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Chapter I. Europe and Europeans. Historical, geographical and cultural characteristics of the European area

1. The meaning of Europe

a) Etymological meaning

The word Europe is 2500 years old. Its etymology is pre-Hellenic Aegean, before the Greeks settled the Balkan Peninsula. The name comes from the word *hirib* ('sunset'), its antonym *asu* (Asia) meaning 'sunrise'. We can assume, therefore, that Europe, in relation to the Asian continent, meant the land at sunset.

b) Mythological meaning

There are two myths in Greek mythology which refer to Europe: in both, Europe is the name of a female character, in the first case of a Phoenician princess, and in the second of one of the daughters of the sea. The common idea that emerges from both myths is the emphasis on the Asian origin and the project of a new world on this land.

According to Greek legend, the king of Tyre (in Phoenicia), Agenor, had a daughter named Europe. One night, she had a dream: two worlds (territories), which had taken the form of two women, the 'land of Asia' and the 'land opposite', were quarrelling about her. The first wanted to protect and preserve her, and the second, having been set up by Zeus, wanted to put her on a ship and take her somewhere far away. Europe, awakened and intrigued by her dream, went with her retinue to the seashore to gather flowers. Suddenly, a very beautiful and gentle bull appeared and persuaded her to ride on his back. As soon as she was on his back, the girl was embarked on a ship, where Zeus showed his true face. The princess was taken to the Greek land that was to take the name of Europe. She gave birth to many children (including the famous King Minos).

Another legend tells us that Europe was one of the 3000 Oceanids, daughters of the sea. To be more exact, she was the daughter of Poseidon and Tethys.

c) Geographical, religious and political meanings

The Greek poet Hesiod (7th century BC) was the first to give a geographical meaning, after Europe had been associated with a non-Asiatic identity. In Apollo the Pythian's poem, Hesiod designated the continental part of ancient Greece as Europe.

The historical father Herodotus (5th century BC) was much more precise in his geographical location of the European territory, which he said stretched from present-day northern Greece to the Don and the Danube. But Herodotus did not specify the northern and western limits of Europe.

Europe did not coincide with the mental space and range of Greek culture (mainland Greece, Asia Minor, southern Italy, Sicily, northern Africa). Therefore, this notion did not designate a type of civilization, but rather a vague origin and a rather imprecise territory (geographical meaning).



The great Latin geographers Strabo and Pliny used the same meaning of the word, describing Europe as the north-eastern territory of the Greek world, which would correspond to Serbia, Macedonia, Bulgaria, Romania and southern Ukraine today.

The notion of Europe took on a meaning other than geographical a millennium later. For example, a scholar at the court of Charlemagne (800 AD) spoke for the first time of Europe in terms of the Christian world north of the Pyrenees. And the Spanish chronicler Isidor the Younger names the Christian army fighting the Arabs the army of the Europeans.

The first to transform Europe from a geographical name into a political concept were the Christian emperors of the 7th-15th centuries. This change was preceded by three historical events: the division of the Roman Empire into the Western Roman Empire and the Eastern Roman Empire (395 AD); the conquest of Rome by barbarian tribes (476 AD); and the rise of Islam (622 AD), which threatened Christianity. By the year 1000, Europe was mistaken for the Western Empire (in a religious and political sense).

In the 15th and 16th centuries, the notion of Europe widens its geographical scope (by including the Orthodox peoples during the great clashes with the Turks/anti-Ottoman crusades), while continuing to have a predominantly Christian meaning. The discovery by Europeans of the non-Christian New World beyond the Atlantic Ocean was an important step in the constitution of Europe's identity. And so, until the 16th century, Europe gradually discovered its religious and cultural identity, particularly in situations of conflict or encounters with "non-believers", "others" (Tartars, Arabs, Ottomans, Amerindians). From the 16th century onwards, Europe gradually discovered its religious and cultural identity. In the 16th century, political Europe began to take shape, especially during the military conflicts between the great powers which sought to impose a "European balance".

The beginning of the modern era was marked by an intense expansion of Europeans in the East and West. But even at the beginning and even in the middle of this period, Europe was not in a position to compete openly with other civilizations (excluding the Amerindian). It was only towards the end of the 18th century that Europe was able to halt Ottoman expansion and become a beacon of development for the rest of the world. During this period, the Renaissance, the Reformation and the Enlightenment gave Europe a new content through the secularization of public life, the development and activation of new ideas and concepts which broadened the horizons of human knowledge, etc.

The period from the French Revolution to the beginning of World War I represents a new stage in Europe's development and assertion on the world stage. The industrial revolution and the development of science, imperialism, the emergence of nation-states, the increase of the role of citizens in political life etc. are the phenomena that characterize this historical phase.

The period between the beginning of the First World War and the end of the Second World War was a very difficult one for Europe. Both wars required colossal economic, human and spiritual resources. They were a European tragedy and showed that Europeans had to rethink their way of being. The year 1945 marks the end of the history of Old Europe.



2. Europe: geography

Europe is a continent located entirely in the northern hemisphere and mostly in the eastern hemisphere. It comprises the westernmost part of Eurasia and is bordered by the Arctic Ocean to the north, the Atlantic Ocean to the west, the Mediterranean Sea to the south and Asia to the east. Europe is commonly considered to be separated from Asia by the watershed of the Ural Mountains, the Ural River, the Caspian Sea, the Greater Caucasus, the Black Sea, and the waterways of the Turkish Straits.

Europe covers some 10,180,000 km² or 2% of the Earth's surface area (6.8% of the Earth's land area), making it the penultimate largest continent. Politically, Europe is divided into about fifty sovereign states, of which Russia is the largest and most populous, covering 39% of the continent and comprising 15% of its population.

Europe's climate is largely influenced by warm Atlantic currents, which lead to temperate winters and summers over much of the continent, even at latitudes along the latitudes where the climate in Asia and North America is severe. Further out to sea, seasonal differences are more noticeable than near the coast.

In terms of territory, it ranks second last. Europe is therefore a continent which, in geographical (territorial) terms, does not justify its supremacy. What mattered was how it utilized its human resources, i.e. its potential as a human space.

3. Human and cultural space

The favourable climate has encouraged the rapid and early population of the European continent.

In 2020, Europe's population was estimated at 747 million, or about 11% of the world's population. This number includes Siberia (about 38 million people) but excludes European Turkey (about 12 million).

A century ago, Europe had almost a quarter of the world's population. Europe's population has grown over the past century, but in other parts of the world (notably Africa and Asia) the population has grown much faster. Among the continents, Europe has a relatively high population density, second only to Asia. The average age of Europe's population is relatively high compared to the other continents of the world, especially compared to Asia, Africa and Latin America. Most of Europe is in a denatural (declining population) mode. However, most European countries still have growing populations due to immigration, population momentum and rising life expectancy. The European country with the highest population density is the microstate of Monaco.

There are 50 sovereign states with territory within the usual definition of Europe and/or membership of international European organizations that are almost universally recognized internationally. All are either member states or observer states of the United Nations and all except Belarus, Kazakhstan and the Vatican are members of the Council of Europe.

What does European mean? According to the DEX, European means "a person belonging to the population of Europe". It was used for the first time in the 1st century. It was first used in the 8th century in a Western Christian chronicle of a battle between the Franks and the Arabs who had conquered Spain. During the 9th and 10th centuries, during the Carolingian dynasty, the term 'European' was used relatively often, most frequently by ministers of the Catholic Church. From the



beginning of the 15th centuries, in addition to its geographical meaning, the term took on a civilizational connotation.

The term "European" ("europaeus" in Latin) was coined at the height of the Italian Renaissance by the humanist Aenea Silvio Piccolomini, who became Pope Pius II, to define "culture" and "civilization". Initially, compared with the other civilizations – Islamic and Chinese – Europe was economically, socially, politically and culturally underdeveloped. Between the 11th and 15th centuries, Europe experienced the 'Black Death', with countless wars and internal tensions linked to famine, economic underdevelopment, etc. At the same time, this period set the stage for further expansion and revival.

From a cultural and spiritual point of view, scholastic philosophy developed, the works of Greek and Roman writers were revived by the Arabs, Christianity became more than a spiritual force, and universities became a reality.

The spiritual capital of Europe was Rome, at the centre of a network of dioceses, episcopal cities (each with its own schools, libraries, cathedrals) and parishes (primary schools).



Chapter II. Foundations of European civilization

1. The foundations of a civilization

European civilization – as we see it at the present stage – is the synthesis of distinct but convergent elements of civilization, with a universal vocation. Greek culture, political Rome and Christianity are regarded as its essential founding sources. From this perspective, some scholars define the essence of European civilization in a three-dimensional image: Europe is Hellenic in depth, Latin in breadth, Christian in height. The fusion of these elements towards the end of antiquity gave Europe a cultural, political and religious ideal.

Greek culture – the first foundation of European civilization – brought discipline of spirit, the quest for perfection, a method of thinking that relates everything to man, a belief in the existence of law and beauty, and models of values for political life, moral and aesthetic education. It is also the Greek cities, through their great confrontation with the Persian Empire, which gave rise to the European ideal of freedom. Europe par excellence can be defined as a civilization of Freedom – one of those distinctive values by which it becomes recognizable in relation to other spaces.

Another foundation – political Rome – can make its contribution as the source of the future European civilization with its affirmation as a universal empire. As a state, Rome grew spectacularly from the size of a city-state to dominion over the whole of the Italian peninsula, then the territory around the Mediterranean Sea and then to the 'edges of the world', from the Atlantic to the Black Sea and the Caspian Sea. This huge area – the mundus Romanus – had a political organization that was to become an ideal for Europe as a civilization: republica – a political community of free citizens, the omnipotent rule of laws and institutions, the obligation of the prince to ensure order and stability (pax Romana).

