important challenge faced. While basic education institutions deal exclusively with the preparation of the future officer for his first posting, “lifelong learning” – often dealt with by other institutions during the course of the officer’s career – is not considered as a priority, either. “Employability” has a double meaning in military education. On the one hand, it concerns the ability of education to give graduates a relative assurance of a professional outcome; in this acceptance of the term, it does not apply to initial military training institutions since employability is dealt with at the stage of recruitment¹⁵⁹. On the other hand, it does concern an officer’s ability to find an equivalent position on the civilian labour market if he, or she, wants to leave the armed forces. Since this is not a concern in the context of the initiative for the exchange of young officers, it is not considered a priority, either. It is more surprising to meet the recognition (of education in general) as one of the last priorities but, again, this can be explained by the importance of the programmes with regard to military curricula and, therefore, with regard to mobility. Finally, it seems that this particular investigation emphasises the need for discussions and actions regarding quality assurance in the context of the initiative, as it was proposed earlier in this chapter.

Recognition in vocational training:

The Bologna process in the fullest sense does not relate to vocational education. Indeed, organisation in cycles, which is a fundamental issue in the process, does not apply to vocational education, which is not meant to award diplomas but to supply fully qualified cadets for further professional development. The vocational training is not organised in curricula but is most often organised in modules or considered to become modularised. We should then refer rather to “recognition” of the vocational aspects of the basic officers’ training. However, issues dealt with in the Bologna process may arise in vocational education and may help this specific aspect of training to develop interfaces with other European systems.

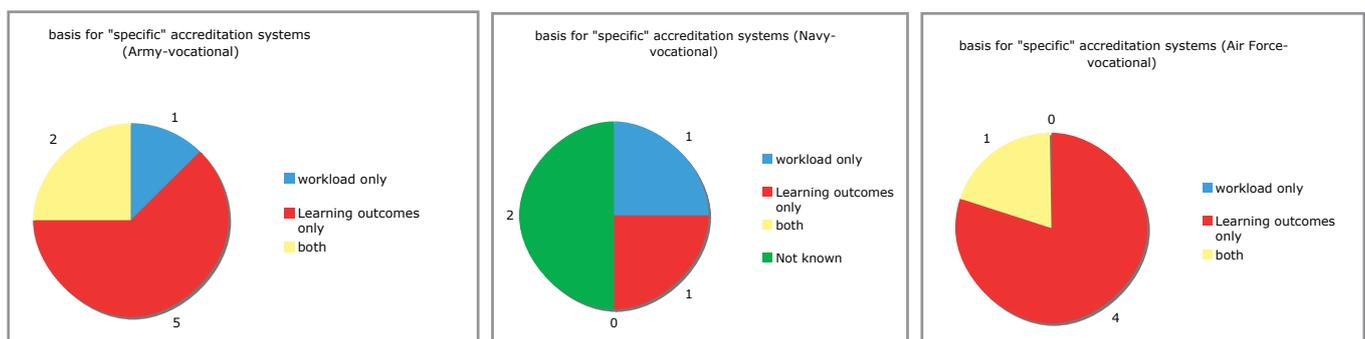
There is evidence that vocational education, at this stage of the stocktaking process, could use ECTS accreditation. Nevertheless, in general, other systems of accreditation are used nationally or the courses are not given accreditation because of their pragmatic nature.

159 Institutions grant access to their courses according to the personnel needs of their Ministries of Defence.



It should be noted that partial ECTS accreditation is often given to modules which are of a fairly academic nature but which are nevertheless included in vocational education.

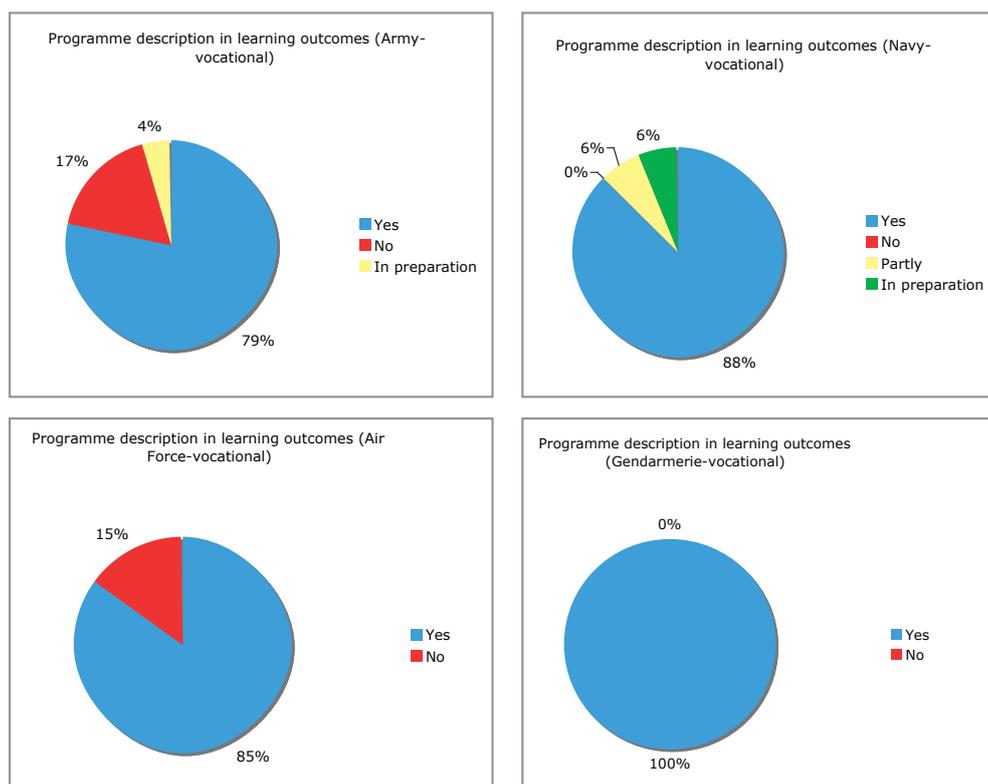
The specific systems for the accreditation of vocational courses nevertheless show that the move from internally developed accreditation to the ECTS would require some adaptation. Workload remains, once again, the most important criterion. However, in this aspect of the military education, workload and contact hours between cadets and instructors cannot be differentiated since there is usually no other load than the participation to the training. In cases where leadership training is considered to be vocational, leadership becomes a natural characteristic of the young officer. Behaving as he, or she, was trained is not a quantitative workload.



As in the case of academic education, the survey showed that a majority of vocational training institutions did actually describe the learning outcomes to be attained through the curriculum. This means that the use of ECTS accreditation would be conceivable for more educational systems than those who answered so. When asked about the possibility to implement ECTS also in the vocational training if not already done, institutions' opinions were diverging:

- In Army education: 5 systems would be in favour, 8 against;
- In Navy education: 2 systems would be in favour, 5 against;
- In Air Force education: 3 systems would be in favour, 5 against.

Two thirds of the expressing institutions would be against this solution a priori, most certainly because it would require a complete change in the accreditation of their programmes. Besides, three institutions said they would be willing to consider adopting the ECVET accreditation¹⁶⁰ or an accreditation system specifically designed for military vocational training. Accreditation remains thus one of the main issues to be addressed in the Initiative, as it was emphasized in the funding political Declaration, because this lack brings a correlative difficulty in the recognition of the training taken abroad and, thus, the enhancement of exchanges. In the context of the Initiative, then, needs remain to communicate on the importance and eventually convince the institutions to address the question of the vocational accreditation. What might be proposed from the observations made above and the obstacles raised is to create a military vocational accreditation system that would allow full recognition of the training abroad and attenuate the concerns related to calendars fitness. This specific accreditation shall be also, as a requirement, compatible with ECTS as to allow conversion for systems having already set an ECTS accreditation for their vocational training.

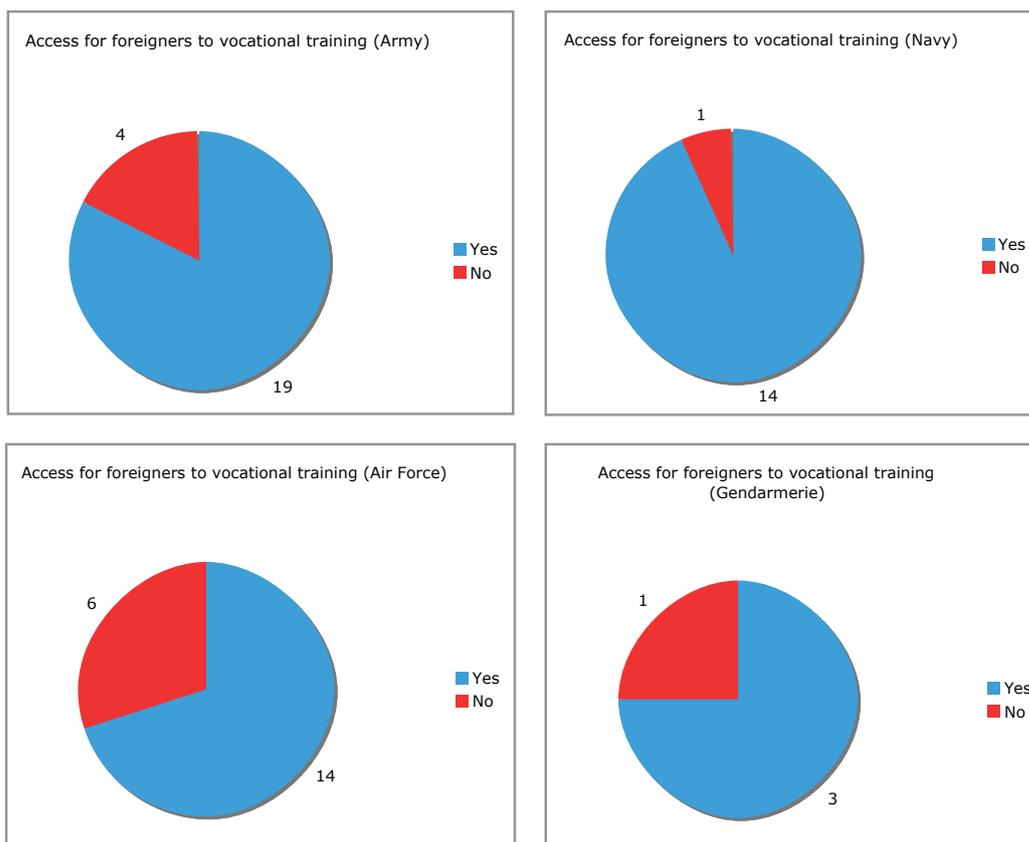


Quality assurance systems in military vocational education are close to those experienced by academic institutions, contrary to what was foreseen in the previous chapter, except as regards research and the involvement of international civilian associations. This may be explained by the fact that many of the answering institutions provide both academic and vocational courses. In their case, the quality assurance system encompasses both dimensions. Navy officers' educational institutions mentioned that they are following

160 ECVET accreditation, gives access to the Leonardo Da Vinci European exchange programme. Since 2007, the Erasmus programme encompassed also the exchanges in the field of vocational training for students of the higher education ("student placements").

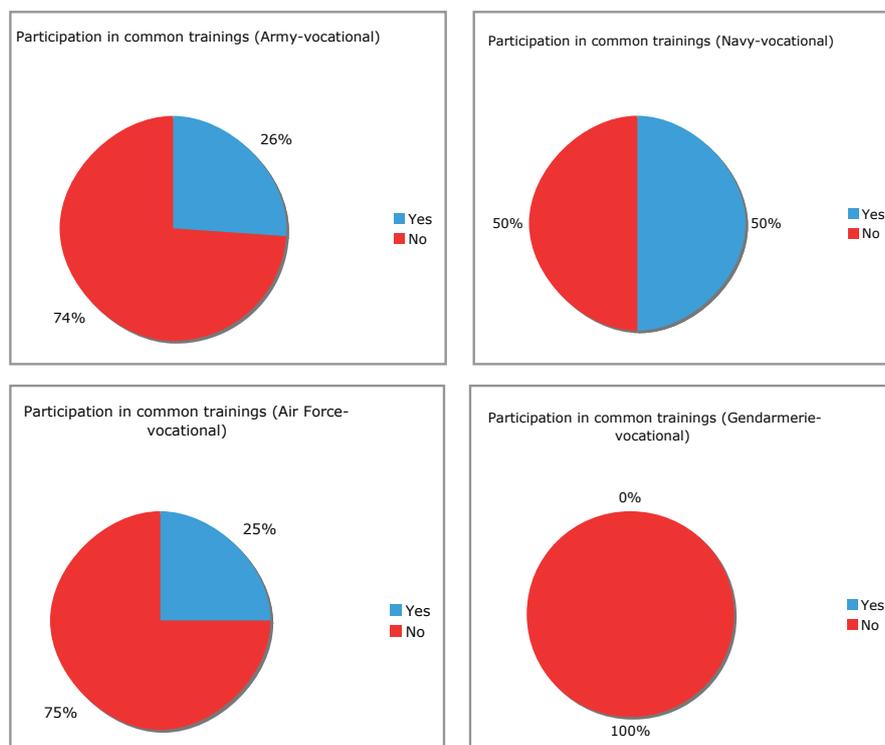
guidelines and requirements set by the International Maritime Organisation (STCW 95), even if they did not present that as a formal quality guarantee. In the same way, vocational Air Force institutions may be placed under their national aviation authorities and have to respect minimum standards set by the IATA and ICAO. The general picture, then, is that all vocational institutions stated that they are subject to quality assurance systems. In parallel with the quality assurance of the academic education, it may be proposed to organise the dialogue between institutions having already organised their review and institutions currently doing so. It would be even more necessary than for academic education because it is dealt here with the exclusive specificity of the military education, for which the guidelines defined in the context of the Bologna process might be sometimes inadequate because of the technical and sensible aspects of the training.

Access for foreigners to the national vocational education systems is generally guaranteed in the Member States replying, although less so for Air Force and Army training than for Navy training, probably because of equipment and procedures. However, the restrictions remain limited. This might certainly be, on the one hand, the result of the standardisation processes, notably taking place in a NATO context, and of the growth of a mutual trust in sharing know-hows. On the other hand, national “specialties” become arguments for the attractiveness and visibility of a Member State’s military know-how. Mutual arrangements according to the respective weaknesses and strengths in the provision of vocational training allow rationalising the capacities. Eventually, the question of the specialisation of the training resources might be asked.



Joint degrees are not relevant to vocational education since no diplomas are awarded. However, the prospect of common training courses does exist. It shall be differentiated from the access for foreigners, seen above, for which individuals or groups benefit from a national training: the common training benefits to the military educational systems. Therefore, recognition is a central element. The results of the stocktaking, at this stage, confirm that educational institutions have very limited experience of this aspect of cooperation. The Navy is more proactive in this field with the organisation of training cruises and the opportunity for

institutions to invite their counterparts to take part¹⁶¹. The vocational training in general, however, requires a coherency and an esprit de corps, which are the constituting element of a military socialisation, i.e. the necessary search for the perfect social interaction between individuals forming the body of the armed forces¹⁶². Creating the necessary conditions for this socialisation might be more difficult considering the needs raised by a common training, for example a common language for instruction. This particular issue will be dealt with later in this chapter but it may be linked with the small amount of common trainings met in the replies from the institutions.



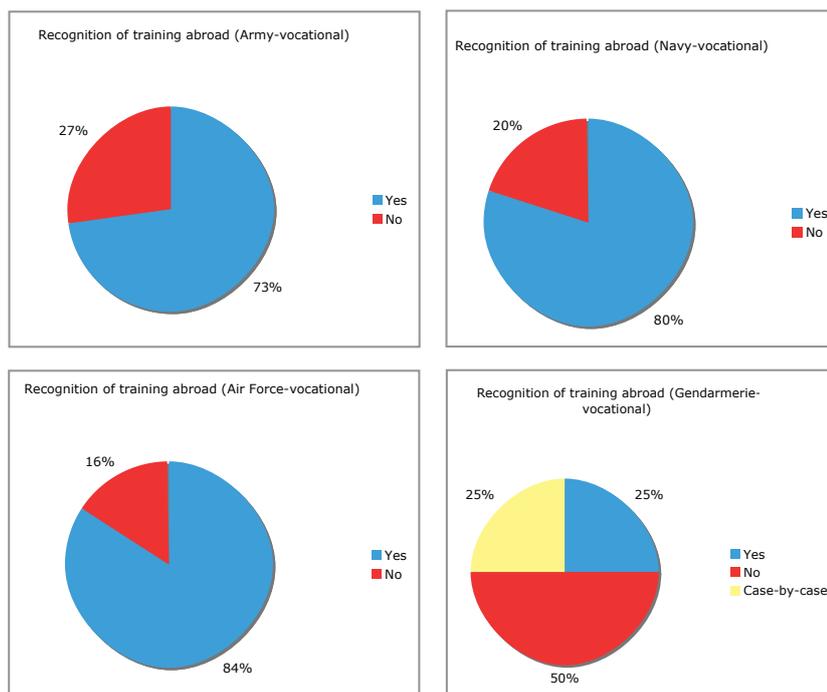
Finally, the main requirement for implementing exchanges between institutions, i.e. the recognition of periods of training abroad, seems to be globally met in European military vocational education. Restrictions remain, however, and may be explained by the fact that programmes are compulsory and are considered to be necessary at national level, but also by the lack of a common ground for the accreditation of this specific part of the military education.-

Sub-conclusion:

European basic military education clearly shows considerable efficiency in implementing the Bologna process action lines, especially since they are sometimes not taken into account by the process itself. Implementation has generally been completed, or is expected to be complete in the case of some educational systems, and the main actions, such as organisation of study cycles or implementation of the ECTS accreditation system, are already assimilated. Military higher education undoubtedly demonstrates pro-activity in integrating the

161 A few Member States studied in the past the possibility of setting a European military school fleet for the training of the Navy officers (Chapter One). Declaration of the Franco-German Security and Defence Council, 12 October 2006.

162 The military socialisation aims to achieve a necessary paradox between two fundamental objectives of a military education: training a future leader (notably through the acquisition of behavioural skills) and leaving aside the individual for the benefit of the body.



European Higher Education Area and its will to educate the officers not only as elite battlefield soldiers but also as intellectual elites. In the vocational part of military education, stocktaking shows that implementation of the ECTS -or at least an accreditation system - is possible and desirable. Recognition of training courses taken abroad, which is a central issue for the future of exchanges, is well on the way to becoming general practice and, here too, the common implementation of a culture based on qualifications and not only on programmes is the key to eliminating the remaining obstacles.

Exchanges in military higher education

The data concerning exchanges of students and staff for academic and vocational training courses taking place during the academic year 2008-2009 will be put on the forthcoming database. Where available, the topics of the exchanges mentioned by the sending institutions will also be given. If they are often related to scientific projects or researches for study thesis in academic education, no clear tendency can be observed in vocational training, due to the fact that the nature of the exercises differ between the branches.

The data do not take into account the possible short-term exchanges that may be taking place either in academic or vocational education, related to courtesy visits, short events or competitions, as they were already mentioned in the first stocktaking. However, it shall be emphasised that this form of exchange is widespread and is undoubtedly a source for social interaction between the young officers and a possibility for improving the visibility of the institutions concerned. For this second and detailed stocktaking, the intention is to highlight the exchanges that involve knowledge or know-how. This may be effective only if there is a continued learning period or if the stated objective is a proper improvement of qualifications.

On the basis of the 2008-2009 picture, it seems that around 2,2%¹⁶³ of the military students are exchanged within the EU¹⁶⁴ per year in their academic education. In comparison, the Erasmus programme covers only

163 Estimation made on the basis of the numbers provided by 19 Member States educating the military students of the Army, Navy and Air Force of 22 Member States. 2 Member States did not provide the total numbers of their students.

164 Exchanges with EU third-countries and civilian institutions are not taken into account in these numbers.

0,8% of the civilian students in higher education per year. Military education is thus very pro-active in the academic field, but the necessities of the officer's profession justify that the greater number of students should have the opportunity to experience mobility. Due to the fact that the questionnaires were not investigating the numbers of students of the respective armed forces' branches in the several joint institutions, it was not possible to assess the respective proportions of exchanged students. However, it must be observed that the proportion of students' mobility in academic education increase up to 4,4% if the exchanges with EU third-countries' institutions and civilian institutions are taken into account in the calculation.

In the same year 2008-2009, only 1,4% of the cadets were exchanged in the field of vocational training within the EU, which demonstrates that vocational mobility is, as supposed, more difficult to realise than academic mobility. If enlarged to the exchanges with EU third countries, the proportions attain 1,5% for the three branches indistinctively, which suggests that the level of confidence among the EU Member States is not at stake. It may rather be supposed that the diversities in the military equipments play a role in the important difference observed between academic and vocational aspects.

Regarding the geography of the European cadets' exchanges, it is interesting to note that the overall EU mobility, in both academic and vocational areas¹⁶⁵, concerns only 3,6% of the trainees while this proportion attains 5,9%, almost doubled, if the exchanges with civilian or EU third countries institutions are included. Even within the EU, as it was already observed in the first stocktaking, the logic of the exchange is rather a neighbouring one. It is not exclusive but it is an observable tendency which suggests, although the feeling is reinforced by the importance of the international and civilian mobility proportions, that the EU military higher education is not yet perceived as an area of complete mutual trust, as looked forward by the Initiative. Concerning academic education at the European level, the following average durations of student academic exchanges¹⁶⁶ were found:

- 7 weeks in Army education;
- 16 weeks in Navy education;
- 13 weeks in Air Force education;

This time, it shall be noticed that the exchanges of civilian students, within the Erasmus programme, are more important in their duration (28 weeks) than the military exchanges¹⁶⁷. The longest exchanges of militaries in the academic field are mainly for thesis purposes. Usually, the vocational exchanges extend on a very brief period, like a week, excepted -in some cases- for longer Navy exchanges and cruises.

Besides, it shall be noted that military institutes, like their civilian counterparts, exchange also teachers and instructors for more extended periods (even for several years) than for cadets¹⁶⁸.

Nevertheless, these data do not take account of "full curriculum" exchanges. Some Member States decided to send their Army or Navy¹⁶⁹ students to another Member State for the whole of their basic education,

165 Supposing, however, that a student is not exchanged twice for two different objects.

166 The European Union average is calculated on the basis of the national average duration, not the number of exchanges declared by the institutions.

167 For statistics on the Erasmus programme, see: http://ec.europa.eu/education/erasmus/doc920_en.htm (30/12/2009).

168 It is thus an other important indicator of the mutual trust between the military institutes, keeping in mind however that it gives a droit de regard over the teachings to the hosting institution, like a kind of safeguard of this mutual trust. Exchanging an instructor instead of a group of students, nevertheless, is undoubtedly motivated in a first place by rationality in the meaning that it allows cost-savings.

169 No such kind of exchange was reported by the Air Force educational institutions.

academic and vocational. These exchanges are to be carefully considered because of the highest level of trust they suggest: the national armed forces, in this particular case, commission an officer who has never followed the “classical” curriculum and who is used to other working techniques and environments. The examples met are summarised in the following table, but Member States which have no national educational facility and non-European exchanges are not included.

Armed force branch	Sending Member State	Hosting Member State	Average number of students per year
Army	BG, RO, SK, LV, FR, DE	GR, CZ, FR, DE	15
Navy	EE, BG, DE, FR, PL	FI, GR, DE, FR, LV	6

With regard to the exchange strategies developed by the educational systems, leaving aside the particular situations in Cyprus, Luxembourg, and Malta where all the cadets experience cultural exchanges, two institutions mentioned the fact that all their students have to go abroad at least once in the course of their curricula. In the French Army and Austrian Army systems, almost 100% of the cadets take part in exchanges during the course of their basic education thanks to especially dedicated outward mobility windows. In the first stocktaking report, the investigations made a particular focus on the identified EU exchange partners at the level of the Member States. This second stocktaking was aimed at reflecting the specificities developed by the institutions themselves. They developed their own policies, like in the example of the French Army mobility semester, and became progressively more autonomous actors of the European Higher Education Area. Because they would not reflect this trend, the data on the partners identified at the level of the different Member States would therefore not be helpful for establishing this specific picture of the European military higher education.

The answers by the Member States and some complementary investigation provide data on the participation of basic educational institutions in *fora*. These *fora*, organised in branches of the armed forces, are of primary importance because they have been in existence for so long and because they provide students with their first experiences of exchange¹⁷⁰. They allow institutions sharing the same identity and priorities and similar objectives to meet and discuss appropriate options for improving their education in a spirit of integration. The exchange of young officers is meant to provide them with the conditions and instruments allowing them to take their own projects forward. In this regard, three major *fora* should be considered as suitable examples as they are highly representative of the general picture of contemporary military education. The following table is intended to show the participation of Member States¹⁷¹ from which questionnaires were received (“+” symbol = information based on complementary investigation; “*” symbol = no specific reply received from the participating institution). Where educational institutions could be identified, a large majority – and all the Army institutions - are taking part in their respective *fora*. It shall be noticed that some Member States have arrangements in force with EU third-countries for the training of Navy or Air Force officers, which forces to relativise the smaller percentages observed for these branches: the educational systems exist but they are somehow “empty” for a representation at the *fora*. The *fora* are thus representative of the European picture of educational systems and may even be considered as almost exhaustive in terms of the range of institutions identified. Besides, there were other *fora* mentioned by the institutions, relating to specific specialties or engineering, for example. This chapter will not highlight them particularly, even though they will also benefit from the actions undertaken through the present initiative.

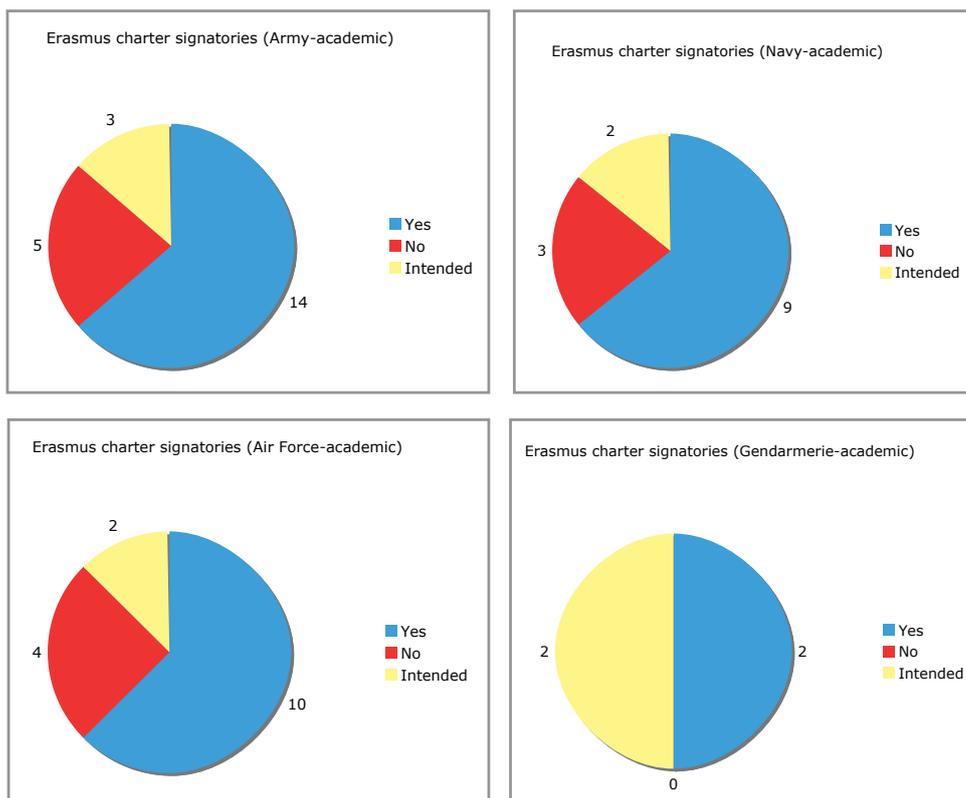
170 Notably in the context of sporting competitions, cultural tours and courtesy visits. These forms of exchanges have not been included in this study because of their short duration. Their symbolic importance is nevertheless significant.

171 The data take the educational systems into account even if no institution could be identified but do not take into account Member States in which this specific branch of the armed forces does not exist.

