

3393

NATIONAL LIBRARY

BIBLIOTHÈQUE NATIONALE

OTTAWA

OTTAWA



NAME OF AUTHOR.....G. Loken.....


TITLE OF THESIS...A STUDY OF THE GOVERNMENT OF THE.....
FOLK HIGH SCHOOLS OF NORWAY.....

UNIVERSITY...of Alberta, Edmonton.....

DEGREE.....Ph.D.....YEAR GRANTED.....1968.....

Permission is hereby granted to THE NATIONAL LIBRARY OF CANADA to microfilm this thesis and to lend or sell copies of the film.

The author reserves other publication rights, and neither the thesis nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's written permission.

(Signed) .....

PERMANENT ADDRESS:
10921 - 74th Ave.....
EDMONTON 62.....
Alberta.....

DATED...December 20...19 68

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

A STUDY OF THE GOVERNMENT OF
THE FOLK HIGH SCHOOLS OF NORWAY

BY



GULBRAND LOKEN

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

SEPTEMBER, 1968

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA
FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance, a thesis entitled "A Study of the Government of the Folk High Schools of Norway" submitted by Gulbrand Loken in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

W. D. Neal

Supervisor

L. R. Ene

F. J. Hannum

J. Bergen

J. R. Kidd

External Examiner

Date Oct 25 1968

ABSTRACT

In Norway, where "people's colleges" have existed for over a hundred years, patterns of college operation, organization, and control have been developed and stabilized. This study was designed to identify and describe the major factors impinging upon the government of these folk high schools. The study also aimed to examine and interpret the principal components of government in interaction.

The study engendered several special tasks. There was the challenge of overcoming the language barrier, and the problem of completing interviews on location in Norway. The report of the investigation was required to be written rather fully so as to be lucid and acceptable to both Canadian and Norwegian educational administrators as selected by committee.

A major task was the identification and description of major long-range and background societal factors which have had major influence upon college patterns in Norway. This background survey revealed that a variety of factors have affected the primary components of government. Here, the interaction of geographic, linguistic, demographic, religious, economic, and technological factors have provided a complex social matrix promoting the national folk high school movement in the social setting of Norway. Related to the above task was the endeavor to trace major historical factors and antecedent movements instituting the folk high school pattern. Such perspective added to the comprehension of how the folk high schools have mirrored the unique facets of the Norwegian

setting. It was discovered that national values had been influential in the formulation of the structures and the processes impinging upon the folk high school pattern.

Another principal task was to investigate the external and internal structures and processes of the government of the colleges of Norway. The analysis of external government revealed that control is exercised by the cooperative effort of three levels of government--national, regional, and local. The coopting of national and local elements of government to establish regional control was found to be a significant approach to reconciling state bureaucracy and local democracy. This shared approach provided the integration essential to the maintenance of local control under the system of major support by the state.

The analysis of the internal government of folk high schools revealed the various levels and roles of the principal categories of internal control. The role of each category was described. The prescriptive function of national laws and regulations was examined. The nature of the processes and patterns of internal governance were also investigated. Again, the study revealed that there was considerable partnership at work within the college setting.

The approach to the study was formulated in terms of interactive and integrative concepts for the orderly and systemic examination of the basic foundations and the social organization of college government. Such conceptual resources provided design for the study and framework for the report.

Two basic procedures were used in obtaining the data required in the research: (1) A study of relevant documentary material and authoritative literature from the social science, comparative education, and administrative fields, and (2) Field studies in Norway which involved focused interviewing of selected college leaders in both government and school positions. The series of focused interviews provided a systematic analysis of both external and internal government, and underlined the significance of the various variables of the social setting. These interviews provided understandings and verifications, and promoted a consistent and comprehensive picture of the pattern of government prevailing for the folk high schools of Norway. These insights were compared with prevailing legislation and authoritative documentation and, as necessary, verified in final interviews.

The data obtained underlined that a national system such as the folk high school movement is imbedded deeply in the total social milieu of Norway. The role of dominant philosophies in shaping policies was traced. The orientation of the colleges was indicated as being based upon the stabilizing influence of a monolithic Lutheranism and a Christian idealism, Nordic humanism, an egalitarian perspective, and a strong democratic tradition. The college organization not only mirrored this undergirding orientation, but this served to promote primacy of objective to immediate and specific goal accomplishments. Further, the data identified three

interrelated major types of situational factors impinging upon governance: societal setting of Norway; college patterns and traditions; and, the perspectives of local college staff and students. As well, the data served to categorize organizational behaviors under three headings: dominant national orientations anchored in societal needs and objectives; controlling organizations and their processes; and, the direction of internal leadership in the finalizing of the operational patterns of the colleges.

In synthesis, the interplay of dominant philosophies, situational factors, and organizational behaviors at a variety of levels was pictured as providing insight into the major dimensions and components of the government of the folk high schools of Norway. This approach served to provide implications and stimulate suggestions for the Canadian scene.

In summary, governance was found to be conditioned by, related to, or dependent upon identifiable factors which are both extra-legal and legal, external and internal to the college system. It would appear that over time, a system of college education develops into an instrument of national policy anchored in the ideals and heritage of a nation.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The writer wishes to acknowledge the encouragement to pursue the study in Norway and the guidance which he has received from the various members of the thesis supervisory committee. He is indebted to the faculty and his fellow students in the Department of Educational Administration for the stimulation of an interdisciplinary approach to the problems of administration.

Special appreciation is extended to officials of the Ministry of Education of Norway for their courteous reception and readiness in making data available for the research. In particular, the writer is indebted to Stein Fossgard, Supervisor of the Folk High Schools of Norway, and Dagfinn Skaar, Inspector General of Experimental Education in Norway, for many hours of most valuable help and comments on the findings. The study would not have been possible without the professional assistance and the willing cooperation of the many folk high school leaders who were interviewed on the field trips.

The writer is indebted to the University of Alberta, the Province of Alberta, and the International Summer School of Norway for the financial assistance provided during the period of graduate study. Finally, a debt of gratitude is expressed to wife and family for their willing sacrifices and steadfast encouragements that have meant so much.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	PAGE
I. INTRODUCTORY CHAPTER	1
Introduction	1
Identification of the Problem	2
Statement of the Problem	3
Significance of the Study	5
Scope and Limitations	8
Assumptions	9
Definition of Terms	10
Preliminary Approach to the Study Areas	13
Basic Forces in the Social Setting	14
Antecedent Movements	14
Authority Structures	15
Administrative and Leadership Patterns	15
Conceptual Design	16
Research Plan and Procedures	16
Outline of General Steps in the Research	16
Interview Planning	17
Sampling Procedures	20
Techniques Used in Data Collection and Report	21
Overview of the Study	23
II. CONCEPTUAL RESOURCES AND THEORETICAL DESIGN	25
Introduction	25
The Role of Theory in Research	26
Sources of Theory	30
Components Used in Theory Building	31

CHAPTER	PAGE
Variables	31
Propositions	32
Systems and Models	32
Useful Concepts and Models	33
Concept of Bases for Policy	34
Concept of a System	35
Concept of Social Interaction	38
Concept of Integration in Social Organization	40
Theoretical Design of the Research Study	47
General Hypothesis	47
General Considerations	47
General Use of Theory	47
Preliminary Underlying Propositions	51
Summary of the Chapter	53
III. SOCIAL MATRIX OF THE FOLK HIGH SCHOOLS OF NORWAY	55
Introduction	55
General Significance of Long-Range Societal Factors	56
Long-Range Factors Impinging Upon Education in Norway	60
Natural Factors	61
The Land	61
Water and Sea	67
Language Problems	70
Demographic Factors	74
Quantitative Determinants	74
Age Composition	75
Patterns of Population Mobility	78

CHAPTER	PAGE
Religious Factors	79
The Lutheran Tradition	80
Humanism	85
Technological and Cooperative Development Factors	88
Power and Industry	89
Primary Industries	91
Emerging Patterns	92
Purview of Long-Range Societal Factors	95
Summary	98
IV. PERSPECTIVES ON THE FOLK HIGH SCHOOL MOVEMENT IN NORWAY	100
Introduction	100
Historical Factors	102
Growth of Nationalism	102
Influential Leadership	105
Streams in the Movement	108
First Schools	108
County Schools	110
Christian Youth Schools	111
Merger Developments	112
General Provisions for Support	114
Program Overview	115
General Characteristics of Folk High Schools.	116
General Emphasis of the Program	118
Position in the Total Educational System	121
Perspectives on Current Folk High School Data	123

CHAPTER	xi PAGE
General Information	123
Age Distribution of Pupils	124
Educational Background of Pupils	124
Community Backgrounds	126
Vocational Plans of the Pupils	126
Summary and Retrospect	127
V. EXTERNAL GOVERNMENT: FORMAL AUTHORITY OVERSTRUCTURES AND PROCESSES	129
Introduction	129
Parliamentary Institutions in Norway	130
National Constitution	130
The King's Council	131
National Parliament	132
Political Processes	133
Administration in Norway	138
Central Administration	139
Ministry of Church and Education	139
National Superintendent	141
State Laws and Regulations Governing	142
Regional Administration	144
State Appointments	145
County School Board	147
Folk High School Boards	147
Private Associations	148
Local Administration	149
Analysis of Formal Structures in Interaction.	152
The Levels and Types of External Legal Controls	152

CHAPTER	PAGE
National Control Areas	154
Regional Control Areas	154
Local Control Areas	155
The Process of Cooperative Government	155
The Climate of Cooperation	159
The Shared Approach to Financing	161
Basic Considerations	161
Financial Formulas	163
Summary of the Chapter	166
VI. INTERNAL GOVERNMENT OF THE FOLK HIGH SCHOOLS: LOCAL ORGANIZATIONAL PATTERNS AND PROCESSES	167
Introduction	167
Internal Organizational Categories	167
Levels of Internal Government	168
Legal Provisions for Internal Government	171
The Law	171
The Regulations	173
Functions of Principal Organizational Categories	176
College Board	176
School Head	181
Teachers' Council	187
Students' Council	190
Analysis of Internal Segments in Interaction	194
General Impressions	195
Partnership in Internal Government	197
Levels and Nature of Internal Governance	201
The Function of Leadership	203

CHAPTER	PAGE
Summary of the Chapter	204
VII. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, SYNTHESIS AND IMPLICATIONS	205
Summary and Conclusions	205
Summary	205
Major Conclusions	214
Other Conclusions	221
Synthesis	221
Summarizing Discussion	221
Formulation of a Comprehensive Model	225
Analysis and Application of the Model	225
Implications	229
Further Implications and Comments from the Study and the Model	230
Implications for Further Research	236
BIBLIOGRAPHY	237
APPENDIX A INFORMATION ON FIELD TRIP INTERVIEWS	247
APPENDIX B CORRESPONDENCE	252
APPENDIX C THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF NORWAY	254
APPENDIX D LAWS AND REGULATIONS CONCERNING THE FOLK HIGH SCHOOLS OF NORWAY	269

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	PAGE
I. Age Composition Groupings in Norway, 1950, 1960, 1970	77
II. Resident Population by Industry in 1960 . . .	79
III. Religious Affiliations in Norway in 1960 . . .	84
IV. Production of Base Metals and Nitrogen in 1938, 1950, 1960, and 1966 by Metric Tons. .	90
V. Growth of Norwegian Folk High Schools by Periods from 1864 to 1964	113
VI. Systems of Education in Norway, 1965-1966 . .	122
VII. Age Distribution of Pupils in 1966-67 in the Folk High Schools	125
VIII. 1965-66 Admissions to the Folk High Schools Classified by Previous Training	125
IX. Pupils Classified by Density of Population of Home Community, 1965-1966	126
X. Vocational Plans of Pupils of Folk High Schools in 1965-1966	127
XI. Composition of Parliament After Elections, 1936 to 1965	136
XII. Three Levels of External Control of Colleges .	151
XIII. The Task of College Leadership and Administration	198
XIV. Principal Levels of Internal Control of Colleges	202

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE	PAGE
1. Model Relating Societal Factors to College Governance	36
2. Framework of Bonds of Organization	44
3. Integration of Bureaucracy and Democracy in Social Organization	46
4. Map of Norway	63
5. Growth of Resident Population in Norway from 1800	76
6. Factor Income and Employment by Industries in Norway in 1966	93
7. Systemic Analysis of the Flow of Major Societal Forces into College Governance	97
8. Legal Framework of Norway's People's Colleges.	137
9. Organization of the Ministry of Church and Education	140
10. Levels of Control Affecting Schools in Norway.	153
11. Process of Cooperative College Control	156
12. Functional Levels of Administration in Colleges	170
13. Framework for College Board Decisions	182
14. Areas of Administrative Functioning in Colleges	184
15. Educational Directions	193
16. Interstitial Aspects of Internal Governance. .	200
17. Major Dimensions and Components of the Governance of Colleges in Interaction	226

INTRODUCTORY CHAPTER

CHAPTER I

I. INTRODUCTION

The past century on this continent has been marked by successive phases in which educational opportunities have been expanded, first at the primary level, then at the secondary, and now at the tertiary level. This recent expansion both in the number and the kinds of post-secondary institutions has brought to the fore many problems and issues which require both serious studies and rational solutions.

Not the least of these problems is in the area of the governance of post-secondary institutions. This is no simple matter. Increasingly, educational administrators are recognizing that a nation's schools are imbedded in the complex matrix of a changing society; that school policies grow out of the basic socio-economic forces of that society which in turn generate movements antecedent to policy; that these movements encourage political action; and, that finally these movements lead to the formalization of policy and the establishment of authority structures for the effectuation of that policy. It is proposed that the orientation of a society shapes its organizations, and that various external and internal structures have a controlling influence over a nation's college institutions.

II. IDENTIFICATION OF THE PROBLEM

In the matter of the government of post-secondary schools, not only should present structures and practices be subjected to further examination and evaluation, but new and better ways should be explored and proposed for their future government. This is an area that could provide many topics worthy of research by the educational administrator. Such studies need not be confined to the American or the Canadian scene. To get more light on the problems of college and university government, it is suggested that many windows are needed on those nations that have had long experience with post-secondary institutions. In particular, it is generally recognized that western Canada is still on the frontier of higher education. Undoubtedly, this area can profit from the long experience of older countries in the area of continuing education for adults and education for mature youth. Cramer and Browne in describing some notable achievements in adult education in their text on a comparative study of national systems of education state: "The Scandinavian folk high school is famous all over the world. For over a century this program has been studied and discussed; no treatment of adult education can overlook it."¹

¹John F. Cramer and G.S. Browne, Contemporary Education: A Comparative Study of National Systems (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., Inc., 1956), p. 554.

In 1958, the Alberta Royal Commission on Education alluded to the importance of the Scandinavian experience in relation to its proposed community colleges when it referred to the Danish Folk High Schools as "people's colleges" providing "education for life." Specifically, this report points out: "The Community College is the modern version of the 'people's schools' designed to meet the needs of the Twentieth Century."²

Other studies, in addition to the above mentioned, have suggested that programs of adult education have been progressively effective for more than a hundred years in the countries of Scandinavia. To date such studies have been confined to the program and the philosophy of these schools, particularly as exemplified in Denmark and Sweden. It is proposed that a study of the government of the folk high schools of Norway is a timely and useful investigation.

III. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

It is the general aim of this study to investigate the nature of the government of the folk high school of Norway. As such the study is concerned with the basic influences, factors, and patterns of this governance. The investigation is conducted against a framework of theoretical concepts drawn chiefly from the administrative and the social

²Report of the Royal Commission on Education (Edmonton: Queen's Printer, 1959), p. 157.

science fields. Basically, the study is concerned with external and internal forces that are interactive in the government of the "people's colleges" of Norway.

The study proposes to investigate such general problems as the following:

1. What major external influences or factors have affected the governance of the folk high schools of Norway?
2. What internal groups and factors affect their control and organization?
3. In what areas are various levels and types of control operative, and with what effects?
4. What checks and balances exist between external and internal groups in the governance of these colleges, permitting a division of responsibility between national and local units of educational control?

More specifically, the study proposes to examine the following areas relative to the government of the folk high schools of Norway:

1. The major long-range societal factors which have affected the primary components of their government.
2. The antecedent movements, historical developments, and perspectives which have influenced their organization and control patterns.
3. The types and levels of external government, legal controls, and the formal overstructures that impinge upon these colleges.
4. The nature of the internal government, the college organization, and the administrative patterns which

affect their governance.

5. The existence of an overall pattern or basic design in the government of the folk high schools of Norway.

The main emphasis of the study is on the discovery of ideas and insights through reading and analysis, interviews and discussions with leaders followed by interpretation and application. Conceptual resources from the social and administrative sciences have been selected to give direction and focus to the study.

IV. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

As indicated above, the whole area of the governance of post-secondary institutions is a matter of current concern and discussion. The problem has grown in significance with the recent general expansion of higher education in many countries. In 1961 in Great Britain, a committee under Lord Robbins was appointed to review the general pattern of full-time higher education, and was specifically asked to advise whether any modifications should be made in the present arrangements for the planning and coordinating of the development of the various types of institutions. In 1963, a national commission was sponsored by the Canadian Association of University Teachers and the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada to explore possible weaknesses in the field of university government and to suggest improvements.

All education, but especially post-secondary education is national and even international in its consequences.

Because of the mobility and interdependence of people in this generation, no province or nation can be conceived of as an island set apart. Today, many of the nations of the world could be utilized as a laboratory for the study of the governance of colleges and universities. The long experience of Norway in adult education was deemed to be of special interest and value in relation to the problem of this study.

It is proposed that this study could make a contribution to the current examination of the structure and operation of college and university government. The study should afford some insight into this area by the examination of this topic in the setting and the experience of Norway. It should be possible to deduce implications from Norway's patterns that might have relevance to the concept of regional or community colleges under much study and discussion in Canada. That such a study can be of practical value and of considerable interest can be ascertained by such considerations as the following:

1. New patterns of control, contrary to provincial tradition, were recommended in the Stewart report to the provincial government in Alberta.³ This report advocated appointed rather than locally elected board members and overall provincial planning of the college program.

2. A recent Canadian commission reported: "A university free from tensions would be totally lifeless. In a few

³Andrew Stewart, Special Study on Junior Colleges (Edmonton: Department of Education, 1965), p. 38.

universities, however, tensions seemed dangerously severe. But the main cause of them does not lie in personalities but in the defective structure of university government..."⁴

3. A conference in 1966 on post-secondary education was called in Alberta to examine a proposed act cited as "The Post-secondary Education Regions Act." It was the opinion of many that this conference raised many questions respecting the control of these colleges, but did in fact provide little agreement on directions and patterns of government.⁵

4. No previous study of the government of colleges in Norway has been attempted. Thus, this study makes available a new area of investigation and information based on Norway's long experience in this area.

Very little research has been done in the area of the government of post-secondary institutions of learning. In the past decade, multi-million dollar plants have been built or are being planned for the principal cities of Western Canada. The governing boards of these colleges are spending many thousands of dollars annually at each centre, and it is apparent that much more will be spent in the future years. It is a matter of considerable concern to educational administrators and leaders that these developing institutions should function most effectively in relating persons and

⁴Report of a Commission on University Government in Canada (Toronto: University Press, 1966), p. 4.

⁵Post-secondary Conference held at Lister Hall at Edmonton on November 28-30, 1966. (mimeographed)

plants in a program of meaningful and purposeful education for adults in a rapidly changing society. Many studies predict that post-secondary institutions will be serving more of our youth and adults in a greatly diversified program in the years that lie ahead.

A study carried out while these institutions are still flexible may have a bearing on the final choices of basic patterns for their operation and control. At least, it might draw attention to the many components of university and college government. Thus, the study of the government of Norway's long established folk high schools is an opportune study. It is proposed that the study can provide concepts, offer insights, and suggest ideas that are generally valid in the government of post-secondary institutions.

V. SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS

Primarily, the study was not concerned with the curriculum or the philosophy of the folk high schools of Norway. However, because of the influence of dominant philosophies in molding both government patterns and college organization, this area could not be overlooked. Neither was the study a historical review of the development of adult education in Norway. Nevertheless, it was deemed necessary to survey some antecedent movements in order to gain better understanding of the framework in which governmental structures and processes currently operate.

The researcher recognized that a visitor to Norway could be subjected to the more positive impressions and thus fail to become fully aware of problem areas, tensions, or weaknesses of college government there. Therefore, specific criticism and appraisal of the government of the folk high schools was not the purpose of this study. The research was aimed at offering description and interpretation of the background, pattern, and process of college as exemplified in the folk high schools of Norway.

VI. ASSUMPTIONS

It was assumed that a method of exploratory research coupled with a knowledge of the Norwegian language could provide insight into the government of colleges in Norway. It was further assumed that a review of selected social science, comparative education, and administrative literature could elucidate the area of research, and promote a structured approach and a conceptual design for the study. It was assumed that socio-economic variables are related in character and pertinent in their implications whether these be examined on this continent or in the country of Norway.

Because rektors traditionally participate fully in the affairs and decisions of their college boards in Norway, it was assumed that selected administrative heads here would have the required insight into the areas of governance. Then, it was assumed that officials of the Ministry of Education, concerned with the supervision and control of the folk high schools could provide authoritative and valid insights also.

It was assumed that a purposive sample based on a proportionate stratified sampling process would yield reliable data from which an integrated interpretation of the government of these Norwegian colleges could be formulated. Finally, it was assumed that the report could have pertinence and some implication beyond Norway.

VII. DEFINITION OF TERMS

Most of the terminology as used in this study is clarified by the context in which terms are used. However, for the sake of simplicity and variety, a single term is used often in referring to one of the principal components of the government of the folk high schools.

Folk High Schools

The folk high school in Norway is a residential centre of learning which offers advanced general education for mature people. In English, the phrase "people's college" which is often applied to these schools, conveys the description reasonably well. These institutions are not high schools in the Canadian sense, but correspond more closely to those colleges on this continent which stress liberal arts and cultural programs at post-secondary levels. In this study, folk high schools are referred to in short as colleges or schools.

Government or governance

These terms are used interchangeably to denote the exercise of power and influence so as to direct the activities

of the colleges in terms of policy decisions. The terms are used to include both legal and extra-legal factors, and are not limited to a political concept of governance. Finally, the terms are used to include the direction and control exercised by the formal structures of the society under investigation.

The Ministry

The Ministry of Church and Education (Kyrkje-og Undervisningsdepartementet) is the ultimate supervisory authority, but responsible to the Norwegian parliament or Storting. Generally, this Ministry corresponds to a Canadian Department of Education in its educational activities as related to schools. The head of the Ministry is referred to as the Minister.

Board

The legally supreme local governing body of the folk high school or college is known as the board. The members of the board function as a corporate body.

Rektor

This chief executive officer of the college is appointed by the board. This office corresponds to the term principal, president or rector as used in the English speaking world to name the head of a school, college, or university. In Norway, this officer may also be called styrar, which is roughly equivalent to the English, director of the college.

Faculty

The whole body of the academic staff is referred to as the faculty. Normally, the rektor presides over this group.

The Law

For the sake of brevity, Norway's 1949 Law Concerning the Folk High Schools (Lov om Folkehøgskular), is referred to simply as the Law.

The Regulations

For the sake of brevity, Norway's 1965 Regulations Concerning the Folk High Schools (Reglement for Folkehøgskolane) are referred to simply as the Regulations.

Model

A model in social science is defined here as a mental construct which attempts to portray the principal elements of an area of knowledge, and their relationships, into an integrated explanation. Models are constructed to facilitate the interpretation of general ideas or concepts. In short, a model is an attempt to picture the interactions of the principal parts of a conceptual framework.

Theory

A theory is defined as an integration of meaningful and related propositions into a comprehensive understanding. Thus, a theory represents the essence of a field of knowledge, and consists of a body of assumptions and concepts respecting that knowledge.

VIII. PRELIMINARY APPROACH TO THE STUDY AREAS

Considerable planning was necessary in the development of the study. During the first year of the doctoral program in educational administration at the University of Alberta, the investigator undertook the following steps:

1. General reading on the topic and related areas.
2. Plans for a ten-week field trip to Norway during June, July and August of 1967 which would also involve six weeks of intensive work at the University of Oslo in the following courses: Norwegian language; life and culture; and, the educational system of Norway.
3. Planning of a series of interviews with government officials, leaders, and administrators generally familiar with the government of the folk high schools.
4. Collection and study of pertinent reports, data, documents, materials, statutes, books, and papers.
5. Analysis of the information gained to permit preliminary structuring of the study and the report.

The area of the study was approved on March 13, 1967 by a supervisory committee. Approval of the summer program of study and research in Norway was confirmed by the Faculty of Graduate Studies and the Department of Educational Administration of the University of Alberta.

In the further development of the study, inquiries were pursued in the areas which seemed most relevant to the topic. It was hoped that such delineation would systematize the approach, afford insights, clarify concepts, and provide

suggestions relative to the government of the folk high schools of Norway. These five principal areas are designated in the sections that follow.

Basic Forces in the Social Setting

In order to provide a perspective for the study, consideration was given to the societal factors affecting the educational institutions of a nation. Consideration was given to the following basic forces: natural, economic, social, linguistic, demographic, religious, technological, political, and educational. Concepts and models useful to gaining foundation, overview, analysis, and synthesis were selected to better understand the processes of college government as affected by these basic forces. Many educational leaders in Norway were interviewed to gain on location insight into the major long-range societal factors impinging upon the governance of the folk high schools.

Antecedent Movements

The Scandinavian experience in adult education is unique, but recognized as having many basic common elements in all of the countries comprising Scandinavia. An effort was made to determine the particular and more specific factors that promoted the pattern of government exemplified in the Norwegian setting, and deemed to be antecedent to the particular situation there. This required an examination of selected historical documents, interviews with people who had long association with the folk high school movement in

the land of Norway, and the study of university courses at the University of Oslo in the language, life and culture, and the educational system of the country. The university studies in Oslo were most helpful in providing such background and perspective for the research.

Authority Structures

An examination was carried out of the legal and formal overstructure at all levels of government, and their inter-relationships considered. This entailed a study of legislation, documents, and reports predominantly in the Norwegian language. Further, insight into these primary or mediating control components was established by the interviews with people closely and actively associated with the various levels of government. Various theoretical frameworks and concepts were helpful here.

Administrative and Leadership Patterns

In order to gain insight into the internal government of the folk high schools, eighteen such schools were visited, and major interviews carried out with the heads of current colleges. These planned interviews with local leadership provided insight into administrative relationships and patterns. The dimensions of local organization, the internal segments in interaction, and the internal structure were studied. Here, reports of the rektors, local documents, and purposive interviews were utilized. Participation in two three-day folk high school teacher conventions and attendance

at the dedication services of a new building at the Bjerkley folk high school were valuable contacts. These contacts provided many opportunities for sustained contact with the leaders and workers in the folk high school movement. This intensive selective survey was aimed at establishing the pattern of the organization and control of these colleges. The concept of the social system as "patterned interaction of members" was deemed useful.

Conceptual Design

In general, the study aimed at the identification of the major influences affecting the governance of the folk high schools of Norway. As such, the study aimed at an examination of the processes of government rather than at an examination of any precise correlations existing between various variables. In summary, the study aimed to provide interpretative insights of the government of these colleges, to describe the principal dimensions of governance, and to suggest the interactions of the principal components of college government.

IX. RESEARCH PLAN AND PROCEDURES

Outline of General Steps in the Research

In general, the following broad categories or steps were developed relative to the investigation and the report:

1. FORMULATION OF THE PROBLEM. The nature and the purpose of the study were carefully considered so as to focus the research on a specific and worthy area of consideration.

2. STUDY DESIGN. Both perspective and objectivity were desired in the investigation. Therefore, it was deemed essential to develop appropriate frames of reference which could be useful in organizing, studying, analyzing, and interpreting the data. It was necessary to determine the nature of the inquiries to be made, and then to collect pertinent evidence on each area.

3. DATA COLLECTION. A planned and focused interview technique supplemented by the examination of related materials and documents was used. The pattern and schedule of interviews are included in the Appendix. Materials from Norway were read and translated as necessary. Observations were compared.

4. PRESENTATION OF RESULTS. An overall organization for both the study and the report was developed as shown later. The findings were grouped into five main chapters. Figures, tables, and models were prepared to assist the presentation.

5. INTERPRETATION AND CONCLUSIONS. Insight into general patterns was possible on the basis of consistency in findings. Finally, there was an attempt to provide a summary and a synthesis of the entire study.