The third foundation of European civilization, probably the source of Europe's spiritual unity, is Christianity. Although originally derived from the symbiosis of the ancient Jewish religion and Hellenistic philosophy, Christianity has succeeded in becoming a profoundly European synthesis. The history of Europe can therefore be seen as a history of Christianity. The Christian tradition provides the peoples of Europe with a common faith and morality, including respect for the value of the individual and his or her life.

2. Affirming the fundamental principles of European civilization

The Roman Empire was the environment in which the three sources of Europe's future civilization merged. Without imperial Rome, Greek culture might have remained a dead culture and Christianity could never have become a universal religion. In the environment created by the 'Roman peace', the sources of European civilization came together and merged, not without tensions or open conflicts in the 4th and 5th centuries. The historical destiny of the Roman Empire determined not only the initial environment in which the three founding elements were initially



synthesized, but also the environment in which they subsequently asserted themselves. The process of splitting the Empire into the Western Roman Empire and the Eastern Roman Empire played a decisive role in this respect.

In the East, the Eastern Roman Empire provided a favourable environment in which to assert itself. The sources of the future European civilization came together organically under the rule of Constantine the Great (306- 337). His empire is therefore considered the first truly European state.

In the West, after the fall of the Western Roman Empire, the unifying force and the weight of these founding elements varied throughout history. At first, with the disappearance of the organized power of political Rome, Christianity became the only unifying bond for the inhabitants of this area, especially in the events when they had to face interactions with others (the "pagan" Turks, the "infidel" Arabs, etc.).

The period up to the year 1000 is of great development of Christianity as the source of civilization and the unifying force of Europe. The role of Christianity is illustrated by the evidence provided by this stage. As an example, the first clear reference to the affirmation of Europe as a new entity can be found in the chronicle of Isidorus of Badajoz, which describes the 'army of the Europeans' victorious at Poitiers (732) against the Arabs.

Events/processes after the year 1000 show the Church as a factor of division and conflict rather than as a factor of solidarity and unity in Europe. In addition, the revival of urban and intellectual life and the formation and affirmation of centralized monarchies create the conditions for the Greek and Roman foundations to assert themselves at the forefront of European civilization. The Europeans rediscover and capitalize on the political and cultural heritage of antiquity. The Europe of the Renaissance and of the bourgeois revolutions transforms this heritage into its political, intellectual and artistic values, integrating them into its new civilization. From this moment on, Europe chose the path of secularization of public life, considerably diminishing the influence of Christianity as the source of European civilization.

The foundations of European civilization have undergone an intense process of fusion and metamorphosis over the millennia of European history. The result of this process is that common cultural tradition and identity, of great antiquity, prestige and solidity, which today distinguishes Europe with its specifically European values.



Chapter III. Common values of Europe and Europeans

1. European values

Values are principles that underpin and guide people's actions. Values are not the same even within a large community, such as the population of a country; they differ according to a number of factors, including level of education, age, place of residence (village or town, etc.). They are not imposed politically, but are formed over time and are principles to which the majority of the population adheres.

The values on which the EU is based are contained in three concepts: freedom, solidarity and mutual respect.

2. European culture: unity and diversity

European cultural unity is determined by the following premises:

- a) European civilization was founded on Greek culture, Roman politics and Christianity.
- b) Throughout history, culture has provided Europe with a unified spiritual framework: a network of schools and universities; the spread of progressive European ideas which transcended national frontiers; European art inspired by common realities; full participation, irrespective of nationality, in the development of science and technical progress; similar legislation in the public domain.
- c) Common heritage: systems of science; cultural periods and philosophical movements; cultural and artistic trends of the 19th and 20th centuries.

European cultural diversity/European cultural pluralism implies:

- Overcoming intercultural antagonisms;
- access to all forms of culture;
- acceptance of diversity – the cornerstone of this concept, a factor of individual and collective enrichment;
- recognizing the creative force and energy released by the interaction of differences without turning them into differences.

3. Nature of religion in Europe

Christianity is the most widespread religion in Europe.

Christianity is diversified into:

- a) The Orthodox Church (about 130 million Orthodox Christians worldwide, mostly spread in Eastern Europe, most national churches are autocephalous);
- b) the Roman Catholic Church (about 900 million Christians worldwide);
- c) the Greek Catholic Church (re-established after 989);
- d) the Protestant Church (about 700 million Christians worldwide; main Protestant doctrines: Lutheranism, Calvinism, Anglicanism); Neo-Protestants



(Baptists, Seventh-day Adventists, Pentecostals, Jehovah's Witnesses, Christians according to the Gospel, etc.).

Other religions in Europe: Islamism (important diaspora in the West); Buddhism (Buddhist communities in the Netherlands, Switzerland, Belgium, Finland); Judaism (important Jewish communities in all European countries).

4. Linguistic diversity in Europe

While most European nations have built themselves on the basis of their own identity languages, the EU can only build itself on the basis of its linguistic diversity.

The work entitled *Enseigner et apprendre – vers la société cognitive*, published in 1995 by the European Commission's Directorate for Education and Culture, outlines the language policy it advocates: the need to ensure that every young European acquires through the education system a perfect knowledge of two languages of communication in addition to his or her mother tongue. These languages should be learned at an early age, i.e. from primary school, and should last throughout life.

No individual can support the EU unless he or she feels that his or her specific culture and, above all, his or her language are fully respected and that the integration of his or her country into the Union contributes to the affirmation of his or her own culture and language, but not to their marginalization. Many of the periods of crisis that we have witnessed, in Europe and beyond, have their origin in the fact that a particular community felt, at some time in the past, that its language was not respected. We must be vigilant to avoid such feelings developing in the years and decades to come and jeopardizing European cohesion.

Each language is the product of a unique historical experience, each language is the expression of a memory, of a literary heritage, of specific skills, and is the legitimate foundation of a cultural identity. Languages are not interchangeable, none is indispensable, none is superfluous. Preserving all the languages of our heritage, including ancestral European languages such as Latin and ancient Greek, and encouraging the spread of even minority languages to the rest of the continent are intrinsic aspects of the very idea of a Europe characterized by peace, culture, universality and prosperity.

(A salutary challenge. On how the multiplicity of languages could strengthen Europe. Proposals of the Group of Intellectuals for Intercultural Dialogue set up at the initiative of the European Commission, Brussels, 2008)

An important aspect of Europe's cultural life is its linguistic richness and the spread of European languages to all continents.

Almost all the languages spoken in Europe today belong to the great Indo-European family. This family comprises three large groups of languages:

- Germanic languages (English, Germanic, Dutch, Dutch, Swedish, Norwegian, Danish, Frisian and Icelandic);
- the Romance languages (Spanish, Portuguese, French, Italian, Italian, Romanian, Catalan, Spanish, Portuguese, French, Italian, Romanian, Catalan)
- the Slavic languages (Russian, Ukrainian, Polish, Serbo-Croatian, Czech, Belarussian, Bulgarian, Serbo-Croatian).



Then there are two less widespread groups: the Baltic languages (Latvian and Lithuanian) and the Celtic languages (Welsh, Breton, Irish) and three isolated languages (Greek, Armenian and Albanian).

The second language family is Finno-Ugric. It comprises a northern group (Lappish), a Baltic group (Finnish, Estonian and Karelian), a central group (Hungarian and the Volga languages - Morvd, Mari, Vostoak) and a southern group (represented by Georgian and the languages Zen and Laz). Finally, in Europe there are also speakers of the Altaic family, the Turkic group: Turkic, Tatar, Azerbaijani, Azerbaijani, Bashkir and Gagauz. In the north-east of Spain and beyond the Pyrenees, in France, ancient languages with no clear links to other languages of the world are spoken: the Basque languages.

Of the world's top ten most widely spoken languages, seven are European languages and their number of speakers (the first language) exceeds one and a half billion. In addition, English is official in 49 countries, French is official in 27 countries and Spanish in 20 countries. So, these three European languages are official languages in almost half of the world's countries.

Linguistic diversity is enshrined in Article 22 of the *Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union*. The respect for the rights of persons belonging to minorities is a fundamental element of the Charter.

It prohibits discrimination against people belonging to a minority group and demands respect for cultural, religious and linguistic diversity across the Union. The Commission ensures that fundamental rights and, in particular, the right to non-discrimination, are respected when EU law is implemented.

5. The European Union's identity

The EU is trying to define its identity in terms of unity in diversity. While it can be said that Europe has never been more united than it is today: the Community area comprises 27 Member States and, through the European Neighbourhood Policy, other European countries are also included indirectly. Things get more complicated when it comes to diversity: it is far too difficult to find a common denominator for the very different cultural realities that now make up this area in geographical terms. As a result, instead of a single cultural identity, which is impossible to achieve, the identity of the European Union aims to shape citizens towards adherence to European values and institutions. Being a recent concept, the EU identity is more a project than a reality, but it is a project that has started to take shape. Thus, the political concept of EU identity was officially launched in 1973 with the adoption of the European Identity Document, intended to serve as a further definition of the Member States' relations with other countries of the world. Through the Maastricht Treaty, the EU aims to promote its own identity on the international stage. The Treaty of Amsterdam deepens the concept of EU identity, formulating the objective of creating a European identity at an individual level, which is felt by every person who is a member of the EU. The provisions of the Treaty of Lisbon aim to bring more coherence to external action and to shape the EU's profile on the international scene, creating a Union identity and facilitating the progressive promotion of the common European interest. As an example, the Treaty sets out common principles and objectives for EU external action: democracy, the rule of law, the universality and indivisibility of human rights and fundamental freedoms, respect for human dignity, the principles of equality and solidarity.