Table 10: Participation of the military institutions of the stocktaking to the components' fora

	European educational systems' representations in the fora		
	European Military Academies Commandants Seminar EMACS (Army)	Conference of Superintendents (Navy)	EUropean Air Force Academies EUAFA (Air Force)
AT	X		
BE	X	X	X
BG	X	X	
CZ	X		X
DE	+	+	+
DK	+	+	+
EE	X		
ES	X	X	X
FI	X	X	X
FR	X	X	X
GR	X	X	X
HU	X		
IE	+	+	+
IT	X	X	X
LT	X		
LV	X		
NL	X	X	X
PL	X	X	X
PT	X	X	X
RO	X	X	
SE	X	X	*
SI	X		
SK	X		
UK	X	X	X
Int.	None	3	3
% EU military institutes representation	100 %	67 %	59 %

Finally, the signing of an Erasmus charter by the European military education institutions seems to become general practice and an assurance of quality of the education according to some replies provided. As it was observed in the first stocktaking, there was a remarkable growth of the signing since 2005, which is still going on while some institutions stated they started the process towards signature after the Initiative was launched by the political Declaration. Nevertheless, none of the exchanges taking place between military institutions were described as being Erasmus exchanges¹⁷². Nor did any of the vocational education institutions state, at this stage of the process, that they had exchanged cadets on the basis of such agreements. The Erasmus instrument might have been used, however for exchanges of students and teachers between military and civilian institutions.



Regarding the policies for the improvement of outward mobility in the military institutions, a majority of replies state that efforts are now taken in order to organise and concretize the steps made with the signing of Erasmus charters notably in discussing bilaterally with their counterparts the respective opportunities for mobility. Some of them clearly stated their expectations related to the outcomes of the Initiative, which they see as a cornerstone of the development of their exchange strategies. Furthermore, the institutions demonstrated they are aware of the necessities to act internally and/or at their national level, in the first place, in order to create the suitable condition – Bologna acquis but also language training - for this enhancement. The work is thus starting on these points and the database of the Initiative might prove most helpful in order to build comprehension and dialogue in these efforts.

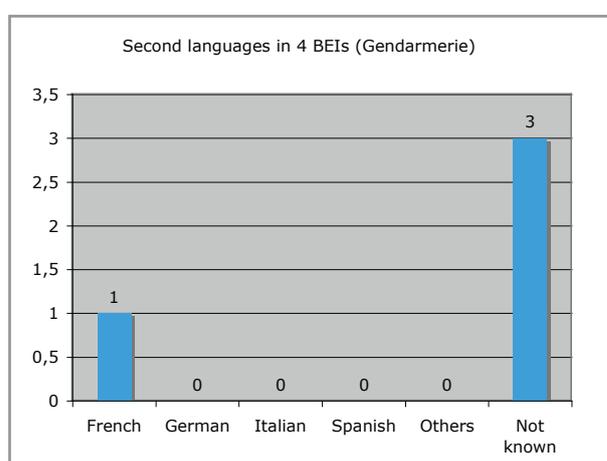
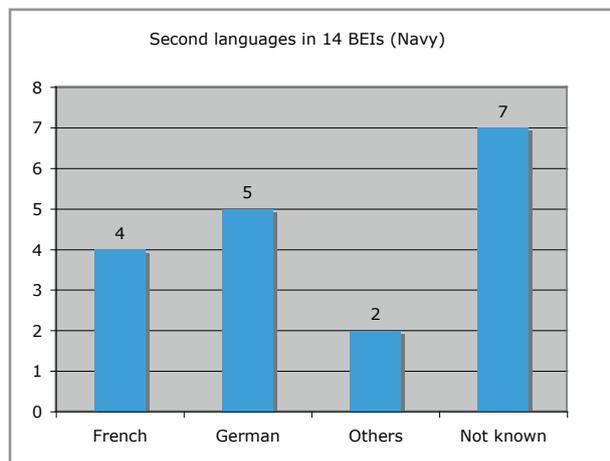
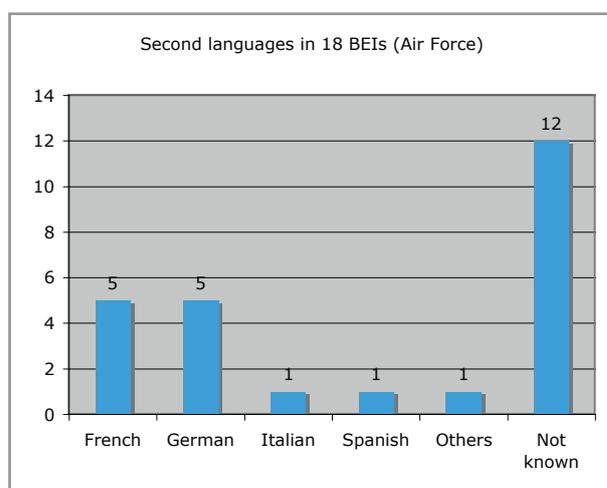
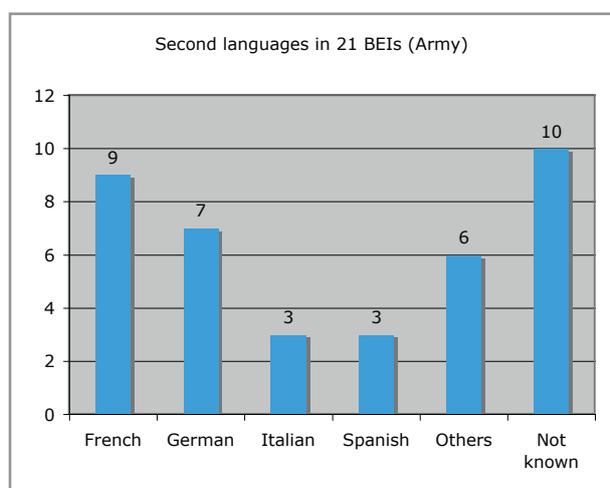
Finally, almost unanimously, the military institutions taking parts to this investigation shared the fact that they already have financial mechanisms in place which may be used for the mobility of their students, notably.

172 Slovakia provided an addendum to its reply stating that its Armed Forces Academy will exchange students with the National Defence University of Czech Republic using the Erasmus programme, starting from the first semester of the academic year 2009-2010. The Czech institution was granted loans in the framework of the Communities' programme to this end.

As the financial question remains, naturally a sensible one when dealing with the objective of increasing outward mobility and the creation of joint degrees, it shall be suggested that the possibilities offered by the participation to the Erasmus programme, as the legitimate actors of the European Higher Education Area they became, be the object of further explorations.

Sub-conclusion:

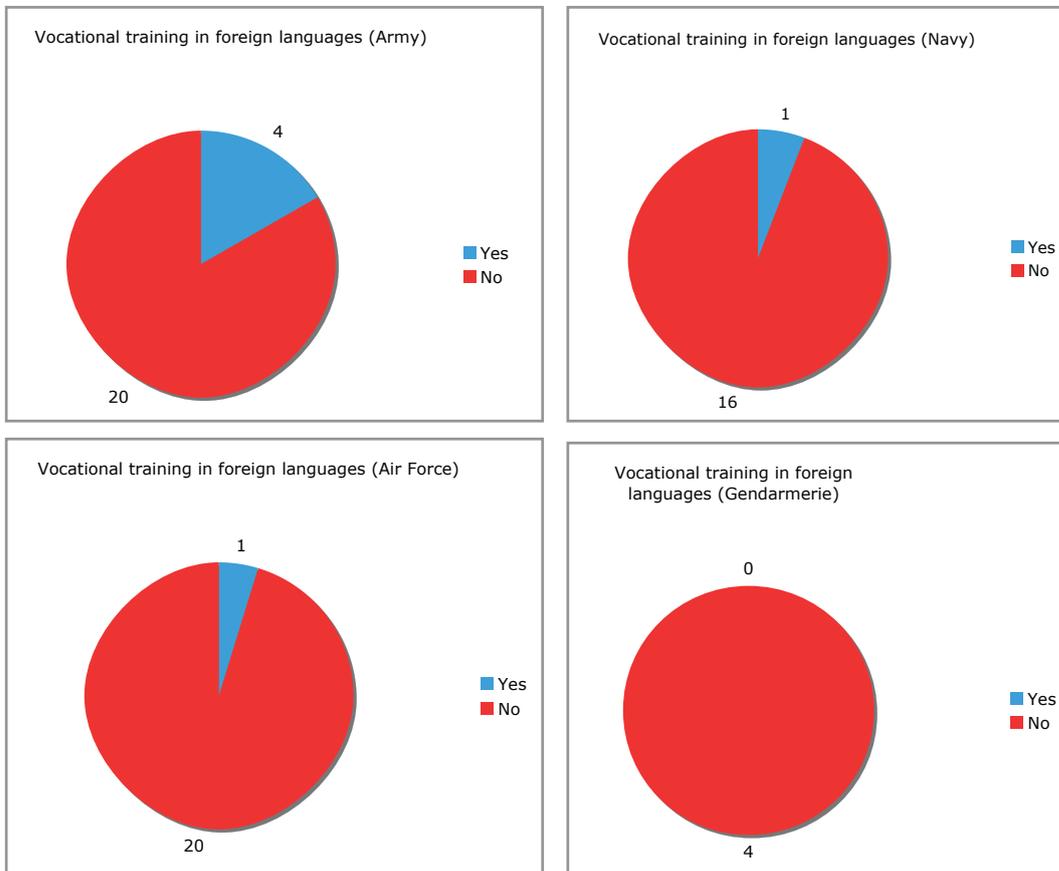
The military higher education institutions are well equipped to enhance exchanges. A large majority of them have regular discussions with their counterparts within long-established fora of similar institutions and have, more recently, signed Erasmus charters giving them access to the European exchange programme. Some Member States, in order to avoid issues of time organisation, have also developed real confidence-based connections by exchanging cadets for the whole duration of their curricula. The means and communication needed exist and have proved that they can be used for exchange projects of varying size and content.



Language education

There are two aspects to language education in academic training. One is the teaching of foreign languages. The other is teaching “through” foreign languages, i.e. using foreign languages as the teaching medium. At this stage of the stocktaking process, it should be noted that the first aspect is approached differently depending on the system considered. Some link ECTS to such teaching while others organise courses alongside the regular curriculum. What is observable is that in the programmes defined by the institutions, and contrary to a majority of civilian higher education systems, at least one foreign language regular course is to be chosen compulsorily by the cadets. This fact highlights again the openness to the international realities, which

shall be a feature of the European military officer, and the readiness of the cadets in mobility enhancement. English remains the main first foreign language taught, but in a majority of basic education institutions other languages are offered. On the basis of the answers received from the institutions (although a high proportion put “not known”), French and German are at the top of the list of second languages offered.



Education “through” foreign languages remains a very limited option and is not easy to present in graph form. Use of a foreign language as the medium of education is subject to resource considerations, and the opportunity to host a foreign lecturer may be the only reason why English, in particular, may be used as the teaching medium. It should be noted that most of these specific courses are given in Air Force and Navy curricula, no doubt because of the needs of the different branches and their long tradition of using the English language. The list of courses run in English by the academic institutions will be available on the database. Then, as a first conclusion, it shall be suggested to the institutions to continue developing their offers or converting them to English language as they started to do so. This would take time in the measure that it is a process requiring not only a “pedagogical” will but also, and above all, the needed pre-existing capacities in terms of adapted teaching personnel.

In vocational training, the choice of English as a medium of education is even more limited than in academic training. Member States’ answers are summarised in the following graphs.

This limitation¹⁷³ may certainly be explained by the requirement of the military socialisation, which can presumably only be conceived by the military institutions as taking place in the national language(s). Some

173 It shall be noted that an important amount of the professional training in Navy and Air Force branches is normally conducted in English owing to the requirements of the profession, e.g. air control. However, this fact does not appear in these data, perhaps because it is part of the normal procedures in the training.

Member States, however, declared that they intend to develop foreign languages as the medium of vocational training in the next few years. This would undoubtedly ease the access for foreigners, the creation of common training modules, and correlatively improve the visibility of the proposing institutions in the European area.

In the immediate term, communication related to such issue and the necessities for the responsible institutions to envisage such transformations could be enhanced and organised in the context of the Initiative in order to explore the ways for vocational training to increase its accessibility.

The education through foreign languages that is proposed by the military institutions, either academic or vocational, shall legitimately and particularly be emphasized in the possible catalogues of education that would be issued.

Sub-conclusion:

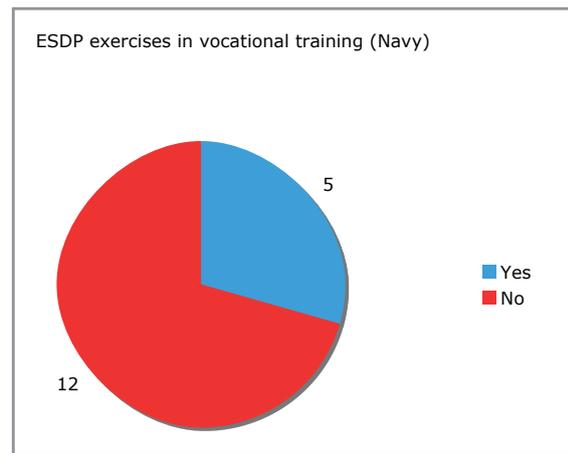
The culture of foreign languages in military education is shown to be even more significant than in some civilian higher education institutions. Very often, a young officer is required to have two foreign languages, thus confirming how proactive the institutions are in their preparation for European realities. These institutions are increasingly beginning to train future officers to use foreign languages “in the field”, or are considering doing so. Languages are thus as an important challenge to mobility enhancement and dealing with this issue will necessarily go through a slow process, but the institutions already proved, as a first step, they are aware of the important role of languages in creating the best conditions for the mobility of people and knowledge.

European Security and Defence Policy education

From the replies provided by the Member States, it seems that European Security and Defence Policy is seen as a topic to be developed in academic education. Almost all institutions offer courses. In some cases, entire curricula are proposed relating to international and European security, but courses offered to students following other curricula are more difficult to show in the data. It is also clear from the replies that there are few courses dealing specifically with ESDP. Most seem to include parts of international security topics alongside ESDP. Moreover, even if it was not the object of a particular investigation through the questionnaires, some programmes also include teachings related to the construction and functioning of the European Union. Such courses are also important for the learning of the values which compose the European project.

Teaching ESDP is not only important because it is the central objective of this initiative but also because it fulfils a double mission. On the one hand, it is a scientific issue that requires a study by the future actors of this policy. On the other hand, it contributes to the construction of the leadership of the future military elites, giving them the keys to understand the needs and functioning of the European military actions, and more generally of the international operations, and training them to behave according to shared values. Therefore, projects consisting in transmitting these knowledge and values in an environment easing the social interaction, such as the module on the ESDP, are to be considered as adequate solutions with regard to the fulfilment of this double objective and it shall already be envisaged to promote its regular organisation in order to answer this need and give the chance to the greater number of cadets of being trained to the modernisation of the security and defence concepts.

ESDP-related exercises - i.e. exercises conducted in a European configuration and possible trainings to ESDP missions - in vocational training are also embedded in international security subjects, but are gradually emerging as shown in the following figures:



In parallel with the projects of academic modules, the question may be asked whether the double hat of the ESDP – as a practical science and a contribution to leadership - might be also best approached through the organisation of common trainings. Cadets would thus be offered the possibility to experience close-to-reality conditions of the European missions.

Sub-conclusion:

The data gathered from the replies to the questionnaires do not allow concluding on the importance of the ESDP education in the European cadets curricula. Its embodiment in international security apprenticeship generally observed, in both academic and vocational aspects, might be either a negative or a positive signal. Either it might be assimilated only as a tool in the international security toolbox, or it is considered as being an omnipresent reality. The Initiative and its subsequent effort to highlight the European coherence vis-à-vis the international insecurity will undoubtedly help the cadets in learning the importance of their role in a growingly integrated Europe.

Conclusions

As the lines of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) become clearer with the practices undertaken through the Bologna process, military higher education and its institutions are demonstrating their proactive approach to the objective of removing obstacles to movement of knowledge and actors. Bologna process action lines are generally well assimilated and military institutions are continuing to promote openness to international realities by giving their students the tools to understand these trends and interact with their future collaborators in the maintaining of European security.

However, qualifications must be the *raison d'être* of the exchange rather than the exact content of the programme itself and must be seen not only as a goal but also as a means for providing education: description of the programmes, ECTS definition, quality assurance, etc. The whole issue of recognition of what a counterpart can provide for an individual curriculum revolves around the qualifications.

European military education demonstrates that its specificities and the traditions of the various branches of the armed forces can be preserved even when they take part in the development of the EHEA. A European culture of security and defence will necessarily be based upon general confidence in each other's educational practices. The data collected from the questionnaire replies confirm that this is indeed a shared expectation. The Initiative for the exchange of young officers, inspired by Erasmus, should now address these issues in providing the means of communication or favouring the creation of supportive instruments for the improvement of the exchanges of knowledge, skills and competences. Nevertheless, the confidence can only be reached if a common understanding of what military education is and shall be, a common identity, are shared in a first place.

War-integrated learning: common identity of European military higher education

Having looked at the remaining elements that differentiate the European military education systems nowadays, this chapter will focus on what they share. In order to do so, it is not sufficient to review a checklist, as was done in the precedent chapters; rather, the analysis must shift from bare facts to theoretical constructions. In order to dive deep into the specific nature of military education we shall try in what follows to present, explain and deconstruct visions that may be applied to this particular island of higher education, keeping in mind the principal question of the existence of a European identity in the training of the military elites. Eventually, we will propose a new classification based on the most important criteria that characterise a military education system.

To do so, we must look at the fundamental principle that drives the European military: work-integrated learning. This principle is not only necessary but also universal in the education of the future military elites (1). However, on the basis of the data collected for the stocktaking investigations, it appears that national approaches to organising work apprenticeships diverge widely and shape the identities of the education systems (2).

Mixing art and science: European principle of military education

Prepare for armed conflicts

The purpose of military higher education is undoubtedly to prepare future officers for war. “War” should be understood as “crisis” rather than the action of war, since nowadays the use of armed forces is no longer limited to the classical interpretations of defence, i.e. participation in fighting against an identifiable enemy. Security, which also includes prevention of conflicts, is no longer limited to defence, and defence instruments are increasingly called on to take part in security management. The Petersberg missions¹⁷⁴, which still define the use of the armed forces in the ESDP context, illustrate this integration of the “security” and “defence” concepts. Missions, at least in the European context, are defined by objectives more than by an increasingly untenable notion of “enemy”. The ratification of the Lisbon Treaty, introducing notions such as “collective defence” and “solidarity”, confirms this trend.

The development of the security concept also implied the emergence of new actors and resources. The armed forces, in the European Security and Defence Policy, and more broadly in the modern context of other-than-war (OTW) operations, must internalise civilian approaches and participate with civilians in reconstructing and upholding peace and the rule of law. The importance of the role played by non-governmental organisations (NGOs) in the context of these missions has increased exponentially. Regarding training, this challenge has been met by greater efforts in the teaching of common action mechanisms: the creation of the European Security and Defence College in 2005, the organisation of combined field simulations and exercises (notably with lawyers), etc. The social interactions of military officers have obviously evolved over recent decades. Today the classical image of the military officer as merely the leader of conflict resolution on the field needs revising.

174 The missions defined by the Petersberg Declaration adopted at the Ministerial Council of the Western European Union (WEU) in June 1992 and integrated into the Treaty on European Union in its Article 17 are: humanitarian and rescue tasks; peace-keeping tasks; and tasks of combat forces in crisis management, including peacemaking.

This change in the identity of the military officer has been conceptualised by John P. Lovell ¹⁷⁵ even before the end of the Cold War and the emergence of the “new” missions, and, in relation to the education of military officers, by professors Harry Kirkels, Wim Klinkert and René Moelker¹⁷⁶. In their study, they made a distinction between different traditions of the integration of academic teaching into military officers’ basic curricula. Two models – already used previously for describing the role of officers with regard to the history of the missions¹⁷⁷ - were emphasised, which analysed the nature of the officer and his role in peace construction: the “Sparta” model and the “Athens” model.

The former outlines the need for a military officer to be first of all a soldier, with regard to his behaviour on the field of operations. The latter favours the vision of the military officer as being part of an intellectual elite, capable of dealing with the complexity of the social, economical and political aspects of his or her mission. The values attached to this distinction may be summarised as shown in the following table.

Table 11: Values attached to the Sparta/Athens distinction

“Spartan” values	“Athenian” values
Personal austerity and glory	Learning and high culture
Discipline and self-sacrifice	Creative and critical thinking
Science and technology	Philosophy and history
Patriotism and honour	Cross-cultural sympathies
Personal heroism	Politically post-heroic

Source: Peter Foot (2006)

Applying it to basic military higher education, professors Kirkels, Klinkert and Moelker were then calling for a more academic orientation in the curricula delivered by military institutions. They relied on five contextual arguments:

- Focusing education on combat training remains necessary but is no longer sufficient;
- An education system essentially focused on the teaching of human values and practical knowledge, as in classical academies, might attract a public not suited to the new missions. Furthermore, it might not be adapted to the political demands emerging in the European context;
- The competency profile of an officer should correspond more to professional capacities than to practical knowledge;

175 John P. Lovell, *Neither Athens nor Sparta? The American Service Academies in Transition*, (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1979).

176 Harry Kirkels, Wim Klinkert, René Moelker (eds.), *Officer Education: The road to Athens!*, (NL Arms, Netherlands Annual Review of Military studies, 2003).

177 Peter Foot, “Military Education and the Transformation of Canadian Armed Forces”, *Canadian Military Journal*, Spring 2006, p.15.

- A growing integration between civilian national higher education and the military education system is more appropriate for flexibility of missions, and also allows budgetary consistency;
- Military education should follow university standards and, in order to provide an appropriate study environment, it should be provided in civilian universities.

Nowadays, it seems obvious that most of the European armed forces are inspired and influenced by the values defended by the Athenian model in the conduct of their missions. The distinction suggests that, in the context of military education, there should be a shift in importance from the art of war, i.e. how to make war, to the science of war, i.e. how to think about war.

However, it is equally true that the modern military officer also has to remain an elite soldier and that centuries of military traditions cannot be swept away in a decade. The sacrifice asked of combat soldiers, despite the fact that “no-death” objectives are now promoted by our modern societies, remains not only a possibility but also a cornerstone of overall military cohesion. The brain does not replace the sword but supplements it. There cannot conceivably be any strict correspondence between the reality of the armed forces and the Athenian model.

Furthermore, the two models are not intended, in our sense, to prove such a correspondence. They are based on values and objectives to aim at, i.e. the final result of education, and not on the tools for achieving them. This means that the distinction is too broad to characterise the education process alone, because it must normally take into account the armed forces themselves, their rules of engagement, and even the definition of their missions. Furthermore, in order to characterise a national system in terms of the Sparta-Athens distinction, one must also look at the content of the training, which means the programme. To do so would require setting criteria linked to the pedagogical approach used by an education system. Finally, the distinction itself does not allow moderation, in the sense that no system can be characterised as “purely” Athenian or Spartan and that the criteria proposed for the distinction are more subjective, being linked to values, than descriptive, as would be needed if they are to be applied to the level of basic training.

This does not mean, however, that the distinction cannot be transferred to military higher education, as was done by Kirkels, Klinkert and Moelker. Such education is presumed, by its nature, as much to be a reflection of the realities of the field of work as to have an influence on the perceptions and behaviour of the professional in the field. Education is thus a conceptual cornerstone of the values and action of a military system. It is supposed that the values carried by the Athenian model can best be attained through an academic education, but this is not the only way. Practical training can, depending on how it is conducted, reinforce the acquisition of these values. The objective of the three authors was to publicise the need for a transformation of the education systems in Europe in order to attain the Athenian ideal, because it is easier to act on education than on the reality of work. Since 2003, the systems have been reformed, notably through the implementation of the Bologna process, and are now generally in line with civilian higher education.

Furthermore, the education of European military officers, as presented in the foregoing chapters, has been increasingly “academicised”. Indeed, the academic part of training in the curricula of young officers is now considerable. Even in systems in which military institutions are responsible only for military training, the phenomenon of delegation, authorising civilian institutions to carry out academic training, contradicts an initial idea one might traditionally have, of a lack of intellectual education in officers’ training. As a consequence, it may be said today that the Athenian objective, very much marked by the necessity to train the future military elites intellectually, serves as a common ideal for European military education systems and helps us understand the latest developments in this field.

Work and vocation: the shape of military education

Whatever the importance of “academicisation” in current trends in military higher education, it must not be forgotten that its ultimate objective is twofold. On the one hand it aims at training intellectual elites in charge of the management of security issues. On the other hand it must also train future officers to be elite soldiers for their countries. As a matter of fact, then, military education has a dual nature, as may also be the case for some areas of civilian education, such as the medical or technical domains. This is made particularly clear by the calendars provided by the institutions in the stocktaking, through the description of vocational training alongside the academic one: the educational path of young European officers is work-integrated.

In the context of education, “work” is only a partial implementation of the overall objective of being prepared for war as described above. Through their curricula, the young officers must be made ready to assume the positions they will be given once posted for the first time.

Working in national armed forces does not only imply being on the battlefield in the context of combat missions. It is also, and maybe more — depending on the individual career of each officer — about carrying on the work of the different branches, e.g. administration, logistics, research and development and teaching or instructing. All these activities undoubtedly contribute to the overall preparedness of national armed forces for war. The training processes linked to these activities are not necessarily different from the learning processes offered in civilian higher education: training administrators, engineers, teachers and instructors¹⁷⁸. “Work”, as it is to be understood here, does not include this dimension, insofar as it is not a defining element of the military specificity of the education. In order to define “work” more positively, it is what makes the job of a military officer so specific, i.e. preparedness for war (once again, in its broad sense). It is what links the activities of an officer to the vocation of a military leader. The training for this work is thus the vocational training as presented in the stocktaking investigations.

The term “vocational” reflects the particularity of the work and the cohesion that is required of the armed forces: being a military officer is not a “job” but a “vocation”, because it has implications for the everyday life of soldiers and it may require the ultimate sacrifice from them. Sociologists such as Alex Alber¹⁷⁹ have stressed this specificity by investigating cadets’ interests in choosing to join the armed forces. What motivates cadets, first of all, is the operational aspect of the military identity and accordingly practical rather than academic training.

In the vocational part of the training of a future officer, as seen above, knowledge, skills and competences¹⁸⁰ within the meaning of the European Qualifications Framework can be defined and must be provided. It encompasses basic military training and professional training, which are respectively the introduction of a cadet to military life and missions and the preparation for the career he/she has chosen. The application phase, when a future officer is trained for his or her branch, must also be considered a major part of professional training, in this vocational training. Physical training should also be included in this description, because it is a unanimously shared vision that a military leader has, as far as possible, a “sound mind in a sound body”. However, in the calendars set for the stocktaking, it is difficult to make this specificity apparent because of the constant and regular activity expected of a cadet; it is an aspect of his/her everyday life, rather than

178 It must be said that the training of teachers and instructors is also a personal process, notwithstanding the qualifications provided by education. The awarding of responsibilities for training other human resources also depends on the skills and abilities an individual demonstrates in his daily work.

179 Alex Alber, “*La formation initiale des officiers: Une comparaison européenne*”, op. cit.

180 It may be suggested that, in this specific area, skills and competences are particularly fostered insofar as training is more focused on practical qualifications, even if knowledge remains a starting point.

a particular event in the course of the training. Furthermore, it should be mentioned here that, in some European Member States, leadership training, i.e. training in the behaviour required of an officer as a leader, e.g. at platoon level, is considered part of vocational training, while it is considered academic by other Member States. This point will be developed later in this chapter. Finally, some education systems propose periods of practice, or traineeship, for their cadets; as they may also involve the application of qualifications that are not purely military, they should be characterised as work training only on a case-by-case basis.

In European education systems, military institutions have various ways of providing work-like (or “war-like”) situations to young officers. It may also happen, in a Member State that still has conscription, that future officers experience their basic military training outside the educational sphere. However, in this case, it may be recognised as a work-like situation only if the conscript chooses a military career afterwards. In some countries, also, military institutions from time to time organise battle simulations in the form of short military camps in the course of the curriculum. Most often, however, there are periods specifically dedicated to work training in regiments or on board ships, depending on the specialisation of the young officer. Due to the reorganisation of calendars through the implementation of the Bologna Process and the semester model, these training activities often take place during the summer, between academic years, but sometimes also during specific semesters in the curriculum. It appears from the calendars (reproduced in annex) that these particular training activities may be organised either by the institution responsible for the whole of the education process or by other institutions. Since all military institutions are under the authority of national Defence Ministries, the presence of multiple institutions in the military education picture does not threaten the coherence of the education given. It is even reinforced in the case where the application schools or regiments also contribute to training during the curriculum, and not only at the end of it, before the very first posting, because it is appropriate to create continuity in the individual learning paths and it allows cadets to meet in a purely “professional” way.

Military education is also distinguished by its work-integrated approach from its civilian counterpart, through a particular continued experience of work. The apprenticeship is not in fact limited to work-like situations. The cadets experience military life through a continuous discipline and learning of military values throughout their curriculum, which sustains and supports their work training. Their military socialisation, in the Member States where there is no strict and organic separation between vocational and academic training¹⁸¹, is not limited to practical periods because, as *esprit de corps* will be essential to the fulfilment of their missions, it needs to be instilled as early as possible in the education process.