Interview Planning

More specifically, the nature of the research in this study required a more flexible approach than that provided by a rigidly structured interview or questionnaire. Whyte has declared: "For getting at what is going on, the

questionnaire is an exceedingly blunt instrument."⁶ Selltitz and others in Research Methods in Social Relations record their approval of less structured interviews as a method of research as follows:

Largely as a result of the influence of clinical interviewing and anthropological field work, a varied assortment of interviews has been developed in which neither the exact questions the interviewer asks nor the responses the subject is permitted to make are predetermined. Such interviews take various forms and go under various names--the "focused" interview, the "clinical" interview, the "depth" interview, the "non-directive" interview, etc. They are commonly used for a more intensive study of perceptions, attitudes, motivations, etc., than a standardized interview, whether with closed or open questions, permits. This type of interview is inherently more flexible, and of course it requires more skill on the part of the interviewer than do the standardized types. Obviously, this approach is impossible in a questionnaire... This type of interview achieves its purpose to the extent that the subject's responses are spontaneous rather than forced, are highly specific and concrete rather than diffuse and general, are self-revealing and personal rather than superficial.⁷

Merton, Fiske, and Kendall (1956) further describe this type of interview thus:

First of all, the persons interviewed are known to have been involved in a particular situation... Secondly, the hypothetically significant elements, patterns, processes and total structure of this situation have been provisionally analyzed by the social scientist. Through this content or situational analysis, he has arrived at a set of hypotheses concerning the consequences of determinate

⁶William F. Whyte, "An Interaction Approach to the Theory of Organization," in Mason Haire, Modern Organization Theory (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1959), p. 180.

⁷Clare Selltitz et al, Research Methods in Social Relations (Toronto: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1966), p. 263.

aspects of the situation for those involved in it. On the basis of this analysis, he takes the third step of developing an interview guide, setting forth the major areas of inquiry and the hypotheses which provide criteria of relevance for the data to be obtained in the interview. Fourth and finally, the interview is focused on the subjective experiences of persons exposed to the pre-analyzed situation in an effort to ascertain their definition of the situation. The array of reported responses to the situation helps test hypotheses and, to the extent that it includes unanticipated responses, gives rise to fresh hypotheses for more systematic and rigorous investigation.⁸

Thus, in the planned and focused interview, the interviewer knew in advance the special aspects of the topic that he wished to have the respondent cover in the discussion, and guided the interview in these directions accordingly. However, the flexibility of the unstructured interview was planned to bring out the value-laden and affective aspects of the subject's responses, and to determine the personal significance of his attitudes. Not only did it permit the subject's definition of the situation to receive full and detailed expression, but it also elicited the personal and social context of belief and feelings.⁹ The focused interview technique used in this study followed a developed pattern even though the focus was non-directive.

In this investigation, the approach to the interviews followed these steps and procedures:

⁸R.K. Merton, M. Fiske, and P.L. Kendall, The Focused Interview (Glencoe: Free Press, 1956), pp. 3-4.

⁹Selltiz, op. cit., p. 263.

1. Prior situational analysis by the researcher, including a review of the related social science and other pertinent literature and materials pertinent to the topic. Thus, the researcher first developed preliminary and general insights relative to the elements in the situation.

2. Selection of categories of available persons who had practical experience with the problem under study. Their method of selection was based on a stratified sample as explained in the following section on sampling procedures.

3. A guide for the interviews was developed for use in the schedule of visits as outlined in Appendix A.

4. The entire approach was evaluated by the supervisor of folk high schools for all of Norway with advice from the director of experimental research for Norway.

Sampling Procedures

Stratified sampling is the procedure of dividing the population into subpopulations called strata, and then selecting a sample within each. The process of selection in each stratum is carried out separately and independently.

There are some 75 folk high schools in Norway. These can be divided into three main strata as Nygard explains:

Over the years, Norway developed three main branches of youth schools. The first, folkehøgskolen, started in 1864; the second, amtsskolen later called fylkesskolen began in 1875; and, in 1893 the private Christian ungdomsskolen came forth.¹⁰

¹⁰Kristian Nygard, Fra Amtsskole til Folkehøgskolen i Noreg. (Trondheim: Aksjeselskapet Trykk, 1951), p. 1.

By the Law of 1949 all of these schools are officially called folkehøgskoler now even though the past patterns of ownership continue to prevail. The actual selection of the college rektors to be interviewed was worked out with advice from government officials so as to secure an adequate sample of the principal types of folk high schools operating in Norway. The sample of colleges selected was as shown out of the total: folkehøgskoler (7/29); fylkesskoler (3/14); ungdomsskoler (6/30). In addition, a college which uniquely emphasizes humanistic studies, Nansenskolen at Lillehammer was included. The historic site and original building of Norway's first folk high school, Sagatun at Hamar was also visited. Thus, 17 out of the 74 functioning schools were visited and one historic site included in the course of the many field trips.

Techniques Used in the Data Collection and Report

As has been suggested, considerable material relative to the problem under study was obtained and studied prior to the general interviewing. This provided a general plan for the investigation of the problem as well as the conceptual resources outlined in Chapter II. A theoretical base guided the study and assisted in structuring the report.

Specialized techniques were utilized in the field interviews. After brief introductions on a friendly basis, a positive and unbiased approach was made in a conversational way to the areas of the interview under consideration. As far as possible, interviews were conducted in a relaxed

informal fashion. Both government and school leaders gave freely of their time and provided undivided attention and interest in the study. In spite of some language handicaps in the early interviews, there was a concern and emphasis on providing the researcher with valid and meaningful insights into the areas under inquiry. An attempt was made to minimize incorrect impressions by checking verbal statements against legal and documentary evidence, by appraising the consistency of information supplied by those interviewed, and by avoiding as much as possible, dependence on any single source. Printed materials were requested and gladly supplied from each college visited.

It was a matter of general emphasis to discover what people, organizations, and forces principally have influenced each of the following typical areas of government: the right to operate a college, administrative appointments, provision of facilities, finances, staff, student admissions, college program, problems of adjudication, development and planning, student life patterns, evaluation, and change.

Most of the final findings and confirmations were based on the confidential and lengthy interviews with government officials involved with the administration of the folk high schools and with the rektors of the colleges that were visited. In Norway, the head of a folk high school is a full-fledged member of the college board with the right to vote on all matters not affecting himself or his position directly. Answers to the areas of questioning were derived

from the perceptions, feelings, and opinions of the above two categories of leaders.

It was the data gained from the focused interviews that served to correct, confirm, or coalesce the overall insights and concepts of the governance of the folk high schools of Norway. Not only did these various field trips stimulate new insights, but they enabled the investigator to come to grips with the actual processes of government as perceived by the interviewees.

The responses of these college leaders were compared with legal statutes, official regulations, and printed information so as to gain full and consistent insight into the actual situation of governance pertaining to the folk high schools of Norway. As the interviews continued, new insights were checked out and verified. This proved to be an easier task than first anticipated because both folk high school conventions were scheduled at the end of the stay in Norway, and it became a relatively easy matter to meet again to review an insight with a particular rektor. Final impressions were checked and strengthened in sessions with the general superintendent of the folk high schools for Norway. As a check on the written report of the findings, educational leaders in Norway were asked to offer their comments and further suggestions.

X. OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

The investigation was a non-quantitative study. The

aim was to discover and to formulate ideas, insights, and concepts relative to the problem of governance of colleges with the aid of schematic models and social science concepts. The study and report have been structured into seven chapters thus:

Chapter I provides the introduction to the study by outlining various aspects of the problem and describing the general approach to the research study.

Chapter II surveys the role of theory in the research, outlines concepts, and suggests schematic models useful to the study. This chapter also provides framework and conceptual design for the study.

Chapter III considers basic societal inputs deemed to be significant in establishing the social matrix of the folk high school movement in Norway.

Chapter IV provides more specific perspectives and background on antecedent movements and developments which have promoted these colleges to their present status in Norway.

Chapter V examines the formal structure of the various levels of external government impinging upon the folk high schools.

Chapter VI examines the internal organizational patterns and the local leadership processes in the government of these colleges.

Chapter VII presents the summary and conclusions of the study, a final synthesis, and suggests implications from the generalizations of the study.

CHAPTER II

CONCEPTUAL RESOURCES AND THEORETICAL DESIGN

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, educational administrators have been alerted to the value of adequate theories in promoting mature approaches to research problems. It is proposed that theory, consisting of a body of basic concepts and assumptions, would be most helpful in providing organization for a study, and could promote insights or new theory from such a study.

In this chapter the role of theory in research is examined on the basis of authoritative opinion. The sources and components of theory are reviewed briefly. Some useful concepts and models have been selected and considered in terms of the broad propositions underlying the study. Recognized concepts, models, theories from the social sciences have been utilized as useful frameworks for an efficient and systemic analyses of the complex social phenomenon of college government.

The social sciences have promoted the concept that the educational system exists as a sub-system within a larger social system. The study of a college system, or some special aspect of it, must endeavor to view that system in its total milieu. It is proposed that a national movement in education cannot be attributed to a single factor, but rather to the fusion of a variety of interacting social

forces. Therefore, the techniques and the design of the study have been projected in terms of interactive and integrative concepts for the orderly examination of the basic foundations and the social organization of college governance.

II. THE ROLE OF THEORY IN THE RESEARCH

Many have considered theory to lie in the realm of the impractical, divorced from reality. However, there is a growing awareness of the need to use more theory in the study of educational administration. Social scientists and educational administrators have begun to share many common concerns. "The more the men from these fields worked together," writes Halpin, "the more were they forced to conclude that the failure to take theory into account had retarded their efforts to advance educational administration as a profession."¹

The current situation portends a balancing between experience and scholarly study in administration. The charges of "rank empiricism" are being counteracted by various exhortations to give more concern to creating theories of administration. Knezevich summarizes the situation thus:

The movement to place more emphasis on developing theories of administration on school administration is an attempt to move away from the naked empiricism

¹Andrew W. Halpin (ed.), Administrative Theory in Education (Chicago: The Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1958), p. xii.

characteristic of so much research and study.²

Broadly, research studies are classified into two categories: hypothesis-testing and exploratory studies. Field studies and surveys are considered as important types of exploratory studies. In field studies, there is concentration on the interrelations of the parts of the structure and of the social interaction taking place as Katz explains:

Specifically, this means that the field study either attempts observations of social interaction or investigates thoroughly the reciprocal perceptions and attitudes of people playing interdependent roles. Thus, a field study will provide both a more detailed and a more natural picture of the social interrelations of the group than does the survey.³

The utilization of theory in exploratory research poses problems. Not only is the pathway here relatively new and unused, but much of the available theory is either too general or too specific to provide well-defined guidelines. Then, as Selltiz explains, "There is a tendency to underestimate the importance of exploratory research and to regard only experimental work as "scientific."⁴

What then can be the role of theory in exploratory research which aims to formulate new insights? In discussing

²Stephen J. Knezevich, Administration of Public Education (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1962), p. 512.

³Leon Festinger and Daniel Katz, Research Methods in the Behavioral Sciences (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1953), pp. 56-57.

⁴Claire Selltiz et al, Research Methods in Social Relations (Toronto: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1966), p. 52.

the formulation of a research design for a field study, Katz suggests the possibility of using both hypothesis-testing and exploration at the same time. He explains:

Moreover, there are occasions when the field approach can be used for very important hypothesis testing...But it is nonetheless true that the great strength of the field type of study is in its inductive procedure, its potentiality for discovering significant variables and basic relations that would never be found if we were confined to research dictated by a hypothetical-deductive model. Thus, the field study and the survey are the great protection in social science against the sterility and triviality to premature model building. It is possible, of course, to combine both exploration and hypothesis-testing in a single field study. One major set of hypotheses can be investigated at the same time that other materials are gathered for exploratory purposes.⁵

When a field study selects an area of social structure and examines the social interactions taking place, the effort should be directed to the discovery of meaningful relationships between variables. Theories are built upon variables that have been interrelated as propositions. Thus, theories integrate meaningful propositions based on insights obtained on the various variables involved. In this total process, Katz points out some unique advantages available in field studies.

Field studies...are breaking down the narrow walls of the traditional experimental laboratory in the application of a research approach to complex problems in human relationships...Field studies and surveys permit the introduction of controls and of research objectives into the data collection itself. This means that both the problem under investigation and the types of observations and measures to be taken can now be under the control of the social

⁵Katz, op. cit., p. 75.

researcher. A science which can gather its own data according to its own research interests, in addition to availing itself of existing records, is at a tremendous advantage over a discipline which skips this important part of the scientific process.⁶

In particular, the focused interview technique used in this field study (supra, p. 17) possesses these several advantages outlined above.

This survey of selected authoritative opinion has underlined the value of using theoretical concepts in the research. The researcher's contributions are increased in significance when linked to theoretical formulations. This Selltitz explains succinctly:

In summary: Theory increases the fruitfulness of research by providing significant leads for inquiry, by relating seemingly discrete findings by means of similar underlying processes, and by providing an explanation of observed relationships. The more research is directed by systematic theory, the more likely are its results to contribute directly to the development and further organization of knowledge.⁷

There are some other advantages of using theory in research. By the use of theory it is possible to cope with an enormous amount of data, and to integrate a variety of complex variables. Theory provides the researcher with a framework into which he can place and organize his findings. Here Selltitz comments:

To conduct research without theoretical interpretation or to theorize without research is to

⁶Ibid, pp. 56-57.

⁷Selltiz, op. cit., p. 491.

ignore the essential function of theory as a tool for achieving economy of thought.⁸

Finally, the use of theory tends to promote new theory. As new insights or hypotheses are formulated on the basis of reliable data, this new theory comes forth to be tested in the world of practical reality. At all times theory must be rooted in experience and be the abstraction of on-going events as the essence of an explored area of knowledge.⁹

III. SOURCES OF THEORY

In considering the development of theory, Halpin writes as follows:

The construction of a theory demands an act of creative imagination...Whatever strides we take toward developing theory in educational administration will depend upon two important sets of skills. The first is our skill in listening to several points of view. The second is our skill in identifying the consistent, major themes that recur in the various presentations--the ability to see the essential similarities as well as the differences.¹⁰

Thompson, in considering modern approaches to theory explains:

There appear to be four primary sources of theory for administration: the comments and reports made

⁸Ibid, p. 499.

⁹Knezevich, op. cit., p. 522.

¹⁰Andrew W. Halpin, "The Development of Theory in Educational Administration," Andrew W. Halpin (ed.) Administrative Theory in Education, (Chicago: The Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1958), pp. 5 & 19.

by practicing administrators, the survey research of teachers, the deductive reasoning of teachers, and the adaptation of models from other disciplines. These are listed in the order in which they have appeared on the scene. The first two are long established and traditional; the last two reflect newer developments.¹¹

Then among criteria for administrative theory, Thompson states: "The focus of an adequate theory will be on processes rather than correlations. Admittedly a theory is valuable only if it simplifies."¹²

IV. COMPONENTS USED IN THEORY BUILDING

Variables

The social scientist uses the term variable to designate factors or elements in the situation that he is describing. Variables can be related to one another or to other variables in different ways. Thus, a variable can be described as being dependent or independent. This merely means that the factor is considered by the researcher as having a special relationship to other variables in the situation. Independent variables are those elements which initiate the causal sequence which ends in the resulting dependent variables. Often independent variables can be changed or manipulated. The social scientist endeavors to record the impact which these changes have on the dependent

¹¹James D. Thompson, "Modern Approaches to Theory in Administration," Ibid, p. 24.

¹²Ibid, p. 32.

variables. More remote and diffuse factors are usually referred to as intervening variables.

Propositions

Whenever variables are consistently related to each other, the relationship is regarded as a phenomenon. The verbal statement of this phenomenon in a general form is referred to as a proposition. Propositions are generalizations that may be synthesized into a general framework or theory. Some writers refer to propositions as concepts. Others may use the term principles.

Systems and Models

When the social scientist seeks to define and explain the components or variables in their relationships and interactions, he often uses the term systems. Thus, a system can be defined as a set of interrelated factors that work together to produce an output. An educational institution can be considered to be an open system because it is in exchange with its environment. The concept of "input" producing "output" is useful in gaining insight into the control of an educational "system" as a totality. Elements of a system may themselves be a system of a lower order or sub-system.

A conceptual model in social science is a mental construct or diagram attempting to picture or chart the parts which have been referred to as variables, their relationships or linkages, and their interactions in an integrated

comprehensible form. Thus, systems, models or constructs are utilized to "picture" theories. They are means to the end of understanding the larger framework encompassed in a theory.

Knezevich discusses the function of explanatory models as follows:

The term model came on the scene because a theory could be conceived as an attempt to develop a picture or pattern of events. The term model is synonymous with theory and represents a type or form of expression of the fertile assumptions of a theory. The description of events and their relationships are part of a model that attempts to predict what will happen in the real world. The test of its validity is its correspondence to the real world. The model, as well as the theory, is a symbolic expression of the theorists conceptual framework in a given area. "Building a model" means much the same as "constructing a theory."¹³

While not all social scientists will agree with Knezevich's use of "model" as a synonym for theory, this author has underscored the essential role that models play in the formulation of theory. It is generally recognized that models provide analogy and conceptual framework for theoretical concepts.

V. USEFUL CONCEPTS AND MODELS

Out of a plethora of social science theory, several pertinent concepts and models have been selected to assist in providing foundation, overview, analysis, and synthesis. Of necessity each concept is presented briefly in this section.

¹³Knezevich, op. cit., p. 522.

Concept of Bases for Policy

The genesis of a model rests, in part, on the utilization of useful concepts and the consideration of sequences as developed in social synthesis studies. To illustrate, a simple flow sequence is suggested:

PHILOSOPHY → POLICY → PATTERNS → PROGRAM

A quotation from Brubacher is pertinent to this simple diagram. He writes thus:

It is possible to discuss higher education at three different levels--the level of practice, the level of policy, and the level of philosophy... we must discuss the level of philosophy, because at a number of points the argument has indicated that the basic reasons for policy are to be found at a deeper level than the one penetrated.¹⁴

Moehlman indicates the basis for policy in the following statement:

The orientation of a nation or culture is essential in determining the success of its educational system. Abraham Lincoln was thinking of this when he said: "If we could just know where we are and whither we are tending, we could better judge what to do and how to do it." Orientation includes the philosophical world picture controlling the aims and objectives of its pattern of education. Legal statutes and financial budgets are tangible expressions and implementations of the national philosophy for an educational system.¹⁵

It can be said that sociologists and students of comparative education generally agree that a nation's dominant

¹⁴John S. Brubacher, Bases for Policy in Higher Education (Toronto: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1965), p. 108.

¹⁵Arthur H. Moehlman, Comparative Educational Systems (New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc. 1963, pp. 82-83.

philosophy becomes the base for determining both the needs of that society and the needs of their pupils. A dominant philosophy is related to socioeconomic forces in our society. These cannot be confined to a local school area nor even within provincial boundaries for they are usually nationwide or even international in scope. Campbell, Cunningham and McPhee write as follows:

Policy grows out of the basic socio-economic forces in our society which generate movements antecedent to policy, that these movements encourage political action, and that finally these activities lead to formalization of policy by governmental agencies.¹⁶

It would seem logical to suggest that orientation is a function of societal factors and movements; that organizations have their roots in a variety of authority structures, and that operation is determined by the control exercised over personnel, program, and plants.

Concept of a System

The social sciences have become a disciplinary umbrella for the integration of variables into a total system. A general analysis of many systems from major fields of study has provided a common framework for approaching behavior in social organizations. Thus, as shown in Figure 1, the many societal factors can be considered together as inputs. These inputs are subject to modifications

¹⁶R. Campbell, L. Cunningham, and R. McPhee, The Organization and Control of American Schools (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1965), p. 37.

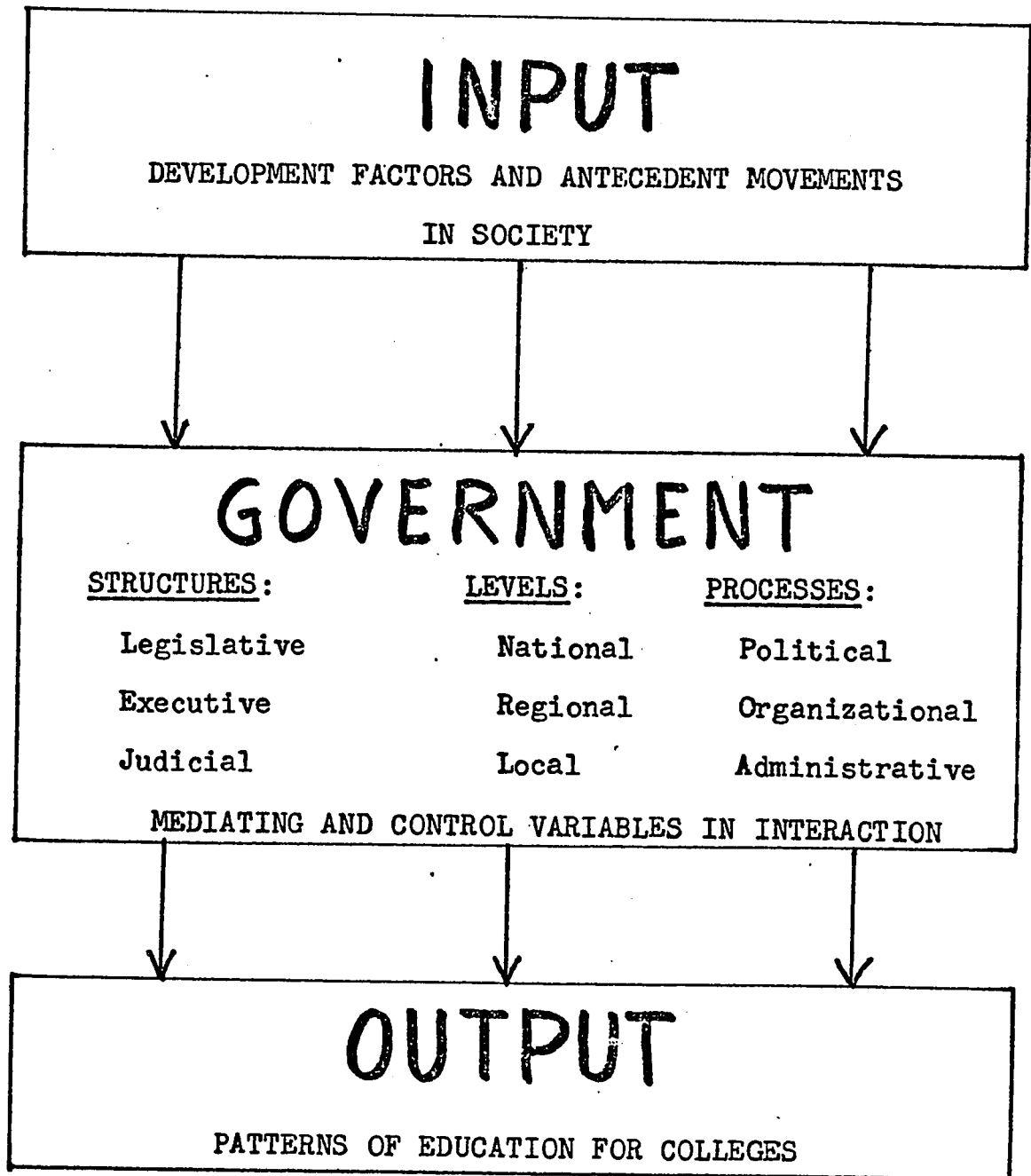


FIGURE 1

MODEL RELATING SOCIETAL FACTORS TO COLLEGE GOVERNANCE

by mediating and control components in interaction. As a result of the inputs being subject to these various structures and processes, there has been control or modification resulting in the final product referred to as the output.

The concepts in Figure 1 are useful in examining a total society or any particular segment or sub-system of that society. There are causative background factors that the structures of our society must cope with by a variety of processes. The basic control structures of society are usually classified as legislative, executive, and judicial groupings. Parallel to these structures, there are political, organizational, and administrative processes which range over the entire gamut from external to internal control. These processes are aspects of government involved with mediating and controlling the flow from basic inputs so as to achieve societal goals in an orderly fashion.

Figure 1 aims to identify societal factors and antecedent movements as being related to the prevailing patterns of college governance. Most such social science models of the input-output variety begin with a consideration of the inputs from the general environment. These inputs are modified by mediating or control variables which determine the form of the final output. Thus, the structures and processes of a political and governmental system can have a marked conversion effect on the original inputs. This conversion function has been described as a major aspect of the political and governmental system of a nation.

Concept of Social Interaction

Social organizations including colleges are much more than the product of societal forces and antecedent movements. People are involved. Individuals on the organizational scene do not act in isolation. As actors, they influence one another in their various roles and relationships. In this situation, leadership comes to the fore as a most important process in the group situation. Leadership is an interactional phenomenon, and concepts of interaction are basic to an adequate understanding of leadership so closely identified with governance. Thus, interaction theory is helpful in providing theoretical framework for describing the relationships between the people who have to do with the organization and the control of colleges.

An examination of some of the literature underlines that interaction is a comprehensive and current concept. Administrative literature is replete with descriptions of the major types of reactions between people. Other sources have described the levels of interaction of individuals as they carry out their roles within the organization and the larger society. The range of social interactions have been described as extending from conflict or negative reactions to cooperation or positive reactions with several ambivalent types within these extremities. College governance is significantly concerned with the maintenance of those interactions which tend to reinforce cooperation and organizational promotion.

Interaction cannot be thought of as a single process or activity, but rather as a whole range of processes and activities at a variety of levels. Interaction is a basic social variable acting as a determinant of social equilibrium within an organization. Social interaction is the process whereby individuals influence one another and promote consistent and orderly patterns. This influencing is accomplished by interpersonal contacts and the mutual interchange of thoughts, feelings, and reactions. It follows that it is a basic function of leadership to promote those interactions which systematically produce desired patterns.

The good leader is one who frequently and purposefully interacts with the members of his team so that there is progress toward goal accomplishment. Through such interaction, transactional processes are set in motion which expedite decision-making, problem solving, communication, planning, organizing, directing, and evaluating. Interaction expedites transaction between the available resources and personnel in the desired activities. In short, the leader in control promotes desirable transactions by means of guided interactions. Organizational governance demands the maintenance of those interactions which are both goal-orientated in terms of the group concerned and adaptive in a rapidly changing society within which the organization must exist.

Concept of Integration in Social Organization

All governance of colleges takes place within and through the context of organizational structures which exist for the accomplishment of the educational goals of the institution. "As a formal analytical point of reference," says Parsons, "primacy of orientation to the attainment of a specific goal is used as the defining characteristics of an organization which distinguishes it from other types of social systems."¹⁷

Colleges, as social organizations are orientated to the attainment of relatively specific goals, which in turn are related to the major functions of a more comprehensive system, that of society in general. There seem to be at least three primary contexts of this articulation with the general society: (1) establishment of operating codes or charters which have the approval of the larger society; (2) procurement of resources both human and material from the total resources of the nation; and (3) development of organizational structures for the coordination of activities.

Concepts of social structure become involved with: (1) linkage systems of the parts of the organization; (2) various levels and types of control impinging upon the structure or its parts; and (3) processes and activities which over time habituate to become bonds within the

¹⁷Talcott Parsons, "Suggestions for a Sociological Approach to the Theory of Organization.", Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. I, June 1956.

structure. To maintain proper perspective of social organization, there must be an awareness of the impact of general environment and pressures from that total environment. It would appear that school heads are much involved at this point with the legitimizing and embellishing of the college image in the societal setting with its values, established roles and norms, and established collectivities which project their own traditions and expectations. The modern college cannot be insulated from constant interchange with the larger society in which it exists.

Bakke in an attempt to supply an adequate and useful concept of the social organization writes:

The elementary substance of a social organization ...includes: 1. The Organizational Charter. 2. The Basic Resources (People, Ideas, Capital, Materials, Nature). 3. The Essential Processes (Identification, Perpetuation, Work-flow, Control, Homeostatic).

But these elements are related to each other in a state of interdependence... The Bonds of Organization concept is another way of indicating the nature of the interdependence among all the elements.¹⁸

By Organizational Charter, Bakke has reference to the image of the organization's wholeness in terms of such considerations as name, functions, goals, policies, value premises and symbols. It also has reference to the reciprocal rights and obligations between the organization and its participants, other organizations and people in the environment, and the significance of the organization for

¹⁸E. Wight Bakke, "Concept of the Social Organization," in Mason Haire (ed.), Modern Organizational Theory (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1959), p. 68.

self-realization. This total image is the Organizational Charter.

Bakke considers that there are five classes of basic resources: people, materials, capital, nature and ideas. The nature of these resources, both actual and potential, is an important determinant of the structure of the organization. The basic resources determine the extent to which the organizational charter can be realized.

Finally, Bakke indicates that these resources are utilized in the Activity Processes. These Activity Processes are essential to the acquisition, maintenance, and utilization of resources in order for the organization to function. He lists five essential processes which characterize all specific-purpose organizations: (1) Identification activities; (2) Perpetuation activities (personnel, service, finance, conservation, thoughtways); (3) Work-flow activities concerned with production and distribution; (4) Control activities (directing, motivating, evaluating, communicating); (5) Homeostatic activities which preserve the integrity of the institution by fusion of interests, problem-solving, and leadership.¹⁹

Bakke's concept of Bonds of Organization is not a new dimension to his model, but simply the consequence of all the activities functioning in integration to actualize the image of the organization's unique wholeness and consistently

¹⁹Ibid, pp. 43-59.

relating the organization and its parts to the external environment. It would seem that he suggests that the performance of adequate activities over time results in the formation of Bonds. Bakke's model is comprehensive, and provides a general framework and guide to a better concept of social organization. Figure 2 sets forth his model of these Bonds.