Chapter IV. The Council of Europe – the "biggest" European organization

1. Status of the Council of Europe

The Governments of the Kingdom of Belgium, the Kingdom of Denmark, the French Republic, the Republic of Ireland, the Italian Republic, the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg, the Kingdom of the Netherlands, the Kingdom of Norway, the Kingdom of Sweden, the Kingdom of the Netherlands, the Kingdom of Norway, the Kingdom of Sweden and the Kingdom of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland,

Convinced that peace-building, based on justice and international cooperation, is of vital interest for the preservation of human society and civilization,

Reaffirming their attachment to the spiritual and moral values which are the common heritage of their peoples and the true source of individual liberty, political freedom and the rule of law, principles which form the basis of every genuine democracy,

Convinced that for the preservation and further realization of these ideals and in the interests of economic and social progress, a closer unity among like-minded European nations is essential,

Believing that, in order to meet these needs and the aspirations manifested in this respect by their peoples, it is necessary to create a body which will group the European States in a closer association,

Have therefore resolved to establish a Council of Europe consisting of a Committee of Representatives of Governments and a Consultative Assembly, and have adopted this Statute for that purpose.

(From the Statute of the Council of Europe, signed in London on May 5, 1949)

Statute of the Council of Europe (Art. 1)

(a) The aim of the Council of Europe is to secure greater unity between its members for the purpose of safeguarding and realizing the ideals and principles which are their common heritage and facilitating their economic and social progress.

(b) This aim shall be furthered through the organs of the Council, by discussing matters of common interest and by concluding agreements and adopting joint actions in the economic, social, cultural, scientific, legal and administrative fields, as well as by safeguarding and furthering fundamental human rights and freedoms.

(c) The participation of members in the work of the Council of Europe shall not affect their work within the United Nations and other international organizations or unions to which they are parties.

(d) Questions relating to national defence do not fall within the competence of the Council of Europe.



2. Main bodies of the Council of Europe

The Committee of Ministers (CM), made up of the 47 Ministers of Foreign Affairs or their permanent delegations in Strasbourg (ambassadors/permanent representatives), is the decision-making body of the organization and the body competent to act on behalf of the Council of Europe. The Committee of Ministers examines, on the basis of a recommendation by the Parliamentary Assembly or on its own initiative, measures likely to realize the aim of the Council of Europe, including the conclusion of conventions and agreements and the adoption by governments of a common policy on certain problems.

The conclusions of the Committee of Ministers may, where appropriate, become recommendations to the governments of member States, which may be invited to report on the action taken in pursuance of such recommendations.

The Parliamentary Assembly (PE) is the body made up of parliamentarians from the 47 member states (the number of national parliamentarians from each country is calculated according to population). PACE meets four times a year in plenary sessions, and a meeting of specialized committees is also held annually in one of the member or observer states. Each national delegation is composed to reflect the political representation in the national legislature.

The Congress of Local and Regional Authorities in Europe (CALR) is made up of elected representatives of local and regional authorities or officials directly accountable to them. The CALR is a consultative body of the Council of Europe and consists of the Chamber of Local Authorities and the Chamber of Regions. The national delegations to the Committee of Local and Regional Authorities must meet certain criteria: gender balance, political criteria, geographical distribution, and be representative of the different types of local and regional authorities in each member state.

The judicial body – the European Court of Human Rights (ECHR) – has its origins in the European Convention on Human Rights. The ECHR is directly accessible to individuals and its jurisdiction is binding on all contracting states. The Court is composed of the same number of judges as the member states of the Council of Europe.

You do not have to be a citizen of one of the member countries of the Council of Europe to apply to the ECHR. It is sufficient that the alleged violation has been committed by one of the Contracting States within its jurisdiction, which generally corresponds to its territory. The application must imperatively concern one of the rights set out in the European Convention on Human Rights.

The Secretariat General is not one of the bodies called upon to define the Council of Europe's policy and programmes. Its role, which is particularly important in itself, is essentially technical and administrative.

3. Council of Europe achievements

- European treaties or conventions having the force of law, many of which are open to non-member states, in areas such as human rights, the fight against organized crime, the prevention of torture, data protection or cultural cooperation.



- Recommendations to the governments of member states setting out guiding principles in the fields of law, health, education, culture and sport.
- November 4th, 1950, Rome. The European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms is signed. It is the first international legal instrument guaranteeing the protection of human rights.
- December 19th, 1954, Paris, the European Cultural Convention is signed for all States wishing to cooperate in the fields of education, culture, youth and sport.
- September 18th, 1959, Strasbourg. Establishment of the European Court of Human Rights at the Council of Europe, set up by the European Convention on Human Rights to ensure that contracting states comply with their obligations under the Convention.
- October 18th, 1961, Turin. The European Social Charter, designed to complement the civil and political rights guaranteed by the European Convention on Human Rights, is opened for signature. It covers health, education, the right to work, social protection, etc.
- -November 26th, 1987, Strasbourg. The European Convention for the Prevention of Torture and Inhuman Treatment or Punishment is signed.
- February 1st, 1995, Strasbourg. The Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities is opened for signature.

4. Objectives of the Council of Europe

The aims of the Council of Europe cover four fields of action:

- protection of human rights and fundamental freedoms;
- peace-building;
- improving the quality of life of the peoples of Europe;
- fostering the development of democracy.



Chapter V. The essence and evolution of the European Union

1. From the European idea to the European Community

The process of building the EU is a complex but original journey, determined and influenced by many factors. The process of European integration began in 1950 with the famous Declaration by the French Foreign Minister, Robert Schuman, on the basis of which the Treaty of Paris or Treaty establishing the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) was signed in 1951. The creation of the ECSC meant the creation of a genuine common market for coal, iron ore and steel, characterized by the abolition of customs barriers, while maintaining the principle of free competition.

The successful negotiations to create a common market for coal and steel were accompanied by negotiations on the establishment of the European Defence Community (EDC). The 1952 EDC Treaty will never enter into force, as the French National Assembly, concerned about German rearmament, will refuse to ratify it, but it demonstrates the scope and scale of European integration initiatives and trends.

The failure to create the EDC did not cause European countries to lose interest in the subject of deepening integration. Following an in-depth negotiating process, two treaties were signed in Rome on March 25, 1957 by the six members of the ECSC. The European Economic Community (EEC) and the European Atomic Energy Community (EAEC) were created. The former aimed at sustainable economic development through the establishment of a single market, including the free movement of goods, capital, services and persons. The second organization aimed to jointly manage atomic energy resources for member countries.

The further development of the European integration process is characterized by two interrelated but somewhat autonomous processes: the expansion of the number of Member States of the Community (from 6 to 27) and the further deepening of integration, leading to the creation of the economic and monetary union, which is the highest form of integration.

The increase in the number of countries participating in the European integration process took place in several stages:

- I. Enlargement northwards – with the accession of Denmark, Ireland and Great Britain in 1973;
- II. Southward enlargement – with the accession of 3 new countries: Greece (1981), Spain and Portugal (1986).

After a steady rise in the number of member states, as well as a result of increasing competition from world markets and the shortcomings in the functioning of the EEC, European leaders realized the need to deepen economic integration within the Community and to generate a deeper political dialogue that would foster economic integration. As a result, following negotiations between the Member States, the Single European Act (SEA) was signed in February 1986, the importance of which lay in relaunching Community activity by completing a large internal market by January 1, 1993, and in extending Community powers. The great merit of this Act also lies in its



preparation for a deepening of European integration in new areas and dimensions, which will take place with the entry into force of the Maastricht Treaty in 1993.

2. From the European Community to the European Union

European integration took place through the adoption and continuous amendment of treaties that represented the consensus of European leaders on the need to create European unity. The European Treaties bring about an intense Europeanization of the Member States and ensure the formation and development of the single European area. They point to the crucial points in the evolution of the European Union and deal with the principles of integration.

In parallel with the process of deepening European integration, a process of enlargement of the Union also took place after 1991, and the Union now has 27 Member States. The enlargement of the EU in the post-Cold War period has been achieved in the following directions:

- I. EFTA enlargement. This wave is marked by the accession of 3 member states of the European Free Trade Association: Austria, Sweden, Finland (1995).
- II. Eastward enlargement. It took place in 3 stages: 2004 – accession of 10 Central and Eastern European countries: Lithuania, Latvia, Estonia, Poland, Hungary, Czech Republic, Slovakia, Slovenia, Malta, Cyprus; 2007 – accession of 2 new Eastern European countries: Romania and Bulgaria; 2013 – accession of Croatia.

Since the beginning of the 2010s, the cohesion of the European Union has been tested on several fronts, following the debt crisis in some eurozone countries, increased migration from the Middle East and the UK's withdrawal from the European Union.

In 2016, the United Kingdom held a referendum on its membership to the European Union. On that occasion, 51.9% of participants voted to leave the Union. On March 29, 2017, the United Kingdom formally notified the European Council of its decision to leave the EU, initiating the formal withdrawal procedure. The United Kingdom left the European Union on January 31, 2020.



Chapter VI. European Union Treaties

The Treaties of Rome – 1957/1958

Establishing the European Economic Community and the European Atomic Energy Community. The first Community aimed to achieve sustainable economic development through the creation of a single market, including the free movement of goods, capital, services and persons. The second organization aimed to jointly manage atomic energy resources for member countries.

The Single European Act – 1986/1987

Reform of the Community's institutions, extension of its powers and responsibilities, cooperation in foreign policy, measures to implement the common market. The Treaty provides for the relaunch of Community activity by the completion of a large internal market by January 1, 1993, and the extension of Community powers. One of the merits of this Act is that it paves the way for a deepening of European integration in new areas and dimensions, which will be achieved with the signing of the Maastricht Treaty in 1992.

The Treaty of Maastricht – 1992/1993

Adoption of the name European Union instead of European Community. European citizenship. The Treaty provided for far-reaching changes to the Union's institutions and the way it operates in order to guarantee the EU's efficiency, as well as the creation of the Economic Union and the implementation of the single European currency.