Rationalisation of military education and the objective of interoperability

It appears from the stocktaking processed in the context of the Initiative that this work-integrated approach to education is also to be found in the organisation of the military institutions. There are today 11 Member States that have chosen to combine the education of two or more armed forces branches in joint institutions. More may do so in the future. This could be motivated by rationalisation, in having a single training centre, or more pragmatically by cost savings, but the undoubted result is that it emphasises the growing need for interoperability between national armed forces. “Interoperability”, in its traditional meaning, is the ability of different components of national armed forces to work together with a common objective. It seems obvious that this definition of a goal is still accurate and considered desirable, due to the complexity of the missions and operations that European armed forces, in particular, are involved in. Joint education, in

181 This statement must be qualified. In Germany, for example, the separation between vocational and academic aspects is institutional. However, the learning of cadets within the two universities of the Bundeswehr does not impede the continuation of military socialisation and the assimilation of the principle of military officers being “citizens in arms” (*innere Führung*), which today tends to be a common objective of the European armed forces in general.

this regard, is the first link in the chain of interoperability of the armed forces of the future. Apart from branch-related training, the military socialisation of the cadets and respect for common traditions, rules and values are elements that will implant coherence and cohesion between the different components. On the other hand, separate education of the different branches cannot be considered as counterproductive. It enables cadets potentially to develop their own awareness as belonging to their branch, their sector, an identity with its own long-developed cohesion and myths.

A second meaning of the term “interoperability”, on a multinational level, seems to be used in the context¹⁸² of the Initiative for the exchange of young officers, in the military education. It appears, indeed, from the different official declarations made about the Initiative that it will “contribute” or “strengthen” the interoperability of the armed forces in the European context. In this meaning, interoperability is not only the ability of the different components to work together, but also the ability of the national armed forces taken as a whole to work together.

At the multinational level, the North-Atlantic Alliance defines the interoperability as “*The ability to operate in synergy in the execution of assigned tasks*”¹⁸³. However, this definition encompasses two concepts that shall be differentiated. The first one is the technical interoperability, or “standardization”, which means that the Alliance is looking forward to bring national procedures or equipments in order to ease the daily running of operations, for example. The second concept is the military interoperability, which is “*the ability of systems, units or forces to provide services to and accept services from other systems, units or forces and to use the services so exchanged to enable them to operate effectively together*”¹⁸⁴. Thus understood, the ability of, for example, the national navies to create common working mechanisms would be a first realisation of the interoperability challenge. However, it is difficult to assess that technical interoperability, or “standardization”, is the means for achieving military interoperability. Indeed, the word “standardization”, itself, has many levels: compatibility, interoperability, interchangeability and commonality. It can thus be asked whether standardization is the means or the goal of interoperability.

If a parallel was to be made with the Initiative, it could be said that measures such as identifying mobility windows would be on the “compatibility” level, measures regarding the accreditation on the “interoperability” (narrow meaning) level and measures on the qualifications on the “interchangeability” one. In no case, however, the Initiative intends to force “commonality”¹⁸⁵. It proposes it on a voluntary basis notably through the creation of common modules.

Therefore, what is most important is not the word itself but the spirit behind the term. Being interoperable, for the young officers, would rather be about being able to work together - starting with an ESDP environment - in any kind of context, i.e. to work in different configurations of languages, nationalities, cultures, values, etc. It would mean that the young officers would be prepared to suspend their belonging to a group - be it sector, branch or country - for a group that would be broader than nationality, language, culture, etc. That is the objective of the mission given to the institutions willing to participate in the Initiative, to be achieved through both the teaching they provide and the socialisation they stimulate. They will prepare their cadets to face these possible configurations of their working environments and to be flexible enough to act efficiently

182 See, for illustrative examples: Council conclusions on the ESDP – Council General Affairs and External Relations (Annex II, Political Declaration), Brussels 10-11 November 2008; Summary of remarks of Javier Solana (SG/HR) at the informal meeting of Defence Ministers, Prague 13 March 2009 ; European Initiative for the Exchange of Young Officers – SG/HR report on the state of affairs, Brussels 14 May 2009.

183 NATO Standardization Agency, Allied Administrative Publications AAP-6, 2009.

184 Idem

185 NATO Logistics Handbook, October 1997, Chapter 17.

and coherently and to fulfil their roles. In this regard, both the academic and the vocational components of officers' education also have a equal role to play. The academic learning process provides the theoretical instruments for understanding a given environment, for example in teaching the functioning of the European actors and missions, and the vocational learning provides the skills and competences required to enhance practical flexibility. Thus, with regard to new multinational interpretations of the interoperability objective, work-integrated learning in military education is a key principle for the preparedness of the European armed forces for modern warfare.

A theory of socialisation in the work environment

Giuseppe Caforio, in his 2000 study *"The European Officer: A Comparative View on Selection and Education"*¹⁸⁶, outlined two models of organisation of the vocational/academic duality in higher-education military institutions: the divergent and the convergent model. Caforio thereby wanted to observe whether the socialisation of the cadets in an institution being studied followed the civilian university model that we know in most European countries - i.e. convergent with the civilian system - or not - i.e. divergent from the civilian system. Six criteria were adopted and explained for investigating the socialisation process within the institution:

- Selection procedure: the author opposes the tradition of psychophysical examinations in military systems to the systems of testing and interviews before and during the educational process in civilian higher education;
- Teaching staff: mostly officers in military academies, and mostly civilians in university-like institutions;
- Proportions of academic and military training in the curriculum;
- Chronological organisation of these two aspects of education: vocational training is separated from intellectual education (taking place before or after), or reduced to a minimum, in university-like institutions;
- Civilian value of the diploma; and
- Type of socialisation favoured within the institution: depending on whether the cadets are socialised in "closed circuits" ("total institutions") or are mixed with other (civilian) students.

A classification on a scale was then established, from divergent to convergent institutions, and military institutions taking part in this study were ranked according to these criteria.

However, this distinction showed its limits in the observation of the educational models followed by EU Member States. Officers' education is in fact in most cases operated by a number of institutions. Some are responsible for military and leadership training while others train the cadets in the academic-relevant aspects of their function. In the German model, for example, the two aspects are assigned to different institutions, and analysis of the education policy in the universities of the Bundeswehr alone (convergence model according to Dr Caforio) somehow obscures the fact that the training of an officer should be looked at as a whole. On the other hand, studies¹⁸⁷ have shown that the British system of recruitment, as it constituted the first criterion used by Giuseppe Caforio, favours candidates with a fairly strong academic background obtained in civilian higher education. This implicit delegation of responsibility for academic training is therefore a circumstance of the officers' education which makes the British system a much more "convergent" one in spirit than previously suggested. As Giuseppe Caforio himself takes into account, in the fourth criterion,

186 Giuseppe Caforio (eds.), *The European officer: A Comparative View on Selection and Education*, European Research Group on Military and Society, Edizioni ETS 2000.

187 See Chapter Three.

the fact that these two types of training can be conducted separately, we may conclude that his objective was limited to the study of the socialisation process within one institution at a time, while our objective is the analysis of the whole education system, and the principle we started from is that military education must also provide training for the “vocation” of being an officer. For example, recruitment, which is used by Caforio as a criterion, is carried out not by and for a single institution alone, but for the whole education system a recruit will have to go through. The science of war is undoubtedly to be promoted in military education, as suggested by the interpretation of the Sparta-Athens classification, but the art of war will necessarily continue to be seen as desirable. The convergent/divergent distinction is, therefore, not the best-adapted instrument for studying the work-integrated approach of military education, unless of course the basic education is the responsibility of one institution alone.

Nevertheless, as the Athens-Sparta distinction was interpreted by professors Klinkert, Kirkels and Moelker, the expectation concealed behind the convergence/divergence distinction also relates to an academicisation of the military education. In this sense, convergence might be interpreted as a way to design and create a suitable environment to stimulate thinking.

For all these authors presented, the modernisation of officers’ training involves an alignment with civilian higher education, both in form and in content. The common European dynamics of higher education validates these authors’ clear expectations of academic training becoming closer to the civilian higher education system. Most EU Member States have indeed implemented the Bologna process, chronologically later than Dr Caforio’s study, in their basic officers’ education systems, and the ambitions of the present initiative take the same direction as its civilian counterparts.

A merging principle: interpretations of the data collected

In an effort to explain what military officers’ education is, as it is viewed in this chapter, it seems essential to investigate how the duality vocational/academic impacts on the organisation of curricula: is vocational training more important in weight than academic training? Is it the other way round? Finally, we will consider whether one or the other possibility is to be favoured.

National searches for balance between vocational training and academic education

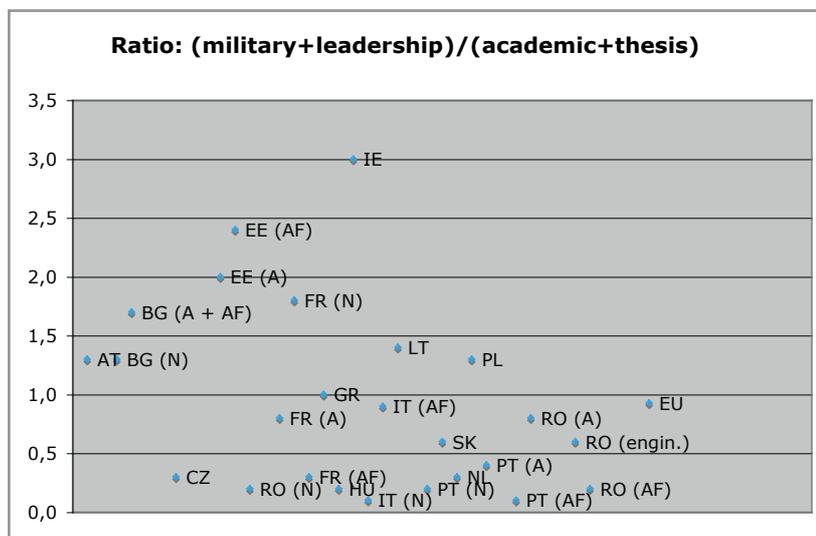
As Giuseppe Caforio’s distinction does not make possible a clear analysis of the importance of work in the learning process of a future officer, we shall seek to identify new methods. As it seems the simplest way, and as it was also used by Caforio as his third criterion, we could consider looking at the proportion of work to academic learning in the whole basic educational process a cadet is supposed to go through. Methodologically, however, this poses problems when dealing with the specificities of military education.

When talking about “importance” or “proportions”, the attempt to analyse scientifically the different military systems has to resort to mathematical grounds and convert observations to numbers, which may sometimes be difficult. First of all, the source of the numbers must be reliable. Consequently, for this particular part of the study, the source used will, as far as possible, consist of information provided by the military institutions themselves at the time of the first stocktaking. Despite the fact that the answers to the first and the second questionnaires were separated by six months, it may legitimately be supposed that this does not have a major impact on the balance of work and academic learning within the spectrum of education. This balance is a key aspect of the training and it is unlikely to have been fundamentally challenged by a strong consensus within such a short period of time.

Equally important is the question of the facts that will be the basis of the mathematical calculation. Within the first stocktaking, some Member States replied to the question that was asked on this topic by giving time

estimates, some others in ECTS if the two parts of the training are accredited, for example. Even in giving estimates of time, methodological obstacles appeared as to the unit used: some Member States used the hour, others the month or the academic year. Regarding estimates in ECTS, it must be said that, according to the criteria set by the Bologna process, they should also reflect the time devoted to a learning process. However, it may be on a different basis depending on the training activity observed. As stated in the previous chapter, the student's workload is conceptually limited to contact hours between the instructor and the learner when dealing with vocational training. It is therefore not possible to restrict the ECTS estimations provided by a Member State only to criteria based on number of hours. Thus, for the present attempted analysis based on data obtained with the stocktaking investigations, there is no common ground for an effective comparison.

The aim is to provide a comparison of the balances between the importance of vocational training and the importance of academic education. What matters here is thus the *rappor de force* between these two aspects, as perceived by their providers. In this regard, there is no objection to the use of mathematical ratios. The advantage of the ratio's abstractness is that it is not compulsory to have the same criteria with similar mathematical values. What is needed is only a common method applied to the data. Therefore, as they all reflect the "importance" of the two kinds of training in the education as a whole, both ECTS and time estimates can be used as mathematical basis¹⁸⁸. However, where the replies provided for the first stocktaking used both time and ECTS criteria for the different dimensions of the education, the estimates cannot be used, because they are incompatible. The following ratios for 25 military education systems¹⁸⁹ (A=Army, N=Navy, AF=Air Force) of 15 Member States thus illustrate the balances found in dividing education between vocational and academic training.



These ratios are intended to illustrate the weight of military and leadership training, as components of vocational training, in the broad picture of the basic education of future officers. A score higher than 1 means that these two components are more important than the academic training and (if applicable) thesis. The thesis, even if its end use is military use, is a scientific product using scientific resources, and so must be considered part of the academic education. According to these data, for example, in the Irish education systems vocational training is three times more important than academic education. It could be asked

188 When an institution or a Member State provided estimates based on both months and years, the data were brought to the smallest denominator with help of the calendars provided for the second stocktaking.

189 For three Member States (Greece, Ireland, Poland), the data provided by the Ministries of Defence do not differentiate between the different branches.

whether this means that such systems are actually open doors to further academicisation at advanced levels of an officer's educational path, once in the career.

On the other hand, the systems with a score lower than 1 (15 of the 25 systems examined) attach more importance to the academic than to the vocational. The average ratio of the European Union obtained from this limited number of usable data¹⁹⁰ amounts to 0,9. This means that, in the EU overall, as much importance is given to the vocational as to the academic training, which suggests that military learning is not merely work-integrated, but work and education are fully fused. However, in some cases (4 or 5 systems at the most), this balance is not found at the national level, and the extremes, in one or the other direction, constitute the majority. In this regard, it is also interesting to note that there are no clear tendencies within particular branches of the armed forces: none of them is more unbalanced than the others in the EU picture. The EU data is thus to be taken only as an average.

Furthermore, the numbers used to calculate the ratios are only estimates. As such, they do not claim to reflect the balances precisely, only general tendencies subject to correction by additional facts.

In the first place, the phenomenon of delegation was not taken into account. For the Member States where the whole education is provided by military institutions, to take into account the possibilities that, as may often be the case, a student has a prior education obtained in civilian universities would make the estimation too difficult and would not add anything to this analysis. For example, for the French education systems, the fact that prior education in preparatory classes or civilian institutions was not taken into account, makes it necessary to reconsider the ratios. They must thus be brought closer to the "zero" level because the academic proportion is higher than it might at first seem¹⁹¹, i.e. from the role of the military institutions alone.

In the second place, it must be noted that the application level, i.e. the military specialisation before the first posting that exists in many education systems, is not included in the estimation either. Depending on whether it is included in the basic education or not – a question to which we would tend to answer positively - the ratios could increase in mathematical value. In the same way, data linked to the completion of a conscripted service prior to military education were not taken into account because not accredited or difficult to estimate. For the Member States concerned, the ratios should also be conceptually increased to take this into account.

Finally, it must be said that the estimate is, in the first place, given by the responding Member States. Thus, they were also responsible for the definition of what was to be considered in the four areas. There may therefore be divergences regarding the scope of the ratios. For example, in the Austrian education system, "training on the job", which is a period when cadets are sent to regiments abroad and given military duties, is included in academic education. The debate also extends more generally to the case of leadership training.

Leadership training: the heart of the specificity of military education

Leadership training aims at giving the cadet the keys to becoming a military leader in all aspects of his/her work as an officer, e.g. acting as a leader in coaching subordinates, or noting changes in his/her environment and

190 It has to be said that no data could possibly be obtained from, for example, the Member States having no national educational structures.

191 Methodologically, it would have been difficult to do this in the context of the estimates, because the amount of time or ECTS differs depending on the educational path: 2 years for preparatory classes, 3 for civilian bachelors. Also, in the first questionnaires, the French replies contained estimates in hours.

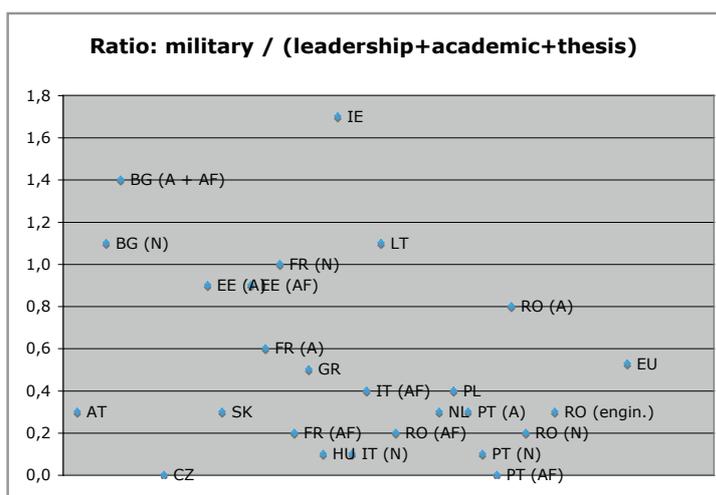
reporting on them¹⁹². Leadership is thus not only connected to behaviour, but also to ethics, and its end use is undoubtedly the work of the officer. Leadership training in Europe reflects these multiple facets, and the way it is conducted varies according to the national visions.

Leadership training can be conceived as academic in nature. In this case, the approaches can be very diverse. Leadership may be approached through related courses, as in the Belgian education system, where “Citizenship”, “Ethics”, “History of war” and “International humanitarian law” courses are possible elements of the enhancement of leadership capacities for students. It may also be the object of an entire curriculum, as in Finland and Hungary¹⁹³. In Austria, the curriculum itself is called “Military Leadership”, and there is no other curriculum. This particular case suggests that leadership training is more than just a scientific topic but the *raison d’être* of military education.

It may also be conceived as a crossover discipline and be found in both vocational and academic dimensions. For example, in the education of the Greek Army, “Leadership” courses are found in both programmes. In Hungary, the academic programme in leadership (with courses such as “Psychology”, “Pedagogy”, “Law of Armed Conflicts”, “Leadership theory” and “Ethics”) is supplemented by vocational training described as stressing the corresponding skills.

Finally, leadership training can be considered as a purely vocational discipline, as is the vision of the Italian or Czech education systems, for example. In this latter system, nevertheless, it is observed from the programmes that, at least for the “Economics and Management” curriculum, a few courses (“Professional ethics”, “Human resources management”, “Sociology and psychology”, notably) approach the constituting elements of the leadership.

Thus, no common definition of leadership training can be established at European level, and all forms should be considered as equivalent. If it were attempted to decide arbitrarily to include leadership training on the academic side, as proposed in the graph below, the ratios would mathematically decrease in value but the ranking of the education systems according to the balance they exhibit would not change fundamentally.



192 For further and more scientific definitions of what leadership is and how cadets can be trained, the author would recommend reading some of the extensive literature on the topic. See for example: Vesa Nissinen, *Military Leadership Training, Development of Leadership Behaviour in the Finnish Defence Forces*, Publication Series I Research Reports No 18/2001 (National Defence College, Helsinki 2001).

193 These two education systems are combined.

The notion of “leadership” itself is therefore too integrative, in the meaning that it touches on the fundamental substance of the work of an officer and cannot be exactly estimated. It can be approached through a wide variety of disciplines that must necessarily interact and fuse the three aspects of the qualifications: knowledge, skills and competences. Leadership training is the most symbolic crossroads of military qualifications and is thus at the heart of the concept of “military science” understood not only as the military application of science, as in the field of military technology, but as the building of a new scientific field: the science of warfare in its broadest meaning, including both the art and sciences of war. Thus, as war is linked to the sovereign conceptions of the Member States, the diversity of the forms of training for leadership may be seen as the most adapted to their particular individualities.

In practice, however, this diversity has consequences for the prospects of the exchanges envisaged by the Initiative. As seen from the stocktaking process, problems linked to accreditation may remain. If leadership training is conceived as vocational, or where parts of it are trained to in a vocational way, accreditation may not exist, and the exchanges will thus be made more difficult to recognise, which is problematic in the sense that leadership is the heart of military training. The ratios are, furthermore, not helpful for identifying potential partners for an institution because they analyse work-integrated learning throughout the education system. Then, if not for full-curriculum exchanges but for shorter periods, there is now a need to reduce the size of the object of analysis in order to have a better view of the institutions concerned.

Towards the rise of a military science

As conceived and observed, European military education must combine art, i.e. the techniques of war, and sciences, i.e. the thinking of war. The result of this combination is that a new concept is proposed: “military science”. However, this concept will face the duality that was established as a principle. Depending on whether the combination is simply the coexistence of two pillars in military education or a complete integration of the two pillars, military science would be characterised differently. Either military education is to be taken as a whole and military science can be formally characterised, or military education is also dual in form, and the name of “military science” is thus an objective that is sought.

A first direction to be looked at is whether European military education shows particularities with regard to the organisation of time, compared to its civilian counterpart. Indeed, we might suppose that if military education takes more time for the same degree than is taken for the same curriculum in civilian universities, this would mean that military institutions could conceive military education outside the degree format. For example, if in a certain country the bachelor’s degree takes 3 years in civilian higher education and 4 in military education because of a one-year vocational training programme organised during the period of education, this would suggest that the necessity is first to comply with the 3-year requirement for the academic education and that the vocational education is independent of the degree. Then there would conceptually be two “educations” in one educational process, and the notion of “military science” would be challenged. In fact, when looking at the calendars that were provided for the stocktaking and comparing them to the data provided by the European Ministries for Higher Education in the Bologna process stocktaking report, it seems that some cases of time differences do exist¹⁹⁴. In seven Member States, military curricula exceed the time allocated to their civilian counterparts for the same degree¹⁹⁵ by a few months or a year. However, the fact that they take longer than their civilian counterpart depends also on the flexibility that the Member State allows. Within the EU, a bachelor’s degree can take from three to four years and a master’s degree from one to three years. This does not mean that these specific systems do not comply with the

194 Application level excluded, as well as education systems that do not provide academic higher education.

195 Austria (Army), Belgium (engineers, until 2010), Bulgaria (Army, Navy, Air Force), Spain (Air Force), France (Army, Navy, Air Force), Netherlands (Navy: seamanship and Marine corps), Portugal (Air Force: aeronautical administration, engineers).

Bologna process; on the contrary. The process focuses more on the accreditation than on the time spent for a degree. The comparison here is only meant to observe whether “feelings” exist that there is a need to catch up the time taken by the vocational training. For the institutions responsible, a primary objective nowadays is to be recognised as members of higher education circles, which implies that they must as much as possible apply the criteria for being “Bologna process”-accredited. Furthermore, it may also be that this additional time is concealed behind other aspects of military education. It is indeed more than probable that a majority, if not all, of the institutions increase the intensiveness of the learning process instead of extending it. The idea that time is always busily occupied in military education is actually far from being a myth. The difficulties that may arise when introducing new teaching elements, as envisaged by the Initiative, are clear.

The organisation of time in military education is thus not conclusive as regards the existence of a conceptual separation between academic and vocational training. Therefore nothing can be said at this stage regarding the complete integration of military education and the rise of a “military science”.

The Bologna process is central in the recognition of a possible military science. Indeed, in order to be recognised as a science, military science must be recognised as more than military interpretations and applications of existing sciences. It is thus also by its “peers” that military science must be recognised. The shape of the education and its ability to operate according to the rules applied to all other sciences is therefore a first step toward this philosophical recognition.

Quality assurance is an important element when considering the duality of military education, because it is the cement of the construction. In Sweden, for example, the sum of the academic periods is less than the total normally required for a bachelor’s degree, even according to Swedish standards¹⁹⁶, because two of the six semesters are entirely devoted to vocational training. Even though it is probable that the academic weeks are more intensive than their civilian counterparts, the question remains whether it can be ensured that the value of the degree obtained by the cadets at the end is similar to the bachelor’s degree of a civilian student. In this particular case, the quality assurance of the whole education system is concentrated and monitored by the National Defence College. Its activity extends to the sectoral schools to which cadets are sent for vocational training. Consequently, the quality assurance system holds the elements of military education together, and the education may be considered as a whole, at first sight.

From the data collected in the stocktaking, it appears that, almost unanimously, the systems implementing the Bologna process also covered their vocational training with a quality assurance system. No information was requested regarding the connection with the mechanisms set for the academic part, in the cases where many schools are involved in the education prior to the application level, but it may be supposed that, apart from the common involvement of the MoDs, similar connections have been developed by other Member States.

A decisive element in the characterisation of military science is presumably to be found in the accreditation issue. The hypothesis is that if vocational and academic education are accredited together, military education must undoubtedly be considered as a whole. In the facts observed from the stocktaking collection, it appears that 5 education systems in Army, 5 in Navy, 5 in Air Force and 2 in Gendarmerie¹⁹⁷ use the same accreditation systems, the ECTS, for both aspects. For them, then, military education must be considered as a whole and military science is formally characterised as a field of both the art and the science of war. Going back to the example of the Swedish education system, it will be noted that vocational training is not accredited via the ECTS. This means that the bachelor’s degree offered by the Swedish National

196 According to the Bologna Process Stocktaking Report 2009, Sweden follows the 180 ECTS (3 years) bachelor model.

197 Excluding the joint education systems from these figures gives a total of 13.

Defence College is Bologna-“certified” independently of the vocational training and, therefore, that the education is not completely integrated. Since the debate is yet to be launched concerning the creation and implementation of an accreditation system in vocational training in the Member States which have not done so, the philosophical question of the existence of a military science is not yet resolved at the European level, but it is increasingly discussed. We could even say that, owing to historical developments in military education, although academic training had to comply with the rules of work, i.e. to meet the objectives of a professional apprenticeship in the classical Spartan-influenced education, work training has to adapt to the rules applied to academic training in modern education. Today, military education is attempting to find a new and complete integration of its two fundamental pillars, vocational and academic, through the use of the term “military science”. Coexistence however remains the principle. Perhaps in the future, once the storm of the Bologna process is over and its fundamentals implemented and secured, the institutions will guarantee this identity by including the vocational training in the Bologna-certified curriculum through ECTS accreditation.

Looking for models: work integration classification

As the philosophical quest for a military science provides valuable information on how the integration of work into learning is conceived, it is now necessary to look at how this integration is organised in European military higher education. The distinction made by Giuseppe Caforio is insufficient in this regard because it is focused primarily on the “if” of the work-integration. It does not approach the role an institution can have in the symphony of military education. We will thus propose below a new analysis of the distribution of the music scores. This distinction, which is also intended to serve practical purposes in the identification of partners with similar cultures, is nevertheless comparable to Caforio’s distinction because it may give indirect information on the socialisation that is enhanced in the different systems.

The scope of the classification we propose is military education, prior to the application level, and the categories the following three:

- 1) Education systems where the vocational and academic education are strictly and organically separated. In this specific area, delegation should be also taken into account, but only when military education does not itself also provide the same kind of training. For example, education prior to military education in France should not be taken into account insofar as the military institutions also provide academic training.
- 2) Education systems where vocational and academic education are separated in the curriculum. In practice, this means that the period of military education alternates the two aspects within the education process.
- 3) Education systems where vocational and academic education are conducted in parallel. It should be taken into account that, due to the specificity of the military training, which requires the full mobilisation of the cadets for a certain period of time for some of the exercises, parallel education is also mixed with alternation of events.

According to these criteria, the picture of European military higher education would look like the following table:

Table 12: Classification of the officers' basic education systems according to the organisation of academic and vocational trainings

	Organic separation	Intermediate	Alternation	Parallel (and alternation)	Intermediate (separation and parallel)
Army	MT, SL, DE	HU, SE, CZ	BE, FR, GR, IT, NL, RO, SK	AT, EE, ES, FI, LT, RO (engin.), BG, PT	UK
Navy	MT, DE, SL, UK	SE	GR, NL, PT, BE, SK	BG, ES, FI, FR, IT, RO	
Air Force	DE, MT, SL,	CZ, HU, SE	FR, GR, BE, IT, NL, PT, RO, SK	BG, EE, FI, RO (engin.), ES	UK
Gendarmerie			IT, RO	ES, PT	

This classification, however, does not precisely fit the definition of vocational training we adopted for the stocktaking. Indeed, it does not take into account the physical training that is usually carried on throughout military education. As is stressed by all military institutions, sport is an activity that must be engaged in regularly by the cadets, no matter where they are for their education. If sport were taken into account, then, all the education systems would be analysed as conducting vocational and academic education in parallel. Bringing back the definition of vocational training to the sum of military and professional training, in this particular attempted analysis, was suggested by the replies provided by the Member States and their institutions themselves in the context of the stocktaking. The calendars rarely took physical training into account .

Furthermore, this classification is only generic, but the purpose is not to multiply sub-categories to fit the diversity of particular cases. Each system is, of course, very different from all the others, and the attempt at classification was made for theoretical purposes. The factors that justified this classification are developed below in accordance with the categories defined.