When organizations are viewed in this framework, it would appear that governance is involved necessarily with the organization at any or all of its elements of structure-- the organizational charter, perpetuation pursuits, work activities, control patterns, or preservation processes.

When the parts of an organization ideally interact there is coordination of the elements into a harmonious and healthy wholeness. An ultimate goal of organization is cooperation. In this respect, bureaucratic patterns and demands often come into conflict with democratic ideals and desires. The term "vertical component" can be used to represent some aspect of the flow of authority in the bureaucratic or the "line-staff" tradition. The term "horizontal component" can be used to indicate that aim of equality and recognition endorsed by democratic of professional traditions. In the college situation, vertical components are often in opposition to horizontal components. To illustrate, patterns of bureaucracy tend to stress hierarchy and specialization in opposition to the individual status desired in terms of equality and personal identity.

Figure 3 provides further illustrations of potential clashes.

Stable government in the college organization is deemed to be unattainable without some reconciliation of the vertical and horizontal components or variables in the three principal areas of comparison: structure, climate, and goal accomplishment. Figure 3 suggests that harmonization can be achieved by a judicious use of integrating concepts. Administrators recognize interaction, integration, and cooptation as important types of concepts that promote harmony in the structure of an organization. The integration of bureaucracy and democracy is recognized as one of the major challenges confronting those involved with college government.

Organizations are assemblages of interacting individual humans who are subjected to coordinative controls. The coordination of activities is essential if there is to be the accomplishment of goals. Integration is deemed essential to the success of the social organization.

A frame of reference developed by Blocker, Plummer, and Richardson modified tridimensional concepts developed by Funk, Livingston, and Ramseyer, and promoted the idea of the college as an integrated system established on a philosophical base.²⁰ As outlined earlier, the concept of interaction operative at all levels of the college system, was presented

²⁰Clyde E. Blocker, Robert H. Plummer, Richard C. Richardson, Jr., The Two-Year College: A Social Synthesis (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1965), pp. 172-173.

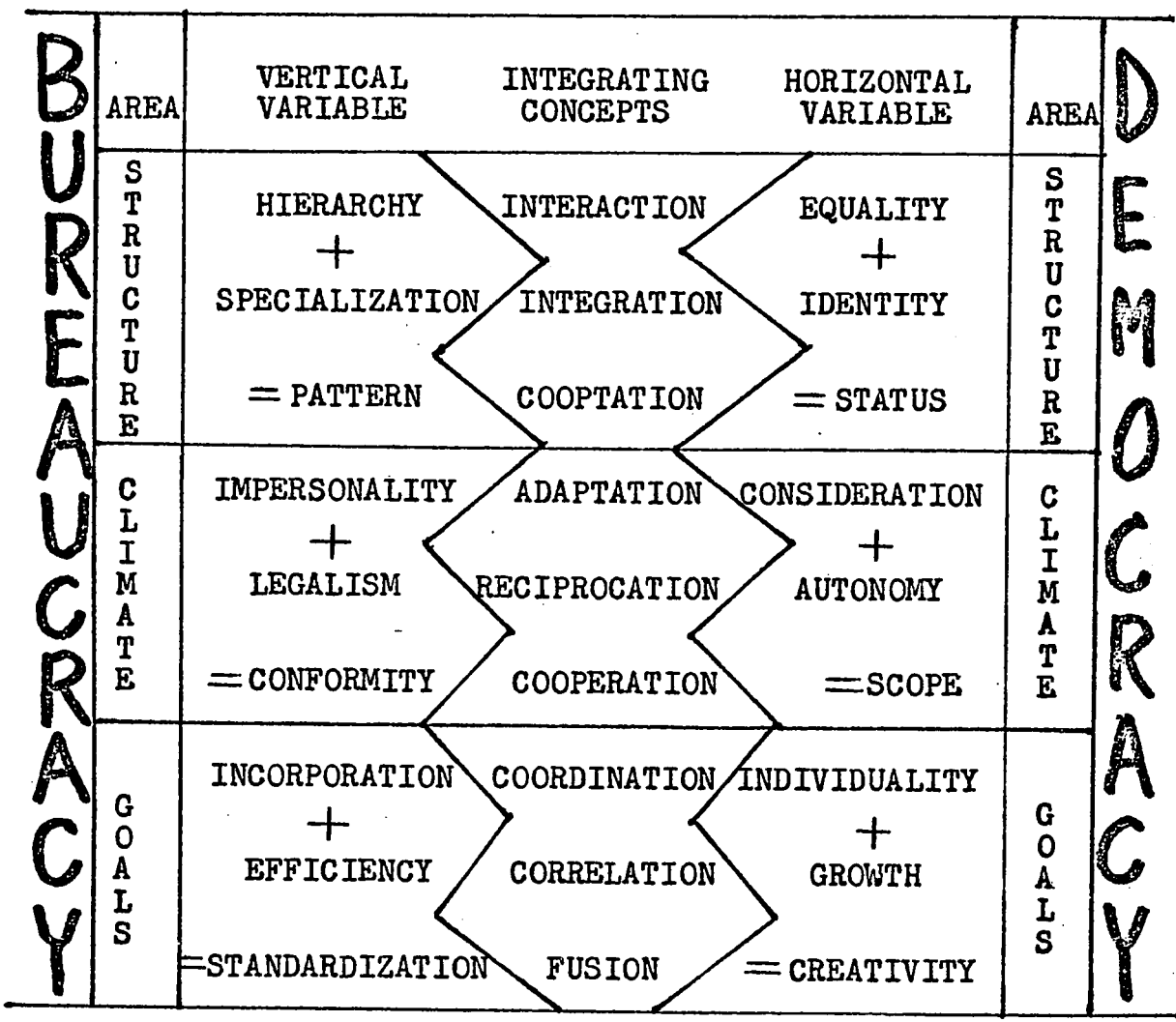


FIGURE 3
INTEGRATION OF BUREAUCRACY AND DEMOCRACY
IN SOCIAL ORGANIZATION

as a useful concept. As the investigation proceeded, these various useful concepts together promoted insight into the major dimensions and components of college government.

VI. THEORETICAL DESIGN OF THE RESEARCH STUDY

General Hypothesis

The study was designed to identify and to describe the principal factors or variables impinging upon the government of the folk high schools of Norway. The general hypothesis under investigation could be stated thus in broad terms: Governance is conditioned by, dependent upon, or varies with certain identifiable factors, both legal and extra-legal.

As the study progressed, it became possible to formulate more specific propositions related to each area of the general problem under study. Reflection upon these propositions led to an enlarged understanding of the general hypothesis.

General Considerations

Some criteria were necessary in the determination of the important social variables. The following were useful generally:

- (1) Is the identifiable variable generally recognized as a significant entity or factor?
- (2) Is the variable recognized as being in an interacting relationship with other social factors?
- (3) How does a change in the independent variable affect or condition the dependent variable?

Ideally, variables should be capable of operational definition, observation, and testing. However, in a non-quantitative study this was not possible. Experimental data were not yet available or sufficiently developed. Hence, the insights of leaders both in the literature and in the field had to be utilized to discover relevant relationships, to weigh and to screen information and insights, and in general to suggest integrative interpretations. This investigation of reciprocal perceptions and attitudes of people playing interdependent roles were regarded as the experimental approach to the selection of independent social variables related to governance. A coherent approach was desired which was systematic, consistent, inclusive, analytic, and also synoptic.

The research design had to be flexible enough to permit consideration of many aspects of the phenomenon of government. The exploratory study aimed to advance, clarify, and formulate concepts to the point whereupon empirical research might follow and build. The immediate goal of this study was to describe various variables in dynamic interaction, and to set forth these interrelationships as clearly as possible.

The consequence of this general approach led to description, diagnosis, and design. Basically, this procedure required consideration of three questions: What does the study discover? (description); what does it mean? (diagnosis); and, what is the application? (design).

General Use of Theory

To chart the course of the research, conceptual resources from the social sciences and administrative literature were utilized. Such theoretical framework performed several functions. In the first place, theory was utilized to guide the investigator to important areas by systemic approaches and broad concepts. Hereby, theory became a tool for achieving economy of thought and efficiency of approach. Secondly, theory was utilized to provide a framework whereby design could be given to the entire study. Finally, theoretical considerations as outlined guided the study in the "laboratory" of Norway. These field studies became the means of checking on the preliminary hypotheses or broad generalizations. As well, contact with the field gave ready access to important corroborating literature. In general, theory was utilized to focus attention on the processes of government rather than on any mathematical correlations between the variables of government.

The conceptual resources which have been outlined in this chapter provided the basic theoretical framework undergirding the entire study, and culminate in Chapter VII. Concepts and models have been offered as a means of conceptualizing the interaction of the variables and their relationships to the governance of the colleges. The basic philosophical foundations which determine or mold policy decisions have been suggested. The usefulness of a "systems input-output" has been indicated. The importance of social

interaction concepts was considered as a background to understanding the role of people in the government of colleges. The complexity of social organization and its integration was explored. Here, Bakke's model was deemed most useful and comprehensive.

The study design has been built around the key concepts of interaction and integration of the major variables. These central concepts have been presented in the abstract and the general due to the fact that there are no immediate empirical referents in this non-quantitative study. Useful models have been introduced from the social sciences to show the components of government in interrelation. These variables have been categorized, described, and examined in the separate chapters of the study and the report which follow.

Whenever the findings supported consistent relationships between the variables, it became possible to finalize a verbal statement of this phenomenon as a generalized proposition. Finally, all of the main propositions were synthesized into a general conceptual framework leading to a theoretical model. This model was designed with the aid of theory to promote a better understanding of the many simultaneous interactions of the major components of college government. The model summarizes the findings in a broad and general way, and enables administrators to conceive of governance as a process of simultaneously interacting variables rather than as a complex set of empirically related statics.

VII. PRELIMINARY UNDERLYING PROPOSITIONS

As stated in Chapter I, this study aims to investigate specific areas relative to the governance of the folk high schools of Norway. As a general guide to the collection of data and as a preliminary guide to the research design, broad generalizations have been correlated with each area of the problems under study. These have been focused by theoretical considerations so that both the study and the report could be integrated. The statement of these broad generalizations follows:

1. Major long-range societal factors have affected the primary components of the government of the folk high schools of Norway.

In this proposition the primary components of government are held to be dependent upon a variety of long-range factors in interaction. Individually, these long-range factors are independent variables. The identification of these factors is necessary in order to understand their influence on college government. Any force or movement which in the end affects decision is held to be an aspect of control.

2. Unique historical acts and antecedent movements have shaped the organization and the control patterns of the folk high schools.

In this proposition, current control patterns are held to be dependent upon such independent variables as historical acts and movements which are unique to the nation of Norway.

Shartle writes on the subject of historical acts thus:

Acts may be noted or inferred in a time setting from documents and other data. They may be classified, and they may be studied as hypothetical dimensions and patterns. Their derivations can be analyzed and their development related to other events and to concepts.²¹

3. Legal statutes and formal overstructure at various levels of external government affect college governance.

Here college governance is held to be affected by such variables as laws and organizational structure at such levels as the national, regional, and local fields. Here, the investigation becomes concerned with both the structures and processes of external government.

4. Internal government groupings within the local institution influence school directions and control.

In this proposition, government of a college is held to be influenced by such variables as local boards, faculty councils, and student organizations as parts of internal government groupings. These organizations are influenced by such intervening variables as intra-organizational transactions and extra-legal pressures of informal structures.

5. In summary, college governance is deemed to be conditioned by a variety of identifiable factors in interaction.

When these propositions are considered in relation to social science and administrative concepts, it becomes possible to anticipate the conceptual framework which provides

²¹Carroll L. Shartle, "A Theoretical Framework for the Study of Behavior in Organizations," in Administrative Theory in Education, op. cit., p. 78.

overall pattern to the study and basic design to the report. The comprehensiveness of the problem is underlined by the following definition of a social organization by Bakke:

A social organization is a continuing system of differentiated and coordinated human activities utilizing, transforming, and welding together a specific set of human, material, capital, ideational, and natural resources into a unique, problem-solving whole engaged in satisfying particular human needs in interaction with other systems of human activities and resources in its environment.²²

VIII. SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

The purpose of this chapter was to survey important theoretical concepts and models basic to the formulation of a framework deemed useful to both the study and the report. A review of authoritative opinion underlined the significant benefits of adequate theories in administrative research. The sources and components of theory were outlined in terms of the development of a conceptual framework. Concepts and models were selected and explored in four areas: impact of philosophical bases on college policies; usefulness of the "systems input-output" concept; importance of interaction as a basic concept; and, the need of integrative concepts in order to understand prevailing patterns of college governance. The design of the study was projected against the background of these conceptual resources.

Finally, broad preliminary generalizations relative to the principal areas of the study were proposed in relation

²²Bakke, op. cit., p. 37.

to the theoretical framework. These become an ordering principle for each of the following chapters of the study.

CHAPTER III

SOCIAL MATRIX OF THE FOLK HIGH SCHOOLS

I. INTRODUCTION

To understand any system of education or its pattern of governance, one must know something about the people who created it--their land, their national characteristics, and their acculturation. A movement in education cannot be attributed to any single or immediate fact, but rather to a synthesis of many formal and extra-legal influences which have interplayed to mold a movement over time. For these reasons, an educational pattern should be viewed against the background of the major societal influences.

It is the purpose of this chapter to identify some of the major long-range factors which, on the basis of considerable authoritative opinion, have tended to shape the primary components of the folk high schools of Norway. Such factors can be expected to be influential at all three levels of government--national, regional, and local. Further, a segment of the total educational system could be expected to possess patterns which reflect and support the national style of Norway. Thus, the main question under study in this chapter is: Has the social milieu of Norway patterned its folk high schools? The analysis is designed to suggest patterns of the influences of society on its colleges.

II. GENERAL SIGNIFICANCE OF LONG-RANGE SOCIETAL FACTORS

A national pattern of education is better understood if it is not divorced from its close connection with the national character and culture. This has been indicated by many scholars who have written on the significance of long-range factors in shaping an educational system and its governance. In a case study of the San Jose Junior College as a type of the American "open door college", Clark states:

The environment of a new organization is shaped by many features of the larger society, such as traditional beliefs, established systems of authority, and the prerogatives of other organizations. In a general sense all formal enterprises are part of a larger social structure. For some, however, the connection between organization and setting is intimate and compelling while for others it is loose and remotely constraining. A close connection is likely to exist for an organization that is made part of a larger administrative complex. The host organization is a miniature society in itself, spelling out many of the ways in which things should be done. The history and character of the larger enterprise attach to the new organization, and certain expectations and procedures are automatically brought to bear.¹

Because the folk high schools of Norway are part of a "large administrative complex" of national, regional, and local government, Clark's argument would support the case for a "compelling...connection." Another American writer in a recent book published in a series on the foundations of education underlines that culture and history mold the school. Grambs concludes:

¹Burton R. Clark, The Open Door College: A Case Study (Toronto: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960), p. 9.

... The school belongs to society. Yet society is not a single, simple entity. The social order is a product of history, of man's adaptations to changing situations, and of the interaction of different civilizations and cultures. Parents, teachers, and children are all products of their period. The school is intimately bound up with the course of national history. Revolutions were never born in the schoolroom, but the schoolroom inevitably reflects revolutions though often too late and with too little awareness of the forces at work.²

It is also interesting to note that Grambs defines education in relationship to the above insight. She states: "Education is the process whereby each social group or society inducts the young into its own particular style of social relationships."³

An earlier writer who has done several studies on the national systems of education in different countries writes:

The character of education offered varies from state to state in accordance with its political, social, and economic ideals and purposes. The type of administrative principles and organization adopted is in the main determined by these ideals and purposes and in turn determines the spirit of the education that is given.⁴

Here Kandel relates patterns of governance which he calls "administrative principles and organization" to other background factors in society--"political, social, and economic."

²Jean Dresden Grambs, Schools, Scholars, and Society (Toronto: Prentice-Hall of Canada, Ltd., 1965), p. 12.

³Ibid, p. 5.

⁴I.L. Kandel, Types of Administration (Wellington: New Zealand Council for Educational Research, 1938), p. 7.

Moehlman, in his analysis of comparative educational systems, concludes that there is a need for broad perspectives in the study of educational organizations. He points out the major components thus:

A nation must engage in the intelligent improvement of all the major components of its educational system in order to attain excellence. These components may be grouped into three major categories: orientation, including philosophy, law, finance; organization, including general structure, pre-elementary, elementary, secondary and higher education, and mass media; operation, including students, teachers, curricula; methods of instruction, instructional materials, evaluation and testing, guidance, supervision, and administration. The orientation of a nation or culture is essential in determining the success of its educational system.⁵

A recent study on the organization and control of American schools gives further focus to this issue when it declares:

Recognition that educational policy does not spring full-blown but, instead, is generated by basic socio-economic forces in our society and is preceded by numerous movements which are political and extra-legal in character should help us view recent policy formulation in clearer light.⁶

Very useful concepts for studying an educational system have been provided by Hans in his widely used text, Comparative Education. His analysis of the factors which affect education are widely accepted. Hans puts it thus:

⁵Arthur H. Moehlman, Comparative Educational Systems (New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1963), p. 82.

⁶Roald F. Campbell, L.L. Cunningham and R.F. McPhee, The Organization and Control of American Schools (Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1965), p. 39.

If educational values of different national systems often cannot be compared by mathematical methods, a valid comparison of their functional role in their respective situations may be successfully attempted and fruitfully achieved. That brings us back to the thesis that national systems of education as well as national constitutions or national literatures are the outward expression of national character and as such represent the nation in distinction from other nations. If we could separate and analyse the factors which were active in creating different nations we should go a long way towards a definition of the principles which underlie national systems of education...the author has enumerated five factors which make an ideal nation: (i) Unity of race, (ii) Unity of religion, (iii) Unity of language, (iv) Compact territory, and (v) Political sovereignty. One of the factors may be lacking without seriously endangering the unity of national culture.⁷

Thus, Hans summarizes the important factors which he considers to be the determinants of a national system of education. He further states:

National character, therefore, is a complex result of racial intermixtures, linguistic adaptations, religious movements and historical and geographic situations in general. Because of this multiplicity of factors it could not be compared to a monolith, but rather resembles an old architectural structure with styles and additions of various centuries. National systems of education, even when they are intentionally set up by revolutionary governments to reform the inherited national character, are unavoidably influenced by these factors and are deeply rooted in the past... Under the influence of universal ideals, both religious and social-political, the modern nations consciously endeavor to reform the past and create a better future through nationally controlled systems of education.⁸

Hans identifies three groups of general factors which he presents as significant determinants of the educational

⁷Nicholas Hans, Comparative Education (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul Limited, 1950), pp. 8-9.

⁸Ibid, p. 10.

system of a nation and which he outlines thus:

I. NATURAL FACTORS: (a) Race, (b) Language, (c) Environment; II. RELIGIOUS FACTORS: (a) Catholicism, (b) Anglicism, (c) Puritanism; III. SECULAR FACTORS: (a) Humanism, (b) Socialism, (c) Nationalism.⁹

Reller and Morphet stress the distinctiveness of the political factor thus:

The character and nature of the plan for organization and administration of education are determined basically by the political theory of a nation and tend to be changed only as the political theory changes. Thus, nations which hold an authoritarian concept of government are likely to establish a plan which has the characteristics of an authoritarian system. In those in which there is a genuine belief in government of, by, and for the people, the plan is likely to be characterized by provisions for widespread participation of the people in decision-making.¹⁰

The above review of authoritative opinions and analyses has underlined that it is the total milieu of a nation that patterns its colleges.

III. LONG-RANGE FACTORS IMPINGING UPON EDUCATION IN NORWAY

The purpose of this section is to examine more specifically some major long-range societal factors impinging upon the colleges of Norway. These factors have been selected against the background of authoritative analysis provided earlier. Considerable factual data has been selected from

⁹Ibid, p. 16.

¹⁰Theodore L. Reller and Edgar L. Morphet, Comparative Educational Administration (Toronto: Prentice-Hall of Canada, Ltd., 1962), p. 17.

the following main sources: Facts About Norway--9th edition¹¹ 1965-66, and Statiskisk Arbok 1966.¹²

Natural Factors

The unique topography and location of Norway, the abundant presence of water, and other unique natural factors are deemed to be among those basic forces which have influenced the special character and the pattern of governance of the colleges of Norway.

The Land. Many view the land of Norway as a stony series of U- and V- valleys held apart by hills or mountains of varying height and ruggedness, and with only a thin layer of soil in some favored places. Indeed, much of the terrain is hostile to human occupancy, and the people do live mostly in various valleys scattered across the country. It has been estimated that roughly 74 per cent of the land area is covered by barren mountains, mountain lakes and icy glaciers; that 23 per cent is productive forest area; and, that some 3 per cent is arable land.

Norway is the most northernmost country in the world. Its most northern town, Hammerfest, is also the most northern in the world, lying on 70° 39' 48" N latitude. The Arctic Circle crosses near the middle of the country which extends from 57° 57' 31" to 71 11' 8" latitude. The midnight sun is

¹¹Elisabeth Lundevall and Per Hagen (eds.), Facts About Norway (Oslo: Naper Boktrykkeri, 1965), pp. 3-5.

¹²Statiskisk Arbok 1966 (Oslo: Statiskisk Sentralbyra, 1966).

visible at the North Cape from May 15 to July 31, but in the winter, this part of Norway is shrouded in darkness for the long winter months.

The area of Norway is 125,064 square miles, while its Arctic dependency of Svalbard (formerly Spitzbergen) is about 24,000 square miles in area. Thus, the total area of Norway is about half that of the province of Alberta. Norway, which is oddly shaped like a caveman's club, stretches north for a distance of 1089 miles as compared with Alberta's length of 700 miles. The map, included as Figure 4, shows that Norway is a ragged narrow corridor in the middle of the country averaging only some 20 to 40 miles of width between the sea and Sweden. At one point at the head of the Tysfjrd Norway is only 3.9 miles wide. The land borders Sweden, Finland, and the Soviet Union for a distance of 1,607 miles while the coast line measures 1,650 miles, not including the numerous inlets and fjrds. The coast is shaped like the edge of a lumberman's jagged saw, with numerous fjrds or narrow inlets of the sea, and shorelines of some 150,000 islands so that the actual coastline of the country exceeds 12,000 miles or half the distance around the world's centre.

The unique geography of Norway has promoted problems related to isolation, transportation, attendance, and program. Hove explains:

Access to schools from the isolated farms in the valleys and from the fishermen's homes on the islands and along the fjords involve problems of transportation and boarding for children and young people. To provide schooling for the children of inhabitants of such places, a large number of small undivided or

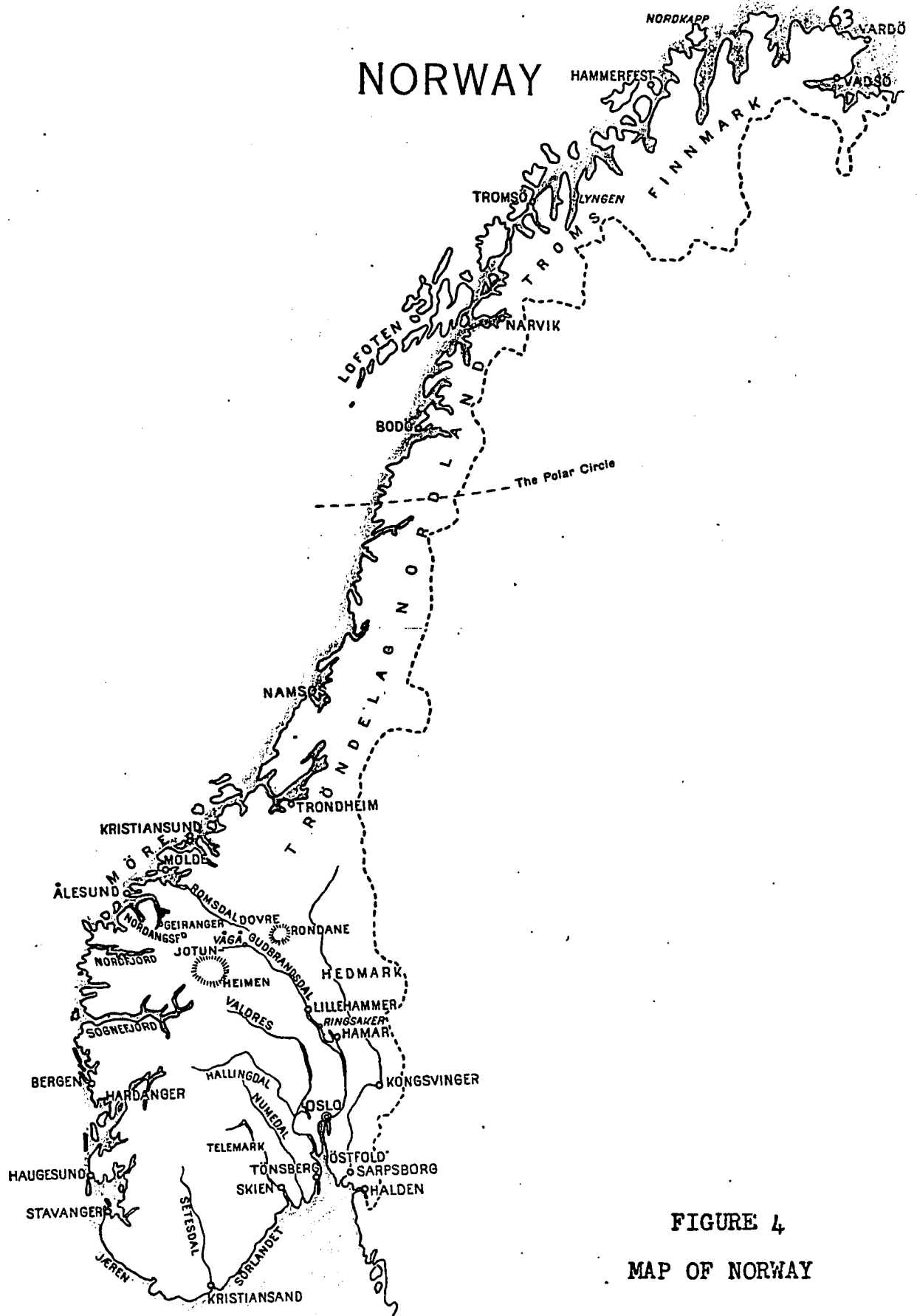


FIGURE 4
MAP OF NORWAY

one-room schools were established at a time when communication facilities were not so highly developed as today. Differences in the organization of rural and of urban primary education are due entirely to the wide-spread nature of the rural population and to their living conditions. This also applies in part to other types of educational facilities for rural areas, for instance to secondary schools and vocational schools of different kinds. Some time ago it even influenced to a certain extent the recruitment of students from rural areas to institutions of higher education.¹³

These facts of geography help to explain why there are as many as seventy-five folk high schools in a relatively small land of low population density. Compared with other countries with greater concentration of population and less forbidding topography, the cost of basic infrastructure in Norway must be more onerous especially when her people are confined largely to long narrow corridors of land in the valleys or by the sea.

Climate and topography have influenced aspects of the school organization in Norway. As is common in all very northern countries, compulsory school attendance is one or two years later than in Mediterranean climates. By the compulsory school law of 1889, all normal Norwegian children begin school in the year in which they reach their seventh birthday. School starts between 8 and 9 in the morning, but is dismissed by 2.30 in the afternoon. Thus, the children aim to be home before the darkness falls in the winter season.

¹³Olav Hove, An Outline of Norwegian Education (Oslo: A.W. Brøgggers Boktrykkeri, 1958), p. 13.

Often, sudden and severe winter storms make it dangerous for children under seven to be coming home from school. Because of the isolation of many people and the poor roads in many areas, there are many schools in Norway with low enrolments. Most areas still conduct school six days per week for 38 weeks during the year, but some urban centres are experimenting with longer days of school which are held for only five days of the week. There is no regular kindergarten system in Norway, but the cities are now demanding kindergartens.

The extraordinary variety of environment and living conditions imposed by the physical geography of Norway has led to variations between town and country that are unique. In isolated districts of scattered population, it is not unusual still that primary pupils attend school on alternate days. In thinly populated areas, children of different school years can be taken in one class. Today, a national effort is being made to reach all with a quality education.

In the past centuries the people had continued to live in their scattered communities in considerable isolation from one another. Communication was more across water than over land. It was because of her geographical features and her sparse population that Norway could not achieve sufficient unity to overcome the obstacles of nature and weld together her isolated elements into a nation. The Norwegian peasant has never known the bondage of serfdom. His lot has at times been mean enough, but he has never ceased to be a free man.

As is characteristic of mountain people, Norwegians

have been rugged individualists fiercely resisting any encroachments on their personal freedom. During the union with Denmark which lasted from 1380 to 1814, the geographical features of Norway prevented any total control of the country by the Danes. From 1814 to 1905, Norway enjoyed relative independence under her own constitution even though she was united with Sweden in a dynastic union. Even in modern times, Hitler found that both the geography of the land and the independence of the people were difficult to overcome during the years of war with Norway from 1940 to 1945.