The Treaty of Amsterdam – 1997/1999

Strengthening the political union and preparing for enlargement, reforming the EU institutions, introducing the post of High Representative for the Common Foreign and Security Policy, developing freedom, security and justice. The importance of the treaty lies in affirming the democratic dimension of the Union; refining certain EU policies: in the field of common foreign and security policy or the free movement of persons; bringing the Union closer to its citizens; reforming the Union's institutions, etc.

The Treaty of Nice – 2001/2003

Internal reforms in the EU (concerning decision-making and representation of Member States in the European institutions), preparing for the accession of new members, developing and strengthening the common foreign and security policy. The Treaty's main objective was to adapt the Union's institutional structure to the forthcoming eastward enlargements, which foreshadowed the need for far-reaching Community efforts. The main changes introduced by the Treaty concern: the composition and functioning of the European institutions; the decision-making procedures of certain EU bodies; and closer cooperation between the EU institutions.

The Treaty of Lisbon – 2007/2009

Development of democracy and transparency, new powers for the European Parliament, the possibility to withdraw from the Union, optimization of the decision-making process. The Union will have a single legal personality. Main changes: creation of the office of President of the Union, strengthening the role of the European Parliament, changing the voting procedure to ensure the efficient functioning of the European institutions, guaranteeing the Union's external cohesion, etc.



Chapter VII. The European Union today

The EU is currently made up of 27 Member States with a population of around 447 million (2023). It has its own effective institutions, which are empowered to adopt joint decisions binding on all Member States in order to realize European interests and ensure the continued development of the Member States and the entire continent.

However, the essence of the European Union is difficult to establish. The European Union, the most integrated system of regional inter-state cooperation with elements of supranationality, is a group of states uniting their sovereignty to create common policies. The European Union is a unique entity both in structure and organization.

The European Union, as a political entity, is based on the functioning of 3 pillars, which represent an original structure, unrepeatable for other international bodies. The concept of pillars of the EU is a form of representation of the complex structure which expresses the varying degree of intensity and difference of principles underlying cooperation in various areas of European integration. The concept of the pillars became established in common practice with the adoption of the Maastricht Treaty. On the one hand, the Member States set themselves the objective of deepening integration and delegating new competences to the European institutions on the basis of the supranational method in the economic field, while on the other hand, they did not wish to transfer new competences to the supranational level in the political and home affairs field, using the method of intergovernmental cooperation.

The complex structure of the pillars is a consequence of the Union's political development. Since the first four decades of European integration were mainly economic and the basic principle of decision-making in this area was supranational, the first pillar was given the name "Community" and includes all three economic communities formed over the years: the ECSC, EEC and EAEC. In the area concerned (economic), the states gave up the principle of national sovereignty and intergovernmental cooperation and accepted the principle of supranationality of the functioning of the communities.

The further deepening of economic deepening has emphasized the need to intensify cooperation also in the political field, without which economic integration would be doomed to failure. On the political front, however, the European states wanted to largely preserve their sovereign rights in the decision-making process. For this reason, the operating principle in the other two areas of cooperation, which represent the other pillars of the Union: the Common Foreign and Security Policy and Cooperation in the field of Justice and Home Affairs, remained that of intergovernmental cooperation.

The EU created under the Maastricht Treaty is therefore the synthesis of these 3 forms of cooperation defined as pillars. However, the EU does not have an autonomous legal personality; only the first pillar communities do. The term European Union is not a legal category in its own right, even though the Treaty defines the concept of citizenship of the Union and the rights that go with it. In this sense, the EU is rather a political expression signifying the universal cooperation of the Member States and representing all the elements of European integration.



The European Union has a set of symbols which identify and distinguish it.

Europe's flag

The European Council in Milan (June 28-29, 1985) first raised the question of adopting symbols for the Community: the flag, an anthem, Europe Day. In March 1986, at a meeting between the President of the European Parliament and the President of the Commission, the current flag was proposed.

On May 29, 1986 the flag, or Europe's flag, was hoisted for the first time as the official emblem of the Community. The flag is azure blue with twelve golden stars (symbol of perfection and completeness) in a circle in the center. It is interesting to note that the same flag was previously adopted by the Council of Europe as its symbol as early as December 8, 1955. The identity of the flag highlights the common trunk and common objectives of the two organizations: the Council of Europe and the European Union. It should also be noted that the existence of the twelve stars on the flag has nothing to do with the fact that at that time (1986) there were twelve Member States in the Community.

Anthem of Europe

On May 5, 1972, the Council of Europe adopted as its own anthem the first part of the prelude to the fourth bar of Ludwig van Beethoven's Ninth Symphony (in D minor, opus 125), composed in 1824, with special arrangements by Herbert von Karajan, conductor of the Berlin Philharmonic. Beethoven composed the music to Friedrich von Schiller's Ode an die Freude (Ode to Joy). This anthem was adopted by the Community, like the flag, following the decision of the Milan European Council. It was first played officially on May 29, 1986, on the occasion of the raising of the European flag in front of the Community building in Brussels.

Europe Day

In 1964, the Council of Europe adopted May 5, the date on which the Treaty of London was signed in 1949, as Europe Day. The Milan European Council, however, no longer accepted the existing solution: it proposed May 9, the day of the Schuman Declaration, which paved the way for integration, as Europe Day. It is sometimes called Schuman Day or Europe Day.

Europe's motto

In 2000, *In varietate concordia* (Unity in diversity) was adopted as the motto of the European Union, but the European Constitution and the EU's official website now use the form United in diversity, which tends to replace the former.

European currency: the euro

The adoption of a European currency to replace the old national currencies has an extraordinary symbolic, mental, financial and economic value. The decision to name the European currency the euro was taken at the Madrid European Council (December 1995). Since January 1, 2002, euro notes and coins have become a physical reality for 300 million Europeans in twelve EU countries.

At the heart of the European Union are a number of objectives that reflect its character. These include promoting economic and social progress, asserting the European identity, protecting the rights and interests of European citizens, guaranteeing their freedom, and so on.



Chapter VIII. Representative, executive and judicial institutions

The European Union's institutional set-up is unique and its decision-making system is constantly evolving. The 7 European institutions, 8 EU bodies and over 30 decentralised agencies are spread across the EU. They work together to address the common interests of the EU and European people.

In terms of administration, there are a further 20 EU agencies and organisations which carry out specific legal functions and 4 interinstitutional services which support the institutions.

All of these establishments have specific roles – from developing EU laws and policy-making to implementing policies and working on specialist areas, such as health, medicine, transport and the environment.

There are 4 main decision-making institutions which lead the EU's administration. These institutions collectively provide the EU with policy direction and play different roles in the law-making process:

- the European Parliament (Brussels/Strasbourg/Luxembourg)
- the European Council (Brussels)
- the Council of the European Union (Brussels/Luxembourg)
- the European Commission (Brussels/Luxembourg/Representations across the EU)
- Their work is complemented by other institutions and bodies, which include:
 - the Court of Justice of the European Union (Luxembourg)
 - the European Central Bank (Frankfurt)
 - the European Court of Auditors (Luxembourg)

The European Parliament (EP) is one of the European Union's representative institutions. Together with the Council, it exercises legislative and budgetary functions, as well as political control and consultation.

The European Parliament represents the interests of the Union's citizens. It is elected by all the citizens of the European Union by direct universal suffrage in a free and secret ballot for a five-year term. In accordance with the Treaty of Lisbon, the number of representatives in the EP does not exceed 750 plus the President. Each country is allocated at least 6 seats, but no more than 96. The Member State decides how MEPs are elected, but in accordance with general European values and principles. The European Parliament is structured in the same way as the national parliaments, according to administrative and political criteria. The Parliament is led by the President, assisted by 14 Vice-Presidents. Internal operations are coordinated by the Bureau, which comprises the President, the Vice-Presidents and 6 Quaestors (responsible for administrative matters concerning MEPs). The 20 parliamentary committees, which meet 1-2 times a month, are the internal working bodies of the parliament and carry out preliminary expertise on draft laws and other acts.

MEPs organize themselves into parliamentary groups according to their political views. MEPs work in Brussels, Strasbourg and in their own constituencies. They



exercise their mandate independently and cannot take instructions from citizens or national governments. Together with the Council, the EP adopts European laws.

The Council is an intergovernmental institution of the European Union with legislative and budgetary powers, which it exercises jointly with the European Parliament. It represents the interests of the Member States. One minister from each Member State attends its meetings, empowered to make commitments on behalf of the government they represent. The Council is led by a President, assisted by the Secretary-General. The Presidency of the Council rotates for a period of six months.



The Council adopts European laws jointly with the EP, coordinates the economic policy of the Member States, determines and implements the common foreign and security policy, concludes international agreements on behalf of the EU, approves the EU budget jointly with the EP, coordinates cooperation between Member States and adopts measures to fight crime.

The European Council, a meeting of the heads of state or government of the member states, gives the European Union the necessary impetus for its development and defines its general political guidelines and priorities, resolving problems that cannot be resolved by the Council. The composition of the European Council includes its President (elected by qualified majority for a term of 2.5 years, renewable once) and the President of the Commission.

The European Council meets twice every six months, convened by its President. At the end of each summit, the President of the European Council presents a report to the EP on the results of its work.

The European Commission is the only executive institution of the European Union. It promotes the general interest of the European Union, exercises coordinating, executive and administrative functions, including the function of guardian of the Treaties, i.e. applying and enforcing the Treaties, allocating funds; it



ensures, with certain exceptions, the external representation of the Union, etc. Each Member State is represented by a European Commissioner. The President convenes the Commission at least once a week and may ask a member to resign. Commission meetings are not public and debates are confidential. The Commission exercises its functions independently, not taking instructions from any government, institution, etc. The Commission, with a 5-year mandate, is collegially accountable to the EP. The Commission is composed of one representative from each Member State. The President of the Commission decides the field of activity of each Commissioner. The Treaty of Lisbon provides that from 2014 the number of members of the Commission will be equal to 2/3 of the number of Member States, with the activation of a strict rotation system to reflect the demographic and geographical diversity of all Member States. The Treaty of Lisbon provides for the reorganization of the judiciary by introducing the concept of the Court of Justice of the European Union, which designates the Community judicial system. The Court of Justice of the European Union, according to the new treaty, comprises the Court of Justice, the General Court and the specialized General and General Courts.