Organic separation of the vocational and academic aspects of education:

In the Slovenian (Army, Navy and Air Force) and British (Navy)¹⁹⁸ systems, academic education is separated from vocational education by the phenomenon we earlier called “delegation”. Academic education is provided, as a requirement in the Slovenian system and statistically in the British one, outside the military sphere. Thus it could also have been said that the two aspects of training are not “separated” insofar as the academic aspect does not “exist”. However, the result is that the two dimensions which make up the education of an officer, are organically split. In the Maltese system, academic delegation is not the rule, but it is a possibility that was also taken into account when classifying the systems. Finally, the German education system represents the “pure” organic separation between vocational and academic, without delegation, because the two types of training are provided within the military sphere¹⁹⁹: the cadets do their professional military training before becoming students in the universities of the *Bundeswehr*.

198 Except for British “Logistics” and “Warfare” curricula, which alternate a short period of academic training with periods of vocational training.

199 The two universities of the *Bundeswehr* are not strictly organs of the Ministry of Defence, but the Ministry is involved in the decisions of these universities, which are controlled by the Länder of Bavaria and Hamburg.

Mixed systems, between organic separation and alternation:

The Czech education system, which is “joint” (Army and Air Force), alternates the two types of training in the course of the curriculum. In this respect, it could have also been classified as “alternation”. However, the training activities, depending on their nature, may not be provided by the same institution. The Swedish system (Army, Navy and Air Force) is also found in the intermediate category between “organic separation” and “alternation”, because there is indeed an organic separation between the two types of training but it is found in the course of the curriculum, although the Hungarian education system (Army and Air Force) is in the same category because the separation is not organic but lies at an extremity of the curriculum (the beginning). The Czech and Swedish systems are conceptually in the middle of the space between organic separation and alternation, while the Hungarian is closer to alternation. Nevertheless, it should be added that, in the Hungarian system, the periods of practice could, depending on their content, be assimilated to vocational training. In this case, the system should be clearly classified as “alternation”.

Alternation of vocational and academic aspects of education:

In the Belgian, Slovakian and Dutch systems, the education is “joint” for Army, Navy and Air Force. Therefore, it is repeated in all the branches they are involved in. In these systems, along with the others that can be found in the same category, one main institution can be found, which provides the whole training until the application level. At some point in the curriculum, other institutions, such as application schools, may be involved in the organisation of the vocational training, but it is not the rule. What differentiates them from the other systems is that they do not mix the two types of training but alternate them in different periods. Future officers are alternately students and cadets. The organisation of time, however, is not homogenous within this category. For example, in the Dutch Navy system, vocational training can extend to a period of one year, while in the Greek Army it does not last for more than a month and a half. From a socialisation perspective, it can be said that this kind of organisation allows the cadets to remain in regular contact with their basic vocation, i.e. their technical preparedness for war.

Parallel conduct of vocational and academic aspects of the education:

The last main category covers the education systems in which the two types of training are conducted in parallel. As already mentioned in the definition of the criteria, there is no “pure” parallelism insofar as, to be effective, some practices need time especially dedicated to them. Therefore, the defining characteristic of these systems, as described in the calendars provided for the stocktaking investigation, is that they have at least periods, as in the Estonian (Army and Air Force) system, or the entirety of their curricula, as in the Bulgarian Army or Finnish (Army, Navy and Air Force) systems, in which they do both types of training. As a matter of fact, as the calendars attempted to reflect, the proportions of the two types of training vary from one system to another. Furthermore, for practical reasons, the same institution conducts these parallel activities, except in the case of specific events. With regard to the socialisation of the trainee, it should be said that the two statuses, i.e. cadets and students, are completely mixed.

Mixed systems, between parallel conduct and organic separation:

This last category is very specific in the sense that it covers only the British Army and Air Force education systems. Delegation of academic education still exists as the rule, but the cadets have also academic courses in the academies. However, the small proportion of these courses, compared to the amount of vocational training, bring the systems closer to organic separation than real parallelism.

The outcome of this table is not merely theoretical, but is also intended to give practical information with regard to exchange perspectives. The classification is not to be read through “good” or “bad” glasses. The categories suggest that socialisation differs among these European systems. The apprenticeship will be different, as Caforio described it. The learner switches from student status to cadet status, or the other

way round, in systems where the types of training are organically separated. This switch can be regular in alternating systems. This switch may not exist in systems that conduct the two types of training in parallel, with the learner assuming clearly a dual role as cadet and as student. The central role played by traditions in military cohesion should not be forgotten. Today's educators are often yesterday's cadets. This may explain how such diversity of models remains.

Its roots may also be found in practical and financial choices insofar as, for example, not providing academic training in the military sphere allows cost savings. For example, the two universities of the *Bundeswehr* are not solely financially dependent on the Ministry of Defence, and they are open to civilians. More broadly, it is the idea of "university" and new structures created for the education of young officers that can be conceived of as a central cause of this classification. Indeed, a "university" can be open to civilian students, and therefore benefit from grants outside Defence Ministry budgets, but it certainly requires curricula to be organised in a way that allows a normal education for these civilian students. Therefore, a certain separation (organic or alternation) must be guaranteed between the vocational and academic aspects. On the other hand, centralisation of all activities in one or a few institutions (alternation or parallel) also allows cost savings, for example concerning mobility expenses.

Pedagogically too, this diversity can be justified. There is conceptually no "best way" to educate future officers, only national balances. The specialisation of civilian professors is as valuable as the overall view a military trainer can have of the job of an officer. However, there may be differences linked to the importance given to leadership. Perhaps education systems combining vocational and academic types of training (alternation and parallelism) within the military sphere look for continuous enhancement of leadership in the cadets' minds, whereas it can be interrupted, or enhanced at a later stage, in systems where the two dimensions are separate.

Furthermore, this classification can be an indicator and an element of predictability in the search for exchanges of students. It can be assumed that when an institution looks for an academic exchange in a Member State where the two aspects are organically separated, it will address itself to a given institution depending on whether the object of the exchange is academic or vocational. For systems where the two types of training are alternated, the time organisation involved is the most important criterion to address. Finally, if an exchange is envisaged with a system where the two types of training are conducted in parallel, it may be thought that the sending institution would have to entrust the hosting institution with the training of its students in both vocational and academic aspects. The scope of the task assigned is thus different when dealing with systems of the different categories. The proposed classification explains why it is impossible, in the calendars (annex) provided by the Member States, to find a possible "European semester". However, the diversity encountered in no way impedes the exchange. Structurally, every military education system can find potential partners on a case-by-case basis.

Conclusions

Work-integrated learning is a key to understanding European military higher education. It is a principle that is not only necessary for training future military elites for the role they will have to play in security and defence in an insecure world. It is also a universally shared reality in Europe. Its effects are not only theoretical but can be also felt at the different levels of the European military education.

At the European level, first of all, the analysis of this principle contributes to providing a shared understanding of what military higher education is. It is a complex balance that is reached in different ways by individual education systems. However, while the approaches ostensibly differ, the study of this principle and its implementation can contribute to the cohesion of the European Security and Defence Policy through the development of the Initiative and the work directions of its implementation group. On the one hand, the

forms of the integration of work into military learning processes give valuable information about the possible enhancement of mobility between education systems, notably for the students. None of the ways found by the Member States to integrate work is incompatible with the organisation of exchanges. On the other hand, the different conceptions of the integration of work that are encountered makes it necessary to agree on a common language with a view to organising exchanges involving work-apprenticeship. The accreditation of vocational training, so that the outcome of studies taken abroad can be recognised, is a priority.

At the level of the countries and their military institutions, the implementation of the work-integrated principle is a central element for the characterisation of the education. On the one hand, it contributes to the socialisation process of the military students, as suggested by Giuseppe Caforio, in making them both “students”, in the civilian definition of the term, and “cadets”. On the other hand, the integration of work is a cornerstone of the military specificity of the education and of the definition of a “military science”. From an abstract point of view, the challenge — for the institutions in particular, since the education they provide has to be “certified” in order to become parts of the European Higher Education Area — is now for them to be recognised for the whole of the education they provide. From a short-term perspective, this recognition of a military science is not a decisive element for the enhancement of mobility. In the longer term, however, the interaction of these institutions will perhaps make it necessary for them that this science be recognised universally, notably through the use of the ECTS also for the accreditation of vocational training.

Chapter Five:

From observation to action: the first successes of the Initiative

In this final chapter, we propose to have an inside view of the work of the Implementation group since its creation early in 2009, and its very first realisations. We will explain the debates that were held and the obstacles that were faced by the sub-groups in the different lines of the Initiative. These descriptions will also be an opportunity for the scientist to propose actions, new perspectives and developments for the Initiative from a long-term perspective (1). Finally, the pilot seminar on ESDP addressing cadets and hosted by Portugal in September 2009 will be described and analysed as a symbolic but concrete first step in the implementation of the Initiative, undoubtedly paving the way for many other similar steps in the integration of military higher education (2).

Results achieved so far, the road toward integration

In order to describe the results achieved by the implementation group, we will differentiate between two timeframes. The first period, which extended from February to September 2009, was the period of the so-called “quick wins”, already mentioned in Chapter one. It consists in implementing the first actions described in the political declaration. They must in no case be understood as priorities but as actions for which the work could start even though the second stocktaking results were still being processed. After the first results of this second stocktaking were analysed, other actions were initiated. These latter actions are the lines of development. Besides, from a general point of view, actors other than the implementation group made contributions to progress. Their participation will be described.

The “quick wins”: the first stones of the Initiative

The implementation of the common module on ESDP:

Quick win I concerns the implementation during the initial education of young officers of a common module on ESDP, its history, its content and its potential developments. It is, in a way, the heart of the Initiative for the exchange of young officers, inspired by Erasmus because, as was previously said, the Initiative itself is meant to train the future actors of this ESDP, to be renamed Common Security and Defence Policy (CSDP) now that the Lisbon treaty has come into force. Moreover, the Initiative was adopted in the legal framework of the ESDP. It is thus very symbolic, but with a real practical effect, in that this particular measure was the one to be looked forward to at the very beginning of the implementation process. Indeed, even before the implementation group convened for the first time, the work on this specific action started.

As it is the primary mission of the ESDC to train European actors in ESDP and its practical dimensions, it was natural that the ESDC would have a major role to play in the creation of the common module, even if it did not address its usual target audience. As early as 13 October 2008, even before the political declaration, the Steering Committee of the ESDC agreed on the shape of the curriculum for this common module, based on the orientation course provided by the ESDC in its regular activities. It allows the officers' educational institutions to use the internet-based distance learning system of the ESDC as pedagogical support, first hosted on a server of the Belgian Royal Military Academy and then also on a Romanian server. An undoubted advantage of the fact that the ESDC activities have become the model for this action in the context of the Initiative, despite the fact that the approach in this particular case is a top-down one, is that experience and the appropriateness of the ESDC orientation course for the training of actors of the ESDP help to ensure the quality of the training. Evaluations are conducted in the framework of the orientation course on the quality of the training provided and, as will be detailed in the second part of this chapter, this model of evaluation can also be used in monitoring the outcomes of the module for the cadets.

The general lines of the knowledge to be provided during the module were thus agreed. A working group, within the implementation group, was then given the task of defining the shape of the module. A first

question concerned the timeframe for the organisation of the module. At the beginning of the work of the sub-group on quick win 1, it was envisaged that this module would be made available to the cadets in several institutions conducting it the same week, with the possibility of exchanging cadets for this purpose. It was notably proposed to organise these modules during the second week of May because of the symbolic value of “Schuman Day” on May 9th. A first obstacle to this project, as could be predicted even before the results of the second stocktaking were presented, was that the education and training schedules do not, in most cases, allow a week to be taken from normal studies only for this purpose. A second question addressed by the working group was the adaptation of the training material of the orientation course to an audience of cadets. Contrary to the audience of professionals to which the ESDC course is addressed, the cadets, by definition, have never had previous contact with the realities of the security and defence of Europe. This was an important mission for this sub-group. It took time to go through the material and transform it for this specific audience, whose knowledge of and interest in ESDP issues is presumably located somewhere between that of the ordinary public and that of a specialised audience. This is why the project of coordinated organisation of several modules in May 2009 did not succeed²⁰⁰ In August 2009, a set of training materials was issued in order to support the teaching and learning in the provision of knowledge through this module. This set can be made available to the institutions for individual initiatives aimed at providing knowledge relating to the ESDP/CSDP to the greatest number of cadets. The material divides the module into 10 main themes of which an overview is provided:

- EU Institutions and Treaties;
- The Common Foreign and Security Policy (CFSP);
- The European Security Strategy;
- The ESDP Structure;
- ESDP Decision-Making;
- ESDP Civilian and Military aspects;
- Security Threats, objectives, tasks and missions as stated in the European Security Strategy;
- EU Missions and Operations planning;
- Alignment of the Security Threats, Strategic objectives, Political objectives, End State, Civil and Military tasks and capabilities used in Strategic and Operational directives and orders;
- The European Neighbourhood Policy.

Besides, two other issues had to be dealt with by the working group in collaboration with the ESDC Secretariat. The first one was the possibility of using the internet-based distance learning tools of the ESDC in the modules for the cadets. The autonomous knowledge units contained in the ESDC IDL module are, indeed, inputs from external scientific institutions. Therefore, the copyright issue must be dealt with, especially if the institution that is willing to provide the module to cadets is able to host the units on its own server. However, as will be seen more into detail in the second part of this chapter, arrangements for the use of the ESDC capacities were found for the pilot project. The second issue that was dealt with in collaboration between the ESDC Secretariat and the working group was the organisation of a “Train-the-trainers” seminar. This first two-day seminar was organised by the ESDC Secretariat and hosted by the Belgian Royal Military

200 Without this “standardised” training material, the teaching would have been national only. Having uniform material is obviously a sign that the training is European and that its quality is assured on a European basis.

Academy at the beginning of June 2009 and convened teachers interested in the ESDP-related topics and willing to organise modules of this kind, to update their knowledge, supported by eminent scientists, experts and actors from the ESDP within the EU institutions, and a group reflection on the possible shape of the module. The groups of participants were notably invited to think about the possibility of organising such modules for different timeframes, one week or one semester²⁰¹, on the basis of the programme proposed for the common module as agreed by the Steering Committee. As a preparation for the Train-the-trainers seminar, the participants were also invited to complete the IDL module of the ESDC course. In order to experience this instrument themselves, before possibly proposing it to the students, they went through the four following Autonomous Knowledge Units (AKUs):

- History and context of ESDP;
- European Security Strategy;
- Role of EU Institutions in ESDP;
- Overview of ESDP functioning.

As it was generally considered helpful for the preparation of the trainers, and due to the success of the first module experience in Lisbon that will be detailed later in this chapter, the organisation of other similar seminars has been projected since.

The creation of technical instruments:

In order to allow the exchange of information on the different curricula and on the offers and needs for students and staff mobility, technical instruments were needed, such as a website for the dissemination of the data obtained through the stocktaking research and a forum for the discussions among the members of the different sub-groups. As these objectives were connected, and because they were both achieved early in the group's timetable thanks to the excellent support of the representatives from Bulgaria, these two website and forum instruments, respectively quick win 2 and quick win 3, are thus described together.

In April 2009, a website was created at the address www.emilyo.eu, with access restricted by a password and monitored by the Bulgarian designers. Anecdotally, it is this website, when the designers thought about the name to give it, that launched the debate about the name of the Initiative at global level. The implementation group expressed its agreement on keeping the name "Emily" for informal reference to the Initiative, but it did not reach the necessary consensus at political level.

The website, on which the data of the stocktaking will be made available early in 2010 for use by the educational institutions taking part in the Initiative, already contains links to the websites of the ESDC and of the Council of the European Union, but also to the ESDP knowledge base created in support of the ESDC course participants. This knowledge base contains important documents illustrating the construction and development of the ESDP. Finally, the Emily website offers a link to the website created by the Conference of Superintendents of the Naval Academies²⁰² on which the different activities proposed for exchanges by the participating institutions are presented. In the future, links toward the recently created websites of the EUAFA and the EMACS, if it is decided to create one, will be added as well so as to reflect the fact that the organisation of the exchanges can be efficiently organised only if the principle of "subsidiarity" is followed.

201 Envisaging a one-semester course suggests that the module would be proposed nationally because it would be more difficult, as stressed by the stocktaking results, to exchange students for a complete semester.

202 The website of the Conference of Superintendents of Naval Academies is accessible at this address: www.eunaweb.eu

The forum, accessible via the website, is a most useful instrument for discussions between the members of the sub-groups in order to share their views on the different tasks assigned. It also allowed these sub-groups to present the results of their work and contains the questionnaires that were provided by the different institutions and which form the unfiltered information underlying this present study. On this forum, finally, a specific space was kept for the students in order to present their views on the Initiative and its directions. After the Lisbon seminar on the ESDP, all the presentations supporting the lectures were distributed on this forum. However, although previously intended to become a platform for the discussions between the students, it seems that its success was limited because the Portuguese team organising the pilot seminar on ESDP distorted its competitiveness by creating...A Facebook page. Once the data from the second stocktaking research are presented on this instrument, notably allowing a comparison of the different schedules, identifying mobility windows at bilateral level and presenting study and training programmes, Emilyo will most likely become a tool for planning mobility rather than for students' discussions.

The drafting of a Framework agreement:

The Initiative is not meant to duplicate the Erasmus programme, already in existence, which has proved its value through long experience and by its success. Therefore, a framework agreement is not intended to be a substitute for the Erasmus University charter an institution has to sign when it wants to take part in the programme. On the contrary, such a document is meant to facilitate the use of the Erasmus programme by the military educational institutions and to create additional opportunities for short-term exchanges. On the basis of the observations made during the two stocktaking studies, it appears clear that these institutions, due to the specificities of their mission, i.e. educating and training, face difficulties in their exchange project especially because an Erasmus exchange should extend over a minimum period of three consecutive months. A framework agreement, as pursued through this quick win 4, would address these obstacles, as they might have been described in the first stocktaking, for example, by solving the issues linked to the exchange of military personnel with regard not only to the Erasmus exchanges but also to all forms of mobility. For example, the presence of military personnel, unlike civilians, raises the necessity of an agreement on their status on foreign soil. Other side issues, symbolic at first sight, also have their importance, such as medical care, the right to carry and handle weapons, and the respective costs of catering and accommodation, for example²⁰³.

While this is a sensitive issue that needs to be agreed on by all the participating Member States to the Initiative, this work took patience, lots of discussion and time. The drafting could not be achieved before the end of the quick win era. As a consequence, quick win 4 became line of development 5, for which the outcomes will be presented later in this chapter.

The development of other common training modules:

The ESDP/CSDP training module, prepared by the ESDC structures and adapted in quick win 1 is very symbolic because of the objective assigned to the Initiative: fostering a European culture of security and defence. Beside this module, the political declaration expresses the need to develop other common modules on international issues, in order to reinforce European integration of the education provided by the military institutions. This task was assigned to the implementation group as quick win 5. In the first stocktaking research²⁰⁴, the Member States reported their willingness to build common instruments for some specific topics. However, these suggestions were very diverse and were related to either academic or vocational

203 In the civilian area, taking the example of the Erasmus programme, these features of military life rarely exist: catering and accommodation are most often the responsibility of the individuals.

204 General Secretariat of the Council, document 12843/08, "Stocktaking of existing exchanges and exchange programmes of national military officers during their initial education and training".

training of the officers. Because not all the possible modules could be developed in a quick win context, the preparation of a common module being estimated to require at least 80 hours of work, it was decided by the working group to focus on a selection of five topics as a start:

- Humanitarian law, law of armed conflicts, maritime law;
- Peace support operations;
- Globalisation and security;
- Leadership in a multinational context;
- (External) communication.

The work of the sub-group consists in defining first the course objectives, preferably using references to international qualification frameworks. Then, it must define the content of these courses and create the supporting material, which presupposes that the participants in the group are experts in the field to be developed. The modules can be based on existing national curricula. In order to ensure the quality of the content, the ESDC Secretariat offers opportunities for the drafters to obtain the inputs of international actors before making a module available to all the Member States. Finally, the sub-group must define the duration of the module. It should be noted that, similar to the discussions that were held during the first Train-the-trainers seminar for the ESDP module, the module created can be integrated into the educational offer of the institutions either as a block or can be spread through one or more semesters. As regards the recognition issue, the drafters of these modules are asked to estimate the accreditation that could be given to such a module. At this stage of the implementation process, the choice had been made to focus the action of the sub-group on modules of an academic nature. Then, the use of the ECTS appears logical. In the future, other modules, vocational this time, will be created. The accreditation of this training will thus be dealt with before this issue is raised again.

Due to the amount of time that is required to develop a module and comply with all the steps described, the work on common training modules other than the ESDP was still ongoing at the beginning of 2010. Some of the modules for the topics presented above will be finalised and made available to all the Member States at the very beginning of 2010. Some military institutions have already expressed their willingness to organise European seminars on the model of these modules to which cadets from other Member States would be invited, as was done for the ESDP pilot seminar in Lisbon in 2009. Therefore, the outcome of this quick win may become visible soon. The work, nevertheless, is to be continued in order to regularly create new European offers completing the “menu” proposed by the institutions. Therefore, the quick win 5 will become the line of development 8 in order to stress this continuity.

It now becomes necessary to think about the development of other training modules, in order to reinforce the integration of European military education. The idea of vocational modules has never been lost from sight and it is obviously a direction to be looked at because specific requirements in that area were expressed in the first stocktaking research. For example, there was a proposal to create a common module on urban warfare. Regarding academic modules, it might be useful to look at the courses recently developed by the ESDC, such as capability development, peace building, security sector reform, or even the domain of gender and security, as currently being developed by the ESDC²⁰⁵. A considerable advantage of this parallel between the development of ESDC courses and initial officers’ training modules is that, as was done for the ESDP module, the quality of the content is already assured. The content can thus be made available. Furthermore, at first sight, all these topics and related modules that are currently being developed seem

205 Council conclusions on ESDP, 2974th External Relations Council meeting, Brussels 17 November 2009.

to address first, but not exclusively of course, students interested in social and human sciences. Another direction for development that can thus be proposed is the creation of modules focusing on technical sciences, while this area is also supposed to be progressively integrated into an ESDP context. Some Member States, in the first stocktaking research, proposed for example to create a common module on cryptology. In order to reflect the future working field of engineering students, such modules could perhaps involve the participation of the European Defence Agency. The military-industrial capacities of the European Union are called to operate together and a European culture must thus be fostered as early as possible in the training of their future actors.

The “lines of development”:

The data obtained through the questionnaires for the second stocktaking research allowed the work of the implementation group to be advanced. So called ‘lines of development’ were then defined, including work that started under the quick wins, and new sub-groups were formed for this second phase of the implementation.

The development of a system of equivalences in vocational training:

Based on the recommendations issued in the questionnaire report²⁰⁶, in September 2009, the implementation group emphasised the need to create a system of accreditation for the outcome of the exchanges in the vocational field of officers’ training. The reason why this work started late in the implementation process was that the information on the state of the art on vocational accreditation was lacking before the results obtained through the questionnaire investigations were published. As it appeared from the information reproduced earlier in Chapter Three, many different practices coexist. In some educational systems, vocational training is not accredited at all, in some others it is accredited according to a national mechanism or according to the ECTS mechanism. Besides, for some educational systems, accreditation exists only for some aspects of the vocational training that are close to “academic” teaching. This fact reinforces the feeling that the line between the vocational and the academic aspects remains rather vague, in some educational systems.

Taking these options at European level has consequences, as was already mentioned earlier. Having no accreditation system is not a solution because no recognition of the outcome of an exchange would exist, independent of the mutual trust that could exist only informally. Forcing the institutions to convert their vocational training to the ECTS system would not be a solution either. It took them time, discussions and important reforms to comply with the Bologna process in their academic education and it must be assumed that they had to make painstaking calculations in order to make their programmes fit the curricula requirements, for example 180 ECTS for a bachelor programme. The ECTS solution might therefore meet “willingness” obstacles. Pragmatically, the solution of a “European-made” accreditation system appeared as the most suitable option, only if it is compatible with the ECTS, in order to allow exchanges between ECTS and the possible accreditation institutions.

Owing to the requirement of compatibility with ECTS expressed in the ECVET recommendation issued by the Council and the European Parliament in June 2009, the ECVET system has been investigated. While an ECVET accreditation requires modular organisation of the training, the implementation of evaluation and a quality assurance system, military vocational training could *a priori* offer scope for an ECVET accreditation. However, the formalism of this accreditation system and the fact that the application schools, for example, do not have a quality assurance system similar to the main institutions responsible for the initial training since they did not implement the Bologna process²⁰⁷, the ECVET option as a short-term solution was abandoned.

206 Chapter Three.

207 However, it is assumed that these institutions remaining outside the Bologna system have their quality assured by the end-user, i.e. the Ministry of Defence.

Furthermore, the work on the comparison of qualifications that is the fundamental element of the definition of the ECVET has not yet started. The ambition is indeed not to accredit the whole vocational training in the first place, but to formalise the recognition of the outcomes of the training courses that are effectively proposed for international exchanges.

The sub-group concentrated its efforts on the development of a “military-made” accreditation system, which would allow the institutions to recognise the outcomes that are not accredited within the ECTS system:

- Courses that are considered academic in one institution but vocational in another;
- Exchanges between institutions offering vocational training, except in those cases where the two partners use the ECTS system for this training.

Regarding the method of calculation for this specific accreditation system, the principle would be to base the criteria on those used by the ECTS, in order to guarantee compatibility between the two systems. Then, the workload and the outcomes would be the two sources of this new system. The definition of workload is not a major obstacle in the vocational area thanks to the very limited amount of self-study for students. Contact hours can be used as the principle and the average of 25 to 30 hours will certainly be retained for the definition of a vocational credit. It now remains for the sub-group, in coordination with line of development 2, to integrate the learning outcomes in the definition. To this end, with a taxonomy connected to the EQF for example, the sub-group look for inspiration to the ECVET model for which the qualifications can be “prioritised” in order to estimate their relative importance. Consequently, a coefficient – called “factors” - could be attached, for example, to each qualification and this coefficient could be applied to the workload calculation in order to obtain a mathematical estimate of the number of credits. This would mean that the order of priority, or any definition of qualifications, is agreed by all the participating institutions in order to ensure the predictability of the outcomes of an exchange. However, the calculation is to be made by the institutions themselves. Therefore, the military vocational accreditation system would ensure mutual trust between the institutions, even if this system has value only between them. Playing the role of the devil’s advocate, one could say that the ECTS system itself is, for the time being, far from fully including the learning outcomes as a criterion in every participating State in the Bologna process. The first reason is, naturally, that the issue of qualifications remains somewhat unclear for the Member States and their institutions. Pragmatically, the calculation of the workload alone could be regarded as a valuable source of accreditation, at least until the implementation of the qualifications is completed.

The parallel with the ECVET system, if this solution is retained, would not prevent the method used from defining the importance of the qualifications. The total number of credits would indeed depend to a large extent on the shape of the education and not on the curricula. For example, it would be unrealistic to assign the requirement of 60 vocational credits per year because, in some national systems, vocational training is separated from academic education. In general also, the amount of vocational training in the initial training of an officer varies nationally. Therefore, the system to be created would, like the ECVET system, reflect only what is done and not what has to be done.

The next step in the construction of an accreditation system for the recognition of the training offered for exchanges, in the first place, is to ensure the quality of the accreditation by the national institutions. In this regard, the question remains open even if, in one way or another, the partners involved in an exchange would have the opportunity to share their views as a kind of “peer review”. A possibility would be to entrust the ESDC with this task, because the set of qualifications to be created would have value only between the initial training institutions. However, this would imply that the role of the ESDC would be changed to include growing involvement in the conduct of military education itself.

The search for a course comparison instrument, based on qualifications:

The work on qualification comparison, notably as regards vocational accreditation, remains a priority of the implementation group. As the results of the stocktaking research based on the questionnaires provided by the institutions or the Member States showed that a European understanding of the qualifications still needs to be initiated, this subject was included in specific line of development 2. The purpose of this sub-group, which will start to meet from early 2010, is to develop a process describing the best way to identify a suitable match for an exchange of students. In order to make this possible, the sub-group can elaborate matrices, such as the example given in Chapter Three (Table 8), to be filled out by the institutions. The advantage of these matrices is that they would allow cross-references to both generic and specific qualifications, though the Member States seem to have different views of the scale to which qualifications should relate. On the one hand, it is true that the European Qualifications Framework is perhaps too generic to allow the military institutions to identify themselves in it. On the other hand, it is equally true that choosing to elaborate a specific qualification framework specially for “military studies”, either including both the academic and vocational aspects or separating them, would also have two main drawbacks. First, the specific frameworks are linked to the programmes, whereas these programmes are different from one institution to another. Then, elaborating the specific qualifications presupposes a debate on what is the ideal military officer. Obviously, the answer to this debate will be more than difficult to reach.