It was only after long centuries of struggle and disension within the country that the people came to the realization that they must work together to achieve ultimate freedoms. In this development, the folk high schools came to play an important role helping to spark the fires of nationalism and cooperation that spread rapidly in the nineteenth century.

Concerning the growth of cooperation with the nation, Grimley writes:

Norway has become a land of cooperation, and it is natural to ask the question how this very individualistic people has been able to develop this new social order which has built bridges between the differences of individuals, and organized a great collective effort to build a better country and to create a happier nation. Reading their history and studying their national character, one should think that this intensely individualistic people--created by the forests, the mountains and the sea--would have been one of the last people's on earth to embrace the spirit of cooperation. There can be one and only one answer to the question. It is due to education, education and again education. But education in a broader sense than just the courses outlined in the regular schools. It includes folk school education, young people's societies, study circle education--all this which in Norway is called "folkeoplysning."

(literally translated: people's education.)¹⁴

The term folkeoplysning re-echoes the great democratic people's movements of the nineteenth century and the very special meaning Bishop Grundtvig of Denmark gave to the word oplysning. Although the term corresponds closely to the English word, enlightenment, in the Scandinavian usage there is an even stronger suggestion of understanding due to the shedding of light. The unique contributions of Grundtvig are discussed more fully in the chapter that follows.

Water and Sea. For Norwegians the sea has been a highway, since few places are very far from water. From the time of the Vikings, the fjørds or bays have been avenues to the outer world. A thousand years ago the Vikings slipped out of the forests and fjørds of Northern Europe to plunder the civilized world and to colonize the uncivilized world. In their ingeniously designed longboats they struck across the Atlantic to Iceland, Greenland, and North America five hundred years before Columbus reached the Caribbean. More than any other Scandinavian people, the Norwegians became a sea-faring people. Connery summarizes his impressions here when he states:

The most important fact of Scandinavia is water. It has made the Nordic people natural seafarers, fishermen, and merchant traders. Hydroelectric power has helped them to become industrialists. The fact that most Norwegians live within a few miles of

¹⁴O.B. Grimley, The New Norway (Oslo: P.M. Bye & Co, 1937), p. 146.

the ocean has made Norway one of the greatest shipping, fishing, and whaling nations.¹⁵

Because of the moderating influence of the warm waters of the Gulf Stream, the country is not prohibitively cold even for the people above the 70th latitude. The winter temperatures are particularly influenced by this Gulf Stream especially along the coastal regions. The greatest differences between summer and winter temperatures are found in the inland valleys in southeastern Norway.

The high mountain ridge that divides the west coast from the eastern part precipitates much rain along the west coast. The high mountains, swamps, lakes, and abiding glaciers have no production potential other than making possible the highest per capita hydro-production of electricity in the world. To date only some 40 per cent of the power potential has been developed. In 1965, Norway produced 11,330 kwh per capita compared with Canada's 6,647 and USA's 5,473. Because of the abundance of cheap electricity, nearly all of the homes are electrified and even schools are heated by electricity. Most of Norway's export industry is based on hydro-electric power. Fixed nitrogen is a large export item for use as a fertilizer and is produced by man-made lightning charges. The electrometallurgic industries are major consumers to the extent of some 44 per cent of the total power. Thus, in the 20th century, industry has

¹⁵Donald S. Connery, The Scandinavians (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1966), p. 13.

steadily increased in Norway parallel to the development of cheap electrical power.

A country with a diversified economy, which includes stable industry, tends to promote not only more education for its youth, but greater variety and specialization in curriculum. Industrialization provides both the economic need and the economic base for the growth of educational institutions. The structure of the economy tends to be reflected in the curriculum without too great a time lag in the progressive nation. Thus, Norway has provided all types of vocational schools of which there were as many as 662 in 1966. Many of these schools offer courses revolving around skills which are required by the merchant fleet. This fleet is the main method by which Norway is able to finance the great import surplus. Because Norway is a great trading nation much involved with shipping, the educational program at all levels tends to have windows on the world. Instruction in English begins as early as Grade V in the elementary school. The people are very much aware that they must live by "wits and skills" rather than by any easy exploitation of their natural resources. Thus, "talent industries" play a dominant role, and intensified efforts in education and research have sought to promote the necessary specialized skills needed by these industries.

More and more tourists are discovering that the beautiful fjords and lakes in the mountain settings of Norway offer a vacation land of rare beauty and unspoiled nature.

Thus, more Norwegians are involved each year with providing goods, services, and facilities for the growing number of tourists. Income from foreign tourists has risen from 367 million kroner in 1960 to 601 million kroner in 1965 according to official statistics. Seven Norwegian kroners are approximately equal to one Canadian dollar.

Many of the folk high schools of Norway capitalize on their residential facilities by making them available as summer hotels during the heavy tourist season from June to September. Invariably, these colleges have been built on scenic locations of great beauty. They are also comfortably furnished, and feature many large windows looking out upon the restful summer scenery of Norway. The seventy-five folk high schools are not located in the large urban centres, but are scattered throughout the length and breadth of the country.

Language problems. Rugged topography has served to isolate many Norwegian communities from one another. In this kind of situation, each area has tended to perpetuate its own traditions, local independence, valley institutions, and area dialects. With better roads and radio and television communication in the 20th century, the impact of isolation is beginning to break down. The existing local dialects are gradually being fused into more universal symbols of the nation. Hans states: "It appears that language is more important in the building up of national character than any other

factor."¹⁶

The Norwegian language is closely related to the other principal Scandinavian languages, and to a lesser degree to that family of languages which includes English, Dutch, and German. The Lapps in northern Norway, who number about 20,000, have kept their own unique language and constitute Norway's distinct minority group. Their dark hair and eyes and other anthropological features are in sharp contrast to the taller typically blue-eyed and fair haired Norwegians. In the extreme north, there are also many descendants of immigrants from Finland who speak the Finnish language which again is very different from the general Scandinavian patterns. Though the Norwegians can readily communicate with one another, and with the Swedes, the Danes, and the Icelanders in a kind of pan-Scandinavian harmony, this does not include the Lapps and the Finns. However, these minority groups are becoming bi-lingual.

Until the end of the 19th century there was only one official language called riksmål (language of the realm). Later, this was referred to as bokmål (book language). Because this language had been strongly influenced by the four centuries of union with Denmark who had provided the leaders in state, church, and school, this language was really a Danish-Norwegian.

By 1850, the fires of nationalism brought pressures

¹⁶Hans, op. cit., p. 40.

for a national language which could be at once distinctively and representatively Norwegian. The linguistic genius, Ivar Aasen (1813-1896) captured the people's dialects and did much to promote a new common denominator Norwegian in the middle of the 19th century. His revolutionary goal was to give Norway back a language that really was her own. This language was first called landsmål (language of the land), but today it is referred to as nynorsk (neo-Norwegian). Nynorsk is based on those modern dialects of Norway which have most faithfully preserved the forms of Old Norwegian.

The situation in Norway today is described by Haugen:

Either language is admissible in the schools and in the government offices, as determined by local and national political authorities. All pupils are required to learn to read both, but individual adults are free to choose their own medium. Bokmål is predominant in urban usage in all parts of the country, while nynorsk has its strongholds in the rural areas of western and midland Norway. Both languages have a vigorous literary tradition, though bokmål is overwhelmingly predominant in terms of quantity and variety of writing...In speech, users of either language communicate easily with those of the other, and the obstacles to read are not insuperable.¹⁷

Meanwhile, there is great disagreement as to whether or not these two languages should be amalgamated at an early date or whether they should be permitted to develop naturally towards a commonly accepted language called samnorsk (literally, common Norwegian.) Nynorsk, though endorsed by a vigorous minority, has grassroots popularity but less social prestige. Bokmål is really very fluid, is associated with

¹⁷Einar Haugen, Norsk Engelsk Ordbok (Oslo: Grøndahl and Son, 1965), p. 20.

the literary heritage of the country, and continues to be used by the press of Norway to a very large extent. By resolution of the Storting, a Language Commission was established in 1952 which consists of 30 members, 15 representing each language. Converging of the languages is slowly taking place as agreement is reached on many words. Modern media are having a levelling influence. For the country as a whole, there has been keen interest in the language issue. Norwegians are very language conscious. The matriculant from the high school program in Norway must be able to pass examinations in English, German, and the two recognized Norwegian languages. Illiteracy is almost nonexistent in Norway.

Thus, for over a century, Norway has recognized two official languages both of which are Norwegian. This unique language situation has not involved problems which are as great as those imposed by the geographical factors described above. A basic problem has existed in the area of providing text books for the pupils which are acceptable across the country. Trends toward uniformity of language are reducing printing costs in the current situation. Much valuable school time has been consumed in learning the fine points of two national languages to the detriment of certain other subjects.

Generally, the folk high schools of Norway have encouraged nynorsk as a part of their nationalistic emphasis. Because of the strong feelings and warm debate over the

language controversy in the past years, the position taken by the folk high schools has tended to build rural loyalty but urban opposition. However, with the gradual merging of the two languages, the opposition is diminishing. According to 1965 statistics, 70 per cent of the rural districts and 97 per cent of urban centres favor bokmål.

Demographic Factors

Aspects of population and population distribution patterns in Norway are closely related to the natural factors already discussed. However, the science of demography has tended to isolate population as a distinct category of research.

The three principal aspects of demography which are usually examined in relation to education are: (1) Quantitative factors which are determinants of the total population, (2) Age composition of population as related to educational burden, and (3) Patterns of population mobility of the nation.

Quantitative determinants. An analysis of the total composition of the population is concerned with such quantitative factors as live birth rates, death rates, and net migration. The demographer is also concerned with the analysis of differential fertility rates as related to class structure factors as, for example in rural and urban classifications. Any trend increase in the non-productive age group, say, ages 0-17, and 70 and over places an extra burden on the

productive 18-69 grouping, and normally produces changes in the allocation of resources of the nation.

In 1967, the total population of Norway was slightly over 3.7 million people dispersed over a territory which is one and a half times as large as that of the United Kingdom with her 55 million people. On the average the population of Norway is almost 30 people per square mile as compared with Alberta which still has only some 6 people per section. Since half of Norway lies north of the Arctic Circle, and three-fourths of the country presents forbidding topography, the population is unevenly distributed. The greatest concentration is in the urban centres of the southern half.

Over the centuries, the growth of population in Norway has been steady without any manifestation of a population explosion. Figure 5 shows the even rise of Norway's population in millions of people from 1800 to the present.

The live birth rate is comparatively low at about 17 per 1000 of population, and the death rate is very low at less than 10 per 1000. Statistics indicate that there is no currently significant emigration in excess of immigration. In 1964, 12,606 people came to Norway, and 14,264 left. In the three previous years, the balance favored the immigrants. Basically, the steady increase in the number of people is due to the fact that the birth rate exceeds the death rate.

Age composition. Currently, Norway is in a demographic cycle in which the productive age group 18-69 is expanding at a somewhat slower rate than the non-productive

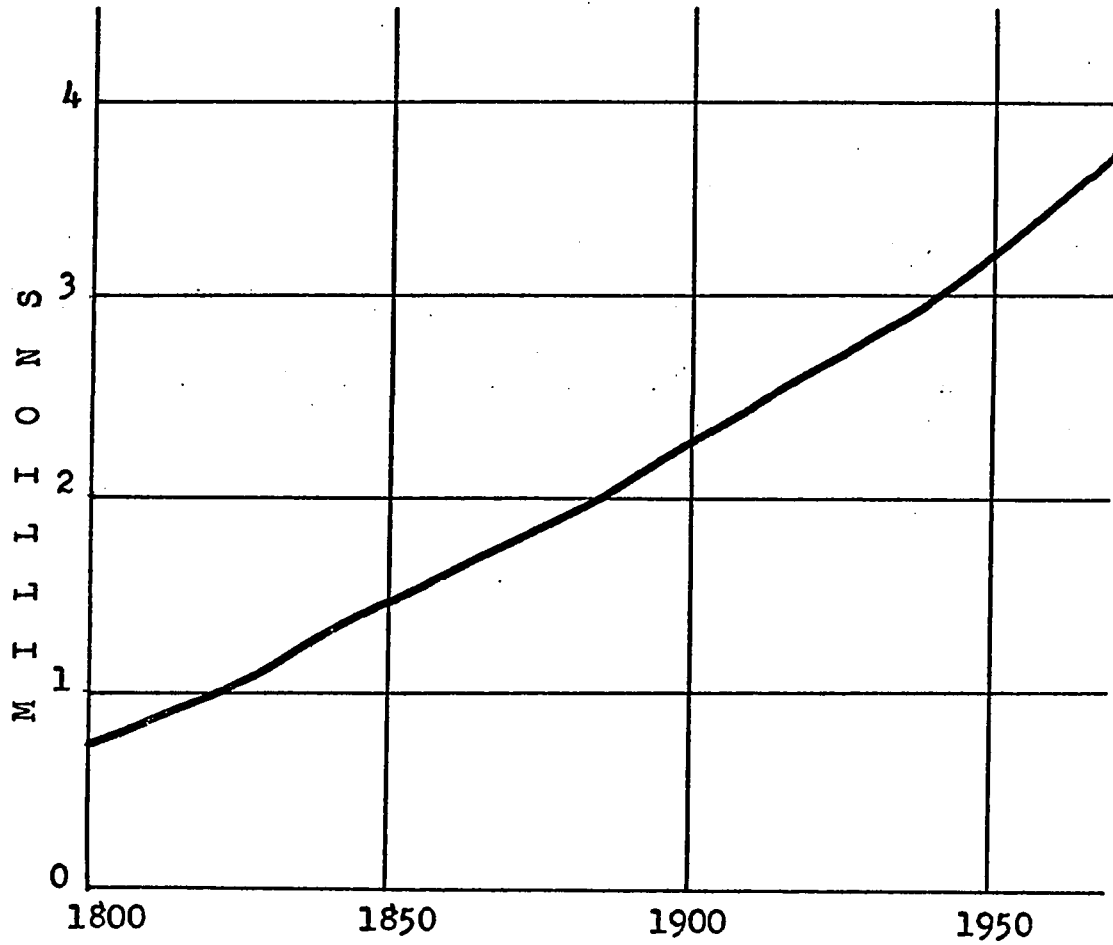


FIGURE 5

GROWTH OF RESIDENT POPULATION IN NORWAY FROM 1800
(Source: International Summer School, Oslo, 1967)

groups. This is shown in Table I. Any decrease in the relative size of the labor force normally increases the educational burden.

TABLE I
AGE COMPOSITION GROUPINGS IN NORWAY
1950, 1960, 1970

Ages	1950	1960	1970 (projected)
0 - 17	28.1%	30.6%	29.4%
18 - 69	65.6	62.4	62.3
70 and over	6.3	7.0	8.3

Source: International Summer School Outline, Brofoss p. 13.

There is an upward trend in retention to schooling in Norway. The 1959 law concerning the primary school extended the compulsory school age from seven to nine years. In the five year period from 1960 to 1965, the number of matriculants from the upper stage of the secondary school more than doubled. Further, the proportion of the age group seeking entrance to colleges and universities has risen steadily and is now rising sharply. Thus, in 1965 13,428 applications were received by the 74 folk high schools of Norway for some 6,000 available student places.¹⁸

¹⁸Undervisningsstatistikk 1965-66 Folkehøgskølar
(Oslo: Statistisk Sentralbyrå, 1966), p. 7.

Patterns of population mobility. It has been pointed out that immigration and emigration are presently in approximate balance in Norway. However, there are internal shifts in the total population which is affecting the general picture of education. In particular, there has been a steady trend towards increased urbanization. In 1900 about 28 per cent of the people were urban dwellers, but today about 60 per cent live in concentrated areas of built up population. In 1960, 57 per cent of the population lived in densely populated areas--8 per cent of these living in places containing between 200 and 1,999 persons, and 49 per cent in centres of more than 2000 persons. There are 17 cities which are fairly evenly distributed in the 10,000 to 50,000 range, and there are four larger cities with population based on 1965 statistics as follows: Stavanger (78,435), Trondheim (113,582), Bergen (117,290), and Oslo (483,196).

The increasing industrialization is producing occupational shifts to the industrial and service vocations. Table II classifies the resident population of Norway by industry according to the 1960 census of the land.

As continued growth takes place in the industrial and service occupations, there is an increasing clustering of population. The areas that lose population tend to be those that are confronted with seasonal employment. The process of urbanization causes the cost of general infrastructure to rise steeply and progressively with the growing agglomeration of people. Thus, an expanding share of the

national resources have to be allocated for the construction and operation of the diversified educational provisions required in the larger centers of population. New and better patterns of control are also required.

TABLE II
RESIDENT POPULATION BY INDUSTRY IN 1960

Industry	Percentage
Agriculture and Forestry	15.22%
Fishing, whaling and sealing	3.94
Manufacturing, mining, electric supply	34.73
Commerce and Trade	10.32
Transport and Communications	10.22
Services	13.19
Retired and Unspecified	12.38
Total	100.00

Source: Statiskisk Arbok 1966, p. 17.

Religious Factors

The spiritual pulse of a nation often provides a guide for the orientation of the educational leaders, and sets before them definite aims for the training of growing minds. In discussing the significance of religious tradition, Hans writes:

The spiritual factors are not necessarily opposed to the material background--often they are complementary to it; and when they are both working in

harmony they produce a flourishing period of national culture. On the other hand a spiritual ideal conceived in the remote past and inherited without adaptation by following generations or transferred from a foreign country with a different tradition may become an obstacle to the natural growth of national culture and defer its progress. Among spiritual influences religion is the most powerful, because it appeals to the whole man and not only to his intellect. Religion penetrates the emotional depth of human nature, it conditions habitual reactions in daily life and it colours the reasoning ability of a creative mind. Thus the religious tradition, if it embraces the whole nation, becomes one of the characteristic national features, which is then perpetuated through education.¹⁹

The Lutheran tradition. Hans suggests the impact of the Reformation on Norwegian education as follows:

The Protestant Churches of Germany and Scandinavia owed their origin and inspiration primarily to one person, Martin Luther; but their school organisation and humanist tradition was the work of Philip Melancthon, the "Praeceptor Germaniae."... he (Luther) most vigorously promoted the education of the masses. He translated the Bible into German, and, recognizing it as the source of truth, wanted to make it available to every German, so that each one should be able to find the true faith for himself. If the masses needed elementary education as the only way to salvation through the reading of the Bible, so did the Protestant clergy need the knowledge of Hebrew, Greek and Latin to be able to read the original sources. Thus Luther demanded academic education for the clergy...but he did not neglect the civic point of view and the needs of the State.²⁰

The national churches in the lands affected by the Reformation operated in close alliance with the power of the State. Thus, the general training of citizens was not ignored, and scientific and practical studies became

¹⁹Hans, op. cit. p. 85.

²⁰Ibid, p. 91.

indispensable parts of Lutheran education. Melanchthon profoundly changed the curriculum and methods of academic education, and brought them into close relation with the secular needs of the State. Hans continues:

Thus both Luther and Melanchthon worked for the dissemination of enlightenment among the whole population and influenced the Protestant rulers of Germany to introduce the first laws of compulsory attendance. Luther enforced the duty of visitations on the clergy...

In Scandinavia, after a short and decisive struggle, the Lutheran Reformation was accepted in all three kingdoms and become one of the most important factors of their national life. As in Germany, it led to universal education. The Danish Church Ordinance enacted for Denmark in 1537 and for Norway in 1539 says:

"The children must everywhere be so instructed that the children of the peasants as well as others must obtain knowledge of that which not alone peasants, but even the nobles and kings, have hitherto not known..."

According to the Danish and Norwegian law of two centuries later (Frederick VI, 1739) every parish had to erect a schoolhouse and name a teacher. For scattered parishes travelling schools had to be organised. The local pastor and his dean were to examine and appoint the candidates presented. Attendance was compulsory for the ages seven to ten. Both the Church and the secular authority could be invoked to enforce attendance at parish schools. Owing to the opposition of the peasantry this part of the law of 1739 was not enforced and the responsibility of organising and erecting schools was relegated to local communities. A local board was established representing the clergy, secular authorities and four men from each parish. The Board marked out the plan of school organisation, but the peasants had the right of veto, of which they often took advantage. In the nineteenth century both in Denmark and in Norway the Lutheran Church gradually lost its administrative powers and the whole school system was taken over by the State and local authorities.²¹

²¹Ibid, pp. 92-94.

Another pattern of education that developed early in all of Scandinavia was that schools were open to both sexes. Thus, co-education became popular in these countries. Both sexes have had equal opportunities for secondary education, and a high percentage of girls have continued their education in the university setting. In Norway's folk high schools, there are presently more women in attendance than men.

There are several approaches to the relations between the State and the Church in educational matters. There can be a complete monopoly by the State as in the U.S.S.R., Bulgaria, Yugoslavia, and Mexico. The State secular system can exist side by side with an independent Church system as in France, U.S.A., Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa. The third approach of cooperation between the State and the Churches has been adopted by Netherlands, Belgium, Great Britain, and the Scandinavian countries. In this third group, denominational schools are maintained from public funds and are administered by public authorities. This approach has become part of the democratic educational system of Norway, and is part of its national tradition.

The Constitution of Norway established in 1814 states that the national church of Norway is the Lutheran Church. This Church is administered by the national government through the Ministry of Church and Education. The laws of Norway make very little distinction between State and Church property.

Christianity is taught as one of the regular school subjects. Pupils in public schools may be excused from this instruction if the parents so request. Upon request, a teacher may be excused from the teaching of classes in religion. Teachers who teach classes in religion and secondary school heads must be members of the State Church.

The salaries and pensions of the servants of the Church are paid by the government as if they were civil servants. A minister representing the State Church has the right to visit schools and to give advice concerning the teaching of religion, but this privilege is rarely used today. Presently, there are more than 1000 clergymen employed by the Church of Norway in 557 parishes and 9 dioceses. Some 400 clergymen are employed by various self-governing Christian groups who operate independent missions, schools and organizations of various other types.

Table III indicates that about 96 per cent of Norway's population belong officially to the Lutheran Church of Norway. The Church maintains broad contact with most of the people at certain occasions, but the regular attendance in the State churches is very low. The presence of dissenting organizations became possible after the introduction of religious freedom in 1845. Various other groups now present in Norway are due very largely to the missionary efforts of American based organizations. Thus, the Baptists established a folk high school in the suburbs of Oslo in 1958. About 40 per cent of the folk high schools are owned and supported by

various independent Christian groups of Norway.

TABLE III
RELIGIOUS AFFILIATIONS IN NORWAY IN 1960

Classification	Dissenters	National Church
NATIONAL CHURCH MEMBERS		3,456,683
Pentecostals	34,122	
Outside any denomination	22,413	
Lutheran Free Churches (3)	18,386	
Methodists	11,196	
Baptists	9,315	
Roman Catholics	7,875	
Unclassified dissenters	6,392	
Adventists	5,272	
Christian Missionary Alliance	4,421	
Jehovah's Witnesses	4,188	
Miscellaneous free evangelicals	1,287	
Mormons	1,241	
Foreign Evangelical Communities	1,054	
Orthodox Jews	841	
Greek Orthodox	610	
Anglicans	494	
Catholic Apostolic Church	375	
Quakers	208	
Christian Science	134	
Unitarian	17	
TOTALS	134,551	3,456,683
Percentages	3.75%	96.25%

Source: Statiskisk Arbok 1966, p. 15.

Christianity has played an important role in the cultural heritage and historic individuality of the Norwegian people. In particular, Lutheranism has had much influence upon the development and long tradition of educational patterns in Norway. Almost the entire population belongs to

the one established Church of Norway. There is compulsory religious instruction in both primary and secondary schools for all children who belong to the Church of Norway. There is a State Church, but much freedom for all.

Humanism. In Scandinavia the intellectual and the religious have been greatly intertwined. Humanism here was not a revolt against the Church of the Reformation, but a part of a Scandinavian Renaissance. This Renaissance emphasized a new realism and at the same time rejected many aspects of classical humanism. In particular, due to the prolific influence of the founder of the folk high school movement, Bishop Grundtvig of Denmark, there was strong opposition to the classical Latin school of the day. In his book, Skolen for Livet (1838), there are numerous passages expressing dissatisfaction with these Latin schools. Hegland reviews some of these dissatisfactions:

The reasons for Grundtvig's hatred of the Latin schools were many. He contended that humanistic studies as pursued by mere children in the schools made them strangers to their own language, literature, and national spirit, while it gave them no real insight into classic culture. Their acquisition was a mere formal knowledge of grammar and syntax and a quantity of historical facts...Under the influence of Christianity, which permits the individual to reach his fullest development, the Germanic peoples had made notable progress in the development of a truly humanistic Christian culture. Therefore to have inflicted upon them as the chief means of culture the literature and history of a people foreign in spirit and ideals was to Grundtvig a real calamity. It is difficult for him to speak calmly about the situation:

"I confess that it is my firm conviction that all child science is preposterous, and that the bookworm system, seclusion from the world, the setting aside of the mother tongue, and the deification of the

Latin writings constitute the most unsuitable education that I can conceive of." (Grundtvig, Skolen for Livet, p. 25)

Grundtvig was opposed to the Latin schools because of the aristocratic standard of culture for which they stood. To a man who was trying to open a way to a common culture for the common people the wearing of a "Latin cloak" could not be a true criterion of culture. Grundtvig held that culture finds its source and means in that which is "of the people."²²

For centuries leaders in both state and church came from Denmark to rule Norway. These officials spoke Latin and Danish. In the minds of the common man, these officials were often regarded as oppressors. This control was broken in 1814.

In 1860, under the dynastic union with Sweden, a type of labor party came to demand the greater exercise of local government. By 1884, the Swedish king had lost his authority to appoint area officials and the Storting had won this power. It is significant that in 1889, the Storting agreed that the schools of the land were to be called, folkeskoler, schools of the people. In common with the folk high school movement, both schools now stood in opposition to the "black schools" as Grundtvig termed those schools which stressed the teaching of Latin. The Roman flood, as he called the learning of the day, was considered a movement that robbed youth of their own virile northern culture, and provided stones instead of bread.

²²United States Bureau of Education. The Danish People's High School by Martin Hegland. (Washington: Gov't Printing Office, 1915), pp. 77-78.

The farmers in the Storting had opposed classical matriculation because it seemed to them that this bred dominating officials who spoke Latin to one another in the presence of the farmers. By a law of 1896, the teaching of Latin was made illegal in the secondary schools of Norway. There was a strong emphasis on building a program of education which was practical, meaningful, and open to all citizens in a unified school system. Thus, the entire folk school philosophy came as a protest against a foreign culture based on the Latin language.

This brand of humanism in Norway was not directed against the Reformation Church since the Lutheran Church had promoted education in the native language. The universal validity of Christian teaching was accepted as a part of free popular education under the slogan "schools for the people." Humanism in Norway was deeply religious, stressing the locating of values within the stream of human experience in a corporate quest of knowledge relative to nature, man, and God. Spiritual enlightenment was a part of the national awakening. Total education of the man was considered the unifying bond and rejuvenating influence necessary to strengthen both the mental and moral fibre of the nation.

Such a philosophy had important educational consequences for Norway. Knowledge was for life and for action. Ideas came to be tested and weighed in open discussion. Popular education was geared to the needs of the common man preparing him for active participation in the affairs of

his community and his country. Knowledge was to help to conquer a land with sparse resources by making it productive. Language was to be a tool of straightforward communication. In short, education was promoted which would spur the mind and soul of man to create a new social order based on intelligent cooperation, common understandings, and a common faith. The dignity of labor was upheld. Honest and thorough work was deemed the mark of a responsible citizen. Many years later, Max Weber interpreted such motivation as the "Protestant ethic."

Technological and Cooperative Development Factors

In the 19th century, the economy of Norway was based mainly on agriculture, forestry, fishing, whaling and shipping. The lumber and shipbuilding industries have a long tradition in Norway. Then, at the turn of the 20th century, there began a great transition from a frugal household economy to one of national and even individual abundance. The Norwegian industrial revolution was based on hydro-electric power developments, and the subsequent spreading of "clean" industry into rural as well as the urban areas of Norway. Because power is available in so many areas of the country, industrial plants are not concentrated in any one area but are distributed all over the land. Such industrial development has provided a base for the better utilization of the traditional natural resources, and provided a demand for educated and skilled labor across the nation.

Power and industry. The development of cheap power provided the basis for a spectacular expansion of the production and export of electro-metallurgical and electro-chemical products. From a total production of 8,380 million kwh in 1940, production in 1966 reached 48,337 kw million kwh. The total potential for production of hydro-electric power has been estimated at some 150,000 million kwh. Low priced power became the decisive cost factor in the production of many metals to the degree of purity required by industry in the modern world. New plants under construction will nearly double the production of aluminium before 1970. The rapid expansion taking place in the field of electro-metallurgical production of metals is illustrated in Table IV as an indication of the rapid industrialization taking place in Norway.