The Court of Justice of the European Communities ensures that Community law is interpreted and enforced uniformly throughout the EU. These functions take the form of the Court's power to interpret Community law at the request of national courts. The Court decides on infringements of Community law by a Member State, has exclusive jurisdiction to settle disputes between a Member State and the European Parliament and/or against the Council (with certain exceptions) or between Community institutions, can review the legality of the Community institutions' failure to act, etc. The Court of Justice is composed of 27 judges and 11 advocates-general. Each Member State appoints one judge. The Advocates-General are appointed by common accord of the Member States. The Judges and Advocates-General are chosen from among lawyers qualified to hold high office in the Member States and able to guarantee impartiality. Their term of office is 6 years.



The Court of First Instance is attached to the Court of Justice. It was set up in 1988 to help the Court of Justice cope with its caseload. The Court is responsible for settling disputes between legal and natural persons and the EU institutions concerning the effects of their acts, between Member States and the Commission, the Council, etc. It is composed of one judge from each Member State. The form of work is identical to that of the Court of Justice, with the majority of cases heard by chambers of three judges. Decisions given by the Tribunal may be appealed to the Court of Justice.

The Civil Service Tribunal settles disputes between EU civil servants and EU officials. Set up in 1989, it operates attached to the Court of First Instance. It is composed of 7 judges appointed by the Council for 6 years. Its membership is renewable subject to geographical representation. It sits in plenary sessions, in chambers of 5 or 3 judges (more often than not) or in a single-judge formation. Decisions adopted by the Civil Service Tribunal can be appealed to the Court of First Instance.

Advisory and financial institutions

1. Consultative institutions

The European Economic and Social Committee (EESC) represents the interests of civil society at European level, facilitating and promoting dialogue with it.

It is made up of members drawn from all the Member States. The term of office is five years and is renewable. Members are appointed by the Council on a proposal from the national governments. The EESC is made up of three distinct categories of representatives: employers (representatives of the public and private sectors in industry, commerce, finance, transport, etc.); employees (representatives of national trade union confederations) and various interests (farmers, craftsmen, non-governmental organizations, etc.).

The EESC participates in the European decision-making process, and its consultation is mandatory in areas such as the single market, education, consumer protection, regional development, social affairs, etc. The EESC can issue own-initiative opinions, exploratory opinions (preliminary opinions) and impact reports.

The decision-making bodies of the EESC are the Presidency, the Bureau and the General Assembly.

The working bodies are the specialized sections: Single Market, Production and Consumption; Transport, Energy, Infrastructure and Information Society; Agriculture, Rural Development and Environment; Economic and Monetary Union, Economic and Social Cohesion; Employment, Social Affairs and Citizenship; External Relations. Recently, the Consultative Commission on Industrial Change, the Single Market Observatory, the Sustainable Development Observatory, the Observatory on Sustainable Development and the Observatory on the Labor Market have been created.

The Committee of the Regions (CoR) ensures relations between European, regional and local authorities. By participating in the legislative process, it promotes the interests of local and regional authorities at European level. It was created out of a desire to make the implementation of European legislation more efficient through local and regional authorities.



It is made up of locally and regionally elected representatives from the 27 Member States. Members continue to exercise their local or regional mandate. Representatives are appointed, on the recommendation of national governments, by the Council for 5 years. Alternates replace members when necessary.

The CoR participates in the European decision-making process through its positions offered to the Parliament, the Council and the Commission. CoR consultation is mandatory in the following areas: economic and social cohesion, trans-European transport networks, energy or telecommunications, public health, education and youth, culture, workforce, social policies, environment, vocational training, transport. The CoR can also draw up own-initiative opinions, enabling it to put specific subjects on the EU agenda.

The CoR works in sections and then in plenary sessions (simple majority). It is divided into 6 specialized committees: Committee on Territorial Cohesion Policy; Committee on Economic and Social Policy; Committee on Sustainable Development; Committee on Culture, Education and Research; Committee on Constitutional Affairs, European Governance and the Area of Freedom, Security and Justice; Committee on External Relations and Decentralized Cooperation. Representation on committees is on a national basis.

2. Financial institutions

The European Court of Auditors (ECA) carries out the external audit of EU funds, which includes the EU budget and that of its institutions. It assesses whether EU funds have been collected and used in accordance with the law and managed economically and efficiently. The aim of the Court of Auditors' work is to improve financial management and communicate to EU citizens how public money is spent.

The Court of Auditors assists the European Parliament and the Council in scrutinizing the implementation of the EU budget. At the end of each year, the Court draws up an audit report for the previous financial year, on the basis of which the Parliament assesses how the Commission has managed the budget. At the same time, at the request of a Community institution, it delivers opinions on various aspects of financial management and may at any time submit its observations, particularly in the form of special reports, on specific matters. The Court of Auditors is not able to intervene in the event of financial irregularities or fraud being detected. In such cases, the Court of Auditors informs the European Anti-Fraud Office (OLAF).

It operates wherever European finances are present: in the EU institutions, national governments and local authorities, as well as in non-EU countries.

It is composed of 27 members, one from each Member State, each with a 6-year mandate. The Court of Auditors is headed by the President and is structured into specialized audit groups.

The European Central Bank (ECB) administers the single European currency (euro) and ensures that its purchasing power, i.e. price stability, is maintained in the euro area. In particular, the ECB defines and implements monetary policy, carries out foreign exchange operations, holds and manages the foreign exchange reserves of the euro area countries, ensures the smooth functioning of payment systems, authorizes the issue of banknotes, etc. It has to ensure that prices rise by less than 2%, by setting interest rate thresholds, raising them if it wants to keep inflation under control and lowering them if it considers inflation not to be a problem. To carry out its functions, the ECB runs the European System of Central Banks (ESCB), which includes the



national banks of the euro area countries. The ECB together with the central banks of the EU member states make up the Euro system.

The ECB is governed by the President, the Executive Board (the President of the ECB, the Vice-President and 4 members, all appointed by common accord of the presidents or prime ministers of the euro area countries), the Governing Council (the members of the Executive Board plus the governors of the euro area national banks) and the General Council (composed of the President and Vice-President of the ECB and all the governors of the national banks of the Member States). It is an institution that is independent of both the Member States and the other EU institutions.

The European Investment Bank (EIB) was set up to contribute to economic, social and territorial cohesion through the balanced development of the EU Member States. It lends long-term loans for projects that contribute to the achievement of the European Union's objectives. Loans are offered to both public and private institutions.

The EIB's shareholders are the Member States of the European Union. The EIB is independent of the EU budget. It operates in accordance with banking practice, but is a non-profit, self-financing institution. The EIB raises capital from the banking market and invests it in projects of public interest.

It operates both inside and outside the European Union. The EIB's priorities for the EU are to support: cohesion and convergence; small and medium-sized enterprises through the European Investment Fund (EIF); environmental sustainability; the innovation initiative; the development of trans-European transport and energy networks; sustainable, competitive and secure energy sources. It works with pre-accession countries, candidate or potential candidate countries, EU neighbors, developing countries, etc. In these countries, EIB policy focuses on private sector and infrastructure development, energy security. The EIB is governed by the Board of Governors, composed of the finance ministers of all the Member States.

3. Other European institutions

The EU has developed an impressive administrative system. In addition to the main Community institutions, there are a number of administrative institutions. They ensure the smooth running of the EU by managing particular aspects of the implementation of Community policies, and by carrying out cooperation and collaboration between the Member States and the EU's representative institutions. A distinct category of institutions are the inter-institutional institutions. The Office for Official Publications of the European Communities is responsible for the production and distribution of all official EU publications, including the Official Journal of the European Union. The European Personnel Selection Office is responsible for organizing competitions to recruit staff to the European institutions (European officials). The European Administrative School is responsible for organizing training in specific areas for European officials.

Another group of institutions is made up of European agencies with technical, scientific or administrative tasks. They are structured in 4 areas: Community Agencies (working in the first pillar of the EU), Common Foreign and Security Policy Agencies (working in the second pillar of the EU), Justice and Home Affairs Cooperation Agencies (working in the third pillar of the EU) and Executive Agencies (managing one or more EU programs).



Chapter IX. Decision-making in the EU institutions

1. Decision-making in the institutions of the European Union

Decisions in the European Parliament are taken by simple or absolute majority. A simple majority is a majority (50%+1vote) of the Members of Parliament taking part in the vote. This majority is variable. Under the co-decision procedure, it is used to vote, at first and second reading, to approve the Council's common position and to refuse to approve the joint text established by the Conciliation Committee.

An absolute majority represents a majority of the Members of Parliament. In the current configuration, the absolute majority is expressed in 393 votes (out of 785). Under the co-decision procedure, it is used to vote against the Council's common position at second reading or to adopt amendments.

In the European Council, decisions are taken by unanimity, assuming a consensus among all Member States. There is the danger of a veto by one member state.

Voting power in the Council is not reduced to the formula: one man (one country), one vote. The votes available to a Member State depend on the size of its population. However, states with a small population are favoured.

On a number of issues (common foreign and security policy, taxation, immigration and asylum) the Council adopts decisions by unanimity which, since the Single European Act, are being applied more and more restrictively. In the context of the co-decision procedure, this is necessary in 3 cases: social security for migrant employees, recognition of diplomas (including amendments to national laws) and action to promote culture. Unanimity is also used when amending the Commission proposal.