A possible solution, that will certainly be debated in the sub-group, would be to “downsize” the impact of the EQF, without reaching the level where national or institutional differences would appear, and to “picture” it with a military colour. This would allow discussion to start on a possible “prioritisation” of the qualifications and, in practical terms, a clear view of the role of learning outcomes in accreditation and recognition.

The next step will be to implement a quality assurance system that will take into account these agreed qualifications in order to evaluate the educational policy of the institutions. The issue does not lie with internal assurance, because the institutions that will integrate this set of qualifications have the capacity to review it, not only through national frameworks but also through international ones. There will be more difficulties in ensuring this match between what is provided and what is expected from an external point of view. The external quality assurance actors, such as the national agencies or the European University Association, will review quality through the glass of what they know, i.e. the “official” frameworks, not through the results of the process of line of development 2. The question will be therefore asked as to how quality could be assured externally. Creating a structure specially dedicated to this review is not an option. Using the existing structures would imply, as already stated earlier, that the role and the mission of the ESDC in European military higher education need to be changed. This can be the case only if the legal framework governing the action of the ESDC is changed and if the appropriate capacities and capabilities are allocated to the College.

The development of IDL specific content for the common training modules:

On the model of the ESDP module developed in the quick win 1, the intention of line of development 3 is to make available to all the Member States participating in the network, internet-based distance-learning tools for the “other” common training modules as they start to be developed under line of development 8. Through this line of development, an effort is made to push forward the use by military institutions of blended learning methodologies, i.e. composed of distance learning and lectures. As a first step, then, the shape of the common modules must be defined, and the material needs to be created. These steps will be finalised early in 2010. Although quick win 5 (which became line of development 8) was the step relating to the definition of the content of the modules, this second phase, which will start after the material is prepared, is the point at which these modules will be formalised by deciding which part must be addressed and what knowledge developed - preferably supported by existing documents - at a specific stage in the

learning process. From a practical point of view, it also means that copyright arrangements will have to be found before making the module available to all in the network. Technically, it also means that arrangements will have to be found for hosting of the server on which the modules will be available. The ESDC server is, for the time being, hosted by the Belgian academy and has reached its limits in terms of space available.

The creation of an information platform:

On the basis of the technical tools created in quick wins 2 and 3, the purpose of line of development 4 is to transfer the information obtained through the stocktaking research onto a platform that would support the identification of potential partners and of the conditions of an exchange. The application should allow a structured search of the available training programmes and the training outcomes that are provided through the different institutions. It would be accessible to the students in order to find a match between the outcomes obtained through their home training and the outcomes of the exchange of programmes they were looking for. The structure to be created would also have a “clearing-house” function. The students and staff of the national institutes should be enabled to ask for or express their interest in exchange availabilities, covering a list of qualifications.

The work has started on the definition of the shape of an interactive online application allowing the interested parties to identify exchange opportunities, including matches between the course schedules. However, the construction of this tool will certainly not be achieved before the beginning of 2010 because of the load of information provided through different channels and forms, notably concerning the programmes. Furthermore, the essential tool for comparing the learning outcomes is currently under construction in line of development 2. The implementation of this tool will thus certainly be a step-by-step process.

The resources needed for this task are not only technical. In the long term there will, indeed, be a need for continuous updating of this information and more generally regular updates of the stocktaking results, especially because the institutions are currently in a transitional period before universal integration into the European Higher Education Area. In a general way, this will be an ongoing task, for which time and personnel will be required.

The development of supporting mechanisms:

This work, under line of development 5, is the continuation of the process started under quick win 4 and aimed at establishing legal documents supporting the Initiative. The discussions will certainly come to an end at the beginning of 2010 with the approval of a set of documents:

- A standard model of learning agreement: describing a student’s choice of courses for an exchange;
- A standard model of teaching agreement: describing the object of a teacher exchange;
- A standard inter-institutional agreement: a document creating the link between the two partner institutions for the exchange of a student or a staff member;
- A legal framework.

The first three documents are models based on the standards usually followed by two institutions, military or civilian, exchanging on the basis of the Erasmus programme. They are meant to formalise the exchange and to certify that the mobility has an effective purpose. Therefore, the forms of these documents met with a consensus relatively easily. The legal framework, on the other hand, has been the subject of many discussions on both its legal form and its content.

At the beginning of the process, under quick win 4, the document in preparation was intended to be a memorandum of understanding. Due to the fact that this type of document has different legal status depending on the Member State, and that its ratification would also be different²⁰⁸, this option was abandoned in favour of a joint action. The joint action is fully integrated into the scope of EU legal documents in the second pillar and it is only politically binding. With the entry into force of the Lisbon Treaty, the Joint Action as a legal instrument is replaced by a Council Decision. Whilst the Initiative has been adopted in the EU framework, the decision to use a Council Decision is also symbolically justified. However, the legal framework is not only aimed at describing the principles of the Initiative but also at including detailed prescription that can be thought as administrative. Furthermore, the cadets are not EU military personnel but only national personnel. Therefore, the use of the CFSP framework and the Decision instrument is not adequate. An other form will be proposed for the document and its adoption by the Defence Ministers early in 2010. The content itself shall remain unchanged.

The goal of this document is to establish the general conditions of the Initiative, dealing with the exchange of students and instructors. It is thus assumed that the exchange of administrative staff, for example, will be covered by bilateral arrangements. The draft document, as it is progressively designed, defines the main arrangements on which an exchange must be based and guarantees the application of the reciprocity principle. The main arrangements will be presented hereafter.

The financial costs are shared, depending on their nature, between the home institution and the host institution. The most probable cases, medical expenses or language course expenses for example, are dealt with. Regarding the conditions of the student's stay, the draft document deals with all the main aspects. A tutor is assigned to the exchange student to assist and advise him or her. The discipline of the host institution applies to the exchange students, when the rules are compatible with those of the home institution, but disciplinary measures can only be applied after the home institution decides on them. Any possible leave of absence must be agreed by the two partner institutions.

Monitoring of the exchange is also organised. Reports must be drafted at the end of each exchange by the host institution as well as a general annual report on all the hosting activities carried out. This latter report must be sent to the ESDC Secretariat, which must also be informed of any disputes in order to have feedback on experience with the implementation of the legal framework. The disputes themselves, regarding application or interpretation of the text, have to be solved by discussion between the institutions or the Member States. However, where there is liability, for example under criminal law, competence may be determined by the application of a Status of Forces Agreement (SOFA), whether a bilateral agreement, an EU agreement, or a NATO agreement²⁰⁹. Furthermore, the exchange students or instructors must be granted appropriate security clearance for the purposes of the training course and be granted the right to carry and handle weapons under the conditions applicable in both their home and host institutions²¹⁰. With regard to the implementation of these principles, the participating entities need to establish agreements specifying the conditions for exchanges, such as the terms and conditions of selection, the number of exchange trainees or instructors, the length of the exchange, the disciplines taught, and the teaching language. To this end, the three types of standard document can be used.

Besides these general principles, the draft document to be agreed at ministerial level also takes into account the steps taken to facilitate exchanges, such as the recognition of equivalence through accreditation. The ECTS must be expressly stated as a possibility but the text of the project leaves the door open for the

208 A memorandum of understanding has formally different legal values depending on the Member States. In some of them, it can be legally binding like a treaty (e.g. France), thus involving a rather heavy ratification procedure, while in other Member States it would not have a legal force.

209 NATO SOFA as a last resort, however.

210 In the draft Council decision, if the two conditions are incompatible, the stricter one would apply.

vocational accreditation project undertaken under line of development 1. The decision, in its current draft state and as it must be in its final form, also includes the possibility of having the Member States that do not have a national military educational structure participate in the exchange programme. Their prior consent would naturally be requested if one of their nationals is willing to participate in an exchange. This draft document seems to deal with all the driving principles of an exchange of students or training staff although leaving room for the institutions to agree on the more practical details. The principle of subsidiarity seems to apply in a way to the military education too, but it has often been suggested within the implementation group to inspire even more from this principle in including only the necessary lines in the European legal framework and leaving the (administrative) details to the bilateral implementing arrangements.

Encouragement to implement the Initiative:

On the basis of the text of the political declaration that launched this initiative, measures were prescribed for implementation at national or institutional level. The implementation group was tasked with encouraging implementation and, therefore, created line of development 6 for this purpose. Four main directions, in accordance with the declaration, are to be stressed:

- Complete and universal implementation of the actions undertaken under the Bologna process;
- Promotion and enhancement of staff and student mobility;
- Full recognition of the training activities followed by a student in another Member State and their outcome;
- Development of language courses in the military training institutes, in at least two foreign languages, in order to extend the range of potential exchanges.

At first sight, the first and second measures can be seen as similar. However, the Bologna process has effects, as described in chapters Two and Three, mainly for the academic aspects of military education. It is not appropriate, for example, to talk about organisation in study cycles for vocational training. Therefore, recognition in general was emphasised as a close, but distinct, action to be advanced.

The work on this line of development will most certainly start at the beginning of 2010, but some expectations regarding the topics to be discussed can already be defined. Regarding the measures prescribed, some directions can be suggested. First, as was concluded from the results obtained through the questionnaires, this sub-group could act as a support network for the Member States and institutions that are currently implementing or starting to implement the Bologna process in their educational policies. This implementation is, as many institutions have experienced, a long and sinuous process not only because of the internal debates and the adaptation of the definitions, but also because it means that schools enter into discussion with new actors who are not necessarily aware of the military specificities. Even among the institutions having already completed this implementation but are possibly waiting to be “certified”, room remains for improvements, for example regarding the organisation of the quality assurance systems. Therefore, this sub-group would have an important role to play in the future of military education in general if it acts as a forum for sharing best practices and favouring supportive interactions between the institutions. Sharing good practices about the implementation of an internal quality assurance system or about the definition of the ECTS accreditation through both workload and learning outcomes criteria, for example, would not only support rapid and complete implementation of the Bologna process but would also reinforce mutual trust in the foreign educational systems because the institutions would have discussed their practices together.

As a second stage of these actions, the work could possibly extend also to the discussion of best practices for the enhancement of teaching courses normally given in the national language(s) through foreign languages.

It is a sensitive issue, both institutionally and culturally. The best way to improve the attractiveness of a programme or of a curriculum should rather be discussed between the institutions. For example, a rule whereby a certain proportion of courses in the national language would have to be chosen by the exchange students apart from courses in English may emerge from these discussions and may even be included in the exchange agreements.

Finally, but not exhaustively, a proposal could be made to widen the action on the promotion of mobility to include discussion of the use of modern technologies, such as videoconferencing, in order to improve the integration of military educational systems. Through these technological means, the institutions could propose shared courses, for example. One undoubted advantage of the use of these instruments, similar to internet-based distance learning tools, would consist in cost reduction in the long term. Nevertheless, the sociological dimension of the exchange would not be met.

The lifelong dimension of military education:

Launched under the Czech Presidency of the EU during the first half of 2009, line of development 7 is dedicated to the projection of the Initiative in the long term. It aims at promoting exchanges on the basis of the existing programmes that are extensively used in civilian higher education, such as Erasmus-Socrates, Leonardo Da Vinci or Grundtvig²¹¹. The idea of this line is based on the observation, as already developed, that some military institutions have signed the Erasmus University charter without using the programme for the exchange of their military students between similar institutes. In this regard, it is very much related to line of development 6 for the promotion and enhancement aspects and can be considered as an action in line with the prescription in the political declaration that the implementation group would have to supplement the measures set out in order to promote the exchange of young officers.

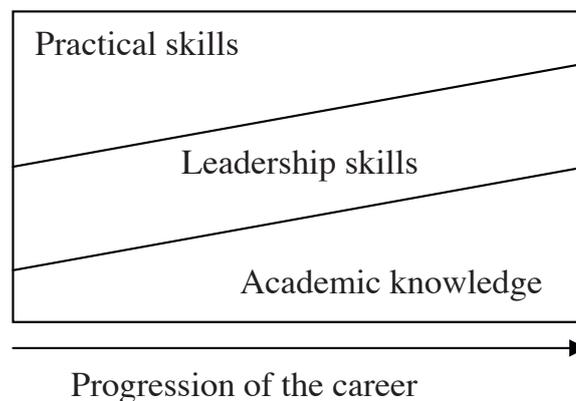
However, this line of development is more ambitious in that it is intended to facilitate exchanges at the level of overall military education, including advanced training, and not only at the level of initial education. Therefore, it is here that long-term development is aimed at, even beyond the scope of the Initiative. The legal scope of the Initiative, as defined by the Ministers of Defence in the 2008 political declaration, is limited only to initial training as we defined it in the first chapter. Pragmatically, it should be stated that it is indeed not rare in Europe to find a large international audience in a war college, for example. The reason is that the Member States, independently of the belonging to European Union, have already been exchanging officers for a long time. It is conceivably easier, due to the lack of common “rules” such as the Bologna process, to exchange officers purely via the diplomatic link that exists between two countries. There is less impact on the continuation of an officer’s career than on the curriculum of a student. For the armed forces themselves, the risk is lower if they exchange officers who have experience and have acquired the culture of their profession than if they exchange cadets who have yet to assimilate these aspects.

Nevertheless, the search for developing exchanges at the advanced level of education would be scientifically interesting. Research remains to be done at European level but one hypothesis could be that military education, including the two stages in this context, could be considered as a whole, as we concluded in the previous chapter. Therefore, the balance between academic and vocational education could be revised on the basis of the length of a military officer’s career. It could be imagined, as a practical example, that the United-Kingdom officers’ short initial education, regarding the academic aspect, be compensated for by a higher proportion of academic studies in the course of the career. Contextually, also, this hypothesis should be included in the general picture of the evolution of the officer’s profession. Starting from the armed forces’ need to recruit officers for a short career - as is the case in some Member States today because of the downsizing of the forces - the fact that long and intensive basic educational courses were set can be explained by the concern for allowing officers at the end of their contract to reconvert to the civilian

211 Grundtvig is another European exchange programme focusing on adult education.

labour market thanks to the qualifications acquired. Longer careers, on the other hand, would presuppose that the armed forces can disseminate academic knowledge at a lower rate. Vesa Nissinen²¹² established the hypothesis that, in the first stage of an officer's career, the practical skills are more important than the academic ones, because the work of the young officer is not primarily about decision and strategy. However, the more we progress in the career, the more academic knowledge is needed and the less the practical skills are to be focused on because the officers are operating much less on the field. The needs are reversed as the career progresses. According to Vesa Nissinen, only leadership stimulation has to be equally spread along the career. The following figure illustrates his statement.

Figure 4: Needs in terms of education in the progression of the officer's career



Source: Nissinen (2001)

If this hypothesis were shown to be accurate, more academic education would have to be expected at the advanced stage of education. It would mean that formal European integration, according to the spirit of the Bologna process, could also be worked on. Further work on this dimension of line of development 7 of considering military education as whole should be subject to specific stocktaking research, as was done for the initial stage of education. Indeed, we should look at the differences and the similarities between the Member States before looking at further enhancement of exchanges.

As a first step, however, we could look at the possibilities of integrating doctoral studies in the near future. They are indeed part of advanced education, as defined in the Chapter One, but in the meantime the Bologna process progressively encourages the Member States to formalise them in line with Bologna actions: qualifications, quality assurance, accreditation, etc. This may become an area to be exploited because, in doctoral studies, science is the main object and recognition is a less important concern. Therefore, European doctoral schools could be imagined for example, i.e. thematic networks proposing methodological or knowledge-related courses for doctoral students to complete their curriculum in military technical or social sciences. These schools could perhaps rationalise the existing resources of the partner institutes by allowing the professors to specialise in certain research areas, and could help to create knowledge bases through the collection of information at European level.

212 Vesa Nissinen, *Military Leadership Training, Development of Leadership Behaviour in the Finnish Defence Forces*, Publication Series I Research Reports No 18/2001 (National Defence College, Helsinki 2001), op.cit., p.16.

The need for a supportive consensus around the Initiative

Support for the Initiative

Since its inception in November 2008, the scheme has generally speaking benefited from consistent support in the form of external contributions to the Implementation Group. The Czech and Swedish EU Presidencies enabled the scheme to forge ahead by pursuing defined objectives, their support in the organisation of the Implementation Group's proceedings and by their proactive involvement in exploring new areas of activity. The Czech Presidency, for example, launched discussions on the long-term development of the initiative. The Swedish Presidency took a lead in enabling work to begin on the lines of development, including that of finding an instrument for comparing qualifications, and in helping ensure that important projects, such as the legal and political framework for future exchanges, were completed. The Spanish Presidency of the Union has already made clear its support for pursuing these efforts and for developing the scheme further. The Belgian Presidency is likely to be similarly supportive in the second half of 2010.

Apart from EU Presidencies' backing, the Initiative draws its legitimacy and dynamism from the steady support it has received from the participating States through their attendance of, and active engagement in, the various subgroups' proceedings. For structural or political reasons not all Member States participate in the scheme but by far the majority of them do, and by and large they play an active role. It may be possible in the future to suggest inviting membership from non-EU European States whose military training is built on the same principles as the Member States', principles such as the Bologna Process and participation in Erasmus. Norway could be such an invitee. On the wider level, beyond that of States, the scheme can henceforward rely on good will: the press, for example, has in general presented the scheme as a desirable step towards integrating defence policies at European level. By the same token, the Bologna Process and similar structures have contributed their experience in the mobility field. Consensus as to the Initiative's rationale appears to have taken shape, undoubtedly because the goal of integration can be viewed in both educational and defence terms. Indeed, speaking as the devil's advocate, it would seem that, by dubbing the scheme a "military Erasmus", the media have played a significant role in mustering support, since the Erasmus Programme has become the readily identifiable, widely-admired flagship of the Europeanisation of higher education.

Follow-up of the Initiative

Given the many layers of responsibility and of interests involved in developing the scheme, it is necessary to distinguish between the different follow-up practices. The stocktaking exercise conducted in this study is primarily technical, whereas the regular monitoring of progress carried out by External Relations formation of the General Affairs Council is a matter of political responsibility and interest. The Initiative is mentioned in each edition of Council conclusions on EDSP²¹³, with an account of the latest developments. This gives the Council the opportunity to express its satisfaction with progress in the scheme's implementation.

Again within the context of political responsibility and interest, during the first year of the Initiative the Secretary-General/High Representative for the CFSP, Javier Solana, reported on that progress to the meetings of Defence Ministers²¹⁴. He stressed the need for Member States' input into the scheme in the form of contributions to the Implementation Group and for ESDC structures to play an active role. In accordance with the political statement of November 2008, he submitted his progress report on implementation of the

213 Council conclusions on ESDP: 2974th meeting of the Council (External Relations), Brussels 17 November 2009; 2943rd meeting of the Council (External Relations), Brussels 18 May 2009.

214 See for example: Edited remarks by Javier Solana at the meetings of EU Defence Ministers in the framework of the General Affairs and External Relations Council, (doc. S128/09 Brussels, 18 May 2009); Edited remarks by Javier Solana at the informal meeting of EU Defence Ministers, (doc. S067/09, Prague, 13 March 2009).

Initiative to Defence Ministers on 14 May 2009²¹⁵. This report details the steps taken by the Implementation Group since its first meeting, the process of collecting data for stocktaking purposes, and presents the lines of development, on which the Group will focus in the second stage, once the quick wins have yielded their initial results. The SG/HR also endorsed the Czech proposals for the scheme in the long term and for examining the entire military lifelong training process. The bulk of this initial progress report was reproduced in the Council/European Council report on the Czech Presidency of the ESDP in June 2009²¹⁶.

The Western European Union is one of the stakeholders in the Initiative which have no direct responsibility in the political process. In May 2009, the WEU published the report "Education and training for ESDP: the military Erasmus initiative"²¹⁷, which documents the background to efforts to achieve integrated European military education, describes the initiative's operating mechanisms, and stresses the role played by the ESDC. The WEU report also tries to envisage potential obstacles in the way of implementation (e.g. whether or not educational establishments belong to the European Higher Education Area, funding of exchanges) and outlines the expectations raised by the scheme. Further to the report, a draft resolution was put to the Assembly of the WEU²¹⁸, to enable it to express its support for the Initiative. The draft resolution invited member states, and also local authorities, to fund the scheme, which could well lead to the formation of regional centres of excellence, and to promote it within the WEU and its member states.

Refining the other stakeholders' roles

The impact of the Initiative will be felt beyond the institutions. Other stakeholders will see their roles clearly transformed by its achievements.

Schools' forums are a key to ensuring the success of activities in progress: this is where trust is built up between institutions and exchange organisers. Person to person exchange of information is more reliable, less intermittent, on such forums where the partners share goals and a similar if not an identical culture. The EMACS occupies a special place among stakeholders' forums arena, as it was created at the same time as the Initiative. Unlike the Superintendents' Conference and the EUAFA, EMACS has no experience of promoting mobility in a multilateral framework. It is therefore certain to keep a close watch on the progress of the young officers' exchange scheme and reflect the latter's successes in its future activities. Experience so far of mobility discussions suggests that it will be harder to see the Initiative's impact on the other two forums (Navy and Air Force). It should be pointed out that EMACS establishments have already begun compiling a catalogue of the activities proposed for academic and vocational exchanges.

As coordinator of the scheme, the ESDC has become a key player in preparing mobility between officer initial training institutes. More than just a coordinator, the ESDC has proved to be a driving force in pursuing the scheme's objectives. However, the ESDC Secretariat is being handed more and more responsibilities in relation both to its routine training activities and to the young officers' scheme. In future yet more could be asked of it in particular as a result of the legal framework currently being planned. The ESDC seems set to become the benchmark for the quantitative assessment of progress in the scheme's implementation and also for assessing its qualitative impact on training establishments. Moreover, because some "quick wins" are not yet forthcoming, Member States appear to be less keen on starting and overseeing work on the

215 General Secretariat of the Council: European initiative on the exchange of young officers inspired by Erasmus - SG/HR report on the state of affairs (9820/09 (COSDP452)), Brussels, 14 May 2009.

216 Council - European Council, Presidency report on ESDP (10748/09 (COSDP544), Brussels 15 June 2009).

217 Assembly of the Western European Union, Reporter: Yves Pozzo di Borgo, fifty-sixth session (doc. C2041/09, 7 May 2009).

218 Resolution finally adopted by the Assembly of the WEU on June 3 2009 - "Resolution 136 on education and training for ESDP: the military Erasmus initiative".

new lines of development. The projected timeframe should reflect the slowing pace. Be that as it may, the extra responsibilities shouldered by the ESDC Secretariat must be offset in the short term by an increase in its staff, to enable it, in particular, to support the implementation of the scheme and, more generally, to fulfil the full range of its tasks.

Lastly the role of the students in promoting exchanges further needs immediate attention. Tools such as the internet platform or the Emilyo forum will empower the young officers to play their part in student mobility to the full by taking charge of their choices and debating the Initiative's objectives. At this stage of the scheme, however, their role is completely undefined. Are they merely to be passive exchangees or are they to have a say in the quantitative and qualitative improvement of the exchanges? By creating the tools for discussion, the scheme would clearly seem to attach great importance to the views of the cadets and to suggest that they could be seen as guardians of the quality of military education. While it has been agreed that there will shortly be a need for quality assurance of military education on the basis of a qualifications framework specially designed for European military education, the appropriate structures for providing that quality assurance have yet to be established. Student participation could legitimately be seen as a cornerstone of the planned quality assurance concept. It is found desirable in both the internal and external facets of quality assurance in civilian higher education. Civilian student bodies are sometimes involved indirectly²¹⁹ in evaluating the quality of military education, a fact confirmed by Member States' reports. There is, then, no reason for sidelining military students, who are the first affected by the quality of the teaching dispensed. Two options could be explored: either a body (yet to be formed) representing European military students would be integrated into existing structures in order to take part in the quality assurance of their education provision, or a specific structure would have to be set up with powers to give opinions on the various national education policies. The issue of student participation in the scheme's activities is a priority, as it will ensure its long-term survival.

Laying the first stone: learning ESDP through ESDP

In line with the third option described in Chapter 1, which combines the two fundamental aspects of the search for optimum European officer training, the pilot project launched by Portugal in September 2009 represents a first step, which is more than symbolic and therefore merits special attention.

Preparation of the ESDP seminar pilot project

In April 2009 the Portuguese Defence Ministry informed his counterparts represented in the Implementation Group that he intended to organise a week-long seminar on ESDP for Portuguese cadets and for their European counterparts. The purpose was to inform them on how ESDP worked and the challenges it faced in an environment conducive to European interaction. With the ESDC's help, Portugal's three military academies (Navy, Army and Air Force) began planning the seminar in two parts. As a first step, the participants could learn about the ESDP, a relatively unfamiliar subject at their level of study, using a distance learning module (Internet-based distance learning module - IDL) routinely used by the ESDC. As a second step, they were invited to attend a residential module with a pre-established programme. The conduct of the seminar and the achievement of its objectives were then evaluated according to a four-tier process based on the model developed by Donald Kirkpatrick²²⁰ for following up professional training learning modules:

- Evaluation of participants' satisfaction (level 1);
- Evaluation of what has been learnt during the course (level 2);

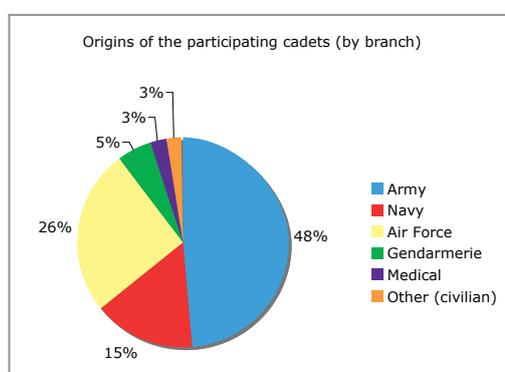
219 Through participation in external quality assessment structures, such as the European University Association (EUA).

220 Kirkpatrick, D. L., & Kirkpatrick, J. D., *Evaluating Training Programs: The Four Levels*. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler, 1998.

- Evaluation of what the participant has learnt with regard to what he has to do in his/her professional position (level 3);
- Evaluation of the outcomes of the course for the organisation which required the participant's attendance (level 4).

The seminar was assessed externally by analysing questionnaires distributed to the participants and with the physical presence of the evaluator. The final lessons learnt from this assessment were expected to be useful for staging similar events in the future.

39 participants from 18 Member States responded to the Portuguese Defence Minister's invitation, which was sent to defence colleges, academies and universities providing training for young officers. The analysis of the Lisbon seminar participants' profiles illustrates the interest in ESDP as a field of knowledge and research. All branches of the armed forces, indeed, were represented at the seminar, as shown in the following figure.

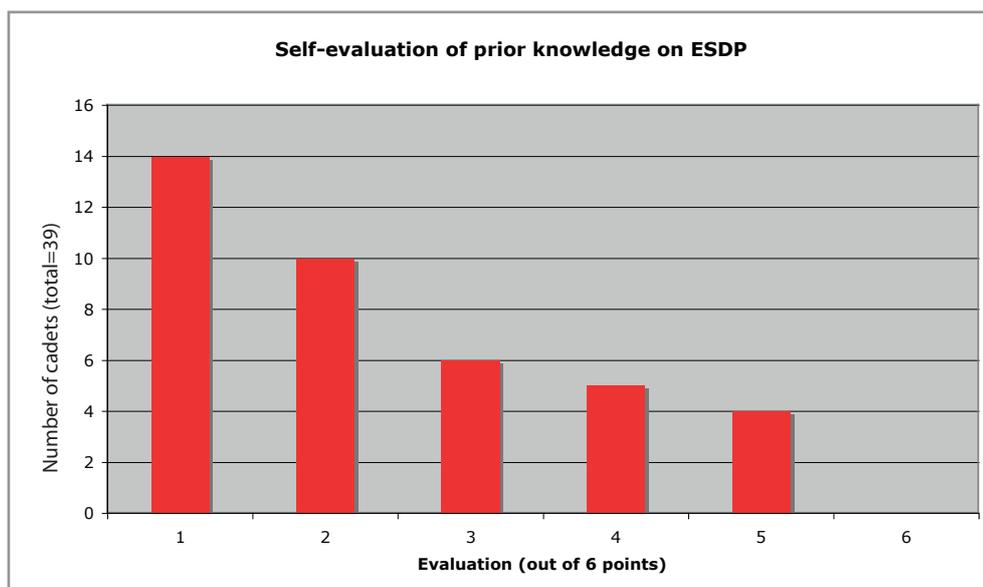


The cadets came from very varied academic backgrounds, which suggested that a range of views would be represented in the debates and discussions during the residential module. Their current educational levels and their academic interests are summarised in the table below:

	Technical sciences	Social Sciences, Politics, Economics	Other fields	Total	% (39 participants)
First cycle	12	10	3	25	64,1 %
Second cycle	3	7	4	14	35,9 %
Total	15	17	7	39	
% of the total (39 participants)	38,5 %	43,6 %	17,9 %		100 %

The participants' views on the ESDP or European integration in general were not investigated at the beginning of the seminar; if they had been, it would have given another hint as to their level of knowledge or the opinions that would be expressed in the post-lecture discussions. The questions that the students put to the lecturers did not reveal any clear tendency for or against the Europeanisation of security and defence. This can certainly be explained by the fact this was the first time that most of the cadets²²¹ had encountered the ESDP in their studies. This impression was confirmed (see figure below) when they were asked for a self-assessment of their prior knowledge of the subject:

221 Three quarters of the participants according to their answers to the questionnaires.



These data show that young officers in training are unfamiliar with the ESDP as an academic subject but that it arouses, generally, their interest or at least their curiosity.