Based on 1961 statistics reported in Facts about Norway, there were 19,682 industrial enterprises with plants employing at least six employees. These many plants which are scattered over the land hired 349,983 people. Corporations owned 24.6 per cent of the plants, employed 64.7 per cent of the total employees and 79 per cent of the gross investment of the nation's total. Many of the domestic industrial plants are small, and privately or cooperatively controlled. There is a marked trend towards more specialization and enlarged productivity so as to compete under the modern marketing conditions prevailing in the world. Today, it is the manufacturing industries that dominate the

Norwegian economy, and their share in the GNP and total employment is the greatest.

TABLE IV
 PRODUCTION OF BASE METALS AND NITROGEN
 IN 1938, 1950, 1960, and 1966 IN METRIC TONS

Product	1938	1950	1960	1966
Pig iron and cast iron	38,100	63,400	374,300	631,100
Steel	68,300	81,100	490,000	715,000
Ferro-alloys	135,000	163,100	345,600	507,900
Aluminium	29,000	47,100	170,700	330,200
Nickel	8,400	10,000	30,400	32,300
Copper	10,500	9,000	21,500	19,500
Zinc	46,500	43,200	43,600	50,900
Nitrogen (100% N)	84,200	160,700	266,200	388,400

Source: Erik Brofoss, Economic Growth and Problems of Economic Structure in Norway (Oslo: International Summer School, 1967), p. 34 (mimeo).

As in all industrialized countries, Norway has experienced a sharp decline in employment in her primary industries (agriculture, forestry, fishing), a steady growth in manufacturing, building and construction, and a vast expansion in the service industries. Educational institutions have had to modify their curriculums to meet the changes introduced by industrialization. It is well known that a highly industrialized country demands a different school system from a country which is mainly agricultural. The

industrial revolution in Norway has led to the establishment of a great variety of technical and vocational schools throughout the country. Continued technological changes in the nation's industrialization have been reflected in the educational program, and greatly stimulated post-secondary education in a variety of programs.

Primary industries. About 15 per cent of Norway's population is engaged in agriculture on about 2.5 million acres. Norwegian agriculture is based on the holding of livestock and on the production of food and fodder. There is also a large production of wool, and fur farming is an important source of income for many. Practically all farmers own their own farms. The farms are small. Only 20,300 have more than 25 acres of land while only 43 have more than 250 acres. There are 198,300 farms with more than one acre of farmland, but 75,000 farms are so small that sources of income from other occupations must be found. It should be pointed out that many farmers have access to grazing lands in the mountains where the property rights are vested in the state. Here the farmer has the right of use, and his seter is considered by the farmer to be a part of his holdings in the valley and of his means of production. The national situation of small farms has stimulated interest in post-secondary education as a means of developing specialized skills of a technical-vocational nature for the farmer. Further, the farmers of Norway are highly organized and promote their own cooperative purchasing, processing, and sales

organizations. Such movements have demanded a higher level of education for the farmers.

Work in the forests is constantly becoming more and more mechanized. A highly integrated forestry conservation program requires an intelligent approach to the management and utilization of the great resources which the forests represent in the total nation's economy.

Scientific management and modernization of the fishing, whaling, and sealing industries have become a necessity to permit long-range and comprehensive exploitation of these resources under the Ministry of Fisheries working in cooperation with the Marine Research Institute and the Norwegian Fishermen's Association. In 1963, Norway's fishing fleet numbered 32,152 vessels with a tonnage total of 362,163 tons.

The fishing fleet is not a part of the merchant fleet which in 1963 consisted of 2,764 ships, totalling 13.7 million gross tons which is equivalent to 9.45 per cent of the total world tonnage of 146 million gross tons. Norwegian tonnage which is the third greatest in the world is equivalent to 3.7 gross tons per inhabitant. Thus, it is not surprising to learn that Norway has a total of 49 schools classified as maritime schools including 16 navigation schools. Some 40 per cent of Norway's exports of goods and services consists of the freight earnings of her merchant marine.

Emerging patterns. As shown in Figure 6 more than one-third of the employment in 1966 was in industry, mining,

1966

Factor Income and Employment by Industries

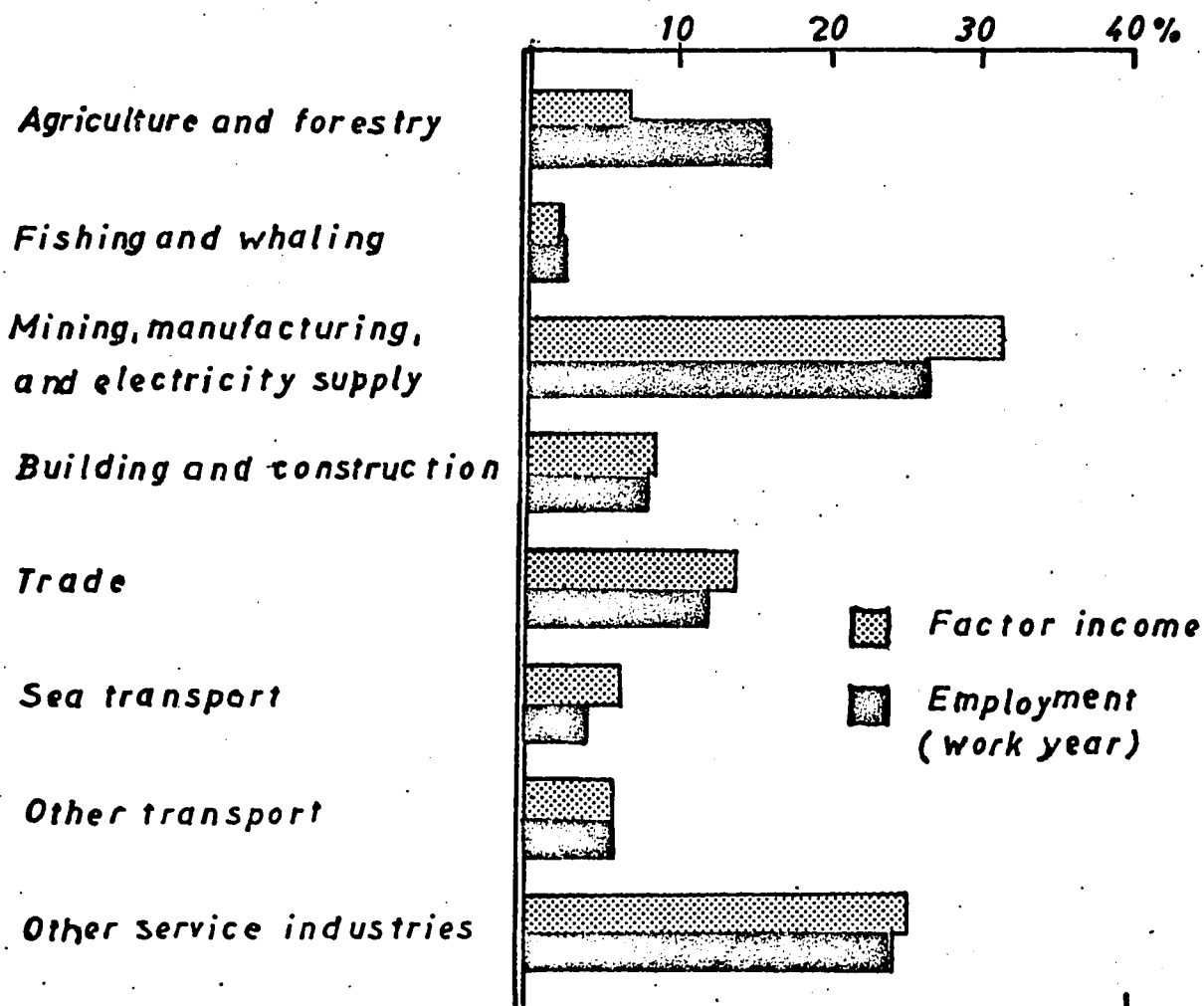


FIGURE 6

FACTOR INCOME AND EMPLOYMENT BY INDUSTRIES
IN NORWAY IN 1966

Source: Erik Brofoss, Economic Growth and Problems of Economic Structures in Norway (Oslo: International Summer School, 1967), p. 20 (mimeographed)

building, construction, and power supply. This figure also shows the factor income by each of the principal industries of Norway. The other three main groups relative to employment are: (1) agriculture, fishing, whaling, and sealing which are seasonal; (2) trade and transport; and, (3) the service industries. Each of these is responsible for between one-fifth and one-fourth of the total employment. Again, it can be seen that fewer people now work in the primary industries, that more and more are becoming involved in secondary production, in commerce, and the service industries. Economists in Norway state that their dominant problem of the future is that they cannot expand production in their traditional fields of exports due to the limitations of natural resources of fish, forest, and mineral. The limited distribution of natural resources has forced the people to work together in order to raise the level of productivity to meet the demand for a high standard of living for the Norwegians. Here, education has been a major factor.

Reller and Morphet comment on this relationship between human and natural resources:

The fact that natural resources are unevenly distributed has been established for some time. The abundance of natural resources of certain kinds, and sometimes of many kinds, is far greater in certain countries than in others.

But the abundance of such resources is not the chief factor determining the level of productivity and standard of living of a people. Natural resources mean little or nothing to those who do not know how to find or to use them for their own benefit. Only as human resources are developed is it possible for natural resources to be used for the

benefit and improvement of a nation and its people. Thus, the key to the development and proper utilization of the natural resources of a nation is the development of its human resources.

For example, the fact is well known that countries depending chiefly on human power for their productivity have a very low level of income. As other sources of energy begin to be used to propel vehicles, to provide heat, to produce machines, and to process commodities, do productivity and income rise sharply ...the natural resources of a country are not likely to be developed and utilized for the benefit of the people unless there is a good program of education. Education is costly for any country; it seems especially expensive for a country with limited income. But increasing expenditures for the right kind of education is one of the most certain ways of improving the level of living and the income of the people.²³

IV. PURVIEW OF LONG-RANGE SOCIETAL FACTORS

The foregoing sections in this chapter have examined geographic, demographic, linguistic, religious, economic, and technological factors in the social milieu of the folk high school movement of Norway. These major socio-economic forces in interaction have constituted the matrix from which movements have generated to influence the college developments and directions.

Major philosophical and religious commitments have provided order and priority in the social environment. Influential leaders have provided popular interpretations and stimulated public support. In general, the social setting has provided expectations or demand inputs which have

²³Theodore L. Reller and Edgar L. Morphet, Comparative Educational Administration (Toronto: Prentice-Hall of Canada, Ltd., 1962), pp. 8-10.

been processed, modified, or even rejected by an administrative complex interlocking at a variety of levels--national, regional, and local. Such legal machinery has formulated the policies and enactments promoted by society. These codifications have become the guidelines and the framework within which the colleges of a national movement have had to operate.

The general pattern of this flow has been suggested by the "systems" concept described earlier (supra, p. 36). Long-range socio-economic development variables provide the "input". The structures of government provide control, coordination, and conversion in the handling of various inputs. The resulting college organization which has been shaped by this process is the "output." It should also be observed that internal college directions can be directly affected by the environment in which the college operates even apart from mediating control variables. These systemic concepts have been described by Campbell et al in their flow chart on policy formulation in education,²⁴ and by Easton in his framework for political analysis.²⁵

Figure 7 is directed to providing perspective on the relationships of socio-economic variables, decision-making systems, and educational outcomes. Such a framework is helpful to understanding how geographical factors, population

²⁴R.F. Campbell et al, The Organization and Control of American Schools (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1965), p. 37.

²⁵David Easton, A Framework for Political Analysis (Toronto: Prentice-Hall of Canada, 1965), p. 35.

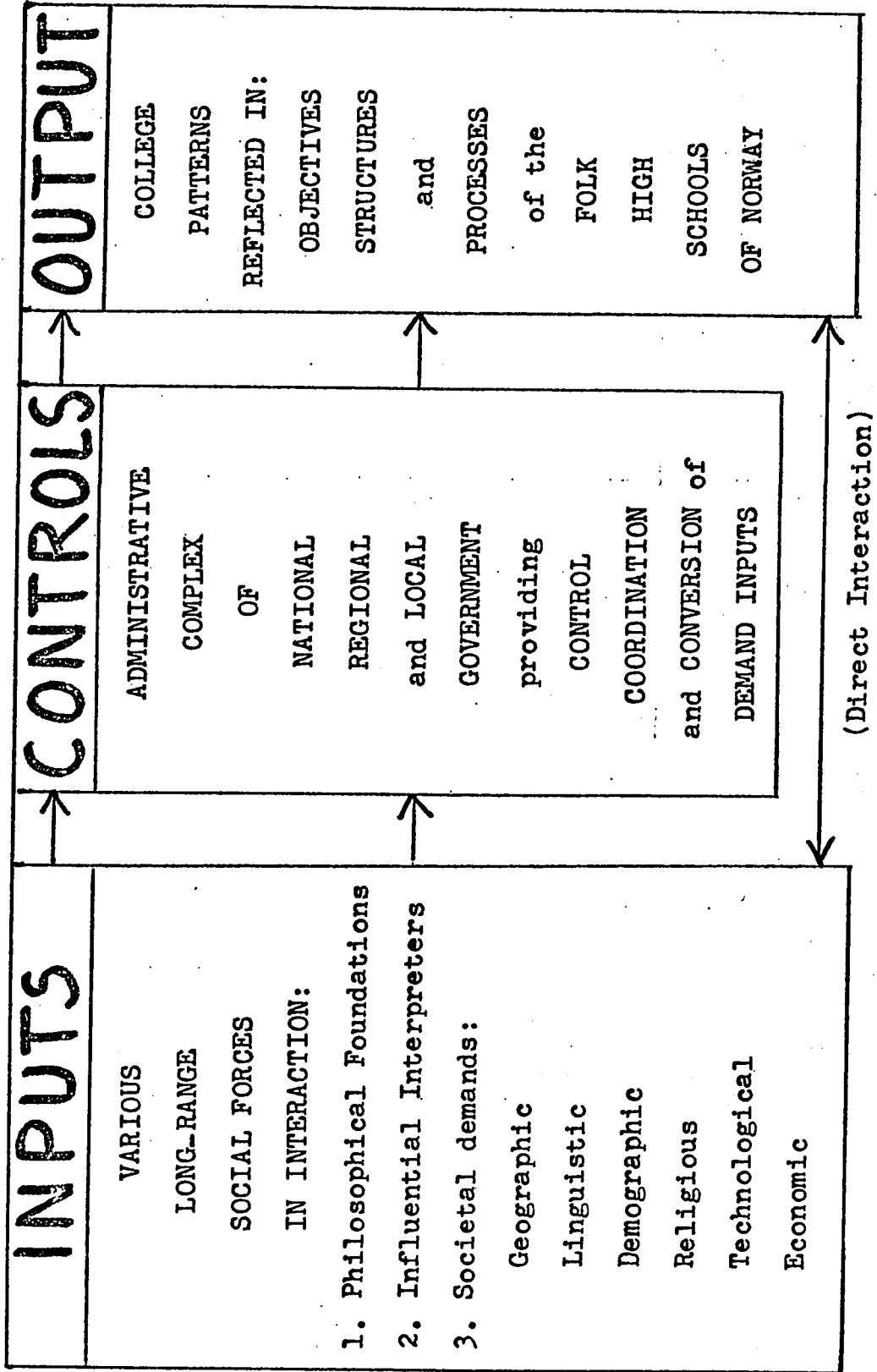


FIGURE 7

SYSTEMIC ANALYSIS OF THE FLOW OF MAJOR SOCIETAL FORCES INTO COLLEGE GOVERNANCE

composition, urbanization trends, industrial diversification, and technological developments, as typical variables, engender action. Such variables are interpreted by demographers, economists, planners, analysts, social scientists, and educational administrators who provide the political processes with both facts and analyses. In addition, there are the pressure groups and related promoters who influence public opinion which is eventually reflected in the polls of the nation. However, it is generally true that both rulers and politicians must operate within the general framework of constitutions and other legal codes ordered by societal processes. The decisions made within the administrative complex affect finances, facilities, and educational directions of the program to mention a few of the basic areas. Feedback, including evaluation, may be provided by such influentials as researchers, administrators, architects, and educational leaders generally. However, once the entire process has been established, it rarely undergoes any sudden revolution in the democratic nation.

V. SUMMARY

This chapter has examined the general and relatively set factors which have had long-range effects upon educational developments in Norway. The very nature of the geography of this country has placed difficulties in the way of fully implementing the principle of equal and universal education to its citizens. Planning has been characterized by a

cooperative effort in facing both the constraints and the opportunities.

The problem of two similar languages for a relatively homogenous Nordic race has been considered. Demographic population data have been related to emerging patterns in the Norwegian society. The significance of spiritual factors in shaping a system of compulsory education for both sexes has been noted. The stabilizing influence of a Protestant state-wide church system has been indicated in respect to both curriculum, organization, and supervision. Finally, the effects of technology upon the development of both material and human resources has been examined.

The organization of the national system of education has mirrored all of these long-range factors. The interactions of geographic, linguistic, demographic, religious, economic, and technological factors have provided a complex social milieu. It is postulated that basic forces of the social setting have promoted actions by interrelated control structures so that patterns of college education in Norway have been formulated.

CHAPTER IV

PERSPECTIVES ON THE FOLK HIGH SCHOOL MOVEMENT OF NORWAY

I. INTRODUCTION

In 1864, three years before Confederation became a reality in Canada, Norway established its first folk high school at Hamar. Today there are 75 of these schools in this country which is less than half of the area of the Province of Alberta. Based on the theory that adults can learn quickly in the small group situation, and on local area needs for culture and cooperation, these schools have had a great influence on the development of democratic approaches to the solutions of problems. These "people's colleges" occupy a unique place in the total school system of Norway.

These special colleges of Norway are a part of a long tradition and movement which is common to all of the Scandinavian countries. According to recent figures of the council representing all Scandinavian folk high schools, there are some 334 schools of this type in the various Nordic countries.¹ They are distributed as follows with the year of the founding of the first school shown in brackets: Sweden has 103 folkhøgskoler (1868); Finland operates 83 kansanopista (1889); Denmark owns 71 folkehøgskole (1844); Norway currently reports some 75 folkehøgskole (1864); and, there are single

¹Paul Engberg, De Nordiske Folkehøgskoler (Snoghøj College: Nordisk Folkehøgskoleråd, 1963), pp. 20-40.

schools of this type in the Faroese Islands (1899) and Greenland (1962). Scandinavian leaders do not regard Iceland's eight residential youth schools as true folk high schools because attendance here leads up to final examinations and a general certificate of education. Also, the average age of the young people has been lower than the age considered to be adult level. Currently, the idea has been published for a Folk High School at Skalholt in Iceland, site of the ancient and historical episcopal residence and cathedral.

These various folk high schools differ considerably within the borders of any one country, and also from one country to another. However, all of the schools acknowledge a common basic source of inspiration and share many common traditions. Together these Nordic schools share annual conventions, sponsor an information office, promote the Scandinavian seminar which offers a nine month study program at any of the colleges to foreign students, and elect a common steering committee known as the Nordisk Folkehøjskolerad. Currently, national supervisors and association leaders are doing more to make the folk high schools better known to the rest of the world.

It is the purpose of this chapter to provide some perspective on historical factors, antecedent movements, and the pioneer leadership which spurred the establishment and the development of the folk high school movement as it exists in Norway today. Such perspective is deemed to be useful in gaining further insight and useful background relative to the

problem of the governance of these colleges. The effort is directed primarily at providing historical background and perspective as well as some current data on the folk high schools.

II. HISTORICAL FACTORS

For many centuries, the people of Norway battled with all kinds of oppression--economic, social, and political. In their struggle for a national identity, they finally succeeded in establishing an enlightened and organized democracy which has manifested creative power in many fields of civilization. There has been much admiration for her struggles for social and economic justice within her borders, and for her work for peace and goodwill among other nations.

The development of a national system of education which has provided both quality and quantity in its program has not been easy. Norway's national effort in education has been promoted by the development of a strong nationalism and the influence of strong personalities whose ideas were accepted.

Growth of Nationalism

It was not until the nineteenth century that the smoldering fires of nationalism broke again into a major conflagration. It was the Napoleonic wars (1803-1814) that brought about the dissolution of the long union of Norway with Denmark. During the six years of war, while the British naval blockade virtually broke the communications between the two countries of Norway and Denmark, Norway governed itself

more or less as an independent kingdom. The Danish King, who also ruled Norway, had sided with Napoleon. When Sweden allied herself with England, she was promised Norway as a reward. By the treaty of Kiel, January 1814, the Danish king was forced to cede Norway to Sweden. The infuriated Norwegians were in no mood to recognize this type of bargaining, and the whole country debated the issue. On April 10, 1814, 112 delegates from all over Norway assembled at Eidsvoll, determined to draft a national constitution and to declare themselves as a separate and independent kingdom. This historic group drafted, approved, and adopted a new constitution. It bears the date of May 17, 1814, which ever since has been the festival day of national liberty for Norway. Koht and Skard write thus about Norway's constitution:

The constitution, as it was adopted was the most democratic in the whole world. It was indeed democratic through and through, and in all essentials it has been able to stand until today, providing an excellent framework for free development. In accordance with practical examples and general theory, the power in the state was divided between legislative, executive, and judicial authorities... In fact, the sovereignty of the people, which just at that moment manifested itself in action, was maintained as the ultimately deciding power. The executive was to be under full control of the representatives of the people and was allowed only a suspensive veto in legislative matters.²

Of course, Sweden opposed the independence move by Norway. After some military skirmishes and considerable negotiation, Norway and Sweden were finally united under the

²Halvdan Koht and Sigmund Skard, The Voice of Norway (New York: Columbia University Press, 1944), p. 66.

one Swedish king. However, Norway retained its new constitution, and existed for all practical purposes as an independent kingdom.

Political democracy has been precipitated for Norway as a result of the Napoleonic wars, but also as a result of the infusion of ideas expressed in the rapid growth of parliamentary rule in England, and the general ferment of both the American and the French revolutions. As early as 1883, the peasants of Norway had gained the majority control of the Norwegian parliament.

The impact of a great Norwegian lay religious leader, Hans Neilson Hauge (1771-1824), had strengthened a definite unity of aspirations in the common man, and feelings of resistance against the impositions of officialdom. Later on, Henrik Wergeland (1808-1845), Norway's greatest lyrical poet, used poetry as a weapon against tyranny and slavery, and thus promoted the desire for freedom and liberty among the oppressed. Later on, Henrik Ibsen (1828-1906), and Bjørnstjerne Bjørnson (1832-1910) produced much Norwegian literature which stressed the freedom of the individual in opposition to the social hypocrisy and conventionalism of the upper classes.

In the nineteenth century such developments were not confined to Norway. What happened in one European country greatly influenced the others. Denmark, too, was struggling with an external threat to her national identity. This was especially apparent in north Schleswig where the Danes sought

to free themselves from the guardianship of German officialdom. Here, the common people perceived that it was necessary to be equipped with a better education in order to win the struggle. A nationalizing movement bred the desire for an education anchored in native culture and language. It is not without significance that the first folk high schools in Scandinavia were opened near the contested borders between Germany and Denmark. The first one, Rødding was founded in 1844 in north Schleswig. It continued until 1864, when the Prussians captured this territory from the Danes and dismantled the school. At the conclusion of peace, friends of the institution moved Rødding across to the other side of the new boundary line, and called it Askov.

Influential Leadership

National movements often appear to be focused by strong personalities who provide leadership ideas and patterns. In Denmark, such leadership was provided by N. F. S. Grundtvig (1773-1872). On this man, H. W. Foght wrote as follows:

To tell the story of the beginnings of the Danish folk high school is virtually to unfold the narrative of the long and useful life of its originator, Bishop Grundtvig. This master mind dominated the educational and theological world in the north for nearly three-quarters of a century, and placed indelible stamp to a lesser degree, in Norway and Sweden. Poet, philosopher, historian, theologian, and educator, he became not alone the school's spiritual father, but his philosophy of civilization has come to form the pedagogical foundation of the schools, while his religious zeal has given them their marked characteristics, making

these schools distinctive in the educational world.³

Grundtvig's concept of the folk high school was influenced in part by his experience of college life during his studies throughout three successive summers in England. It also originated from his fear that the growing nationalistic democratic movement would again be destroyed by the type of savagery and chaos manifested during the French Revolution. He taught that people had to be reared and educated to be conscious of the great responsibility that the introduction of democracy would lay on their shoulders. He advocated a school for mature youth and leaders that would concentrate on "national character, the constitution, and the mother country", and be a "school for life." Even as Rousseau (1712-1778) had proclaimed a "gospel of childhood", now Grundtvig proclaimed a "gospel of youth". Grundtvig held that, if youth was to be a joyous and fruitful period, the individual must come to his rights, be wisely guided in his aspirations in order that his personality might be built on a sound foundation, and developed in all of his capacities. He envisioned that his "school for life" could do this. At the same time he rejected the available education of the day in strong language. Here Foght reports:

Grundtvig abhorred the narrow humanistic schools of his day. He called them "the black school" and "the school for death". The Roman flood, as he called the learning of the day, was a tragedy which

³United States Bureau of Education, The Danish Folk High Schools by H.W. Foght (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1914), p. 18.

had robbed the north European nations of much of what was innermost and best. The schools had given stones instead of bread, and filled the youth with questionable impressions of a foreign culture at the expense of their own virile northern culture... The learned schools trained the few to become professors in the university and to hold "fat livings" in Government office. Meanwhile the masses were left to shift for themselves. His folk school philosophy came as a powerful protest against this prevailing system and led to its ultimate overthrow.⁴

Grundtvig's educational ideas soon spread to Norway where they also found fertile soil. In 1837, he had sent out a pamphlet entitled, "To Norwegians Concerning a Norwegian High School." His ideas found the best nursery in the teachers' training colleges and amongst the teachers in the schools through whom his ideas were carried far beyond the academic circles. Leading exponents in the middle of the nineteenth century in Norway were sons of peasant stock-- Ole Vig, Olaus Arveson, and Herman Anker. Ole Vig died early in life, but Arveson and Anker continued as close friends, visited Danish school leaders, and attended some of Grundtvig's lectures in Denmark. Largely through the efforts of these two men, Norway's first folk high school was opened in the valley of Gulbrandsdalen in a town called Hamar, twenty years after the first such school had been dedicated in Denmark. Thus, on November 1st, 1864, the men at Sagatun publicly announced the establishment of their free school with Norwegian flags waving over a bust of Grundtvig and a portrait of Vig.

⁴Ibid, p. 21.

In 1868, Christopher Bruun began a folk high school at Sel in Gulbrandsdalen. In 1871, this school was moved to Gausdal. The Vonheim school was erected in 1875. In 1876, Bruun wrote his book which had a far reaching impact-- Folkelige Grundtanker i 1876. Thus, these early schools and the intense efforts of Bruun provided the seed for a movement that spread to all parts of Norway. The life and writings of Bishop Grundtvig continued to be a basic source of inspiration for the folk high school leaders. Even to this day, it is common to find a large picture of Grundtvig in the assembly hall of a folk high school in Norway.

III. STREAMS IN THE MOVEMENT

The Norwegians have this saying which sounds a bit trite when translated, "Many small streams form a great river." In the folk high school movement, there has been much individuality in background and diversity of program in the various streams that have merged over the years. Some of these early individual "brooks" have dried up. However, the entire folk high school current has remained significant in the total flow of Norwegian education.

First Schools

The early years of the folk high schools were beset by many difficulties and hindrances. The schools often found themselves in the middle of community tensions centered in the arenas of intellectual and political strife, religious and philosophical ferment, nationalistic and area language

problems. No school of higher education can really avoid controversial issues. However, other very real problems compounded the hard struggle to exist such as uncertain or very limited enrolments, poorly prepared teachers, and highly individualistic leaders. It is a tribute to the leadership of many well-known and respected figures that the movement survived these early difficult years. In 1915, Martin Hegland wrote concerning these early struggles as follows:

In the first period of their development the schools were very closely identified with the Grundtvigian religious movement, which was by no means favorably received by the orthodox party in Norway. Generally, too, the people's high schools have taken a decided stand in favor of the introduction of the national language, the Landsmaal, in place of the present official language. The Landsmaal is a composite language constructed on the basis of the leading dialects in the country and is, therefore, more thoroughly Norse than the official language, which came into use during the Danish domination. The attitude of the people's in this contest has operated to estrange from them a large part of the population which is not in favor of this linguistic change. A similarly partisan attitude has been taken by some of the schools in political matters, whereby they have come to be regarded as the exponents of a particular political creed. These forms or partisanship have undoubtedly hurt the high-school movement in Norway.⁵

More than twenty schools were formed in the first decade from 1864 to 1874, but during these fighting years many buckled under. The bureaucracy of the Conservative government and the civil service stood in direct contrast and opposition to the parliamentary democracy and the

⁵United States Bureau of Education, The Danish People's High School by Martin Hegland (Washington: Government printing Office, 1915), pp. 142-143.

radicalism which the schools vigorously upheld. The schools also became involved in the strong religious controversies of the day which again served to reduce the constituency support.