In most cases, however, the Council takes decisions by qualified majority, which represents 255 votes or 73.91% of the total. Similarly, the decision must be supported by a majority of Member States (at least 14).

In some situations, a Member State may request verification of the population share. In this case, if the pro votes do not represent 62% of the total EU population, the decision is not considered adopted.

2. Specific decision-making procedures in the European Union

In the EU there are 3 main procedures that the decision-making process can follow, depending on the article on which the Commission's legislative initiative is based.

Co-decision is the adoption of legislative acts by the European Parliament and the Council. This procedure stems from the fact that both Community institutions exercise a legislative function. The co-decision procedure comprises 3 stages. In the initial phase, the Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions are involved, and in the second and third phases – the Council, through its opinions.

The Council must obtain Parliament's consent before adopting certain decisions of major importance. Parliament can accept or reject the proposal, but not modify it



(propose amendments). Assent requires a majority of votes. The procedure is used in particular when concluding agreements with other states, including in the case of accession agreements with new countries.

Consultation or simple opinion allows Parliament to give its opinion on Commission proposals. Under this procedure, the Council consults Parliament, the Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions before giving its opinion on Commission proposals. The Council is obliged to consult Parliament's opinion, not to respect it. It is used in areas such as agriculture, competition, taxation and treaty revision.

3. Involving citizens in decision-making

Decision-making by citizens is carried out through referendums, which are the expression, by vote, of the people's attitude to the alternatives for solving particular societal problems. Of course, citizens' opinions and attitudes are also taken into account in decisions taken by political elites (citizens' representatives). The position of society is articulated by the mass media, it is traced through polls, but also through direct communication between elites and citizens. In this case, citizens' wishes are not fully respected. Referendums, on the contrary, transfer decision-making power to the citizens. Referendums are not currently used at European level. That is to say, at a general European level, issues cannot be subject to referendums: they are dealt with at Member State level, in the context of European issues.

There are 2 types of "European" referendums:

- citizens vote on the state's actions in relation to the EU, on an issue specific only to that state. These are referendums on EU membership etc.;
- carried out in the context of ratification (agreement of the state to be party to a treaty) by Member States of treaties or agreements signed at European level.

Only in 2 EU Member States, Ireland and Denmark, ratification of international treaties is subject to a mandatory popular vote. In the other countries, referendums are at the discretion of the institutions of state power (the ruling elite), and ratification can be carried out by parliament. Referendums are used for various reasons: to legitimize European integration, to exclude European issues from elections, etc.

There are also ways of overriding the veto applied by referendums on the European treaties: e.g. revising the treaties and proposing new versions. Another way is the deviation used by Denmark in 1993 and Ireland in 2001. This scenario consists of a subsequent return to a referendum on the subject.



Chapter X. European citizenship

What is European citizenship?

Defining European citizenship is a real challenge for the theory and practice of citizenship. For the first time, the definition of the term is not necessarily about belonging to a territory, a culture and a nation state. European citizenship refers to a set of European values and institutions.

In legal terms, European citizenship (understood as EU citizenship) was first defined by the Maastricht Treaty, complemented by the Treaty of Amsterdam and subsequently summarized in the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights.

As defined in the Maastricht Treaty, any person who is a national of a Member State of the Union is also a citizen of the EU. European Union citizenship complements national citizenship, overlapping with it but not replacing it. This status allows a limited number of rights – supranational rights – to be exercised on the territory of the Member State in which the person lives (and not only in the country of origin). The Maastricht Treaty establishes five categories of supranational rights, which complement the rights guaranteed by the constitutions of the Member States. It should be made clear that these rights only become effective outside the political and legal area of their own State.

By the Treaty of Amsterdam, the status of European citizen includes, in addition, the following rights:

- The right to address the European institutions in an official language of the European Union and to receive a reply written in the same language;
- the right of access to documents of the European Parliament, the Council and the European Commission, under certain conditions;
- the right to non-discrimination, on grounds of nationality, sex, race, religion, disability, age or sexual orientation, between citizens of the Union;
- the right of equal access to Community public service.

System of protection of European citizens' rights

European citizenship grants rights to citizens of the Member States and thus strengthens their protection. A well-organized system for the protection of citizens' rights has been developed, characterized by certain specific features. Firstly, since European citizenship is a two-tier construction (national citizenship, recognized by a Member State, and supranational citizenship, represented by the additional rights introduced by the Maastricht Treaty), the protection mechanisms are also built on two levels: in addition to procedures at national level, procedures are available at EU level. Secondly, at each level, a new, dual system of protection of the rights deriving from the legal status of European citizen is available.

The rights offered by European citizenship can be protected by:

a) non-judicial mechanisms, represented by:

- Petitions Committee of the European Parliament. Citizens may petition the European Parliament on any matter concerning the Union which directly affects them. They will be examined by the Petitions Committee of the European



Parliament which can put pressure on the parties involved, even if it is not empowered to directly redress the situation.

- Ombudsman. The European Ombudsman can be involved in disputes between citizens and Community institutions, but does not intervene in disputes at national level.
- European Commission. Citizens can complain about any suspected infringement/non-compliance with Community law by a Member State. The Commission will examine the complaint and may ask the country concerned to amend its legislation. Does not apply to disputes between private individuals.

b) legal mechanisms, represented by:

- European Court of Justice (based in Luxembourg);
- The European Court of Human Rights (based in Strasbourg): for citizens of non-EU countries which are members of the Council of Europe.

The importance of citizenship for the European integration process

European integration is one of the great political achievements of the late 20th century. However, it remains incomplete and vulnerable without the construction of a model of a citizen who is loyal to European values and institutions and an active participant in the process of European integration. As a result, in European theory and practice, European citizens are not only actors in the construction of Europe, but also its ultimate goal.

To become a citizen, including a European citizen, it is not enough to be born into a particular society. In order to do so, each person must learn the codes and conduct specific to citizenship. Increasing the degree of participation in and assumption of European citizenship, in line with the slogan Citizens' Europe, is a priority goal for public policies in the European area. Strengthening the EU's image and identity at European and global level depends on the success of this process.



Chapter XI. Aspects of European economic integration

1. Economic integration is one of the main aspects of contemporary integrationist processes, and in the case of the EU it can even be considered as the foundation of European integration.

As a rule, economic integration processes are emphasized at the regional level, achieving more advanced forms of integration. However, in the conditions of globalization, one can also speak of a process of economic integration at global level. Regardless of this, it should be noted that the EU is the only international integrationist organization that has achieved economic union – a higher form of integration.

Economic integration is the cornerstone of the European integration process. This was manifested first and foremost in the creation of economic communities such as the ECSC, EEC and EURATOM, because without a stable, viable and strong economy it would be impossible to build a strong Europe capable of solving the social, political and cultural problems on the agenda of the day. The importance of economic integration is also evident from the fact that the economic development criterion is also a fundamental criterion for the accession of new countries to the EU. Integration processes not only aim to guarantee stability and peace in the region, but also require mechanisms to stimulate development and economic profit.

2. As a multidimensional and complex process, economic integration can take different forms, differing in the degree of intensity of integration and the level of interdependencies. As a rule, the forms of economic integration are as follows:

- a) Free trade area – an agreement between a group of states to remove barriers and double taxation in mutual trade relations. Each state maintains trade relations with non-members of the zone. The simplest level of the Free Trade Area is the preferential trade area – when its members set lower tariffs for themselves than for non-members, but the movement of goods is not free anyway.
- b) Customs Union – one step above the Free Trade Area. It involves an agreement between states to establish a common external tariff (a single level of taxation on goods arriving in the Customs Union) of customs duties in order to facilitate the free movement of goods throughout the Union.
- c) Single Market – in which obstacles to the free movement of capital, labour, services and persons are removed.
- d) Economic Union – implies the introduction of a single currency (euro), harmonization and unification of monetary, fiscal and social policies. The EU's Economic and Monetary Union serves as an example of this form of integration.

Economic integration processes are a long, step-by-step process, from simple to compound. In this sense, the first stage aims at the creation of the Free Trade Area, the subsequent transition to customs union and finally reaching the most advanced forms of economic integration – the Single Market and Economic Union. Thus, economic integration carries an integrationist logic based on human experience.

3. The first step in European economic integration was the signing of the Treaty of Paris (1951) establishing the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) – the first



European economic community, based in Luxembourg. The first President of the ECSC High Authority was the distinguished European leader Jean Monnet, and the founding members – France, Germany, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Belgium, Germany, Italy. The central objective of the ECSC is to create a common market in coal and steel for the member states by abolishing customs duties. As the first supranational organization with federal characteristics, the first real outline of European unity, the ECSC also marked the gradual transition from a Europe of "cooperation" to a Europe of "integration".

The adoption of the Treaties of Rome (1957) on the European Economic Community (EEC) and the European Atomic Energy Community (EURATOM) by the six founding countries was the second important step in European economic integration. The central objective of the Treaty was to create a common market in which the four fundamental freedoms could be realized. The Treaty on the EEC provides for the gradual abolition of quantitative restrictions and customs and other barriers and the establishment of a common customs tariff vis-à-vis third countries. The Treaty also contains special provisions on agriculture, the establishment of a European Investment Bank and the creation of a development fund. The exceptional importance of the EEC Treaty lies in the organization of a common market in which goods, services, labour and capital can move freely and without restrictions.

The signing of the Single European Act (1986) marked a new stage in the development of European economic integration, the importance of which lay in the amendment of the basic treaties of the European Communities (ECSC, EEC and EURATOM). The Treaty was essentially aimed at setting concrete deadlines for the completion of the single market, with a deadline of 1 January 1993. The Member States therefore launched a vast programme of adjustment and standardization of national legislation in line with the legal provisions of the Communities.