Distance learning: a tool for teaching ESDP

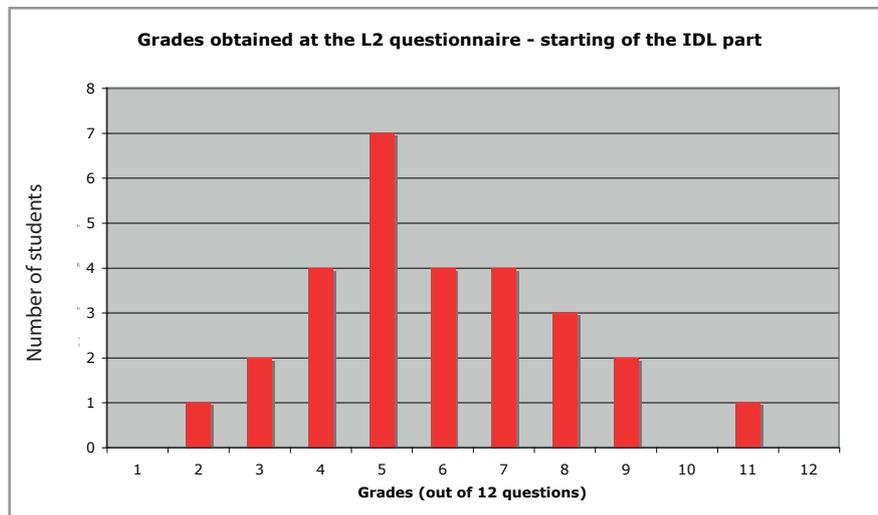
The seminar's organisers opted for an IDL module from the European Security and Defence College for introducing the cadets to the ESDP; the module was available on a database hosted by the Belgian Royal Military College. The students had to complete the module (available for three weeks) in order to receive the seminar diploma.

Two thematic sections (autonomous knowledge units - AKUs) were selected from the ESDC's distance learning course:

- *History and context of the EDSP (AKU1)*, which provides explanations and descriptive documents on developments from the origins of cooperation (creation of the WEU, European cooperation, the shaping of CFSP) to building the ESDP (foundations and relationship to the CFSP);
- *the European Security Strategy (AKU2)*, which starts in the pre-ESS period, continues with adoption process, content, main contribution, role and impact of the ESS and finishes with a look ahead to revision of the document.

These AKUs are concise lessons, which provide an overview of the topics together with recommendations for further reading in the form of - mostly short - documents illustrating and explaining in detail the milestones of the ESDP and the discussions surrounding the policy. They are produced for the ESDC's many and various training activities by highly-rated scientific institutions with an international reputation, such as the Geneva Centre for Security Policy (AKU1) and the Egmont Royal Institute for International Relations (AKU2). For this reason, evaluation of the seminar concentrated not on the content of the distance-learning units but on their suitability for a course for cadets.

At the start of their distance-learning course, the participants were asked to fill in a knowledge questionnaire produced by the organisers; this was to be the baseline²²² for assessing level 2 progress on the Kirkpatrick model. As the following figure shows, the results unequivocally confirm that few participants in the course had been exposed to ESDP topics during their studies. The average mark at entry was 4,2 out of 12, and the median was 6.

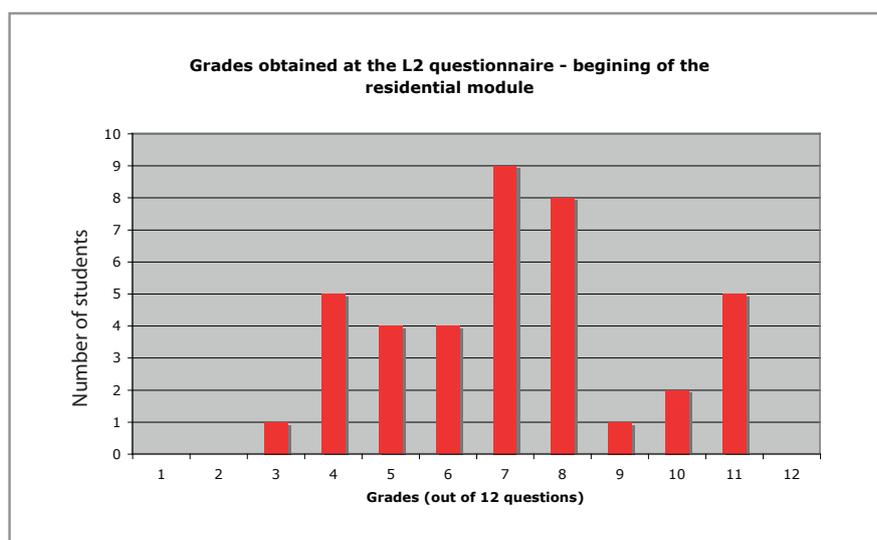


The cadets were then asked to complete the AKUs; having completed each AKU, they took a short test to assess their understanding of the subject covered before passing to the next stage. As learning aids, the cadets could use a knowledge base (*ESDP-K base*), accessible from the IDL home page, which contained a series of documents on the ESDP, its decision-making process and its institutions, and links to the sites of eminent scientific establishments and societies. A forum, moderated by the ESDC, was also opened so that they could report any technical or study problems encountered during this part of the course. At the end of this process the students were asked to reply to a satisfaction questionnaire.

The level of satisfaction may on the whole be considered excellent. 82 % of the students were “very” or “generally” satisfied and even if most had no point of reference for studying the ESDP, their comments were very positive. The comments highlighted, in particular, the students’ appreciation of the flexibility of distance learning, which most of them had never experienced and which they saw as enabling them to become familiar with the terminology of ESDP and also to improve their English. The quantity and quality of the background documents and the detailed information they contained were also much appreciated. However, the technical terms and the level of English used were felt by some students to have hampered learning. Constructive suggestions for the future, from the participants themselves, included using figures and tables to summarise and illustrate the main information content of the AKUs and, for the historical parts of the units in particular, to use chronological lists or tables.

The teaching goals of the introduction to the ESDP/CSDP - albeit measured by the participants’ own perceptions - were thus attained. This perception was confirmed by the results of the second knowledge evaluation carried out at the very beginning of the residential module of the seminar. The questions were basically unchanged but their order had been altered to preclude reflex answers. The average grade rose from 4,2 to 7,1 with only 25 % of the participants now under the grade of 6 out of 12.

222 This questionnaire was not a test of knowledge: it was not formulated to reflect the course content but as a general overview of the ESDP. Nevertheless, all the topics covered by the questions were in the end dealt with in the IDL or residential modules.



The residential module

Teaching Europe

ESDP/CSDP, which is primarily a field of research and academic knowledge, has to be presented according to sound teaching methods especially to cadets who are undergoing initial training and have no hands-on experience of their work. The organisers' aim in this seminar was not only to deliver knowledge, skills and competences but, as far as possible, also to present cases of experience on the ground with which these future officers could identify.

Delivering knowledge on ESDP: resources and support²²³

On their arrival in Lisbon participants received a welcome package containing educational material from various European sources²²⁴. This documentation supplemented and illustrated, sufficiently and appropriately, the content of the programme and the lectures planned on the various topics: institutions and decision-making processes, strategic concepts, capabilities, operations, future developments of the ESDP, etc.

In addition to providing written resources, the organisers had the demanding task of selecting speakers for the residential module. 32 speakers were invited from most disparate fields of ESDP, which naturally influenced their manner of conveying their expertise. A strong minority were from the scientific or academic community and therefore presumed able to communicate in ways that would be accessible to the students. This is of course an assumption. The majority of the speakers were from operational backgrounds and equally able to convey their hands-on experiences, something much appreciated by the cadets in general. The imbalance was greater between civilian and military speakers invited, with the latter outnumbering the former. This may have been because it was presumed that military speakers would relate to the cadets more effectively than would civilians, albeit at the risk of undermining the idea that the ESDP involves civilian-military cooperation. The more likely reason for the imbalance is an organisational one, it being easier for the organising team to contact and use military speakers when working to short deadlines.

223 As part of the young officers' exchange scheme, the quick win I set up a teaching support system for use in running seminars of this type. However, the outcome of this work was finalised only after the organisers had established the main points of the Lisbon pilot project. The system is now available to schools which need assistance in organising courses for their students or for an international event.

224 Council of the EU, EU Institute for Security Studies, European Defence Agency, European Parliament.

Similarly, and certainly for the same reasons of expediency, the imbalance in the speakers' nationalities was at least as marked as that between their civilian/military provenance. The great majority were Portuguese, although some of them were EU officials rather than from the military. Some participants suggested in the satisfaction questionnaires that more use be made of such external resources. In the last analysis, however, the participants benefited from the full array of teaching expertise on the ESDP.

Delivering skills

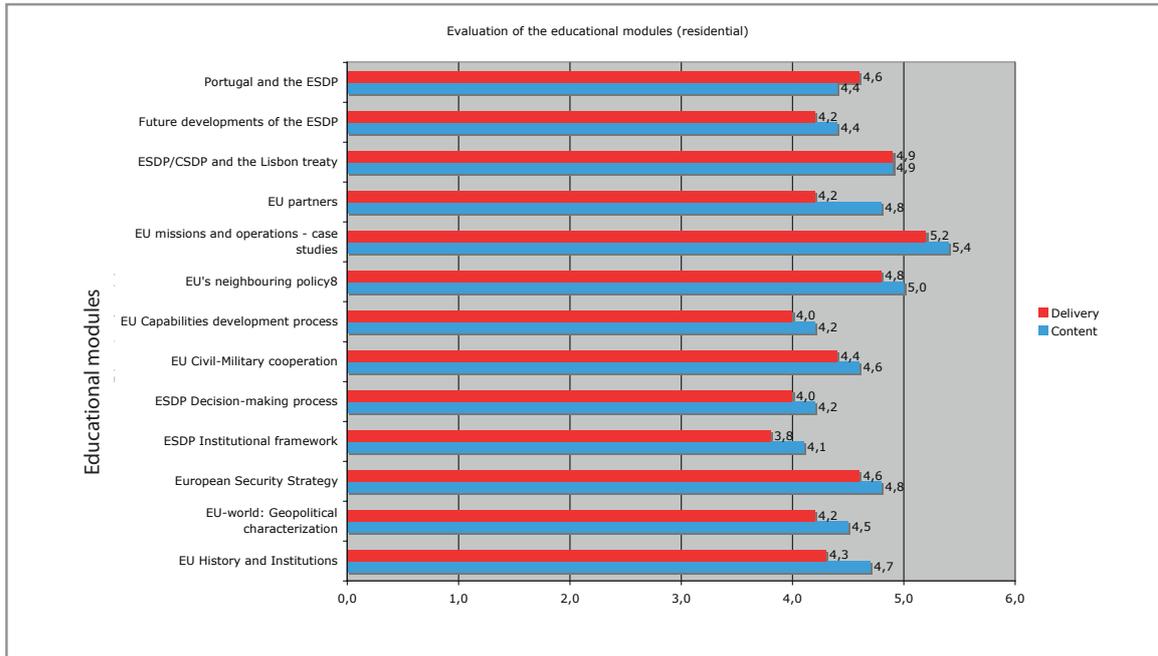
ESDP-related knowledge:

After discussing the matter with the ESDC Secretariat, Portugal's three military academies decided to propose 13 topics which they all agreed would provide beginners in the field with an appropriate overview of ESDP-related problems:

- EU history and institutions
- EU and the world: geopolitical characterisation
- European Security Strategy
- EU institutional framework
- EU decision-making process
- EU civil-military cooperation
- EU capabilities development process
- EU neighbourhood policy
- EU missions and operations - case studies
- EU partners
- ESDP/CSDP and the Treaty of Lisbon
- Future developments of the ESDP
- Portugal and the ESDP.

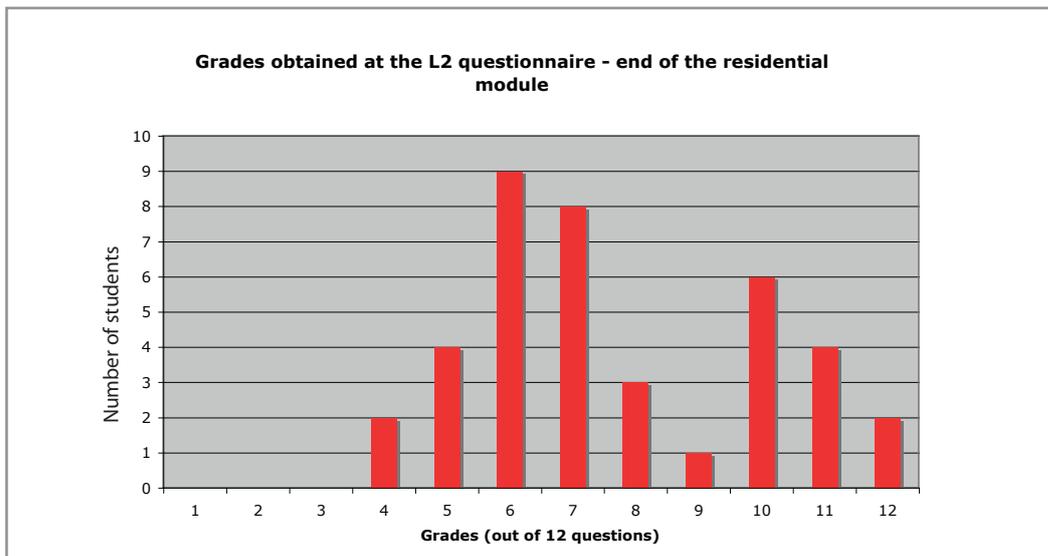
On the whole, participants found the topics both appropriate and useful. The positive feedback *via* the questionnaires showed that the participants had understood the political and strategic mechanisms of the ESDP; this was particularly true of first level tertiary students (undergraduates). Regarding usefulness more specifically, a majority of the participants observed that in some cases there was not enough interaction between speakers and students or that the presenters' English was too weak to convey the information; these are risks of any teaching exercise. The comments on teaching methods (delivery) were more abundant and suggested that future seminars of this type should also focus on group and practical work and that theory should be more often linked with experience on the ground for illustrative purposes. Here again, there were calls for more interaction between students and speakers, in addition to the question and answer sessions, and also among the students themselves during the thematic modules.

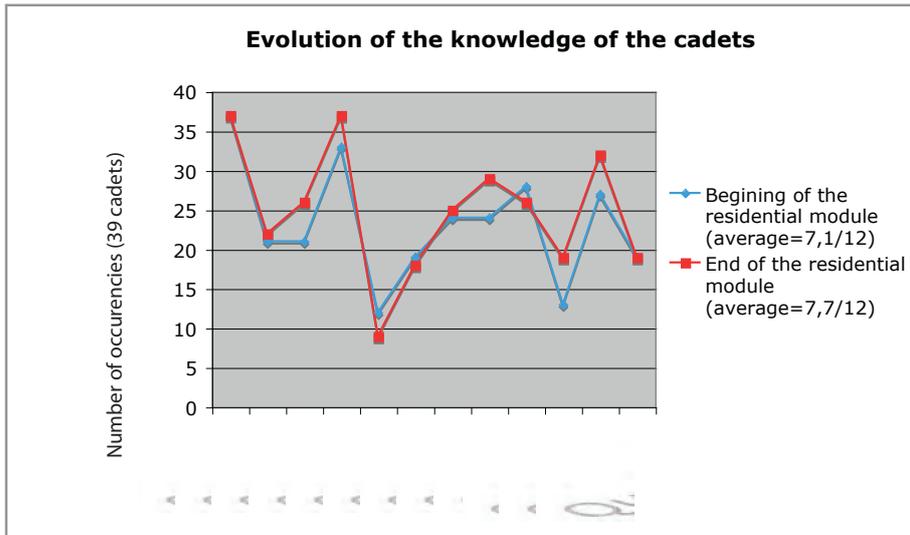
As is to be expected, the participants rated some topics as more successful than others, as shown in the figure below:



Generally speaking, with the exception of the last topic (Portugal and the ESDP), which seems to have been a positive surprise for the participants, the content of the modules, i.e. how fitting to the general framework of the seminar, seems to have been more appreciated than the delivery. This observation was confirmed by the participants' comments, which mostly concerned teaching methods but also the level of difficulty at which the topics were pitched; some students found them too detailed. Although these were the views of a minority, albeit substantial, such comments inevitably raise the question of the appropriate profile of participants in similar seminars in future and/or that of how specialised the topics should be.

At the end of the residential module the cadets' knowledge was reassessed using the same questionnaire. Between the start and finish of this residential module the average rose by "only" 0,5 points (from 7,1 to 7,6 out of 12), but the top and bottom grades improved (see figure below): the lowest grade increased from 3 to 4 out of 12 and the highest from 11 to 12 out of 12. There was a similar upward shift in the distribution of the students in relation to the yardstick grade of 6 out of 12, with only 15 % now under 6.

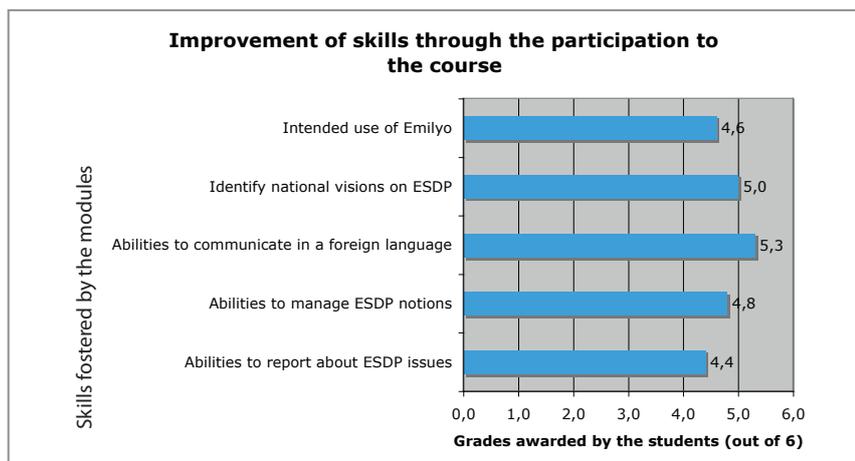




The breakdown of the results of the knowledge questionnaire²²⁵, (see above figure) shows that the main improvements, since the start of the residential module, were in the cadets' knowledge of history, institutions, capabilities and operations, whereas on their general knowledge of the decision-making process and the ESS their grades fell. This may be explained by the confusion felt during the presentations (see above) but certainly also owes something to the circumstances in which the third evaluation was carried out, i.e. late on the final day of the seminar, just before the participants left for their last evening in Lisbon, when they were no longer under pressure to perform in order to obtain their diplomas.

The skills and competences of future ESDP players:

A precondition for the evaluation process²²⁶ was to identify the skills that can be expected of future officers who may, one day, hold the keys to the conduct of ESDP on the ground. This entailed work on predefining the essential skills that would enable participants to extend their knowledge and improve their practice of ESDP once their training was completed. The following figure shows the skills that were identified and the participants' perceived progress as a result of attending the seminar (measured on a scale of certainty from 0 to 6).

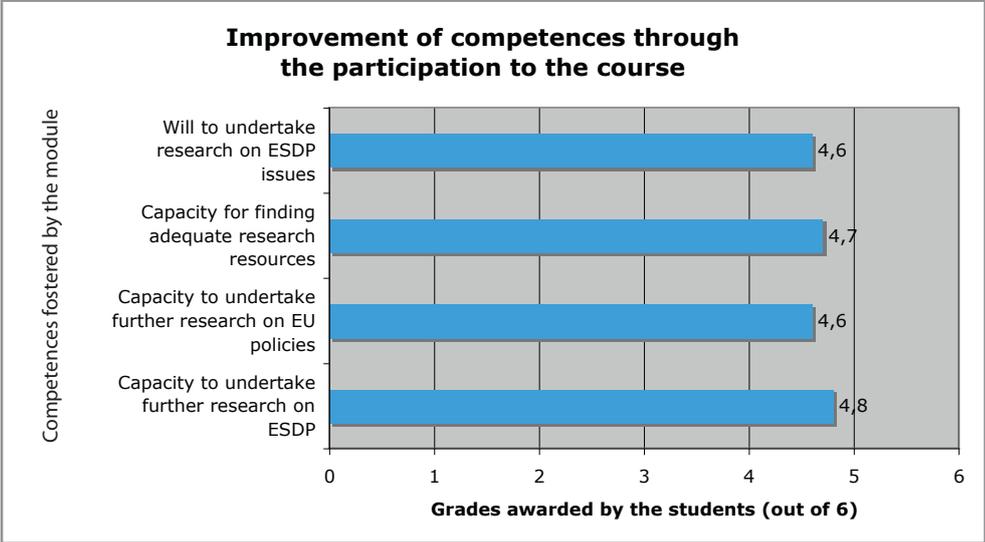


225 No breakdown of the results of the first questionnaire - administered electronically at the start of the distance-learning module - was possible, because they were aggregate results.

226 The Kirkpatrick model (level 3) could not be followed literally, since these trainee officers would be returning to training after the seminar and not to a job. The contribution of training to the performance on the job is therefore deferred. The evaluation anticipates the potential contribution.

It should be noted that the participants felt that there had been a marked improvement in their foreign language skills - in this case English - as a result of attending the seminar. Their ability to identify differences in national visions of ESDP, a corollary of their interpersonal skills, was also strongly highlighted.

The comments reflected general agreement that the Emilyo discussion forum, created as part of the young officers' exchange initiative, was potentially an important communication tool, but more for obtaining documentation than for socialising²²⁷. Moreover, a majority of the cadets stressed that, knowing little about the ESDP when they started the seminar, the latter had helped them to improve their ability to report on ESDP issues, in particular on the institutions and the decision-making processes. Some participants, however, suggested that their ability to distinguish between perceptions or views on the ESDP could have been developed even further if more time had been dedicated to discussion among the participants rather than only with the speakers. Lastly, the rating of progress in the ability to report on ESDP matters, which was in fact quite good, is to our mind attributable to problems in grasping certain rather specialised topics. These statements are summarized in the figure below.



Any observations on improvements in competences, meaning taking responsibility for maintaining knowledge and skills in the long term, based on the above figure have to be linked to the earlier findings. The participants' feelings about improved capacity to undertake further research on EU policies can be explained by the correspondingly weaker interest expressed in the more EU specific topics, such as its history, institutions and decision-making processes. Similarly, as their comments made clear, even though students felt that their competences had improved, their determination to undertake further research on ESDP issues was dependent on broader factors, including their fields of specialisation²²⁸ and the programme proposed by their training institutions. On the whole, they attributed improvements in their research skills not only to the diverse resources to which they had had access but also to their improved capacity to communicate in a foreign language.

Learning in a European environment

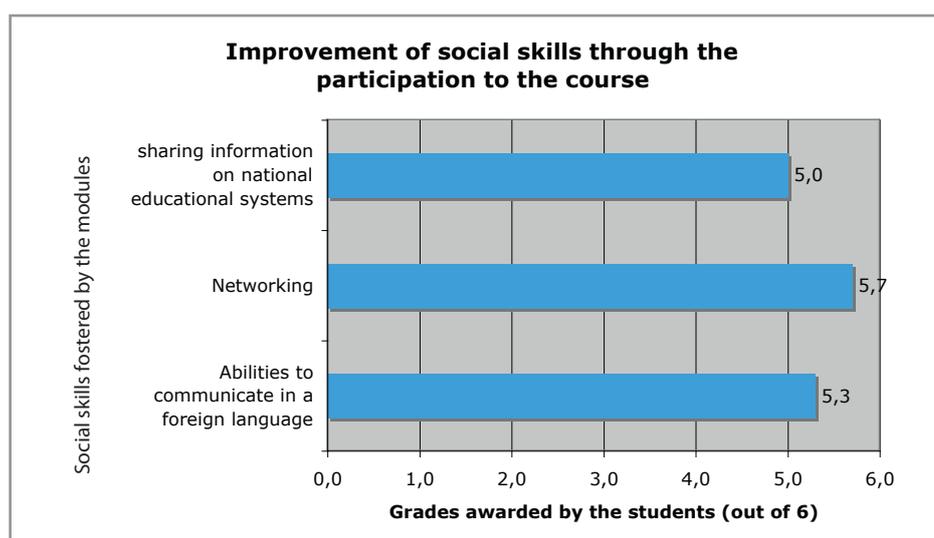
The social aspect of this ESDP seminar was its most remarkable strong point. The organisers' aim was that the participants should experience the ESDP as living and working together. The organisation (resources, logistics, working areas) and the social content of the course were highly rated in the satisfaction surveys.

227 It emerged that the participants did in fact use Emilyo almost exclusively for retrieving documents.
 228 Especially for those studying technical sciences.

Students, whether from technical or social studies backgrounds, were unanimous in underlining the success of the seminar's social dimension, demonstrating that the ESDP can be both a subject of serious study and contribute to the future officers' leadership training.

The residential module was interactive from the day the participants arrived in Lisbon. They were invited to visit Lisbon and its environs and to engage with the life of the city, with Portugal and with its history and culture. Although fairly informal, the visits had an underlying theme, namely the history of power, from the foundation of the Portuguese state, to the navigators' conquests and up to the XXIst century. In addition, the thematic modules took place in the three military academies, which enabled all the participants - irrespective of branch - to identify with the seminar and to get a glimpse of the lives of their Portuguese colleagues. Socialising among the cadets was also encouraged by the fact that the organisers had deliberately mixed nationalities when they allocated accommodation. First and foremost the Portuguese cadets played a very active role at all stages of the seminar and in ensuring their colleagues were at ease, especially when discovering Lisbon by night...

In the questionnaire section based on level 3 of the Kirkpatrick evaluation model, participants rated their improvement in the social skills enabling them to fulfil their future role as European officers. The participants' average assessments (see figure below) show high perceived rates of improvement.



The participants' comments emphasised that the Emilyo forum could also be used for staying in touch with people met through the seminar and, looking to similar events in the future, that greater stress should be laid on peer discussion in the thematic courses. Otherwise social interaction appears to have been optimum and to have flowed naturally; most of the negative comments related to the formation of closed groups.

In fact few suggestions could be made regarding the social aspects of such a seminar, except that of adding a third stage to the IDL and residential modules, extending the seminar to consolidate the effect on skills over a longer period. Another proposal would be for participants to forge an alumni link, as with most ESDC activities, possibly connected to Emilyo. Such a link would strengthen the ties that the students had formed and give them a longer-term perspective.

Lessons learnt

The overall level of satisfaction with the pilot project as a whole was excellent. The participants gave the seminar an average rating of 5,1 out of 6. All the comments made on the conduct of the seminar, both IDL and residential parts, confirmed that the students' quite considerable workload made a real contribution

to these future officers' qualifications. For the purposes of the Bologna process, these are the two defining components in order for a course to receive ECTS accreditation. It is to be hoped that the training institutes which sent their cadets to Lisbon will recognise the value of the course, at least in principle, by awarding them ECTS credits²²⁹, naturally in accordance with their own criteria. Kirkpatrick level 4 type evaluation will observe this hoped-for recognition of the confidence that they placed in the three Portuguese academies.

On the strength of their experience of this week-long seminar entirely devoted to the ESDP, the students came up with several suggestions for improving the seminar in the future. The main proposals were to:

- Invite more speakers from EU bodies;
- Bring together students from all 27 Member States;
- Allocate more time to the question and answer sessions;
- Allocate more time to peer discussion;
- Pitch certain subjects at a lower level of specialisation (and difficulty);
- Make the residential module less theoretical, more practical;
- Spread the seminar over a longer period;
- Organise it again for others.

A survey consisting of direct interviews with the students and the organisers was conducted to supplement the questionnaires; this also yielded a number of ideas for the future.

The speakers rarely linked the content of their presentations with the IDL module. In order to attenuate the feeling voiced by some participants that the courses were hard to follow, it might have been helpful to refer to what students already knew. This would undoubtedly ensure greater consistency and coherence between the various teaching materials, e.g. between the IDL, the welcome pack and the lectures, and would require participants to use all the resources provided, which they could possibly see as adjunctive course material. Potential speakers could be asked to consult those different resources and base their presentations on what the students had already learnt. The alternative would be to select the profiles of participants in such seminars, a trickier option given that officer training in Europe is far from being standardised.