County Schools

In 1875, under a new act, the government set up county high schools which emphasized a practical program. It was announced that these state subsidized amtsskoler, later called fylkesskoler, were created because the folk high schools were being created according to the whims and particular outlooks of individuals. Rørdam writes thus of this development:

At first, this counter movement seemed likely to succeed. Of the 34 high schools started in the three decades 1864-1894, only 4 were left at the turn of the century out of a total of 10 Folk High Schools, with 541 students. Later, however, the Norwegian Folk High School received a fresh impetus from the Young Farmer's Movement. This new success was also due to their backing up the peasant language movement and the national currents which brought about Norway's breaking away from the personal union with Sweden in 1905.⁶

In these early years, the staffs for the new county high schools were largely recruited from the folk high school graduates with the result that both types of schools came to have the same outlook and emphasis pioneered by Grundtvig. In 1912, some state support was made available to both types of schools. In that year there were 38 county high schools

⁶Thomas Rørdam, The Danish Folk High Schools (Copenhagen: Det Danske Selskab, 1965), p. 171.

and 24 folk high schools. In the ensuing years, there was a considerable decline of the county type of school due largely to their restrictive programs, and their stress on matriculation preparation of pupils for continuation at schools of higher learning. By 1966, the county owned colleges had been reduced to 14, but there remained about 30 of the original folk high schools promoted by their individual associations and receiving state support.

Christian Youth Schools

In 1893, the first of the Christian Youth Schools called ungdomsskoler, was established at Høibo in Heddal. The second was built at Framnes in Hardanger in 1897. Several others made their appearance in the years that followed. These schools can also be regarded as deriving from Grundtvig, though their roots go all the way back to Hans Nielsen Hauge and the Christian revival that swept Norway at the beginning of the nineteenth century. Today, there are some 30 of these Christian Youth Schools owned and promoted by various Christian organizations such as the Inner Mission. These schools tend to teach with some greater emphasis on the practical subjects, and to encourage the expression of the Christian life in the campus fellowship and community.

There is considerable variety in the ownership of those colleges currently considered to be a part of the total folk high school movement. In 1965, Rørdam wrote on this aspect as follows:

Nevertheless, the split into three rivaling types of schools, each trying to attract the young, had certain advantages. It counteracted the tendency to specialize within the ranks of the High Schools which had occurred in other Scandinavian countries, and above all, in Denmark. Still, about the outbreak of World War II, two Socialist Workers' High Schools had been started. Today, trade unions run two high schools. Another two are the property of the Temperance League, one is run by the Norwegian Farmers' Union, and one by the Organization of the Disabled.⁷

Merger Developments

After World War II, the Ministry of Church and Education appointed a Committee on the Coordination of Education. This committee presented periodic reports to the Ministry. One of their recommendations was that the three types of youth schools (folkehøgskole, fylkesskole, and ungdomsskole) be merged. It was felt that these three main types had become broadly similar in scope and purpose, even though their origins were different. Thus, in 1949 the Storting passed the Law concerning Folk High Schools by which all of these schools were to receive equal consideration and support from the state. The folk high schools of the original type continued to be owned by folk high school associations or, in the case of one or two, by individuals; the county schools continued to be owned by these large regions of municipal administration; and, the Christian youth schools to be owned by their respective Christian organizations.

From the beginning all of these schools in Norway have

⁷Ibid, p. 171 (Section on Norway).

been coeducational. Table V provides information about the number of these colleges and the students in attendance by periods over 100 years of operation. It will be noted that the attendance rose steadily up to 1920. Then, the stiff competition from the counties and the religious organizations caused a drop in the enrolments in the regular folk high schools. By the Law of 1949, all the three main types of schools were called folk high schools. This explains the sudden increase in 1950.

TABLE V
GROWTH OF NORWEGIAN FOLK HIGH SCHOOLS
BY PERIODS FROM 1864 to 1964

Year	Number of Schools	Number of Pupils	Special Significance
1864	1	82	Sagatun--first school
1875			First county schools
1893			First Christian Youth school
1900-1901	10	541	
1910-1911	16	910	
1920-1921	28	2003	
1930-1931	29	1268	
1940-1941	29	1826	Germans invade Norway 1940
1949			Folk High School LAW
1950-1951	84	4603	
1960-1961	73	4980	
1964-1965	75	6107	

Source: Rørdom, op. cit., p. 172.

According to 1966 statistics, the distribution of folk high schools was as follows: 28 regular folk high schools owned by organizations and 1 owned privately; 30 Christian Youth Schools owned by organizations and 1 owned privately; 14 Folk High Schools owned by counties. Of the former county schools, 13 are now using the name folkehøgskoler. The Christian Youth Schools largely retain their original names even after the 1949 law.

IV. GENERAL PROVISIONS FOR SUPPORT

Basic to the foundation of any program of higher education is the adequate allocation of resources to undergird that program. Statutes are the crystallization of a nation's orientation--the expression of dominant philosophies in legal codes. On this subject Moehlman writes:

Legal statutes and financial budgets are tangible expressions and implementations of the national philosophy for an educational system...

Laws are directly linked with financial budgets and inadequate budgets cannot implement the philosophy behind the law. Accordingly, a national philosophy of education is indicated not only in official government statements or in statutes or laws which implement these statements, but also in the actual expenditures for education.⁸

The case for a separate law relating to these colleges had been taken up by the Norwegian Farmers' Association (Norges Bondelag) as early as 1934. This group and others

⁸Arthur H. Moehlman, Comparative Education Systems (New York: Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc. 1963), pp. 82-83.

felt that a law passed by the Storting would improve the status and the strength of the folk high schools. However, it was not until July 28, 1949 that the Law Concerning Folk High Schools was passed. This Law made generous provisions for the support of these colleges by both the state and the county authorities with the proviso that the schools must meet conditions stipulated in the new law.

Since 1949, expansion and progress of the folk high schools has been evident. Many fine new buildings have been erected in beautiful settings. Most of the older schools have modernized their facilities. The state assists these colleges in their capital expansion programs by guaranteeing loans, making direct building grants, or by providing annual grants toward the costs of maintaining students in residence.

The people of Norway through their representatives in the Storting and on county boards have endorsed the folk high school movement. Practical evidence of this support is to be found not only in the national statutes and the annual provisions therefrom, but also in the annual budgets of the various counties in which folk high schools are located.

V. PROGRAM OVERVIEW

Because of considerable diversity in the programs of the various folk high schools of Norway, it is not possible to present a specific description that would apply completely to any one school. However, the national laws of the land and the current development of the folk high schools have

served to provide considerable common pattern. These recent laws and regulations will be examined more closely in later chapters.

General Characteristics of Folk High Schools

The law governing the folk high schools states that these colleges shall provide a broad general education for mature people in these words: "Folkehøgskulane skal gje vaksen ungdom vidare òlmenndaning." The phrase "vaksen ungdom" suggests mature, grown-up or adult people. The phrase "vidare òlmenndaning" suggests broad, further, or general liberal education (òlmenndaning). A guide to school systems states the following concerning Norway.

The Folkehøgskole does not offer instruction within a formal framework, but tries to foster personal development. It is run as a boarding school. The syllabus may vary considerably and may also include practical subjects. There are no examinations.⁹

As a group these schools are referred to as folkehøgskolene. The single term folkehøgskole is difficult to translate into precise English. In Scandinavia, høgskole usually means "highest school", and not "high school" in the Canadian concept. Thus, the Norwegian name for the university level, Institute of Technology at Trondheim, is Norges Tekniske Høgskole. The plural term, folkehøgskoler is literally translated as folk high schools. These schools are really "people's colleges" or "colleges for adults".

⁹School Systems, A Guide to Norway (Strasbourg: Council for Cultural Cooperation, 1965), p. 12.

They offer courses in general education over a period of two years to mature young people or adults. The program of continuing education is designed for mature individuals who have assumed adult responsibilities in life. The schools are characterized by voluntary attendance, token tuitions, no prescribed entrance examinations, no final examinations, and are independent of academic domination by other institutions.

In recent years nearly all of the folk high schools have increased their total numbers of weeks of operation during any one year from the required minimum of 24 weeks to 33 weeks. Several schools continue to offer short courses during the summer to special interest groups. Also, a recent development has come about in the addition of a second year program. However, the majority of the students are still enrolled in the one year program only. To be admitted, the student must have reached the age of 17 before the end of the calendar year in which he applies for enrolment.

According to Huus, the folk high schools can generally be characterized thus:

The folk high schools are boarding schools, and pupils, headmaster, and teaching and domestic staffs work and play together as one big family...The school also aims to give youth a more firm basis for a satisfying personal and spiritual life, for this period of life is the last formal education that the majority of young people have before they enter into practical work. The school also serves as additional preparation for youth who wish to continue their education in the teachers' college, the agricultural school...or the four year rural secondary school.¹⁰

¹⁰Helen Huus, The Education of Children and Youth In Norway (Pittsburgh: University Press, 1960), p. 103.

General Emphasis of the Program

The general emphasis of the folk high schools seems to be on preparation for the whole life rather than on some particular phase of it. Thus, these schools stress "enlightenment for life" rather than any specific vocational training. An open and inquiring mind is encouraged within the framework of those ideals which the Scandinavian democracy has accepted almost axiomatically. The basic aim seems to be to assist youth to equip themselves, first with a set of values and a broad understanding of man's place in the scheme of things, and then to encourage the securing of that which is required to help make this world the kind of place in which they and their children can live in dignity, in mutual helpfulness, and in peace with the other inhabitants of the earth. This idealistic program is carried out in the informal setting of well-planned buildings which generally feature large "picture windows" overlooking the majestic scenery of Norway. Indeed, the whole setting and program seem to undergird the concept of "windows on the world."

Again, it is a school that emphasizes general ideas and concepts without exhausting itself on the particular. Moral and intellectual values are stressed as a means of motivating the student to the best and the highest. There is an endeavor to build an appreciation of the heroic, of the good and of the beautiful in social and cultural values. There is a stress on the ability to adjust socially and to

communicate with other people both in song and word. This emphasis develops skills in the individual so that he may better cope with his entire environment and meet the situations of life. Then, there is a real attempt to come to grips with current problems and issues, and to explore, even in depth, areas that meet the needs and interests of the students. Many of the folk high schools make a serious effort to explore various vocational pursuits available in the modern world. The educational environment provides an emphasis on selected academic disciplines as well the exploration of vocational opportunities. To this end, a great number of visiting speakers and university professors are utilized. State law authorizes payment for the expenses and honorariums of visiting lecturers. The leaders in the folk high school movement seem agreed that a general education is the best preparation for vocation on the assumption that training for a job is wasted if it is not used, that general education is never really unused, and that it makes a person more flexible in a world of changing vocations.

Olav Hove, who is the Director General for the Ministry of Education in Norway, writes as follows:

Norwegian folk high schools are very independent in their organization and forms of instruction... Teaching can be provided in a wide range of subjects, both academic and practical. Some colleges run summer courses that last about two months. The colleges are free to choose their own course arrangements.¹¹

¹¹ Olav Hove, The System of Education in Norway (Oslo: Ministry of Church and Education, 1966), pp. 12-13.

a degree. There continues to be an emphasis on 'the living word' of lectures and free discussion as opposed to the heavy use of books. The fervent singing of songs and all the talk of brotherly love and social responsibility make it clear why the early Folk High Schools, in more Christian-minded days, had the character of a religious revival. It is hard not to admire a country where a farm boy or factory hand decides to spend half a year studying arithmetic, economics and Scandinavian history and literature, and attending lectures on 'Greek civilization, natural philosophy, or involved social problems.'¹⁴

The general survey of the program of the folk high schools has revealed that these colleges occupy a special place in Norway's educational system. Their programs are flexible, but they do operate within patterns established by central authority. Specific objectives may vary from school to school. However, there is a general emphasis on "enlightenment for life" (livsoplysning), and a stress on the values accruing from living, learning, and laboring together in a residential school. The curriculum is cored with cultural and social topics of special interest to the pupils.

VI. POSITION IN THE TOTAL EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Norway has done much to develop her "human resources" by the generous provision of a great variety of educational opportunities for children, youth, and adults. In particular, it can be said that there are abundant vocational and technical training opportunities available across the land.

¹⁴Donald S. Collery, The Scandinavians (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1966), p. 167.

The catalog of Romerike Folkehøgskole sponsored by the county of Akershus north of Oslo states the following relative to the aim of their school:

The purpose of Romerike Folk High School is to communicate general knowledge and to widen the conception of social and cultural life. In addition the school gives instruction in domestic science, librarianship, English, music and theatre, and physical training.

The aim of the school is to develop the students' ability to live an active personal life and also to encourage independent study. Further, the school considers it important to provide the students with knowledge which will prove useful for youth-work in rural and urban districts.¹²

The national supervisor for the folk high schools of Norway, Stein Fossgard, in his analysis of the program of these schools declares:

The folk high school has two main goals, the development of the individual and education for citizenship. These are two sides of the same problem. One cannot exist without the other. When man goes through the progress of growth in harmony there is no conflict between the personal and social claims upon him. Man will be a self-thinking being, ready to work with other individuals, and will, therefore, be an interlocking factor in good citizenship. We can, therefore, say that the main purpose of the folk high school today is enlightenment which tries to create a true democracy.¹³

Donald S. Collery in his investigation of the Scandinavian countries has written the following.

The beauty of the Folk High Schools is that in an age of specialization they are still teaching general subjects for the whole man. The typical syllabus is strong on the humanities...The purpose is still personal enrichment, not the acquisition of

¹²Romerike Folkehøgskole, 1967 Skuleplan.

¹³Stein Fossgard, The Folk High School in Scandinavia (Oslo: Ministry of Church and Education, 1965), pp. 1-2.

The special role and place of the folk high schools in the total system can be better understood if these colleges are viewed in relation to the overall pattern of education developed in Norway. Therefore, a special description of the educational system of Norway has been included in Appendix C. For purposes of this chapter, a brief survey of the system of education is summarized in Table VI which follows. From this table it can be seen that the folk high schools are a very small part of the total educational program of the country, but very significant in relation to the total university type program of Norway.

TABLE VI
SYSTEMS OF EDUCATION IN NORWAY
1965-1966

Type of Institution	Number of Schools	Number of Teachers	Number of Pupils
Elementary (Grades I-VI)	3,508	16,996	412,157
Junior High (Grades VII-IX)	192	3,129	46,329
Continuation (optional Gr. X)	703	1,940	30,838
Schools for Handicapped	63	493	2,727
Secondary Schools	322	5,276	106,918
All types of Vocational	662	4,983	72,816
Folk High Schools	74	525	5,946
University Type Institutions	8	1,976	19,518
Totals	5,532	35,318	697,249

Source: Statistisk Arbok 1966, p. 269.

VII. PERSPECTIVES ON CURRENT FOLK HIGH SCHOOL

From the beginnings which have been traced, the high schools have developed to become a significant part of adult education in Norway. Each year the Ministry of Education releases pertinent statistics as prepared by its Bureau of Statistics (Statistisk Sentralbyrå). To present current perspectives, information has been selected and grouped under the headings that follow.

General Information

As indicated earlier in Table V on page 113, the number of pupils attending the folk high schools has been increasing in recent years. In fact, there have been more applicants than there have been student places. For example, in 1966-67 there were 13,443 reported applicants for some 6,000 college openings. Thus, many of the schools are planning to enlarge their facilities.

The folk high schools endeavor to admit students from all social classes and from a wide background of experience. All of the folk high schools endeavor to provide dormitory facilities except Nansenskolen at Lillehammer. Considerable importance is attached to the experience afforded to students in living together on a closely-knit campus. The Ministry of Education has reported that the recruitment is becoming wider in that more urban and foreign students are applying each year.

In the fall of 1966, 75 folk high schools were

operation. These colleges employed 730 teachers of which 537 were full-time. There were 6,022 students enrolled of which 3,655 were taking first-year courses and 2,367 second-year courses. Of these students, 89.0 per cent lived in the college residences, 8.8 per cent in their local homes, and 2.2 per cent lived under private arrangements. Of the total enrolment, 1,907 were males and 4,115 were females. Leaders explain this disparity in sex ratio as being due to the many trade schools, technical institutes, and vocational colleges that appeal to the young men. These pupils were taught by 537 full-time teachers, of which 360 were men and 177 women. The 193 part-time teachers were equally distributed as to sex. Of the full-time teachers, 76 per cent had teachers' college or vocational teacher training, 19 per cent had university training, and 5 per cent lacked recognized pedagogical training.

Age Distribution of Pupils

The 1966-67 age distribution of pupils is given in Table VII. Ages are as of December 31, 1966 as reported by the rektors to the Ministry. Even though the Law of 1949 specifies that pupils are to have reached the age of 17 before January 1 of the school year in question, Table VII indicates that some exceptions to this rule are being made. This is particularly so in the Christian Youth Schools.

Educational Background of Pupils

To be admitted to a folk high school, the applicant is normally expected to have at least the compulsory school

education of the country or its equivalent. Statistics here show an upward trend in recent years. A considerable range in the educational backgrounds continues as shown in Table VIII.

TABLE VII
AGE DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS IN 1966-67
IN THE FOLK HIGH SCHOOLS

Age Dec. 31/66	Number	Percentage of Total
15	1	0.0%
16	511	8.5
17	2938	48.8
18	1709	28.4
19	492	8.2
20	195	3.2
21 and over	176	2.9
Totals	6022	100.0%

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics, Oslo, 1967

TABLE VIII
1965-66 ADMISSIONS TO THE FOLK HIGH SCHOOLS
CLASSIFIED BY PREVIOUS TRAINING

Attained Educational Level	Number	Percentage
7 year common school only	263	4.5%
Common school plus continuation*	2710	45.5
New 9 year basic school since 1959	621	3.7
One year at a folk high school	898	15.4
3 to 5 years of secondary school	1454	18.5
Totals	5946	100.0%

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics, Oslo, 1966

*Continuation schools (framhaldsskolen) are an optional part of the school system providing general education with a practical bias for short courses, one year or even two years. These schools too have a flexible curriculum and no formal examinations. With the introduction of the compulsory nine years of education from ages seven to sixteen, it is anticipated that these schools will eventually be completely replaced.

Community Backgrounds

Various demographic studies in Norway have shown trend towards a concentration of population in the town city centres. Problems connected with this urbanization somewhat universal. The folk high schools of Norway are generally located in the large cities or towns. Nevertheless these schools are able to accept more and more from the centres. Table IX indicates that at the present time some over 25 per cent of pupils come from urban centres.

TABLE IX
PUPILS CLASSIFIED BY DENSITY OF POPULATION
OF HOME COMMUNITY, 1965-1966

Type of Area	Number	Percent
Cities and larger towns	1494	25.1
Other compact communities	863	14.5
Sparsely settled areas	3513	59.1
Foreign students	76	1.3
Totals	5946	100.0

Source: Bureau of Statistics, Oslo 1966

Vocational Plans of the Pupils

The folk high schools of Norway have little official articulation with other schools of higher learning. However it is generally known that the teachers' colleges, nursing training institutions, social welfare training schools, vocational schools give preference to applicants with high school experience because they are generally considered

to be more mature and socially adjusted. Table X indicates the analysis of vocational plans based on the total reports from the individual schools to the Ministry for 1965-66.

TABLE X
VOCATIONAL PLANS OF PUPILS OF FOLK HIGH SCHOOLS
IN 1965-1966

Area of Vocational Choice	Number	Percentage
Technical, scientific, artistic and professional	464	7.8%
Administration, business & sales	864	14.5
Agriculture, forestry or fishing	1907	32.1
Manufacturing & construction	1373	23.1
Transportation & communication	508	8.6
Service occupations	217	3.6
Investment, insurance & rentals	288	4.8
Undecided including army	325	5.5
Totals	5946	100.0%

Source: Bureau of Statistics, Oslo 1966

VIII. SUMMARY AND RETROSPECT

The purpose of this chapter was to gain perspective on causal relationships and sequences that have given rise to the present patterns which affect the governance of the folk high schools of Norway. Some of the antecedent movements which have shaped these unique colleges were examined. The struggle to achieve national autonomy was sketched. The importance of a liberal constitution as a springboard to the development of free democratic institutions was suggested. The interactive forces of historical factors, constitutional developments, influential leaders, and crises events were

examined.

The struggles and problems of the early years of the folk high schools were reviewed. The three principal types of schools that have now merged officially to constitute the present folk high school movement were outlined. The present provisions for the support and stabilization of qualifying colleges were introduced.

In retrospect, it would appear that antecedent movements under charismatic leadership have provided experimental educational ventures in Norway. As this experimental program gained empathy and widespread acceptance of philosophical position, more schools sprang up to form a national movement endorsed today by state and regional authorities.

An overview of the folk high school program was related to the total educational program of the land. Current data provided further perspective on these colleges in Norway. This revealed that the folk high schools are controlled so as to provide considerable diversity in the student backgrounds and experience. Applicants are normally expected to have completed their compulsory general education and to be mature individuals. The folk high schools continue to serve mostly rural people who are employed predominantly in the primary industries of the nation. However, there is a growing endorsement by the urban areas.

CHAPTER V

EXTERNAL GOVERNMENT:

FORMAL AUTHORITY OVERSTRUCTURES AND PROCESSES

I. INTRODUCTION

The study has surveyed the major long-range factors of society which, in interaction, have molded the primary components of government as related to the folk high schools of Norway. Specific reference has been made to historical data and antecedent movements which have influenced the prevailing patterns of college governance. However, the folk high schools are more than the product of social forces and the interplay of the incidents and accidents of history. Strategic people in the political and organizational machinery of the nation and community function through a variety of established structures, and within a legal framework tempered by tradition and profession.

It is the purpose of this chapter to examine the types and levels of the formal overstructure, the legal controls, and the processes which so largely determine the directions of the folk high schools of Norway at the present time. This has necessitated an examination of the structures and processes of the following: parliamentary institutions; civic administration levels and machinery; and, laws, regulations, and support patterns that are applicable to the governance of these colleges. Mechanisms of decision-making are also recognized as being culture based and anchored in Norwegian

society, and are deemed to have provided specific direction and pattern for college governance.

II. PARLIAMENTARY INSTITUTIONS IN NORWAY

An overview of how Norway is governed can provide a framework for specific references to the governance of the folk high schools in that country. For many years, Norway has maintained stable democratic government. Norway generally emphasizes that each citizen is entitled to the opportunity of an education which can maximize his competencies and talents to enable him to meet and solve many problems of life both individually and collectively. The investigation has also revealed that Norwegian institutions are based on the unique philosophy and culture of the land, supplemented by selected and defensible concepts evolved by other nations.

National Constitution

The present Norwegian constitution (Grunnlov) was proclaimed on May 17, 1814 at Eidsvoll, (supra, p. 103). This constitution consists today of 112 sections divided into five main parts: (1) Form of Government and religion; (2) Executive power vested in King and parliamentary cabinet; (3) Citizenship and parliamentary laws; (4) Judicial power; and, (5) General Provisions.

The statutory basis for the central authority which governs education is found in that section of the constitution which outlines the executive power vested in the King where it is stated: "The King shall distribute the affairs of State

amongst the members of his Council as he shall see fit." As early as November 30, 1814, the King set up six ministries which included the first department for Ecclesiastical and Educational Affairs. Today, this is known as the Ministry of Church and Education, and it is one of fourteen national ministries each of which is headed by a cabinet minister. These fourteen cabinet ministers in session with the King constitute the King's Council or cabinet.

The King's Council

In accordance with the national constitution, Norway is a limited and hereditary male monarchy in "a free, independent, indivisible, and inalienable kingdom." Executive power is exercised by the King in cabinet session. He is bound by the majority decision of the cabinet members who in turn are responsible to the majority control in the national parliament. This means that the cabinet is directly responsible to the political majority in the national parliament.

The King in Council approves or appoints the Supreme Court of Norway, 5 courts of appeal, 5 city courts, 94 district courts, and 525 conciliation councils throughout the land. In practice, if the Cabinet majority agrees on an appointment or a measure, the King assents to it, and gives the order his signature. It is in this way that the King appoints the national superintendent for all of the folk high schools of Norway. This official is the major officer directly concerned with the supervision of these colleges of Norway. He has several assistants within his jurisdiction.

The Storting gave formal legal endorsement of the folk high school movement when it passed the Law Concerning Folk High Schools on July 28th, 1949. The antecedents of this formal decision were 85 years of tradition and growth in the folk high school experience whereby the electorate was prepared for the implementation and perpetuation of the movement on firmer foundations. Currently, many members of the Storting are graduates of the folk high schools of Norway. Pioneering ventures had gradually developed national empathy for the philosophy and program of these colleges. Thus, societal approval became translated into statutes, administrative regulations, and national support.

The Law of 1949 provided the present basis for the organization, control, and general operation of the folk high schools. In the past twenty years, it is reported that many speeches have been made in the Storting which have undergirded and encouraged the work of these schools. The Storting approves the annual appropriation as a part of the national budget providing for the state support stipulated in the Law. The details of these financial provisions will be dealt with later in this chapter.

Political Processes

Any true democracy emphasizes that all citizens are entitled to equality of political rights and legal privileges. In Norway, political philosophy is equally clear on an emphasis that there should be social and economic equality. Egalitarian winds affect the political situation in all of its

aspects according to Sollie who analyzes the situation thus:

Political parties (in Norway) may differ in the emphasis they put on social and economic equality as a primary goal of public policy; that is, they do not agree on the extent to which government shall interfere in order to create equality, and they disagree on the methods that government may properly apply to alleviate social and economic differences. These, however, are differences in emphasis rather than in principle. All political parties accept egalitarian ideas to an extent that is unknown in most Western democracies.¹

Political power is concentrated in the Storting. In theory, political opinion is channeled through political parties to the Storting and thence to the Cabinet. In practice, the Storting has come to play a lesser role than the formal system would seem to indicate. Today, Norwegian political parties are by no means the only channels to political decision-making. Sollie explains:

Norway (and Sweden, but probably less so, Denmark) has developed a unique cooperative society geared to provide government by consensus. Ours is a "consultative society" where all organizations, be they political, professional, economic or special interest organizations, play their part in political decision-making. Parliamentary debates in themselves are less important in the process of government than they are for instance in Britain and special interest and pressure groups work less by their own initiative through direct lobbying than they do for instance in the United States. Norwegian organizations have become accustomed to being consulted by the government in advance, when government proposals and reforms are still in the drafting stage. When a bill is submitted to the Storting, wide consensus has already been achieved. Controversial issues have been tempered by advice from organizations whose members are concerned and more frequently than not, provisions that have been considered objectionable by important groups will have been left out of the bill. This

¹Finn Sollie, "The Political Situation in Norway" (Oslo: International Summer School, 1967), pp. 2-3. (mimeographed).

practice of government by prior consultation has created a gap between the formal and the actual workings of politics, but it is a system that has proved itself and it is generally accepted and one that reflects the political climate of the country.²

Although there are several political parties in Norway, there has been relative political stability for many years as shown in Table XI. The various parties have come to represent interest groups who currently hold no wide divergence of opinion from the national philosophy and outlook. For many years, the dominant party has been the Labor party representing the workers of industry, fishing, forestry, and farming. The Norwegian Labor Party, first formed in 1887, is very comparable to the British Labour Party. The Labor party in Norway has strongly endorsed the folk high school movement.

The other major party, the Conservative was founded in 1885, and stresses individualism, the right to private property and personal freedom, and holds rather broad liberal views. When the Labor Party failed to obtain the required majority in 1965, the Conservative Party was asked to establish a coalition with other parties to form the government in power.

In summary, legislative and fiscal power resides in the Storting. Executive power is vested in the King and the fourteen members of his Council. Judicial power is provided by a system of courts and councils. Figure 8 charts the

²Ibid, p. 3.

division and delegation of power relative to education in Norway. It should be remembered that much of the administration of government is carried out by a civil service of public administrators of a permanent bureaucracy. This operates in a highly impersonal manner and tends to temper inventiveness on the part of new political leadership.