Although the Maastricht Treaty (1992) has seen an impressive evolution over the first four decades, it signalled the transition to a new, more advanced and more ambitious form of economic integration. The Maastricht Treaty provides for the creation of Economic and Monetary Union – the most advanced form of European economic integration. On January 1, 1999, the single currency, the euro, was introduced, initially involving only 11 countries.

Establishing Economic and Monetary Union within the EU was a unique and complicated experience. The process continues to require sustained efforts by the Member States to capitalize on the advantages of this form of economic integration and to neutralize the challenges it poses.

The European Union is the only international integrationist organization that has achieved this higher form of integration. It is precisely because of the model it offers, because of its advanced economic development, because of the way it solves problems, that the EU is attractive for economic collaboration and cooperation for countries aspiring to European integration, including economic integration.



Chapter XII. Areas of common interest in the European Union

Classification of the main common European policies

The European Union is a political, social and economic entity developed in Europe, made up of 27 states. Considered to be a unique, sui-generis construction, this entity, situated between federation and confederation, is based on 3 pillars (see diagram below).

<p>First pillar (supranational – federation)</p> <p>European Communities (EC)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Common Agricultural Policy ▪ Customs Union and Internal Market ▪ Competition policy and state subsidies ▪ Structural Policy ▪ Trade policy ▪ Economic and Monetary Union ▪ European Citizenship ▪ Education and culture ▪ Research and Environment ▪ Trans-European Networks ▪ Health ▪ Consumer protection ▪ Social policy ▪ Common immigration policy ▪ Asylum policy ▪ Border protection 	<p>Second pillar (intergovernmental – confederation)</p> <p>Common Foreign and Security Policy (CFSP)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Foreign Policy: ▪ Cooperation ▪ Peacekeeping ▪ Election observers and joint intervention troops ▪ Human Rights ▪ Democracy ▪ Assistance to third countries ▪ Security policy: ▪ European security and defence policy ▪ Disarmament ▪ Economic aspects of disarmament ▪ European security system 	<p>Third pillar (intergovernmental – confederation)</p> <p>Justice and Home Affairs (JHA) cooperation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Drug trafficking and arms trafficking ▪ Human trafficking ▪ Terrorism ▪ Crimes against minors ▪ Organized crime ▪ Corruption, corruptibility and fraud
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(www.dadalos-europe.org/rom)

Based on this structure of the EU, we can make a classification of the main European Community policies, which would comprise 3 structural strands, namely:

- I. Pillar I policies;
- II. Pillar II policies;
- III. Policies referring to Pillar III.



Chapter XIII. Problems in common European policies

First of all, the interlinking and coordination of policies which, as can be seen, are part of different EU pillars. The interference, interpenetration and interdependence between common European policies is obvious, so that a number of Pillar I policies (e.g. immigration, asylum, border protection, etc.) cannot be successfully implemented without coordination also at the level of Pillar III policies, which are related to cooperation, especially in home affairs matters, etc.

Secondly, the level at which common policies under the 3 pillars are developed and promoted. While in the case of Pillar I, policies are conceived and implemented at the supranational, federative level within the European Communities (these policies are promoted by the European institutions, primarily the European Commission), in the case of Pillars II and III – at the intergovernmental, confederative level, which complicates the European Community political process, as the governments of the member states often start from different interests and goals when discussing and developing certain policies. Hence the growing tendency to gradually transfer policies under Pillars II and III to Pillar I, i.e. to the European Communities. In this respect, the appointment of a European Commissioner for Common Foreign and Security Policy is also significant.

Common European policies are constantly evolving. They require constant attention from the European structures, as well as continuous development in the context of new challenges, emerging issues, etc. A more recent example is EU energy policies, which need to be reassessed and diversified in the light of the latest developments related to the "gas crisis" caused by the conflict between Russia and Ukraine.

Common European policies: Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) and Common Foreign and Security Policy (CFSP).

The Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) has long been one of the top EU policies in terms of financial resources, but these have been steadily decreasing – from 70% (1970s) to 34% (2007-2013). Over time, as the EU began to accumulate surpluses of agricultural products, the CAP had to be revised. Some of these products were exported, some were destroyed. Thus, the CAP has undergone several changes:

- producers are encouraged to diversify their production;
- farmers are required to comply with environmental protection rules, food hygiene and safety standards, animal safety;
- subsidies are no longer granted according to the quantity produced (so governments no longer support the production of agricultural products in very large quantities in order to avoid possible surpluses);
- farmers are incentivized to produce what the market demands, both in terms of type of product and quantity.

The Common Foreign and Security Policy (CFSP) remains one of the most debated, debatable and controversial given its complexity. Unlike the Community method of economic integration, CFSP methods are characterized by cooperation between Member States in overseeing policies and the gradual implementation of joint actions in areas where Member States have common interests. At the same time, Member States undertake to actively support the CFSP, to refrain from any action contrary to



the Union's interests, to ensure that national policies are in line with common positions, to inform each other on any foreign and security policy issues, and to support common positions in international organizations.

The current objectives of the CFSP:

- defence of common values, fundamental interests and independence of the Union;
- strengthening the security of the Union and its Member States in all forms;
- maintaining peace and strengthening international security;
- promoting international cooperation;
- developing and consolidating democracy and the rule of law and respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms.



Chapter XIV. Aspects of EU enlargement

1. Enlargement and the criteria for accession to the European Union

The success of the European integration project, presented by the European Economic Community (EEC) and the European Atomic Energy Community (EURATOM), has made it more attractive to other European countries. The possibility of enlargement was addressed by the founding countries themselves in the Treaties of Rome, the preamble to which speaks of a clear desire to create the conditions for the closest possible union of the peoples of Europe, with the other European states being called upon to join the ideas described. Article 237 of the Treaty establishing the EEC provides that any European State may apply to become a member of the Community. It submits its application to the Council which, after receiving the opinion of the Commission, decides unanimously. The intention of the founding states was continued in the Treaty on European Union, where enlargement is seen as a historic opportunity to contribute to peace, security, stability, democracy and the rule of law, and to the overall growth and prosperity of the European Union. In this sense, the enlargement policy is an indispensable element of the European project, which was conceived as a mechanism to guarantee peace and security, economic and social progress, and an opportunity to increase the unity of the European peoples.

Initially, the Community had no clear criteria for admitting new members. The Treaty establishing the EEC only stipulated that any European country could join. However, this rule is not uncontested in the sense that, in the course of the Union's historical development, countries whose European identity may be contested, such as Turkey, will also apply for membership.

Although the EU is open to all states, accession has always been perceived as a conditional process, with new candidates having to meet certain criteria. Article 49 of the Treaty on EU states that any European state which respects the principles set out in Article 6(1) may apply to become a member of the Union. The principles concerned include: freedom, democracy, respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, the rule of law, principles common to all Member States.

The Copenhagen European Council (1993) played a distinct role in defining explicit criteria for EU membership. It established that any associated country of Central and Eastern Europe, if it so wished, could become a member of the European Union and that accession would take place as and when the associated countries met the economic and political conditions required. The conditions defined at this Council are known as the Copenhagen criteria. According to them, a state must fulfil:

- a) The political criterion – the country wishing to join must be endowed with stable political institutions capable of guaranteeing the democratic development of society and complying with the principles of the rule of law. It is also obliged to respect human rights and to take all measures to protect minority rights.



- b) The economic criterion – the candidate country must be endowed with a functioning market economy, able to cope with the economic competition of other EU member states.
- c) Acceptance of the *acquis Communautaire* – the applicant country must be able to assume the obligations of membership of the Union; it must accept the principles, objectives and rules laid down in the Union Treaties. Subsequently, the Madrid European Council (1995) decided that, while the adoption of European legislation and its transposition into national law are extremely important in the accession process, much more important is the creation and development of the administrative and legal structures necessary to implement European policies. In this respect, the Copenhagen criteria were complemented with:
 - d) Administrative capacity to implement the *acquis Communautaire*. The clarification of the conditions under which a state can apply for membership of the Union has made the enlargement process more predictable, has given the process a more organized and systematized character, and has provided clear directions in which the applicant states should focus their efforts and resources.

2. General aspects of the EU accession process

The accession of a country to the EU involves a deep and complex process, in which several stages can be highlighted. The political criteria must be met for accession negotiations to be opened, the decision being taken by the European Council. The other criteria are subsequently monitored by the European Commission through the country reports. They must be met by the time of accession.

According to Art. 49 of the EU Treaty, the candidate state must submit its application for membership to the EU Council. It requests the Commission's opinion on the country's suitability to join the Union. In the light of this opinion, the Council takes a unanimous decision, favourable or unfavourable, on the application. If the Council's position is positive, the EU begins accession negotiations with the applicant country.

As a first step, the EU Commission starts a process of monitoring the compatibility of the candidate country's legislation with the *acquis Communautaire*, known as 'screening'. The result is set out in a report, after publication of which accession negotiations are deemed to have started. The negotiation process takes place formally between the governments of the Member States and the candidate country. There are no specific rules on the duration and content of these negotiations.

Before the conclusion of the accession negotiations and the signing of the accession treaty, the European Parliament, under the assent procedure, decides by an absolute majority of its Members whether to give a positive or negative opinion on the application. In the event of a positive opinion, the Member States and the applicant State sign the Accession Treaty. The Member States ratify the Treaty in accordance with their own constitutional procedures. Although the EU is not binding, since accession entails amending the constitution, the candidate state usually ratifies the treaty by referendum, which gives the act of accession unquestionable legitimacy.

It should also be borne in mind that the EU has also endowed itself with a number of instruments to prepare for the accession of future members, which make up the so-called pre-accession strategy. Its defining elements are: establishment of structural relations with EU institutions; development of the Europe Agreement; financial



assistance under the PHARE program; preparation for integration into the internal market in accordance with the White Paper clauses, etc.

3. Stages of EU enlargement

Map 1: Europe of the "nine"

Northward enlargement: Denmark, Great Britain, Ireland (1973).