The interviews with the organising team revealed the importance of the "train the trainers" seminar. While, on the whole, the team had found attendance of the seminar extremely useful in terms of content, as they had all been able to update their knowledge on the ESDP. The organisers stressed that the seminar had also given them the opportunity to make contact with the ESDC Secretariat and to draw on its expertise to define the programme and its objectives. But they also observed that the seminar could have focused specifically on discussing the possible shapes of the module and the practical implications of choosing one or other of them: teaching given in a single period or spread over a longer period, e.g. a semester. In the same formal way, it can be suggested to create a specific database of the pedagogic resources the different military institutes may make available to their European partners for the organisation of these seminars. The search for lecturers from various academic backgrounds is a difficult task for an institution and a networking

229 The organisers' intention was to award 1,5 ECTS credits for attendance of the seminar and for a note to be added to the supplement to the diploma issued on completion of the student's studies.

logic shall be looked forward as a next step. A phonebook of the scientist working on ESDP/CSDP related issues, describing their respective fields of specialisation, seem a first supportive step to this end. In the mean time, such a database could also serve the purpose of the creation of a European CSDP doctoral school, as we suggested it earlier in this Chapter, and inspire the implementation of similar databases and networks for the other modules that would be created through the Initiative.

Another idea, suggested by the participants themselves, would be to develop peer interaction yet further, by providing for group work during the residential module or - given the time constraints and that all subjects may be considered essential - by adding a third part to the seminar. After the IDL and residential modules, it could be proposed that students work in a group on a practical task, e.g. preparing an ESDP mission, and integrate this work into the seminar, for example by handing in a piece of written work some time after the residential part. This would not only enable them to keep up the contacts that they had made but would also stimulate their interest in the ESDP in the longer term and use the skills and competences they had acquired in the seminar. Practically speaking, the additional stage would require little extra organisation apart from correction of the students' work, which could perhaps even be published. In view of the success of the pilot project, we should be thinking in terms of "when" rather than "if" the seminar is to be repeated.

Conclusions

A little over a year from its launch the Initiative can certainly claim to have achieved encouraging results in promoting exchanges of young officers Europe-wide. The work of the subgroups during the first, "quick wins", phase enabled the Implementation Group to lay the scheme's foundations; this consisted in tailoring the ESDP module produced by the ESDC to an audience of young officers, devising the technological tools needed for the discussions, preparing a legal and administrative framework for promoting the exchanges, and designing further common training modules for the cadets.

After the initial findings of the present study had been disseminated, a second phase began, in which efforts focused on finalising and developing the activities of the Implementation Group. Work has already started on setting up an accreditation system to enable vocational exchanges to develop, devising an instrument for comparing the qualifications offered by the different establishments, adapting the technical tools to perform information searches on education systems, and developing the Initiative in the long term. Commonly to many of these lines, the discussions shall give a particular importance to quality assurance, either as a means (e.g. ensuring mutual confidence regarding a vocational training specific accreditation) or as an objective (e.g. the discussion on common qualification references, which will eventually be the basis for a common view on quality of military education) of action. In order to guarantee the relevance and the long-term efficiency of the actions undertaken by the Initiative, quality assurance shall be a key word. Besides, other work should start at the beginning of 2010 on attaining both the goals set out in the political statement and the complementary objectives pursued by the implementing structures.

The scheme has already produced a real impact on young officers' mobility. The initial successes are promising, not merely symbolic. Repetition of events such as the European seminar on ESDP should make success permanent. It is henceforth clear that the Defence Ministers' hopes will be fulfilled, and that the European young officers' exchange initiative would be the cornerstone of an emerging European security and defence culture.

General conclusions:

The European initiative for the exchange of young officers, inspired by Erasmus, which covers exchanges during initial training and exchanges of teaching staff from military training colleges, is already bearing fruit. At this stage of implementation, this is primarily evident as regards its role in paving the way for exchanges of future military elites. In this study we have tried to identify those components of institutions' training policies which relate to membership of the European Higher Education Area, which most have joined or are in the process of joining, and those which relate to specific national circumstances. The integration of civilian higher education in Europe has spin-off benefits for military training. By adopting the same forms as its civilian counterpart, military training will gradually acquire the wherewithal for student mobility. However, specific military requirements remain a reality to which these forms are not geared. As things stand at present, it is not possible to talk of a Bologna process in respect of vocational training for young officers. This initiative must therefore act as a think tank on instruments for mutual recognition, the only foundation for European trust in exchanges.

The civilian institutions and the States taking part in the process are themselves encountering difficulties and setbacks in putting what has been approved into practice. Military academies have not been left behind and have been pro-active in implementing the Bologna process, despite the fact that it was not primarily designed for them. Now they are even being inventive, within the Initiative's framework, by creating mutual recognition instruments, as required, for areas which are not covered by the process and making quality assurance a key word of their achievements.

In more philosophical terms, recognition is the core issue for the emergence of a military science that can set military educational institutions apart from their civilian equivalents. Initial training of young officers has to be seen as an indivisible whole if it is to become a science. Educational reforms begun in the Member States sometimes glossed over this initially in the interests of "regularising" forms of academic training to fit the rules of the Bologna process. Moreover, initial training is often the responsibility of several institutions. The large number of players involved complicates the organisation and implementation of exchanges, without impeding them, and has tended to slow down the emergence of this military science. Nowadays, however, a European officer has to be as much thinker as military technician, in principle. Ideally, therefore, in order to give young officers true experience of another country's defence culture and a knowledge of their future colleagues, exchanges should ideally include both of these aspects of training, where structurally possible.

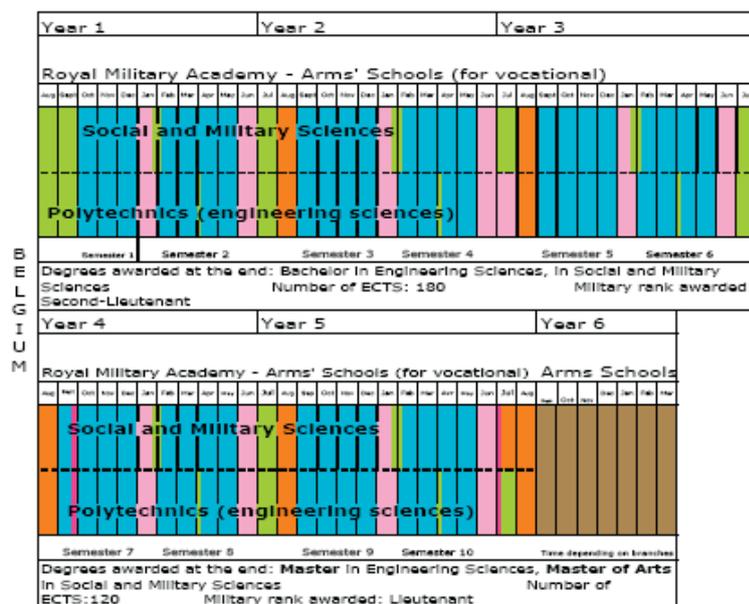
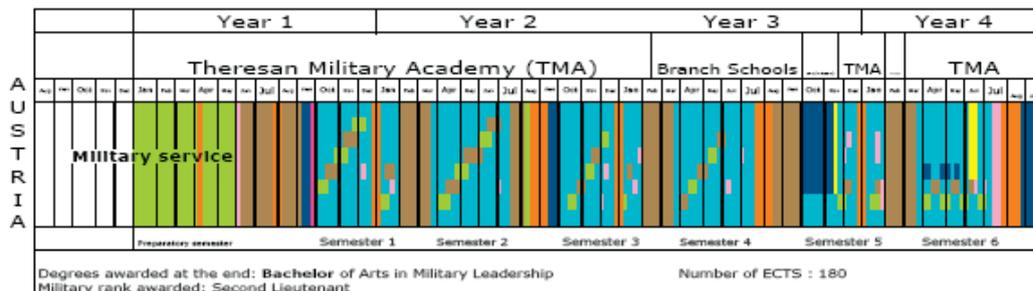
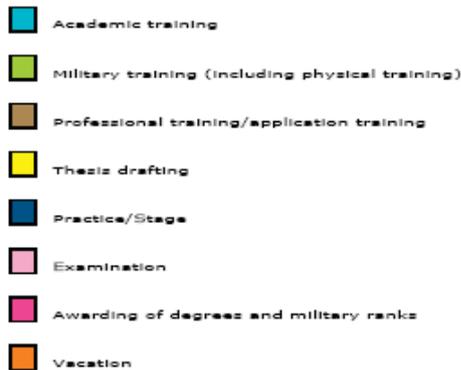
Just a year after its launch, the Initiative has achieved tangible results and has already enabled future officers to familiarise themselves with their role in potential EU operations but, above all, with the environment in which they will carry out most of their missions, beyond the simple EDSP/CSDP framework. Work is continuing, thanks to the efforts of the Member States, their training colleges and the ESDC, to make mobility not just a mere necessity, but a real part of the training of these officers in the making, and the mutual confidence in the European area a reality of the field. This effort is supported by a consensus and a long-term vision, but now it has to be supported by continuous updating of the data on which these activities are based and by putting in place the means to coordinate these exchanges properly. A little over 20 years since the launch of the Community's Erasmus programme, military training seeks to emulate its success, to build the European Security and Defence Policy of tomorrow. Although the success of Erasmus is the result of a long process of gestation, it shows the way forward and augurs well for the Initiative. Finally, it is worth mentioning that the Initiative itself and its achievements are a source of inspiration for other similar projects. At the beginning of 2010, indeed, a draft council conclusions document²³⁰ was issued, also claiming an inspiration from the Erasmus programme with view to enhance mobility of law enforcement officers.

230 Draft Council conclusions on the Erasmus-style exchange programme for law enforcement officers (document 5025/1/10 rev.1), 9 February 2010.

Annex:

the organisation of time in European basic officers' education (reproduction of schedules)

Army branch:



B
U
L
G
A
R
I
A

Year 1			Year 2			Year 3			Year 4														
National Military University "Vassil Levski"																							
Aug	Oct	Jan	Apr	Jul	Aug	Oct	Jan	Apr	Jul	Aug	Oct	Jan	Apr	Jul	Aug	Oct	Jan	Apr	Jul	Aug			
Semester 1			Semester 2			Semester 3			Semester 4			Semester 5			Semester 6			Semester 7			Semester 8		
Degrees awarded at the end: Bachelor in military sciences (mechanized units, engineering, communication techniques, computer systems, logistics and economy, technical logistics) Number of ECTS: 240 Military rank awarded: Lieutenant																							
Year 5																							
National Military University "Vassil Levski"																							
Aug	Oct	Jan	Apr	Jul	Aug	Oct	Jan	Apr	Jul	Aug	Oct	Jan	Apr	Jul	Aug	Oct	Jan	Apr	Jul	Aug			

C
Y
P
R
U
S

See curricula organised by Greece

U
N
I
T
E
D
-
K
I
N
G
D
O
M

Year 1			Year X								
Royal Military Academy of Sandhurst Arms schools, then units											
Aug	Oct	Jan	Apr	Jul	Aug	Oct	Jan	Apr	Jul	Aug	
			Infantry (Brecon)								
			Armour (Bovington)								
			Artillery (Larkhill)								
			Aviation (Middle Wallop)								
			Engineering (Chatham)								
			Logistics (Worthy Down)								
			Policy and guarding (Southwick Park)								
Degrees awarded at the end: None (civilian higher education individual background)											
Military rank awarded: NK											

C
Z
E
C
H

R
E
P
U
B
L
I
C

Year 1												Year 2												Year 3												Year 3 +		
University of Defence												UoD												UoD												Military Academy		
Aug	Nov	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Nov	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Nov	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Oct	Nov
[Colorful bars representing course schedule]												[Colorful bars representing course schedule]												[Colorful bars representing course schedule]												Master: training at military facilities and then active		
[Colorful bars representing course schedule]												[Colorful bars representing course schedule]												[Colorful bars representing course schedule]												Master: see second part of calendars		
Degrees awarded at the end: Bachelor in Military Management and National Defence Economics, Bachelor in Military Technology																																						
Number of ECTS : 150												Military rank awarded: Sergeant, OR-7																										
Year 4												Year 5																										
University of Defence												UoD												UoD														
Aug	Nov	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Nov	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Nov	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul			
Economics and management												[Colorful bars representing course schedule]												[Colorful bars representing course schedule]														
Military technology												[Colorful bars representing course schedule]												[Colorful bars representing course schedule]														
Degrees awarded at the end: Master in Economics and Management, Master in Military Technology (Engineers)																																						
Number of ECTS: 120												Military rank awarded: Second Lieutenant (2 Lt), OF-1																										

E
S
T
O
N
I
A

Year 1												Year 2												Year 3																							
National Defence College																																															
Aug	Nov	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Nov	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Nov	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul												
Synchronisation Course												[Colorful bars representing course schedule]												[Colorful bars representing course schedule]																							
Service in units for at least 3 years before master education																																															
Semester 1						Semester 2						Semester 3						Semester 4						Semester 5						Semester 6																	
Degrees awarded at the end: professional higher education diploma (graduation) - land forces																																															
Specialty: Second Lieutenant												Number of ECTS: 186 ECTS												Military rank awarded:																							
Year 1												Year 2																																			
National Defence College																																															
Aug	Nov	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Nov	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul																								
[Colorful bars representing course schedule]												[Colorful bars representing course schedule]																																			
Semester 1												Semester 2												Semester 3												Semester 4											
Degrees awarded at the end: Master degree in social sciences																																															
Number of ECTS: 120 ECTS												Military rank awarded: not bounded with a military rank																																			

Year 1												Year 2												Year 3															
ACADEMIA GENERAL MILITAR (ZARAGOZA)																																							
Aug	Oct	Nov	Jan	Feb	Apr	Jun	Jul	Aug	Oct	Nov	Jan	Feb	Apr	Jun	Jul	Aug	Oct	Nov	Jan	Feb	Apr	Jun	Jul	Aug	Oct	Nov	Jan	Feb	Apr	Jun	Jul	Aug	Oct	Nov	Jan	Feb	Apr	Jun	Jul
Semester 1						Semester 2						Semester 3						Semester 4						Semester 5						Semester 6									
Year 4												Year 5																											
ACADEMIA GENERAL MILITAR (ZARAGOZA)												MILITARY BRANCHES ACADEMIES: Infantry (Toledo), Cavalry (Valladolid), Artillery (Segovia), Engineers (Hoyo de Manzanares)																											
Aug	Oct	Nov	Jan	Feb	Apr	Jun	Jul	Aug	Oct	Nov	Jan	Feb	Apr	Jun	Jul	Aug	Oct	Nov	Jan	Feb	Apr	Jun	Jul	Aug	Oct	Nov	Jan	Feb	Apr	Jun	Jul	Aug	Oct	Nov	Jan	Feb	Apr	Jun	Jul
Semester 7						Semester 8						5th year yet to be designed (transition towards new curriculum)																											
Degrees awarded at the end: Bachelor graduate (from 2010 onward) in Industrial engineering, military specialization in Infantry, Cavalry, Artillery, Engineering, Signals Number of ECTS: 240 Military rank awarded: Lieutenant																																							

Year 1												Year 2												Year 3															
Civilian universities or preparatory classes																																							
Aug	Oct	Nov	Jan	Feb	Apr	Jun	Jul	Aug	Oct	Nov	Jan	Feb	Apr	Jun	Jul	Aug	Oct	Nov	Jan	Feb	Apr	Jun	Jul	Aug	Oct	Nov	Jan	Feb	Apr	Jun	Jul	Aug	Oct	Nov	Jan	Feb	Apr	Jun	Jul
Preparatory classes												Preparatory classes												Army officers' School															
Bachelor curriculum																																							
Degree: Bachelor (180 ECTS) or preparatory classes (120 ECTS) graduation																																							
Year 1												Year 2												Year 3															
Saint - Cyr Officers' Schools																																							
Aug	Oct	Nov	Jan	Feb	Apr	Jun	Jul	Aug	Oct	Nov	Jan	Feb	Apr	Jun	Jul	Aug	Oct	Nov	Jan	Feb	Apr	Jun	Jul	Aug	Oct	Nov	Jan	Feb	Apr	Jun	Jul	Aug	Oct	Nov	Jan	Feb	Apr	Jun	Jul
ESM						EMIA						International semester																											
Degrees: Master, engineers for ESM (direct recruitment) students only, in engineering sciences, international relations and strategy, human and organisations management Number of ECTS: 180 (including vocational) Military: 2nd Lieutenant																																							

Year 1 (2009 first year)												Year 2 (2010 first year)												Year 3 (2011 first year)															
National Defence University - Branch schools																																							
Aug	Oct	Nov	Jan	Feb	Apr	Jun	Jul	Aug	Oct	Nov	Jan	Feb	Apr	Jun	Jul	Aug	Oct	Nov	Jan	Feb	Apr	Jun	Jul	Aug	Oct	Nov	Jan	Feb	Apr	Jun	Jul	Aug	Oct	Nov	Jan	Feb	Apr	Jun	Jul
Degrees awarded at the end: Bachelor of Military Sciences (art of war, military pedagogy, leadership and management, military technology) Number of ECTS: 180 ECTS Military rank awarded: Lieutenant																																							
Year 1 (2009 first year)												Year 2 (2010 first year)																											
National Defence University - Branch schools																																							
Aug	Oct	Nov	Jan	Feb	Apr	Jun	Jul	Aug	Oct	Nov	Jan	Feb	Apr	Jun	Jul	Aug	Oct	Nov	Jan	Feb	Apr	Jun	Jul	Aug	Oct	Nov	Jan	Feb	Apr	Jun	Jul	Aug	Oct	Nov	Jan	Feb	Apr	Jun	Jul
Degrees awarded at the end: Master of Military Sciences (art of war, military pedagogy, leadership and management, military technology), Engineers Number of ECTS: 120 ECTS Military rank awarded: Captain																																							

Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5
MILITARY ACADEMY OF LITHUANIA				
Semester (1) Semester (2) Semester (3) Semester (4) Semester (5) Semester (6) Semester (7) Semester (8)				
Degrees awarded at the end: Bachelor of Management and Business Administration, Bachelor of Public Administration, Bachelor of Political Science Number of ECTS: 220 (Academic training) Military rank awarded: Lieutenant				

Year 1	Year 2
MILITARY ACADEMY OF LITHUANIA	
Semester 1 Semester 2 Semester 3 Semester 4	
Business Administration, Master of Political Science Number of ECTS: 60 Military rank awarded: Captain (if also success to Captain Officer Course)	

L
U
X
E
M
B
O
U
R
G

See curricula organised by Belgium and France

	Year 1	
	Civilian universities	Malta Armed Forces
	Sep Oct Nov Dec Jan Feb Mar Apr May Jun Jul Option 1: Students may be graduated before commissioning course	Sep Oct Nov Dec Jan Feb Mar Apr May Jun Jul Commissioning course
		Foreign institutions Sep Oct Option 2: Volunteer cadets sent abroad depending on availability of courses offered by third countries (Italy, United-Kingdom)
Military rank awarded: Lieutenant		

	Year 1												Year 2												Year 3												Year 4												
NETHERLANDS	Royal Netherlands Military Academy												Defence Academy, Faculty of Military Sciences (Military science, Business and Public Administration in Breda); Military Systems and Technology, Communication Information and Command and Control Systems in Den Helder; Civil Engineering in civilian universitat																																				
	Aug	Nov	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Nov	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Nov	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Nov	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Units
	Semester 1			Semester 2			Semester 3			Semester 4			Semester 5			Semester 6			Semester 7			Semester 8																											
	Degrees awarded at the end: Bachelor in "Military sciences", "Business and Public Administration", "Communication, information and command-and-control systems", "Military systems and technology", "Civil Engineering"																																																
	Number of ECTS: 180																																																

	Year 1												Year 2												Year 3																							
PORTUGAL	Military Academy																																															
	Aug	Nov	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Nov	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Nov	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul												
	Semester 1			Semester 2			Semester 3			Semester 4			Semester 5			Semester 6																																
	Degrees awarded at the end: Graduation in military sciences (infantry, cavalry, artillery), military engineers, mechanical engineers, administration science (army, NRG)																																															
	Number of ECTS: 180 Military rank awarded: None																																															

	Year 1												Year 2																																			
PORTUGAL	Military Academy																																															
	Aug	Nov	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Nov	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul																								
	Semester 1			Semester 2			Semester 3			Semester 4																																						
	Degrees awarded at the end: Master in military sciences (infantry, artillery, cavalry, security), military engineering, electronic military engineering, mechanic engineering, materials, military administration (Army, NRG) Number of ECTS: 120 2nd-Lt																																															

	Year 1												Year 2												Year 3																							
SWEDEN	Swedish National Defence College (SNDC)												Branch schools												SNDC																							
	Aug	Nov	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Nov	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Nov	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul												
	Graduate education in war studies, military technology																																															
	Military rank awarded: Second Lieutenant																																															
	Number of ECTS: 180																																															

Navy branch:

Year 1	Year 2	Year 3						
Royal Military Academy - Arms' Schools (for vocational)								
Degrees awarded at the end: Bachelor In Engineering Sciences, In Social and Military Sciences awarded: Ensign 2nd class Number of ECTS: 180 Military rank:								
Year 4	Year 5	Year 6						
Royal Military Academy - Arms' Schools (for vocational)						Arms Schools		
Degrees awarded at the end: Master In Engineering Sciences, Master of Arts In Social and Military Sciences ECTS: 120 Military rank awarded: Ensign								

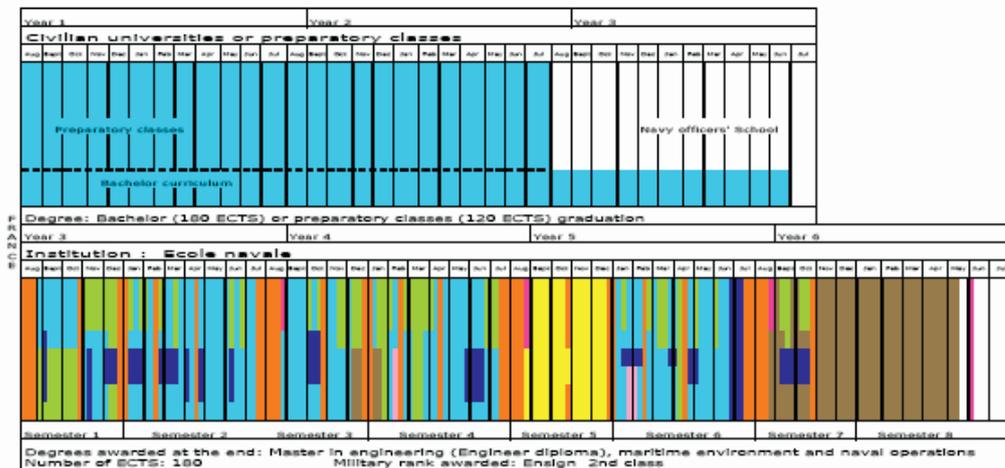
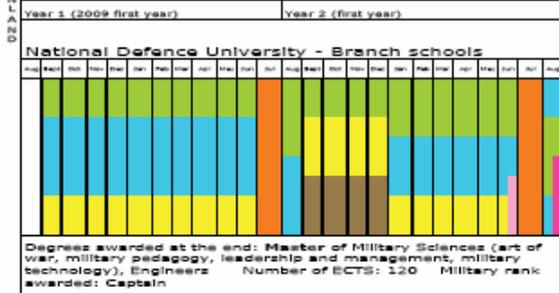
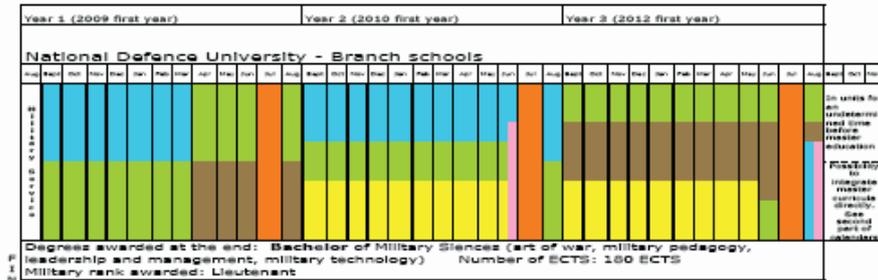
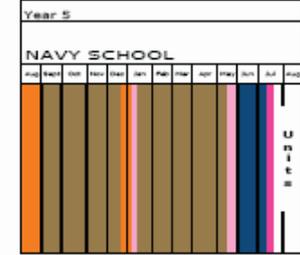
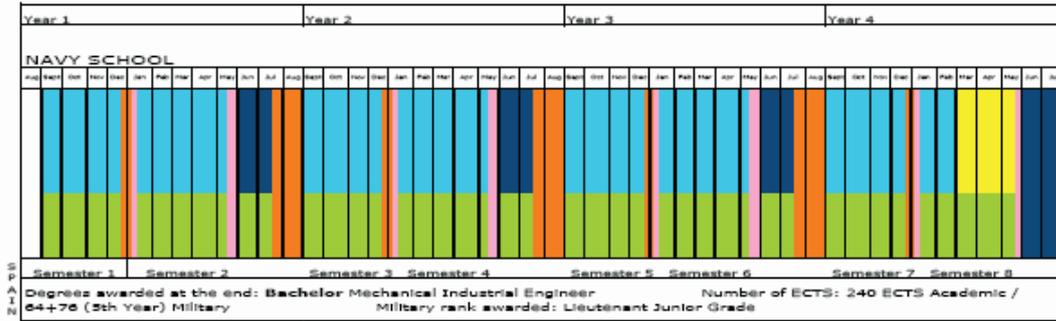
B
U
L
G
A
R
I
A

Year 1	Year 2	Year 2															
Nikola Vaptsarov NVNA																	
Semester 1			Semester 2			Semester 2			Semester 4			Semester 5			Semester 6		
Military rank awarded: petty officer 2-nd class			Military rank awarded: petty officer 1-nd class			Military rank awarded: petty officer 1-nd class			Military rank awarded: chief petty officer			Military rank awarded: chief petty officer			Military rank awarded: chief petty officer		
Year 4	Year 5																
Nikola Vaptsarov NVNA																	
Semester 7			Semester 8			Semester 9			Semester 10								
Military rank awarded: Lieutenant Degrees awarded at the end: Bachelor military degree and Bachelor degree in technical sciences: Navigation, Marine Engineering or Radioelectronics Number of ECTS: 480																	

B
U
L
G
A
R
I
A

See curricula
organised by Greece

C
Y
P
R
U
S



Preparatory year																							
Hellenic Naval Academy																							
Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec												
Military rank awarded: Naval Cadet																							
Year 1			Year 2			Year 3			Year 4														
Hellenic Naval Academy																							
Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec												
Semester 1			Semester 2			Semester 3			Semester 4			Semester 5			Semester 6			Semester 7			Semester 8		
Degree awarded at the end: Deck and Engineer Officer in naval sciences and seamanship																							
Military rank awarded: Ensign																							

Year 1												Year 2												Year 3											
Naval Academy																																			
Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
SM	GN	AN	SAN	CM	CP	SM	GN	AN	SAN	CM	CP	SM	GN	AN	SAN	CM	CP																		
<small>SM: Line officers; GN: Naval and Marine engineering officers; AN: Combat systems engineers; SAN: Medical corps officers; CM: Supply corps officers; CP: Coast guards officers</small>																																			
Number of ECTS : 180																		Military rank awarded: Midshipman																	

Year 4												Year 5* (application year)																							
Naval Academy												Naval Academy - Civilian universities																							
Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec												
SM	GN	AN	SAN	CM	CP	SM	GN	AN	SAN	CM	CP																								
<small>GN: University of Genoa, Trieste or Naples</small>												<small>AN: University of Pisa</small>																							
<small>SAN: University of Pisa</small>												<small>SAN: University of Pisa</small>																							
Degrees awarded at the end: Master (naval and maritime sciences, naval engineering, telecommunications engineering, medicine and surgery, law, maritime administration)																																			
Number of ECTS: 120																		Military rank awarded: Lieutenant J.G.																	