TABLE XI
COMPOSITION OF PARLIAMENT AFTER ELECTIONS, 1936-1965
(TOTALLING 150 MEMBERS)

Party	1965	1961	1957	1953	1949	1945	1936
Labor Party	68	74	78	77	85	76	70
Conservative	31	29	29	27	23	25	36
Liberal Party ¹	18	14	15	15	21	20	23
Centre Party ²	18	16	15	14	12	10	18
Christian People's ³	13	15	12	14	9	8	2
Socialist People's ⁴	2	2	(party first formed in 1960)				
Communists	0	0	1	3	0	11	0

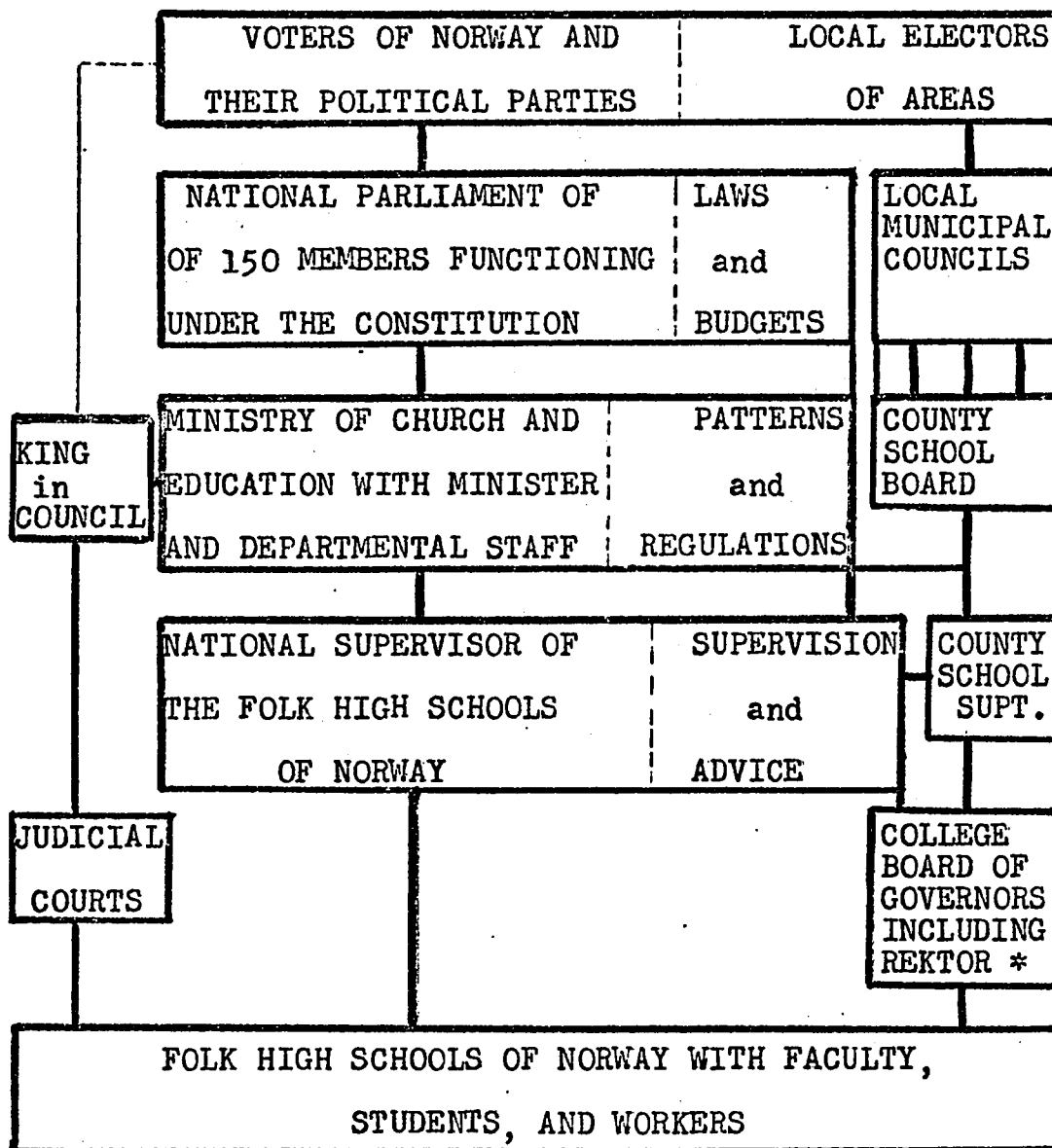
Source: International Summer School, Oslo, 1967

¹Liberal Party formed in 1884 to counter the civil service class. Their program strongly stresses social reform.

²From 1920 to 1958 this party was known as the Agrarian Party promoting the interests of agriculture and forestry. It now aims to be active beyond group interests.

³The Christian Party was formed in 1933 with the main object of maintaining Christian principles in public life.

⁴The Socialist People's Party was formed in 1960 with the main object of separating Norway from NATO, abolishing the armed forces, and conducting a more vigorous policy of economic controls.



* In the case of the folk high schools owned by counties, the county board is the Board of Governors for the college. Other colleges have a separate board of four members--two appointed by the owner, the rektor, and one member appointed by the Ministry.

FIGURE 8

LEGAL FRAMEWORK OF NORWAY'S PEOPLE'S COLLEGES
(BASED ON LAW CONCERNING FOLK HIGH SCHOOLS)

III. ADMINISTRATION IN NORWAY

The Constitution of Norway and the traditional concept of local self-government have provided the foundation for administrative structure. Local self-government has a long tradition in Norway having been first laid down by the Law of 1837.

The system of administration in operation today is one of cooperation between three levels of government: central, regional, and local. Hove outlines this cooperation thus:

The school system in Norway is almost entirely a public responsibility; that is to say it is in general supported by the local authority (municipality), the regional authority (county) or by the state. It is also possible to run private schools but by degrees the number has dwindled. Generally speaking the responsibility for the organization of education can be divided in this way: compulsory schooling is administered by the local authority (kommune); secondary education by the regional authority county authority (fylke), and the state is responsible for the management of universities and colleges. The cost of further education and research is wholly borne by the state. The state also contributes toward regional county authorities' administrative expenses for secondary schools on a percentage basis determined by the economic obligations of each individual authority (fylke). The folk high school at the present occupies a special position among institutions for further education since 5/6ths of its administrative expenses is contributed by the state. In the same way the local authorities (kommune) responsible for primary schools receive a proportion of their expenditure from the state according to the economic position of the individual authority. In the case of private schools, contributions towards the individual schools may be voted by the Storting.³

³Olav Hove, The System of Education in Norway (Oslo: Ministry of Church and Education, 1966), pp. 3-4.

Central Administration

As indicated above, the civil service system of Norway is anchored in executive appointments by the King and his Cabinet. This power is focused by each of the fourteen Ministries. As related to this study, the general organization of the Ministry of Church and Education has been charted in Figure 9 which follows on the next page.

Ministry of Church and Education. The work of the Ministry, under the direction of the Minister, is administered by two officers directly under him: The Director General and an Undersecretary of State.

The work of the Ministry of Church and Education is divided for organizational purposes into five basic departments: Church, Vocational Education, Cultural Affairs, Adult Education plus two additional supportive departments: Administration and Finance, and Planning and Research. The work of these seven departments is distributed amongst 24 divisions, each with its own special area of responsibility. Many of these divisions are supported by expert consultative councils which provide advice, resource, and professional expertise. These 13 expert advisory councils are not policy making bodies in function, but they are very influential in promoting change and improvement.

It is to be noted in Figure 9 that the Department for General Education is divided into four main divisions: (1) Primary, (2) Secondary, (3) Special Schools for the

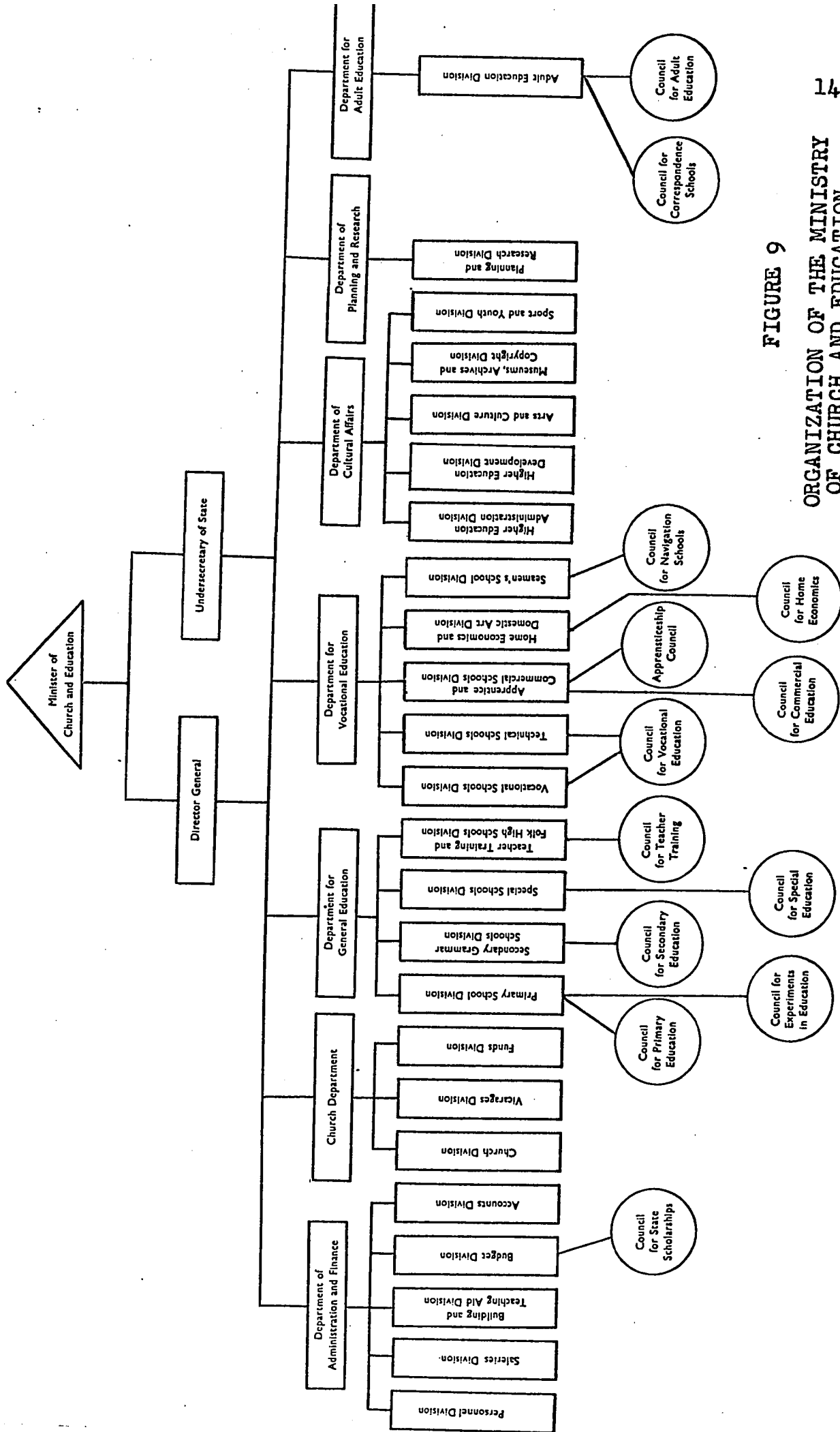


FIGURE 9

ORGANIZATION OF THE MINISTRY OF CHURCH AND EDUCATION

Handicapped, (4) Teacher Training and the Folk High School Division. Each of the above four main divisions is supported by one of these expert councils except in the sub-division case of the Folk High Schools. Here standardization is not considered desirable, but there is special provision for a general superintendent or supervisor of these colleges.

The 1967 "chain of command" for the folk high schools was as follows: Minister of Education (Bondevik); Director General (Olav Hove); Bureau Chief of Department for General Education with its four divisions (Soland); Superintendent of the Folk High Schools of Norway (Fossgard); and, finally the individual college rektor in each of the 75 colleges.

The Ministry of Church and Education is the supervisory authority for the folk high schools through the office of the national supervisor of these colleges. Article 4 of the Law of 1949 makes these provisions very explicitly.

National Superintendent. It is the duty of this official of the Ministry to supervise the folk high schools. He has the privilege of inspection and supervision. However, in the actual operation there is no stress on regimentation of these colleges. Annual reports on prescribed forms are sent to his office relative to statistics and state grants. He advises the boards, the rektors, and sees to it that the colleges are operated in accordance with the provisions of the Law and the Regulations thereto. This supervisor is an advisor to the Minister in all matters relating to the folk high schools.

State Laws and Regulations Governing Folk High Schools.

As previously mentioned, the principal legal statute governing the folk high schools of Norway is the Law established in 1949. The Regulations issued in 1965 are based on this Law. Because of the importance of these documents to the governance of the folk high schools a complete translation of both has been included in Appendix D. However, the principal parts which are related to the external government of these schools will be examined now.

The Law states that county schools, folk high schools, and private youth schools which are recognized by the Ministry as qualifying for State support are to be called folk high schools. It further specifies that the aim of the folk high schools shall be to provide further general education for adults.

The conditions for receiving State support are outlined in section 3 of the Law as follows:

If a folk high school is to obtain state support, the school's site, name, curriculum, and buildings must be approved by the Ministry on the recommendation of the county and the school director.

A newly established school must have at least 30 pupils attending its main course of instruction before it can obtain state support. In the case of older schools state support is discontinued if the school has had an average of less than 25 pupils attending its main course for four years in succession. The Ministry may make exceptions from these conditions in special cases. It also lays down regulations concerning other conditions to be satisfied before schools may obtain state support.

Sections 14 and 16 of the Law state:

A school which has support from the State in the form of a loan or security for a loan, or which has

received state support for new buildings or for improvements to its property, cannot be sold or rented for purposes other than those of a folk high school without the permission of the Ministry.

The King may decide that land needed by a folk high school for a building site, roads, water and sewage, dwellings for boarders and teachers, and for sports grounds and school gardens, may be expropriated according to the estimated value of the land if the parties cannot reach agreement.

As outlined above, the administration and supervision of the folk high schools is under the central authority of the Ministry of Church and Education and the regional authority of the County. In practice, the national superintendent for these colleges works in cooperation with the county school superintendent who is really an official of the Ministry on regional location. However, local policies are under the control of the College Board with representation from the Ministry. If the school is owned and operated by a county, the county school board (on which the county school superintendent also sits) is the Board of Governors. In the case of the other folk high schools, a board of four members is stipulated by law, three of whom are elected for four year periods. The owner of the school appoints two members, and the Ministry one member. This latter member is normally selected by the Minister from the immediate area after local consultation. The school rektor is the fourth member of the board with the right to vote on all matters not affecting himself or his position.

The Law and Regulations of the State prescribe both general and specific guidelines relative to the local

operation and organization of the folk high schools. The following areas are included: the appointment and termination of the employment of rektor and teachers; qualifications of school heads, teachers, and matrons; duties of rektors; teachers' councils; pupils' councils; instructional matters; buildings and equipment; and, a national salary schedule and pension plan for teachers. These matters will be amplified in the following chapter dealing with the internal operation and organization of Norway's folk high schools.

Finally, it should be noted that section 17 of the Law states that the Ministry lays down detailed provisions concerning the following:

- a) The organization of schools and courses.
- b) The specification of the duties of the board, the principal, teachers, matron, school doctor, and others.
- c) Matters to be discussed by the teachers' and pupils' councils.
- d) Buildings and equipment belonging to schools and boarding departments.
- e) The distribution of scholarships.
- f) The basis for the calculation of state support for main courses and other courses.
- g) The specification of the supervisor's duties.

These detailed provisions are given in full in the 1965 Regulations issued by the Ministry of Church and Education, and are included in Appendix D.

Regional Administration

For purposes of regional administration, Norway has

been divided into 20 large regions named counties (fylker). Two of these have been designated as metropolitan centres--the cities of Oslo and Bergen. These counties, as well as the local municipalities to be discussed later, are creations of the national authority. A county council consists of area people elected by and from the various local municipal councils.

Regional school administration in present day Norway is the responsibility of the State as well as the county. There is a shared approach in the main on financial matters, and there is close cooperation in the field of general education, particularly in the secondary and tertiary systems.

State Appointments. In each county there resides a County Governor who has been appointed by the King in Council. Hove describes his role thus:

The County Governor has two roles: To exercise authority for decentralised organization; and to carry out regional functions common to all the municipalities of the county. In the last mentioned capacity he acts as adviser to the County Council, which is composed of the chairmen of the rural municipal (local) councils. Meetings of the County Councils are held annually, and are presided over by a chairman elected from among the members of the Council. The County Council decides on policy regarding matters of common interest to the rural municipalities of the county, for instance regional hospitals, schools, roads, transport facilities, etc. The funds required to meet the obligations of the County Councils are obtained by an assessment on real property and by a county tax.⁴

⁴Olav Hove, An Outline of Norwegian Education (Oslo: Ministry of Church and Education, 1958), p. 10.

Thus, it is apparent that a county has tasks that require a cooperative approach by many local municipalities such as the building of hospitals, advanced schools, and larger cultural projects in the area. Structurally and functionally, the county lies between the State on the one hand, and the local municipality on the other. It is an arm of the State, but at the same time occupies territory that encompasses many local municipalities as well. The county is an intermediate unit, much smaller than the state, but much larger than most of the individual local municipalities. Structurally, this intermediate unit is a federation of local municipalities. Functionally, this unit of administration also performs administrative, supervisory, and supplementary services on behalf of the State. The extent of these services is tempered by the decisions of the local chairmen of local municipalities who sit on the county council. The fact that the County Governor is appointed by the King's Council establishes that the intermediate unit also represents a delegating of the power of the State. The presence of a county superintendent of schools appointed by the Ministry of Church and Education further underlines that the County is allied to the State.

The regional powers of the State pertaining to education are vested to a large extent in this county superintendent of schools (skoledirektør). This office may be regarded as an extension of the central administration. As a state representative, he works very closely with county

administration.

According to law, the county school superintendent is concerned with the primary schools, continuation schools, folk high schools, and the teachers' training colleges which may be located in his area. Administratively, his function is to carry through the provisions, regulations, and laws of the Ministry in the school systems in his territory. In his supervisory role, he is authorized to visit any schools, to endeavor to strengthen the program, and to evaluate the educational effort. As a consultant, he may offer his professional advice to the county school board and any of the local school boards within his area, and to all principals or teachers. This includes the folk high schools. This type of regional administration of education is rapidly becoming synonymous with each of the 20 established counties of Norway.

County School Board. The county school board consists of three members elected from or by the county council for a period of four years at a time. This board is in charge of educational matters common to the whole county. This county school board is the board of governors for those folk high schools which are owned and operated by the county. As has been pointed out, there are some fourteen such colleges in Norway at the present time.

Folk High School Boards. Folk high schools, not owned and operated by the county school boards, are required

by the Law to have an area board constituted as described earlier, (supra, p. 143). However, most of the original folk high schools and the private Christian Youth Schools are backed by area organizations involving many more people than the four member boards established according to the 1949 Law.

Private Associations. Area associations that have established and supported the original folk high schools of the country or the Christian Youth Schools exercise considerable influence and direction over their individual institutions. Currently, there are 21 folk high school associations, and 31 Christian organizations operating as controlling groups that set broad orientations within the general framework of the State Law.

Normally, these organizations provide for their members or elected representatives to meet in general assembly or convention (forstanderskap) usually each fall. Here full reports on the previous college year are shared and discussed in plenary or committee sessions. Ideas for program, expansion, and promotion are shared and crystallized. This general assembly may elect a representative school council or board (skolensråd) which serves the association in all association matters and decisions which may be broader than a single folk high school program. This larger council or board is supplementary to the smaller school board of four members constituted by the Law of the State. This smaller board (styre) is responsible for the operation of the college according to the Law and the Regulations set down by the State. This

smaller board may have members from the larger Association Board or Council.

Local Administration

The management of municipal local affairs in Norway is based upon the principle of local self-government which was established in 1837 and has been amended over the years. In 1964, national statistics indicate that the 20 counties were divided into 49 urban municipalities and 476 rural municipalities. In recent years, the number of rural local units has been steadily decreasing due to amalgamation movements across the country.

Municipal councils are usually elected on a political basis in Norway. Funds are obtained by their direct taxation powers. A certain proportion of selected expenditures may be refunded from the State according to the laws or resolutions passed by the Storting. Each municipal council determines the number of members on the local school board which are appointed by the municipal council in session.

During recent years there has developed a trend for local municipalities to cooperate jointly apart from the county organization in the resolution of certain problems and needs. This has been particularly true in the establishment and support of schools for advanced education. In such cases, the Ministry of Church and Education establishes the composition and method of election for these inter-municipal boards.

Within the limits of state legislation, the municipal-

ities may take independent action. Councils have the right to vote grants and to impose direct taxes. County governors and officials from the various Ministries exercise supervisory control respecting educational, economic, and legal questions for the local municipalities.

Table XII which follows summarizes the relationships that exist among the three levels of external control as related to the folk high schools of Norway. This Table suggests that these colleges are affected most by the central and regional levels of external administration. As a rule, local municipalities are not involved with the establishment, operation, or direct support of these colleges. An examination of the Table indicates that there is cooperation and some overlapping of decisions as between the national and regional levels. This is particularly so in the important area of financial support. There is both national and regional supervision and leadership. However, regional decisions tend to be more specific in their application to the local institution.

The matter of educational direction and program is left largely in the hands of the county folk high school board which operates within the general patterns laid down by the State. This is done in full cooperation with the head of the school and his staff. These matters of the internal control of the folk high schools will be examined in the next chapter.

Figure 10 which follows on page 153 indicates the

three levels of control affecting the various schools in the educational system of Norway. The folk high schools are shown as being affected by the two levels--national and regional government.

TABLE XII
THREE LEVELS OF EXTERNAL CONTROL OF COLLEGES

Level	External Legal Control	Nature of Control
National	National Parliament King in Council Ministry of Education Supervisor Supreme Court	Laws & Budgets Regulations General patterns Supervision Rulings
Regional	County Government or Area Association College Board County School Super- intendent District Courts	Orientation Policies Consultation Adjudication
Local	Municipal Government Chairman of Local Municipality Local Courts	Local Control Directions and Tax decisions Rulings and Conciliation

IV. ANALYSIS OF FORMAL CONTROL STRUCTURES IN INTERACTION

The investigation has surveyed the present organization, control, and operation of the folk high schools as a direct outgrowth in time, or local traditions and customs, organizational experience and growth, national orientations and empathies, and recent legislative enactments and regulations. Further, patterns of government at the three levels have affected the nature of the governance of these colleges.

The Levels and Types of External Legal Controls

The national level of the State has provided the following: laws, regulations, appointed superintendents, annual appropriations, and rulings. The regional level has provided: policies, capital support funds, operational appropriations, and adjudication. The local level has been the taxation base with the chairman of each local municipality serving as a member of the county council as the representative of local government.

Legislative functions at the national level are performed by the Storting and its two divisions; executive functions by the King in Council, the Ministry of Church and Education headed by the Minister, and the national office of the supervisor of folk high schools for Norway. At the regional level, policy is formulated by county government or by the undergirding area association working in harmony with the county; executive functions by the county board or the specially constituted four man college board, and the county

CENTRAL

Departementsråd (Director General) Statssekretær (Undersecretary of State)

Kirke- og undervisningsdepartementet
(7 avdelinger, 23 kontorer)
(7 departments, 23 divisions)

Sakkyndige råd
(Specialist Councils)

Rektor
Lærer-skole
(Teachers' Colleges)

Rektor
Universi-teter
(Universities)

REGIONAL

Skoledirektør
(County Superintendent)

Fylkes-skolestyre
County Board

Area Board

Folk High Schools

Rektor, styrer
Videre-gående skoler
(Advanced and Specialized Schools)

LOCAL

Skolestyre
Local Board

Skoleinspektør
(School Inspector)

Styrer
(Principal)

Barne-skole
(Grades 1-6)

Styrer
(Principal)

Ungdoms-skole
(Grades 7-9)

FIGURE 10

LEVELS OF CONTROL AFFECTING COLLEGES IN NORWAY
(SOURCE: Ministry of Education, Oslo.)

school superintendent. The municipal council at the local level of operation delegates its authority to its chairman who functions executively on behalf of his council in that he represents the policies of his municipal council. The judicial system of Norway provides for the Supreme Court, District Courts, and Conciliation Councils to rule, adjudicate, or conciliate in problem areas at the various levels of government.

National Control Areas. The investigation has revealed the following principal areas of control under the central authority of the State:

- (1) Stipulations for founding colleges
- (2) Conditions for State support
- (3) Patterns of administration and control
- (4) Prescription of general direction of program
- (5) Training and certification or approval of Staff
- (6) Budgetary controls and formulas
- (7) National salary and pension schedules
- (8) Standards for both curricula and campus
- (9) Supervision and leadership from the Ministry
- (10) General and specific regulations as required.

Regional Control Areas. The investigation has revealed the following principal areas of control under the regional authority of the county government or area association:

- (1) College ownership
- (2) Operation and management of property

- (3) Capital development and improvements
- (4) Operational financial support (1/6)
- (5) Selection and appointment of the school head
- (6) Supervision and consultation
- (7) Area policies and college climate.

Local Control Areas. The local municipality does not directly control the folk high school, but as indicated above, elects the representative who exercises judgment at the regional level, and authorizes the direct taxes levied under legal authority. The local college board is considered to be an aspect of the internal control of the college which will be discussed in the next chapter.

The Process of Cooperative Government

The present formal process of the control of Norway's folk high schools is represented in the abstract in Figure 11. This figure attempts to illustrate the interaction of the Ministry of Church and Education devised from a base of national political processes, the intermediate machinery of regional organization, and the local government base of municipal organization. The area A in the figure depicts the national and regional relationships; B, national and local interaction; and C, regional-local cooperation. Educational decisions of the broadest scope and of general significance to all three levels are represented at the point of common intersection. Here all three groups are in agreement through formal processes of decision. Two-member interstitial

NATIONAL POLITICAL BASE AND PROCESSES

MINISTRY OF CHURCH AND EDUCATION

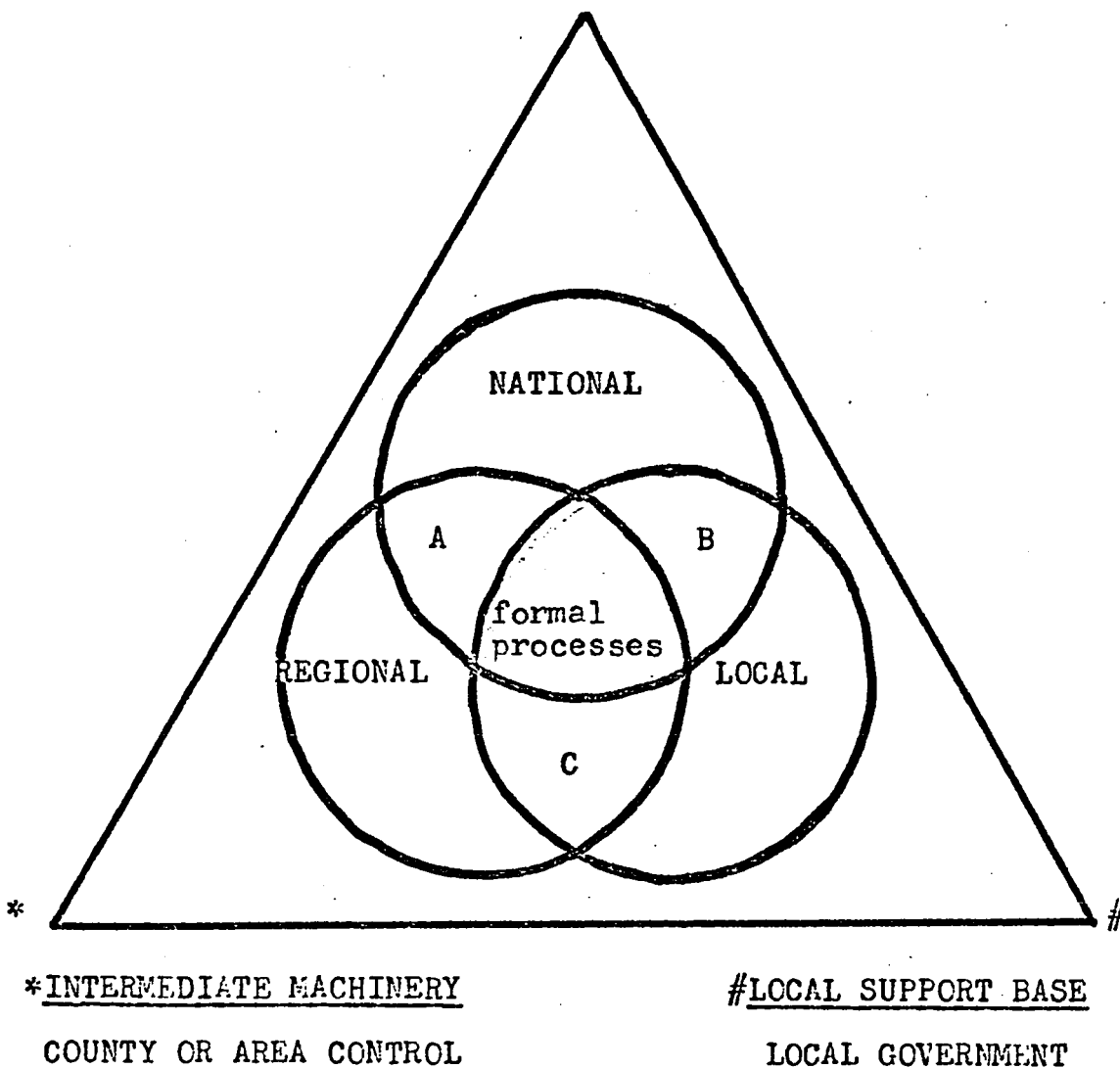


FIGURE 11

PROCESS OF COOPERATIVE COLLEGE CONTROL

(SOURCE: adapted from "Cooperative Decision Making in Education",
The Canadian Administrator, Volume VII, No. 2, November, 1967)

relations contribute to the operation of the whole, but do not constitute the whole.