Map 2: Europe of the "twelve"

Southern enlargement: Greece (1981); Portugal and Spain (1986).





Map 3: Europe of the "fifteen"

EFTA enlargement (1995): Austria, Sweden, Finland.



Map 4: Europe of the 'twenty-seven'

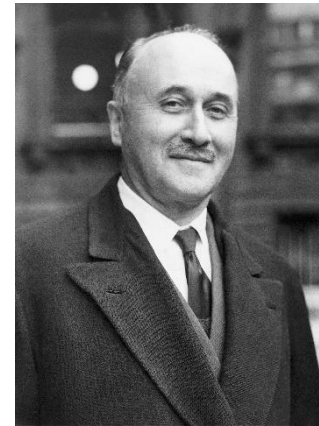
Eastward enlargement: Czech Republic, Cyprus, Estonia, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia, Malta (2004); Bulgaria, Romania (2007).





Chapter XV. Jean Monnet – father of Europe

Jean Monnet (1888-1979) is one of the fathers of Europe, a tireless and persevering advocate, builder and builder of European integration. In a resolution of the Heads of State and Government meeting at the European Council in Luxembourg, Jean Monnet was awarded the title of Honorary Citizen of Europe – the first of its kind in history!



Jean Monnet had a practical upbringing. Born in 1888 in Cognac into the family of a wine merchant, Monnet had a remarkable life trajectory. At 16, his father sent him to London to learn business and the language of negotiation – English. By 18 he was already in Canada. 'Books don't matter. No one can think for you. Look out the window, talk to people. Pay attention to the person next to you,' his father told him. This would be the rule he would live by.

Jean Monnet is considered a man of great beginnings. In 1914, the 26-year-old wanted to serve his country. He saw the fusion of the French and British war efforts as the essential condition for victory. But he found that the Allies were acting in a scattered way. He therefore obtained a meeting with the head of the French government, René Viviani. Seduced by Monnet's intelligence, he sent him to London to draw up a plan for coordinating Allied war resources. In 1916 – at the height of the war – he set up the Inter-Allied Grain Supply Commission, but not without stirring up national egoisms and intrigues.

Jean Monnet's efficiency, proven during the years of the First World War, made him deputy secretary-general of the League of Nations as soon as it was founded in 1919. He would deal urgently with highly problematic dossiers such as the division of Silesia between Germany and Poland, the future of the Saar region and Austria's economic recovery, without stopping in the face of the weaknesses of a system and going to the limits of the possibilities of the time. Leaving office in 1923, he helped to set up an American investment bank, but its bankruptcy following the stock market crisis of 1929 made him regret that the Americans had delayed reforming their banking system and observe in his Memoirs that people do not accept change except out of necessity and they do not see the necessity until the crisis. In the meantime, as an international financial official, he was helping the countries of central and eastern Europe to recover their economies, helping to stabilize the zloty in Poland (1927) and the leu in Romania (1928).

Jean Monnet understands the Nazi threat and the danger of war. In 1938 he is commissioned by the French government to negotiate an order for fighter planes for France. During the "phoney war", in December 1939, he went to London to lead the pooling of British and French production capacities. When France's defeat was imminent (June 1940), he suggested to the British Prime Minister Winston Churchill a brilliant coup to restore hope in the hearts of the French and British: the immediate union of the two countries, with a single parliament and a single army! This seemingly eccentric proposal made the two countries united against Hitler's



Germany. It eliminated the risk of France negotiating directly with Germany, should Hitler seize the powerful French war fleet and possibly the French co- colonies in North Africa and Asia. But the project was rendered inoperable by Marshal Pétain's acceptance of France's defeat and the signing of the armistice.

From August 1940, in the USA, Jean Monnet became one of President Roosevelt's most trusted advisers and put his talents at the service of the Victory Program, which prepared powerful American industry for the Allies' gigantic armament effort.

Wherever he was based, he never forgot France. In 1943, in Algiers, Jean Monnet became a member of the government of Free France – the National Liberation Committee – and tried unsuccessfully to reconcile Generals de Gaulle and Giraud. His visionary-pragmatic views on the future of Europe are evident in an address to the Committee: There will be no peace in Europe if the states reconstitute themselves on the basis of national sovereignty, with the policies of prestige and economic protection which they entail ... The countries of Europe are too small to provide their peoples with the prosperity and social developments indispensable. This means that the European states must form either a federation or an entity to achieve a common economic unity.

At the request of General de Gaulle, Jean Monnet draws up and implements the modernization and equipment plan that will bear his name, which has enabled the French economy to revive in record time, with the financial support of the Americans and the Marshall Plan.

Jean Monnet and his team, self-taught, a negotiator in the field and a shrewd politician, drew up the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) project in the strictest secrecy, as they did not trust the political groupings (communists, Gaullists) and feared they would obstruct them. But backed by Robert Schuman, the French Foreign Minister, Alcide de Gasperi, the Italian Prime Minister, and Konrad Adenauer, Chancellor of the new Federal Republic of Germany, Jean Monnet believed the time was ripe for change. On May 9, 1950, Schuman, with the agreement of the German Chancellor, made the famous declaration on behalf of the French government – pre-cooked by Jean Monnet – proposing to place Franco-German coal and steel production under a High Common Authority, open to other European countries. The ECSC clearly marked the launch of the European unification project. For this reason, May 9 is considered Europe Day. Making Europe means building peace. The ECSC began its work in 1951 with the FRG, France,

Italy and the Benelux countries, and a year later, Jean Monnet became its first president and held the post until 1955. Europe will not be built in one fell swoop, nor will it be built by building Europe as a whole: it will be built through concrete achievements that will first create de facto solidarity. A great European revolution, the revolution which seeks to replace national rivalries by a union of peoples in freedom and diversity, the revolution which can bring about a new flowering of our civilization and a new renaissance, this revolution began with the ECSC. Due to the failure of the European Defence Community (EDC) plan, he resigns and sets up the Action Committee for the United States of Europe. Under his untiring impetus, the Committee, which brought together European political parties and trade unions, became a remarkable driving force behind all the initiatives to unify Europe: the creation of the Common Market (European Economic Community), the European Monetary System and the European Council, the accession of the United Kingdom to



the Common Market, and the election of the European Parliament by universal suffrage.

Jean Monnet held to the end of his life the conviction that European nations must unite to survive. Carry on, carry on, there is no other future for the peoples of Europe except in union, he always repeated to his interlocutors. Throughout his life, he had made it his aim to get people to work together, to show them that beyond differences and borders, they had a common interest. In 1975, Jean Monnet disbanded the Committee and devoted his last remaining energies to writing his memoirs, which contain his life lessons and his method of action. Published in 1976, the Memoirs are a political masterclass indispensable for students of history and political science. They paint the portrait of an honest, seductive and deeply humane personality.

He died on March 16, 1979, at the age of almost 91. In 1988, his mortal remains were transferred to the Pantheon. It is a last tribute to a man who richly deserved the honorary title of Father of Europe.



ANNEX Charter of fundamental rights of the European Union

TITLE V Citizens' rights

Article 39. Right to vote and to stand for election to the European Parliament

(1) Every citizen of the Union has the right to vote and to stand as a candidate in elections to the European Parliament in the Member State in which he or she resides, under the same conditions as nationals of that State.

(2) Members of the European Parliament shall be elected by direct, free and secret universal suffrage.

Article 40 Right to vote and to stand as a candidate in local elections

Every citizen of the Union has the right to vote and to stand as a candidate at local elections in the Member State in which he or she resides, under the same conditions as nationals of that State.

Article 41. Right to good administration

(1) Every person has the right to have his or her affairs handled impartially, fairly and within a reasonable time by the Union institutions, bodies, offices and agencies.

(2) This right includes in particular:

(a) the right of any person to be heard before any individual measure which might adversely affect him or her is taken;

(b) the right of every person to have access to his or her file, subject to the legitimate interests of confidentiality and of professional and commercial secrecy;

(c) the duty of the administration to give reasons for its decisions.

(3) Every person has the right to have the Union make good any damage caused by its institutions or by its servants in the performance of their duties, in accordance with the general principles common to the laws of the Member States.

(4) Every person may write to the institutions of the Union in one of the Treaty languages and shall have an answer in the same language.

Article 42. Right of access to documents

Any citizen of the Union and any natural or legal person residing or having its registered office in a Member State shall have a right of access to documents of the institutions, bodies, offices and agencies of the Union, whatever their medium.

Art. 43. European Ombudsman

Any citizen of the Union and any natural or legal person residing or having its registered office in a Member State has the right to refer to the European Ombudsman cases of maladministration in the activities of the Union institutions, bodies, offices or agencies, with the exception of the Court of Justice of the European Union acting in its judicial role.



Article 44. Right to petition

Any citizen of the Union and any natural or legal person residing or having its registered office in a Member State has the right to petition the European Parliament.

Article 45. Freedom of movement and residence

(1) Every citizen of the Union has the right to move and reside freely within the territory of the Member States.

(2) Freedom of movement and residence may be granted, in accordance with the Treaties, to third-country nationals legally established in the territory of a Member State.

Article 46. Diplomatic and consular protection

Every citizen of the Union shall, in the territory of a third country in which the Member State of which he or she is a national is not represented, be entitled to protection by the diplomatic or consular authorities of any Member State, on the same conditions as the nationals of that State.



Useful links

- Website European Union <http://europa.eu>
- European Commission https://commission.europa.eu/index_en
- European Council <https://www.consilium.europa.eu/en/>
- European Parliament <https://www.europarl.europa.eu/portal/en>
- Court of Justice of the European Union
https://curia.europa.eu/jcms/jcms/j_6/en/
- European Court of Auditors <https://www.eca.europa.eu/en>
- European Economic and Social Committee <https://www.eesc.europa.eu/ro>
- European Committee of the Regions <https://cor.europa.eu/en>