Year 1												Year 2												Year 3												Year 4												Year 5		
Malta College of Art, Science and Technology												Malta College of Art, Science and Technology												Malta College of Art, Science and Technology												Malta Armed Forces												Foreign institutions		
Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar
Navigational Watch Certification course												Engineering Watch Certification course												Commissioning course												<small>Option 2: Volunteer cadets sent abroad depending on availability of courses offered by third countries (Italy, UK, Germany)</small>														
Degree awarded at the end: possible civilian degree																																																		
Military rank awarded: Lieutenant																																																		

		Year 1				Year 2				Year 3				Year 4				Year 5																											
NETHERLANDS	Royal Netherlands Naval College																																												
	Defence Academy, Faculty of Military Sciences (Military science, Business and Public Administration in Breda; Military Systems and Technology, Communication Information and Command and Control Systems in Den Helder) mainly in Den Helder																																												
	Marine Corps Maritime Branch Maritime Branch Technical Training Course Maritime Branch Practical Training Course																																												
	Semester 1					Semester 2					Semester 3					Semester 4					Semester 5					Semester 6					Semester 7					Semester 8					Semester 9				
	Degree awarded at the end: Bachelor in "Military sciences", "Business and Public Administration", "Communication, Information and command-and-control systems", "Military systems and technology", "Civil Engineering"																																												
	Number of ECTS:																																												
	Units																																												

		Year 1												Year 2												Year 3											
PORTUGAL	Navy School																																				
	Degree awarded at the end: Bachelor in military naval sciences Number of ECTS: 180																																				
	Year 1																								Year 2												
	Navy School																																				
	Degree awarded at the end: Master in military naval sciences Military rank awarded: Ensign Number of ECTS: 120																																				

		Year 1												Year 2												Year 3												Year 4																																																										
ROMANIA	"Mircea cel Batran" Naval Academy																																																																																															
	Degree awarded at the end: Bachelor in naval engineering and navigation (navigation - hydrography - naval equipment, electromechanics) Number of ECTS: 240 Military rank awarded: Ensign																																																																																															
	Year - 8 or more																								Year 6												Year 7																																																											
	"Mircea cel Batran" Naval Academy - Naval forces application school																																																																																															
	Degree awarded at the end: Master in engineering and management, naval engineering and navigation (electromechanics, nautical sciences) Number of ECTS:100 Military rank awarded: No rank (It is not mandatory)																																																																																															
	Application Units																																																																																															
	Semester 1												Semester 2												Semester 3												Semester 4												Semester 5												Semester 6												Semester 7												Semester 8											

		Year 1												Year 2												Year 3											
SWEDEN	Swedish National Defence College Branch Schools SNDC																																				
	Graduate education in war studies, military technology Military rank awarded: 2nd Lieutenant Number of ECTS: 180																																				
	1 year training at sea (application)																																				

Year 1												Year 2												Year 3												Year 4																																																																																																											
Civilian Universities																																				Officers' School												Branch schools			Units																																																																																												
Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct																																																																																													
S L O V E N I A																																				Basic military training																																				Basic courses (joint)																																				Specialized																																			
																																				Degree awarded: Bachelor (civilian studies)																																				Military rank awarded at the end: Second Lieutenant																																				Number of ECTS: none (excepting Ba education)																																			

Year 1												Year 2												Year 3																																															
Armed Forces Academy of General Milan Rastislav Štefánik																																																																							
Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul																								
Semester 1												Semester 2												Semester 3												Semester 4												Semester 5												Semester 6											
Degrees awarded at the end: Bachelor in mechanical engineering, computer engineering, electrical engineering, military management																																				Number of ECTS: 180																																			
Military rank awarded: Lieutenant																																																																							

Year 1												Year 2																																																											
Royal Navy College Dartmouth																								Units																																															
Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul																																				
Engineers and												Fleet training																																																											
University cadet entrants												Flying training schools																																																											
Logistics												Fleet training																																																											
Warfare												Fleet training																																																											
Degrees awarded at the end: None (civilian higher education individual background)																																				Military rank awarded: Lieutenant																																			

Air Force branch:

Year 1												Year 2												Year 3																																															
Royal Military Academy - Arms' Schools (for vocational)																																																																							
Social and Military Sciences																																																																							
Polytechnics (engineering sciences)																																																																							
Semester 1												Semester 2												Semester 3												Semester 4												Semester 5												Semester 6											
Degrees awarded at the end: Bachelor In Engineering Sciences, In Social and Military Sciences																																																																							
Number of ECTS: 180												Military rank awarded: Second-Lieutenant																																																											
Year 4												Year 5												Year 6																																															
Royal Military Academy - Arms' Schools (for vocational) Arms Schools																																																																							
Social and Military Sciences																																																																							
Polytechnics (engineering sciences)																																																																							
Semester 7												Semester 8												Semester 9												Semester 10												Time depending on branches																							
Degrees awarded at the end: Master In Engineering Sciences, Master of Arts In Social and Military Sciences																																																																							
Number of ECTS:120												Military rank awarded: Lieutenant																																																											

B
E
L
G
I
U
M

Year 1												Year 2												Year 3												Year 4																																																											
National Military University "Vassil Levski"																																																																																															
Social and Military Sciences																																																																																															
Polytechnics (engineering sciences)																																																																																															
Semester 1												Semester 2												Semester 3												Semester 4												Semester 5												Semester 6												Semester 7												Semester 8											
Degrees awarded at the end: Bachelor in military sciences (engineering, aeronautical engineering, communication technologies, electronics and automatics, logistics, technical logistics)																																																																																															
Number of ECTS: 240												Military rank: Lieutenant																																																																																			
Year 5																																																																																															
National Military University "Vassil Levski"																																																																																															
Social and Military Sciences																																																																																															
Polytechnics (engineering sciences)																																																																																															
Semester 9												Semester 10												Semester 11												Semester 12																																																											

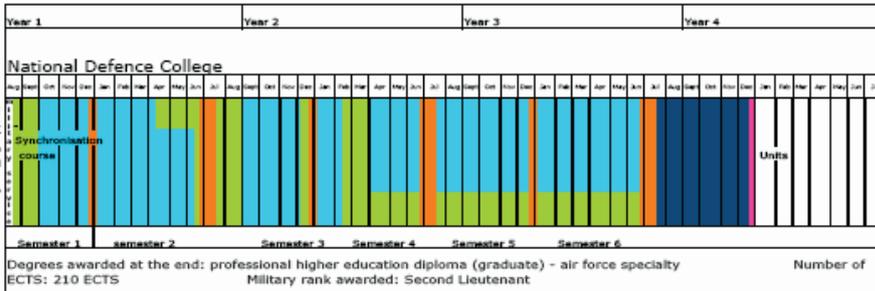
B
U
L
G
A
R
I
A

Year 1												Year 2												Year 3												Year 3 +																																																											
University of Defence																																																																																															
UoD																																																																																															
UoD																																																																																															
UoD																																																																																															
Semester 1												Semester 2												Semester 3												Semester 4												Semester 5												Semester 6												Semester 7												Semester 8											
Degrees awarded at the end: Bachelor in Military Technology																																																																																															
Number of ECTS : 180												Military rank awarded: Sergeant, OR-7																																																																																			
Year 4												Year 5																																																																																			
University of Defence																																																																																															
UoD																																																																																															
UoD																																																																																															
UoD																																																																																															
Semester 9												Semester 10												Semester 11												Semester 12																																																											
Degrees awarded at the end: Master in Military Technology (Engineers)																																																																																															
Number of ECTS: 120												Military rank awarded: Second Lieutenant (2 LS), OF-1																																																																																			

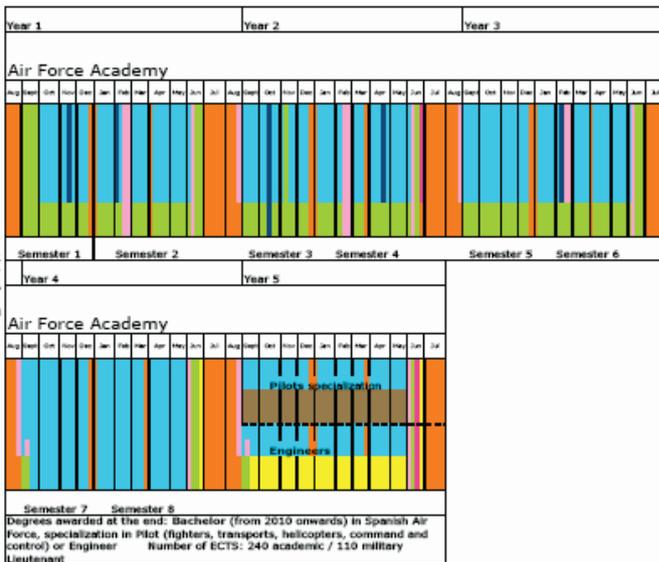
C
Z
E
C
H
R
E
P
U
B
L
I
C

C
Y
P
R
U
S

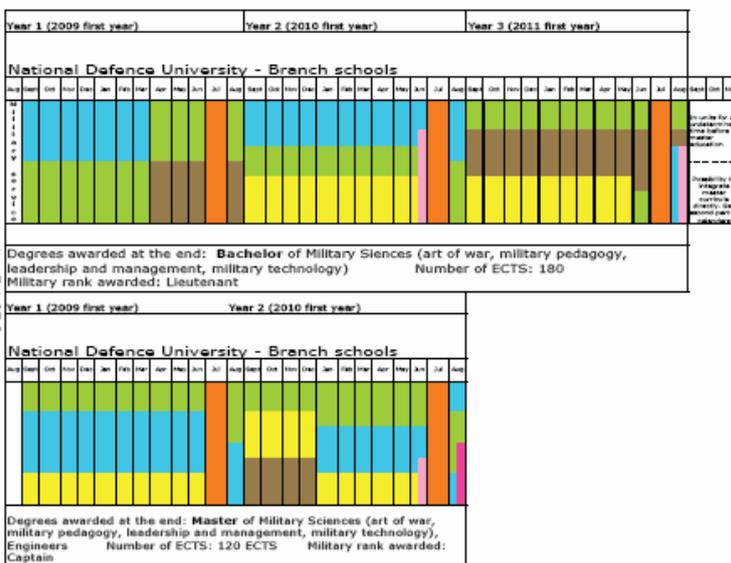
See curricula
organised by Greece

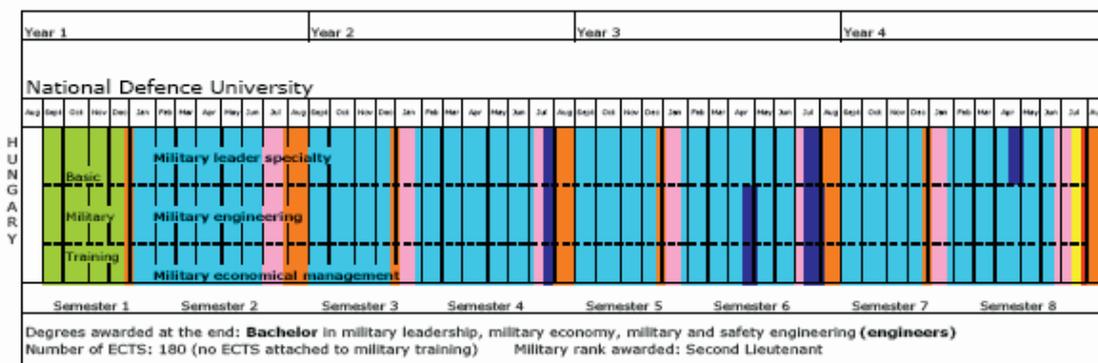
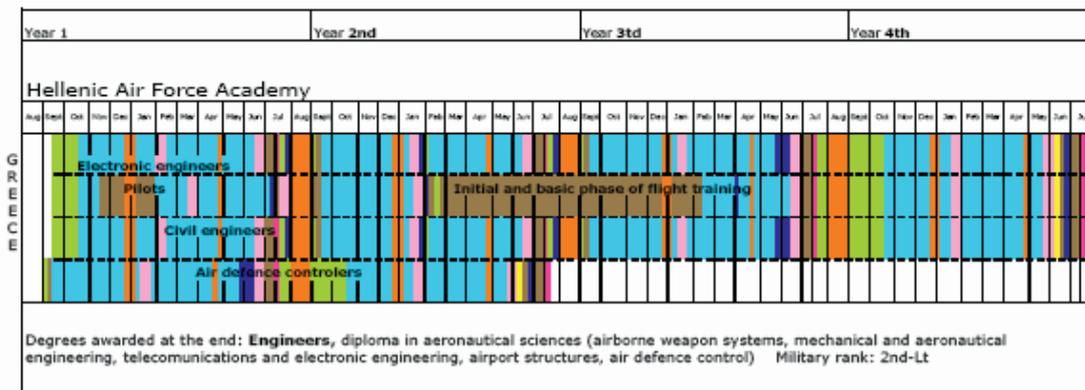
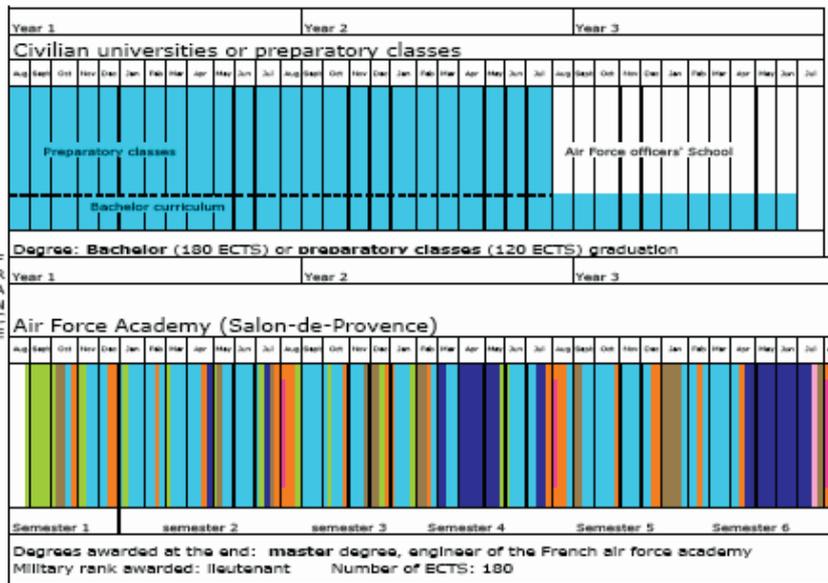


S
P
A
I
N



F
I
N
L
A
N
D





Year 1												Year 2												Year 3											
Air Force academy																																			
Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul
Degree awarded: Bachelor in aerospace engineering, electronic engineering, law, technical logistics, technical operating Military rank awarded: First Lieutenant Number of ECTS: 180																																			
Year 1												Year 2												Year 3											
Air Force Academy (pilots and duty officers) - University of Naples (engineers and legal advisors)																																			
Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul
Pilots and duty officers												Engineers and legal advisors																							
Degree awarded at the end: Master in aerospace engineering, electronic engineering, law, technical logistics, technical operating Military rank awarded: Second Lieutenant Number of ECTS: 120																																			

L
I
T
H
U
A
N
I
A

Education combined
Military Academy -
Vilnius Technical
School

L
U
X
E
M
B
U
R
G

See curricula
organised by
Belgium and France

Year 1												Foreign institutions		
Civilian universities												Malta Armed Forces		
Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct
Option 1: Students may be graduated before commissioning course												Option 2: Volunteer cadets sent abroad depending on availability of courses offered by third countries (Italy, United Kingdom)		
Commissioning course														
Military rank awarded: Lieutenant														

Year 1												Year 2												Year 3												Year 4											
Royal Netherlands Military Academy																																															
Faculty of Military Sciences (Military science, Business and Public Administration in Breda, Military Systems and Technology, Communication Information and Command and Control Systems in Den Helder); Civil engineering in civilian universities																																															
Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul
Semester 1												Semester 2												Semester 3												Semester 4											
Semester 5												Semester 6												Semester 7																							
Degrees awarded at the end: Bachelor in "Military sciences", "Business and Public Administration", "Communication, information and command-and-control systems", "Military systems and technology", "Civil Engineering" Number of ECTS: 180																																															

Year 1													Year 2													Year 3												
Air Force Academy																																						
Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul			
Degrees awarded: Graduation in aeronautical and flight sciences (pilots), aeronautical administration, airfield engineering, aeronautical engineering, electronics engineering Military rank awarded: Cadet Number of ECTS: 180																																						
Year 1													Year 2													Year 3												
Air Force Academy (Pilots) and civilian universities (Engineers and Aeronautical administrators)																																						
Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul			
Degrees: Master in aeronautical and flight sciences (pilots), aeronautical administration, airfield engineering, aeronautical engineering, electronics engineering Military rank: Lieutenant ECTS: 150 (pilots), 180 (engineering and administration)																																						

Year 1													Year 2													Year 3																																																			
Air Force Academy "Henri Coanda"																																																																													
Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul																																										
Degrees awarded at the end: Bachelor's degree Number of ECTS (when applicable):180 Military rank awarded: second lieutenant																																																																													
Semester 1													Semester 2													Semester 3													Semester 4													Semester 5													Semester 6												

Year 1													Year 2													Year 3													Year 4												
Military Technical Academy																																																			
Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul				
Degrees: Bachelor, engineers in computers and information technologies, engineering systems, electronics and communications, weapons-rocket ammunition, sapping engineering, chemical engineering, automotive, aerospace 2nd-Lieutenant ECTS : 240																																																			

Year 1													Year 2													Year 3												
Military technical Academy																																						
Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul			
Degrees awarded at the end: Master in electronic systems, equipment and technologies in automotive engineering, security of information technology Number of ECTS: 90																																						

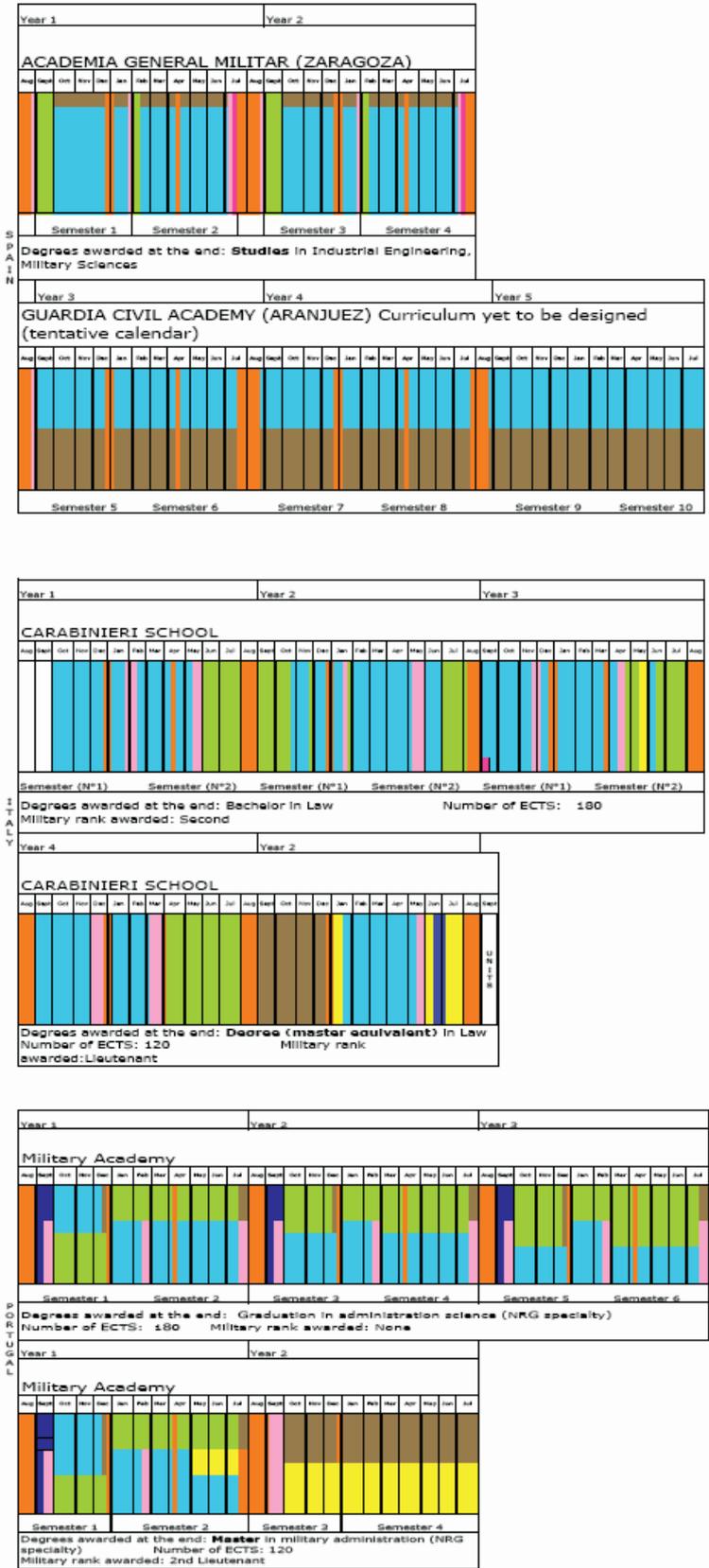
Year 1													Year 2													Year 3												
Swedish National Defence College Branch Schools SNDC																																						
Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul			
Graduate education in war studies, military technology Military rank awarded: Second Lieutenant Number of ECTS: 180																																						

	Year 1			Year 2			Year 3			Year 4																
S L O V E N I A	Civilian Universities									Officers' School			Branch schools	Units												
	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep
	[Blue bars representing civilian university studies]									[Green bars representing Officers' School]			[Brown bars representing Branch schools]			[Blue bar representing Units]										
	Degree awarded: Bachelor (civilian studies)									Military rank awarded at the end: Second Lieutenant			Number of ECTS: none (excepting Ba													

	Year 1			Year 2			Year 3																		
S L O V A K I A	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug
	Semester 1			Semester 2			Semester 3			Semester 4			Semester 5			Semester 6									
	Degrees awarded at the end: Bachelor in mechanical engineering, computer engineering, electrical engineering, military management																								
	Number of ECTS: 180												Military rank awarded: Lieutenant												

	Year 1												
U N I T E D - K I N G D O M	Royal Air Force College of Cranwell												
	Arms Schools and Units												
	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug
	[Green bars representing Cadets]			[Green bars representing Professionally qualified officers]									
	Degrees awarded at the end: None (civilian higher education individual background)												
	Military rank awarded: NK												

Gendarmerie branch:



Year 1												Year 2												Year 3																							
Police Academy																																															
Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug											
Semester (N°1)												Semester (N°2)												Semester (N°1)												Semester (N°2)											
Degrees awarded at the end: Bachelor in Law ; Public Order and Safety																																															
of ECTS: 180																																															
Number																																															

R
O
M
A
N
I
A

Year 1												Year 2													
Police Academy																									
Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept
Semester (N°1)												Semester (N°2)													
Degrees awarded at the end: Master in Gendarmerie Operational Training Management																									
Number of ECTS: 90																									

Bibliography

Books and articles:

Alex Alber, “*La formation initiale des officiers : Une comparaison européenne*”, doctoral thesis of the University of Saint-Quentin-en-Yvelines, 27 November 2007.

André Dumoulin, Philippe Manigart, Wally Struys, *La Belgique et la Politique Européenne de Sécurité et de Défense : une approche politique, sociologique et économique*, (Brussels, Bruylant, 2003)

Donald L. Kirkpatrick & James D. Kirkpatrick, *Evaluating Training Programs: The Four Levels* (San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler, 1998)

Giuseppe Caforio (eds.), *The European officer: A comparative view on selection and education* (European Research Group on Military and Society, Edizioni ETS 2000)

Harry Kirkels, Wim Klinkert, René Moelker (eds.), *Officer Education: The road to Athens!*, (NL Arms, Netherlands Annual Review of Military studies, 2003)

John P. Lovell, *Neither Athens nor Sparta? The American Service Academies in Transition*, (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1979)

Outi Kallioinen, “*Generic competences in producing expertise in Military Academy – case Master of Military Sciences, Finland*”, paper presented at the conference of the International Association of Military Pedagogy, May 2008

Peter Foot, “*Military Education and the Transformation of Canadian Armed Forces*”, Canadian Military Journal, Spring 2006

Sylvain Paile, *L'Enseignement militaire à l'épreuve de l'Européanisation : Adaptation de la politique de l'enseignement pour l'Ecole royale militaire de Belgique aux évolutions de la PESD*, Thématiques du Centre des Sciences Sociales de la Défense n°19 (Paris: C2SD, January 2009)

Vesa Nissinen, *Military Leadership Training, Development of Leadership Behaviour in the Finnish Defence Forces*, Publication Series I Research Reports No 18/2001 (National Defence College, Helsinki 2001)

Legal texts and political declarations:

Elysée Treaty, Joint Declaration by President de Gaulle and Chancellor Adenauer, Paris, 22 January 1963

Declaration of the Franco-German Security and Defence Council, 12 October 2006

WEU Assembly, “Education and training for ESDP: the military Erasmus initiative”, reporter: Yves Pozzo di Borgo, fifty-sixth session (doc. C2041/09, 7 May 2009)

WEU Assembly, Recommendation n°724, “Developing a security and defence culture in the ESDP”, 3 June 2003; reporter: Mrs Katseli

WEU Assembly, Recommendation n°741 “On European defence: pooling and strengthening national and European capabilities – reply to the annual report of the Council”, 3 December 2003

Council - European Council, Presidency report on ESDP (10748/09 (COSDP544)), Brussels 15 June 2009

Common Action 2005/575/ CFSP of the Council, 18 July 2005, “establishing a European Security and Defence College (ESDC)”, OJ L194, 26 July 2005, p.15

Council Joint Action 2008/550/CFSP of 23 June 2008, “establishing a European Security and Defence College (ESDC)”, OJ L176, 4 July 2008, p.20

Council conclusions on ESDP, 2974th External relations Council meeting, Brussels, 17 November 2009

Council conclusions on ESDP, 2943rd meeting of the Council (External Relations), Brussels, 18 May 2009

Council Conclusions on the ESDP, 2903 External Relations Council meeting, Brussels, 10 and 11 November 2008

General Secretariat of the Council, document 12843/08, “Stocktaking of existing exchanges and exchange programmes of national military officers during their initial education and training”

European Parliament Resolution of 5 June 2008 “On the implementation of the European Security Strategy and ESDP” (P6_TA(2008)0255)

ESDC Steering Committee, document SC/2009/003 REV1, 29 January 2009

Draft Council conclusions on the Erasmus-style exchange programme for law enforcement officers (document 5025/1/10 rev.1), 9 February 2010

Summary of remarks of Javier Solana (SG/HR) at the informal meeting of Defence Ministers, Prague 13 March 2009

Edited remarks by Javier Solana (SG/HR) at the meetings of EU Defence Ministers in the framework of the General Affairs and External Relations Council, Brussels, 18 May 2009

Edited remarks by Javier Solana at the informal meeting of EU Defence Ministers, Prague, 13 March 2009

General Secretariat of the Council: European initiative on the exchange of young officers inspired by Erasmus - SG/HR report on the state of affairs (9820/09 (COSDP452)), Brussels, 14 May 2009

Recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council “On the establishment of a European Qualifications Framework for lifelong learning” (2008/C 111/01), 23 April 2008

Recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council of 18 June 2009 (2009/C 155/02) “On the establishment of a European Credit System for Vocational Education and Training (ECVET)”

Decision of the European Parliament and of the Council of 5 December 2003 (2317/2003/EC) “Establishing a programme for the enhancement of quality in higher education and the promotion of intercultural understanding through cooperation with third countries (Erasmus Mundus)”

Council of Europe – UNESCO joint Convention, Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region, the European Treaty Series, No 165

Sorbonne joint declaration “On harmonisation of the architecture of the European higher education system”, Paris, the Sorbonne, 25 May 1998

Joint declaration of the European ministers of Education, Bologna, 19 June 1999

Declaration of the European Ministers of vocational education and training, and the European Commission, “On enhanced European cooperation in vocational education and training”, Copenhagen 29-30 November 2002

NATO Standardization Agency, Allied Administrative Publications AAP-6, 2009

NATO Logistics Handbook, October 1997

Reports:

European Initiative for the Exchange of Young Officers – SG/HR report on the state of affairs, Brussels 14 May 2009

Rapport d'information de l'Assemblée Nationale française sur la formation des cadres dans les écoles militaires, presented by Jérôme Rivière, Commission de la Défense Nationale et des Forces Armées, 26 March 2003

Bologna Process Stocktaking Report 2009

Bologna Process Stocktaking Report 2007

Bologna Process, Coordination Group for Qualifications Framework, Report on Qualifications Frameworks, February 2009

ENQA, Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education Area, third edition, 2009

Bologna Work Programme 2007-2009, consolidated version, issued 2 March 2008

Cedefop, The Shift to Learning Outcomes – Conceptual, political and practical developments in Europe, 2007

Cedefop, The Shift to Learning Outcomes – Policies and practices in Europe, 2009

OECD, The Definition and Selection of Key Competencies – Executive Summary, 2005

Eurydice, Higher Education in Europe 2009 : Developments in the Bologna Process.

Eurydice - Directorate-General for Education and Culture, Focus on the Structure of Higher Education in Europe 2006/07: National Trends in the Bologna Process

Cataloguing data

General Secretariat of the Council

The European Military Higher Education Stocktaking Report

2010 — 175 pp. — 21 x 29,7 cm

ISBN 978-92-824-2525-1

doi:10.2860/23460

QC-31-10-421-EN-C

doi: 10.2860/23460

ISBN 978-92-824-2525-1