The apex of the triangle in Figure 11 suggests that both the intermediate machinery at the county level and the local government structures are subject to state laws or controls which have been built up over time by democratic processes. These tend to pattern the entire process of cooperation and interaction. Cooperation is possible if all three levels of control accept this jurisdictional overlap which has been pictured. If there is general acceptance of the priority of common objectives, each can work within their own positional framework, and carry out their own areas of responsibility. It is in this way that the "people's colleges" can be controlled, supported, and advanced. Of such a shared approach, Riffel and Housego write:

Decision must be implemented through cooperative action or through the action of a higher body such as the government. Both authority and supervision are therefore informal processes dependent upon influence and the acceptance of the authority of goals...The relationship among members of the coalition is goal-oriented and intensely personal, given the self-interest of the members. As a result, all of the co-operative organization's processes will reflect this relationship, and the leadership of the individual members is of crucial importance. Rationality is a function of the degree to which final decisions reflect the composite point of view. In other words, the rationality suggested here is not the internal rationality advocated by Weber but an inter organizational rationality.⁵

⁵J. Anthony Riffel and Ian E. Housego, "Co-operative Decision Making in Education" in The Canadian Administrator Volume VII, No. 2, November, 1967, p. 7.

The national government of Norway has accepted the role of major support and general regulation of the folk high schools. The regional government has assumed the role of further support and specific area implementation and direction. Local government has maintained the right of appointments to the intermediate machinery of the county or area boards, and accepted the responsibility for extra taxes and supplying funds for capital growth and improvement. Codification and coordination of pattern has been accomplished nationally; implementation has been assigned to the regional area while the unit of self-government remains on the foundation of the municipality. It is because of this coalition that it can be said that these colleges of Norway represent a national movement which maintains a local tradition and a democratic base. The strength of local government cannot be underestimated in the long tradition of Norway even though it would appear on the surface that these folk high schools are governed by state and regional structures.

If this investigation had been limited to the analysis of the legal enactments and a study of the regulations, it could have been concluded that the folk high schools operated under rather rigid controls. The opposite is rather true. The interviews revealed that the Law existed more as a general framework or set of guidelines under which the individual folk high school operated with a feeling of much freedom and latitude. For example, the

Law would suggest that the national supervisor operates as an inspector. Actually, an official of the Ministry described that role thus: "His big job is to see to it that the folk high schools are not regimented." Again, as described above, the county school superintendent may exercise several important responsibilities in relation to the folk high schools in his county. Yet when the superintendent for Oppland county was asked about his work with these colleges, he responded: "The folk high schools are doing a good job under their rektors and their boards. I don't have to bother them, but they always come to me when they want more money from the county."

Such typical evidence does not deny the reality of the Law, but as the investigation revealed, there exists a permissive climate of mutual trust and solidarity that minimizes the letter of the law but exists in freedom within the spirit of the law. The law exists to be applied should such an occasion ever arise. It provides a sense of direction and security with which the great majority seem to be in total agreement.

The Climate of Cooperation

Norway has achieved a fine check and balance between the power of central government and the flexibility of local government. To a considerable extent this has been accomplished by the creation of intermediate structure as a common meeting ground for both. This type of cooperation and mutuality has stimulated the achievement of common goals

without the hazards of social distance between basic structures of that society.

In essence, the interactions of national and local aspirations have been integrated under the goal of meaningful citizenship, and, in the process, strong bonds of cooperation have been developed. By the process of adaptation, local organizations have entrusted some of their decision-making to appointed officers working together with others of common rank and at a higher level of endeavor; the state has delegated some of its power to responsible county officials selected as being trustworthy of acting on behalf of the higher level. Thus, regional structure has developed into a sort of intermediary buffer, possessing the flexibility and adaptability required to coordinate the parts of each into a new functioning system. Such integration of the bureaucracy of the Ministry of Church and Education and the democracy of local government enables each to maintain their individuality in co-existence. Elements of each level of government is able to function under this process of cooptation.

Local government structures tend to promote individual consideration, local autonomy, and liberty; central government structures tend to stress impersonalization, legalism, and standardized conformity. The intermediate machinery of regional structures provides the opportunity for the reconciliation of these opposite emphases through the processes of adaptation, reciprocation, and cooptation. The State is

the source of law and regulation; the county is the organization accepting the role of implementation and function as specified; and the municipality remains the undergirding foundation providing tax support and local promotion.

The Shared Approach to Financing

The investigation has underlined that the national orientation of the educational program is reflected in the nation's statutes and legal codes. Norway's laws here are illustrative of a cooperative approach to the financing of the folk high schools of the country.

Basic Considerations. Educational finance is one of the most important factors in the development, control, and promotion of the national system of colleges. The early folk high schools were very autonomous and operated from a rather limited local base. It soon became apparent to the national leaders that a larger base of support was needed. However, for many years political orientations were not favorable to the folk high school movement. As acceptance of the philosophy and program of these colleges became a part of the political orientation generally, tangible expression of this endorsement soon followed. Hans suggests further considerations also:

Central authority should consider three factors of financial policy in order to realise an equality of opportunities. The first factor to be considered is the number of children in a given area, representing the need...The second factor is the expenditure of local communities, representing their effort, and

the third is the assessable value representing their ability.⁶

The priorities that developed at the state and regional levels were established for the improvement and support of the folk high school movement. The needs of tertiary education were greater than the local resources. National and regional organizations allocated resources from their larger bases in order to make possible the provision and equalization of greater educational opportunity. Such provisions required the surrender of some local autonomy and the submission to some external control. Some of the hazards of such an exchange have been the subject of many heated debates in many countries. Hans suggests:

The financial factor is one of the most important economic influences. If geography and economics cannot influence the spiritual values of education and the definitions of the aims and purposes of national culture, they provide that necessary background and basis without which the educational system hangs in the air and may train generations of young men and women who are unable to apply their theoretical knowledge to life. On the other hand undue emphasis on material conditions and concentration on training solely for the increase of industrial production may lead to the forfeiture of the cultural heritage and the loss of the historic individuality of a nation.⁷

The evidence of this study is that Norway has been able to preserve the individuality of the folk high schools with their locally-implemented programs of general education. The cooperative approach to the allocation of resource has

⁶Nicholas Hans, Comparative Education (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul Limited, 1950), p. 81.

⁷Ibid, p. 84.

been a factor in preventing any real change of direction because of the involvement of external structures. Rather, the present situation has developed on the firm foundation of a long national tradition and college experiment.

Financial Formulas. National support is of recent origin. The 1949 Law Concerning Folk High Schools and regulations thereto have set forth formulas relative to the financing of these schools. Section 13 of the Law states:

1. The State shall as a rule contribute five-sixths and the county one-sixth of the expenses for the running of the schools which are recognized in accordance with clauses 1 and 3. Contributions to the State Pension Fund will be paid by the State. The Ministry may permit the part of the expense borne by the county to be obtained in some other way. Administrative expenses for which state support is given are as follows:
 - a) Teachers' salaries in accordance with scales laid down by the Storting.
 - b) Interest on capital for the rental of housing as decided by the Ministry.
 - c) Defrayal of maintenance costs, insurance, property tax, etc. for the part of the school used for teaching purposes.
 - d) Heating, lighting and cleaning expenses for the part of the school used for teaching purposes.
 - e) Payment for the use of furnishings and educational equipment.
 - f) Public lectures, school libraries, newspaper subscriptions and other expenses listed in detail in the regulations.
2. The State grants scholarships to pupils who need them.
3. The State contributes annually as much to the substitute teachers' fund for the folk high schools as the members pay in annual dues.

The above provisions from the Law have greatly assisted the folk high schools of Norway enabling them to carry out their program with new assurance. The Christian Youth Schools are in a strong position since they are also rooted in vigorous and efficient Christian organizations. Many of folkehøgskoler have strong associations behind them while the fylkesskoler are owned and supported by the counties. Throughout their long history, the folk high schools of Norway have had a tradition of support from many interested individuals and firms. The rektors report that this type of support is growing from urban centres.

The 1967 budget of the Ministry for Church and Education projected the total expenditure of 23,722,000 kroner which is roughly equivalent to \$3,488,530 in Canada's dollars. This roughly covers five-sixths of the total operational costs of the some 75 folk high schools. The county is expected to pay one-sixth of operational budget of such schools located within the county. This money is raised by taxes levied upon the many municipalities within each county. In some counties, private school associations may carry at least this portion. However, several counties in Norway also support privately owned folk high schools with special grants, and further may guarantee loans for capital expansion. The State pays the total of pensions for teachers.

For any one year, the State advances 90 per cent of the total it paid for the previous year on a quarterly basis

on October 1, January 1, April 1, and July 1. Adjustments are made when the final report for the year is submitted by each school. Most counties follow a similar schedule of payments.

The rektor of the college is responsible for the submission of detailed statements of all expenditures. These reports are submitted to the Ministry on prescribed forms. These annual financial reports submitted under the signature of the school head covers such items as the following: programs--courses, duration, and enrolments; facilities--total capital investment, total space, insurance, inventory of contents, amount of loans; operational costs--utilities, custodial, taxes, health services; instruction--salaries, equipment, aids, library, guest lectures and travel, special programs; administration--accounting, secretarial, office supplies, publications, telephone; student activities--athletics, socials, excursions, publications; income (for previous accounting period)--state, county, student income, donations, miscellaneous.

When these reports are approved by central authority, they are processed under current regulations of the Ministry. Supplementary income to the folk high school can result from payments under current regulations applicable to specific categories such as rental grants based on the provision of student and faculty accommodations at the college; interest on capital investment; and, miscellaneous grants calculated on the type and use of various school areas and equipment. Such

grants are not paid until the Ministry has given approval to the buildings, furnishings, and equipment of the College in terms of educational standards that must be met. The regulations governing these provision for state grants are given in detail in the Regulations for Folk High Schools (Reglement for Folkehøgskolane) included in translation in Appendix D.

V. SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

A survey of formal and legal authority structures has provided insight into the institutions of government in Norway. The nature of this external governance of the folk high schools was examined at the three levels of authority: central, regional, and municipal. The administrative processes were analyzed to provide understanding of the checks and balances which exist in the cooperative approach of the three levels of government of Norway. Charts and figures were also included to further explain structures and processes of external government of the folk high schools. Specifically, the area of financing was selected to illustrate further the processes of control.

It has been shown that the national constitution has established the structure of national government; that national laws and regulations define the framework in which the lower levels of government function; and, that regional policies tend to give direction to the efforts of the local college in the area.

CHAPTER VI

INTERNAL GOVERNMENT OF THE FOLK HIGH SCHOOLS: LOCAL ORGANIZATIONAL PATTERNS AND PROCESSES

I. INTRODUCTION

In retrospect, the culture of Norway can be regarded as the crystallization of regular interactions over time into stable and predictable patterns; its society can be defined as a people where interactions take place in orderly and useful patterns. The political system has been identified as that set of interactions abstracted from the totality of social behavior through which values are authoritatively allocated for its society.¹ Its organizations are characterized by systemic and authoritative approaches to the structuring of interactions.

This chapter is concerned with an examination of those interactions that generally constitute the internal governance of the folk high schools. Here there are several considerations--the division of authority, the definition and the distribution of responsibilities, and the patterns that have currently emerged for Norway in the internal government of her colleges.

II. INTERNAL ORGANIZATIONAL CATEGORIES

It is generally agreed that the chief function of an

¹David Easton, A Framework for Political Analysis (Toronto: Prentice-Hall of Canada, 1965), p. 57.

internal administrative organization is to promote the efficient accomplishment of goals through sustained effort at a variety of levels. As Knezevich puts it:

School administration is defined as a process concerned with creating, maintaining, stimulating, and unifying the energies within an educational institution toward the realization of the predetermined objectives. The administrator fulfills such demands by executing policies related to organizing, allocating, and coordinating human and material resources (the basic sources of energy) within the organization, being ever mindful of the purposes of education. It is through administration that the often contradictory social energies within an organization are adroitly synchronized to produce a unity of operations...the importance of leadership stems from its potential for activating and converting human energy within an organization to produce desired outcomes.²

The Law concerning folk high schools states the general goal for these colleges thus: "The Folk High Schools shall provide a broad general education for mature youth." The study has revealed that various levels and divisions of authority have become necessary for the accomplishment of this goal.

Levels of Internal Government

The division of authority in the internal government of the folk high schools is an expression of the bureaucratic concepts of a hierarchy of authority and a division of labor. This combination of hierarchy and specialization has promoted an organizational pattern which has the formalized and rational divisions as shown in Figure 12 on page 170.

²Stephen J. Knezevich, Administration of Public Education (New York: Harper & Row, 1962), pp. 12-13.

Reller and Morphet indicate the importance of such arrangements:

Before there can be an effective system of education there must be some plan for its organization and administration. As pointed out by Homans: An organizational structure is necessary when any group has a common task. The provisions for organization, administration, and financing should be of particular interest and concern because they tend to determine the potential and direction of, as well as the limitations on, the educational program.³

The study has identified six functional levels of administration related to the creation, maintenance, and operation of the folk high schools of Norway as follows:

- (1) College Board--Legislative declaration of policies.
- (2) School Head (Rektor)--Leadership and administrative implementation of board policies.
- (3) Extensions of Rektor's Office--Delegated areas of specific responsibilities to assistants.
- (4) Faculty--Implementation of educational program.
- (5) Non-academic Staff--Provision of auxiliary services undergirding the entire program.
- (6) Students--Participation in and response to the various activities of the college.

Internal authority is centred in the Board and the Rektor. Assignments are delegated to the other levels by a flow of authority. However, interaction and response at all levels is deemed essential to achieve unity of operation. The dotted lines in Figure 12 suggest the possibility of this feedback and sharing. In particular, since the rektor is a

³Theodore L. Reller and Edgar L. Morphet, Comparative Educational Administration (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1962), pp. 16-17.

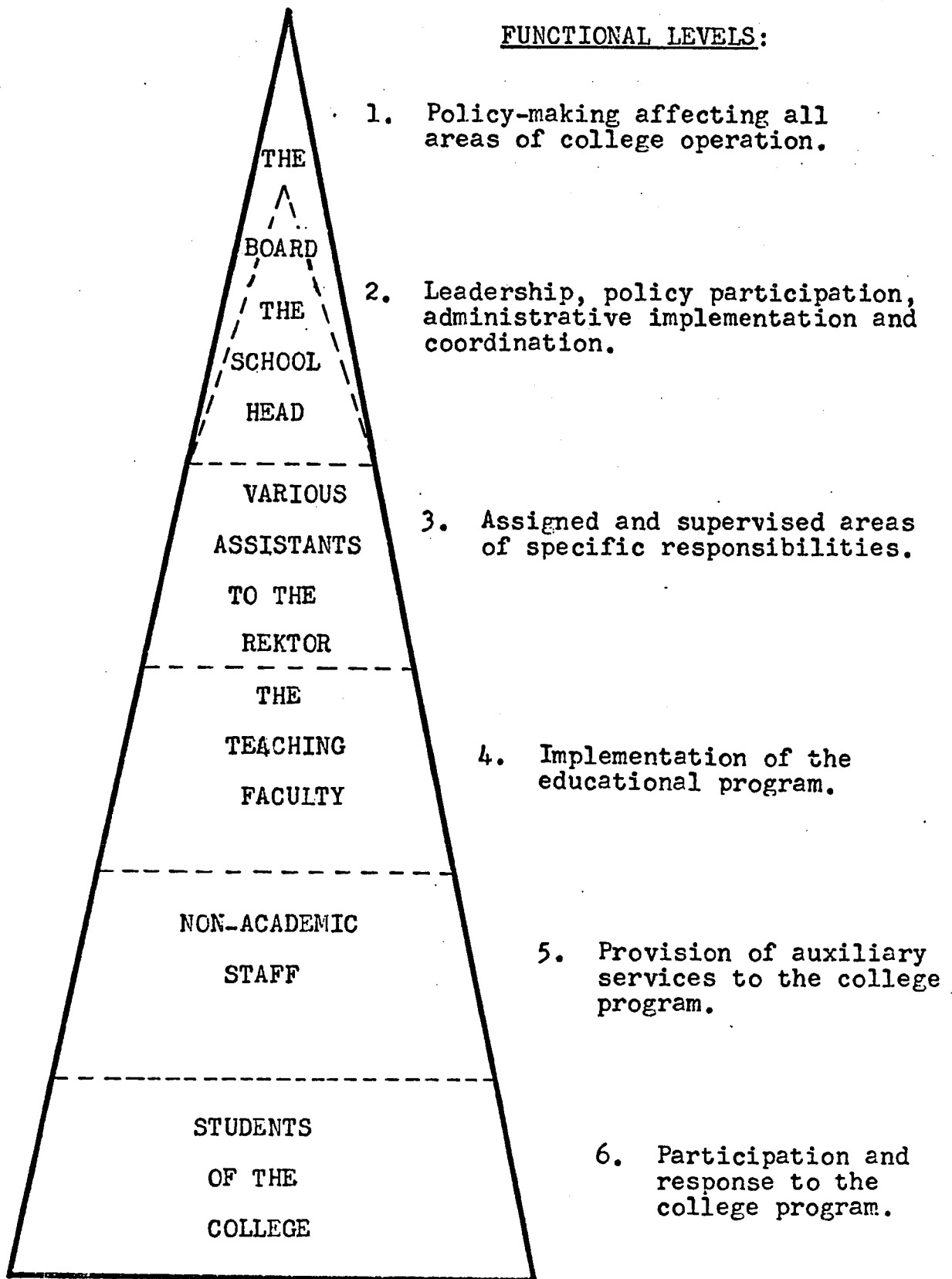
FUNCTIONAL LEVELS:

FIGURE 12

FUNCTIONAL LEVELS OF ADMINISTRATION IN COLLEGES
 (Source: adapted from Clyde E. Blocker et al,
The Two-Year College: A Social Synthesis, p. 180)

board member, his area is shown to project into the area of the board in Figure 12.

Legal Provisions for Internal Government

The Law. The 1949 Law makes prescriptive provisions for the internal government of the folk high schools. The sections that follow are selected statements from sections 4 to 11 inclusive from the 1949 Lov om Folkehøgskular.

COLLEGE BOARD. The County School Board is the Board of Governors for schools run by the county...The County School Board supervises these schools. Other schools are to have a board of four members, three of whom are elected for 4-year periods. The owner of the school selects two members, and the Ministry one member, with personal deputies. The school principal is also a member of the board, with the right to vote on all matters not affecting himself or his position.

STAFF MEMBERS. Principals and teachers are appointed on terminable contract. They are bound to belong to a recognized fund for substitute teachers. The period of notice for principals is six months, and for teachers is three months. The first year is to be a trial period, during which the appointee can be given one month's notice.

All appointments shall be publicly advertised in advance. The board appoints and terminates the employment of principals, and also of teachers and matrons on the recommendation of the principal. Appointments and terminations

must be approved by the Ministry.

The principal appoints substitute and temporary teachers for periods of up to three months. The school board, with the customary approval of the Ministry, appoints substitute and temporary teachers for longer periods of time.

Principals and teachers in theoretical subjects shall normally have been educated at a teachers' training college, university, or other college.

Teachers in practical subjects must normally have had teachers' training in those subjects. Boarding school matrons must normally have undergone training at the State Teachers' College of Domestic Science or its equivalent.

Principals must normally have administered a youth school for two years, or have been a teacher at such a school for five years.

The principal is responsible for the school in accordance with the Law and the current regulations.

TEACHERS' COUNCIL. Teachers in full-time posts, the matron, and part-time teachers belong to the teachers' council. The principal is the chairman of this council and summons meetings when he considers it to be advisable, or when one-third of the teachers demand it.

PUPILS' COUNCIL. Each folk high school is to have a pupils' council of at least five members, with deputies. The pupils' council looks after the interests of the pupils and at the same time assists the principal and the teachers in promoting comradeship, order and pleasant relations in

the school, and the dignity of its reputation. Pupils are to have reached the age of 17 before January 1 of the school year in question. In special cases the school may accept pupils who are up to one year younger.

The Regulations. The 1965 regulations which are currently in effect make further prescriptive provisions for the internal government of the folk high schools. The sections that follow are selected from the 1965 Reglement for Folkehøgskolane. Under these regulations, the Board shall:

(1) Have supervision of the school, the instruction, and the dormitory, and see to it that the school is operated in accordance with the law and regulations thereto.

(2) Appoint and discharge principal, teachers, and housemother. (Cf. section 6 of the Law). Reasons for discharges must be given.

(3) Give leave of absence to teachers and housemother for more than one month, and to principal for more than one week. If a principal or teacher wishes part of salary for a leave of absence, application must be sent directly to the Ministry. This holds good also for sick leave over three months to all who hold approved full-time positions. Teachers who are paid by the hour, in the case of illness, must apply to the Ministry if they are to receive salary during sick leave.

(4) Investigate eventual complaints from students, teachers, or rektor. If there is basis for the complaint,

the Board, together with the principal, shall try to correct the circumstances. If this does not succeed, the Board shall bring the matter to the attention of the Ministry.

(5) Keep minutes of every meeting. Normally, the meetings of the Board ought to be held at the school.

Also under the Regulations, the Principal shall:

(1) Administer the school in accordance with the Law and directives. It is his duty to confer with the Board in all important matters.

(2) Be the immediate superior to all in the school, and see to it that all work conscientiously and harmoniously. He is chairman of the faculty council and leads its meetings.

(3) Draw up time schedules, and divide the work among the teachers and others in the school after discussion in the teachers' council. He shall take part in instruction.

(4) Give leave of absence without salary up to one month, advertise vacancies, appoint substitutes and temporary teachers up to three months and advise the Board about other appointments. Substitutes for principal and teachers of other courses than yearly courses must be approved by the Ministry when courses last more than two weeks. The principal appoints his own substitute when the leave does not last more than one month.

(5) Have supervision of everything that belongs to the school, and be responsible for its good condition, and that it is not damaged.

(6) Carry out the correspondence for the school, and

if nothing else is decided, be responsible for all payments and accounts with the state and county. He is also responsible for the school archives, and sees to it that records and accounts are up to date at all times, including inventory lists.

(7) Give information on questions which the Ministry brings to the school, and send in reports which law and regulations require. Changes of subjects and time schedules must be sent to the Ministry within 6 weeks after the course for the year has started. The plan for changes of subjects and time schedules shall be accompanied by the plan for the social-pedagogical work.

(8) Conform to the laws and regulations which are in force at any time concerning retirement age, pension conditions, and sick leave. Furthermore, he must conform to any changes and additions to the regulations which may be announced.

Also under the Regulations, the Teacher shall:

(1) Work in harmony with the purpose of the school, and with the plan and rules laid down for the school.

(2) Take part in creating a good relationship of confidence and cooperation among all in the school, and in his work follow the advice and guidance of the principal.

(3) Be a member of the teachers' council (#9 of Law).

(4) Take part in extra-curricular life and association (student meetings, program work and the like), and otherwise his part of supervision. When the schools have

summer courses, the teacher ought, after conference with the principal, take part in this work when necessary.

(5) Take over the administration of the school up to one month if the principal is sick or has leave for other reasons.

(6) Assume the duties of a teacher who is excused. Assume work of collections of material etc. in his discipline.

(7) (The same as in 8 above in principal's list.)

Functions of Principal Organizational Categories

The examination of legal statutes and regulations, college catalogs and literature, and the evidence from the many interviews revealed the following principal categories of internal governance: College Board; School Head and his Assistants; Teachers' Council; and, Students' Council. The functions of each category will now be surveyed and summarized.

College Board. The constituency and status of the governing board of a folk high school is determined by the national law which has been described previously. This college board is the local controlling authority operating within the general patterns and prescriptions of national and regional structures.

No college board can operate in isolation from its society. It must be remembered that the college board is functioning in that Norwegian society which has been described in the earlier chapters. Consequently, the decisions

of the board are tempered by many extra-organizational factors. In retrospect, the following were considered influential: social environment--values, traditions, role expectations, pressures; organizational patterns--legal, traditional, judicial and political; economic resources--national wealth, constraints, national needs and opportunities, state support, regional provisions, and private donations.

It is also recognized that board members are subject to many intraorganizational variables. Here Matthews reports:

Intraorganizational variables include besides personality and personal qualities such as age, sex, educational background, socio-economic status, experience, profession or avocation, status in the community and the like, the structure of the organization and interpersonal relationships between board members and executive officers as well as between board members themselves.⁴

In general, the college board is recognized as being influenced by community attitudes and needs. The members of the board are affected by a variety of influentials in labor unions, the public school system, church organizations, private donors, farm organizations, political parties, and teachers' associations. Thus, a wide range of individuals, groups, and organizations are recognized as impinging upon the organization and direction of the folk high school through the board also.

⁴Neville O. Matthews, "A Study of the Decision-Making Process of Two School Boards in an Alberta Community" (unpublished Ph.D. thesis, University of Alberta, 1967), p. 27.

The board areas in which the board chiefly functions are considered to be:

(1) OPERATION. The folk high school must be operated in compliance with the laws and regulations of the country, and in conformity with the general policies of regional or county authority. Here the county school superintendent remains an important consultative and advisory officer since he is also a representative of the Ministry. A great variety of business affairs relative to the running or housekeeping of the folk high school come under the scrutiny and direction of the local board e.g. fees, facilities, budgets, insurance, staff, non-academic salaries, etc. Specifically, the board is charged with the stewardship of the properties and funds of the institution. Thus, the board, operating as a legal entity, and as a body corporate, are custodians or trustees of the college. Local boards operate within the general guidelines set down by over-all policies and regulations of central authority, but promote specific operation suited to local conditions and needs.

(2) LEGISLATION. The college board not only functions as custodians concerned with the preservation, operation, and improvement of facilities, but as college builders of the total program geared to student needs. In this area and to this end, the board has a primary responsibility in the determination and formalization of proper policies. Policies establish patterns and procedures for the orderly control and functioning of the college. These policies cannot be

contrary to the provisions of national laws and regulations, but rather are extensions or applications of them to the local situation.

This whole area of policy-making is a shared task with the head of the school who is charged with leadership of the entire institution. It is the board that selects and appoints the rektor, but once he is the declared head of the college, the board works very closely with him. As has been pointed out, the rektor has both voice and vote on the board of the folk high school. Even though the rektor is the spokesman for the institution, the local board can serve as a buffer for the rektor in event of unreasonable or undesirable pressures from the community area.

Under regulations, the board is required to keep minutes of every meeting. Thus, the decisions of the board are recorded and maintained as a source of reference.

(3) ADJUDICATION. A further major area of responsibility for the college board is to assist, guide, and appraise the progress of the institution. General evaluation of the total situation becomes basic to the declaration of new directions or new approaches. This function is not only exercised in the area of program and plant, but in the area of personnel as well. Then, if problems arise, the board sits as an important body of adjudication investigating complaints from any internal level. In practice, problems are normally referred to the board by the rektor who, when necessary, then devises solutions to the problems in

consultation with the board. Unresolved problems can eventually be turned over to the Ministry for decision.

The task of adjudication includes studying school reports and progress against performance expectations as implied in the adopted policies of the board. Adjudicative decisions are further concerned with the exercise of judgment relative to problems that arise in the operation of the college.

(4) ADMINISTRATION. The execution of policy for which the board is legally responsible, is normally delegated to the chief officer of the college who functions as the executive arm of the board. Thus, the rektor is the chief administrator charged with the execution of policy as established by the board of which he is a part. On the basis of goals, the board prescribes policies and plans which are a reflection of basic philosophy translated into guides for action. Policy implementation is the translation of these guides into actual school performance. Administration is also concerned with communication.

In summary, the college board represents a form of local government having legislative, executive and judicial functions to perform. The executive functions are largely delegated to the office of the rektor.

The legal college boards of Norway are unique in their limited membership and in their methods of appointment. As such the board is flexible and yet representative of several levels of control in interaction. The rektor presents

the view of the college and his staff; two members represent the regional area; and, the fourth member is responsible to the Ministry of Church and Education at Oslo.

As shown in Figure 13, the four broad areas of college board decision are in turn chiefly concerned with performance objectives in three larger orbits as follows:

(1) PROGRAM--orientation, basic curriculum, special courses, personnel, scholarships, admissions, learning aids, etc.

(2) BUSINESS AFFAIRS--properties, investments, local fund raising, maintenance, salaries, etc.

(3) DEVELOPMENT AND PLANNING--promotion, public relations, campus planning, projections, expansion, etc.

Figure 13 is also designed to show the relationships between the major segments of internal government.

School Head. In the Scandinavian tradition, there is great respect and high status for teachers generally, and, in particular, for a college rektor. Because of the nature of the college program, the rektor is involved in a myriad of community service functions--public speeches, adult education, conferences, and public functions related to education, health, agriculture, industry, and cultural affairs generally.

Because the folk high school represents a relatively small but closely-knit community of scholars, the management of the college is facilitated by cooperative relationships and intensive interactions among all staff members and the

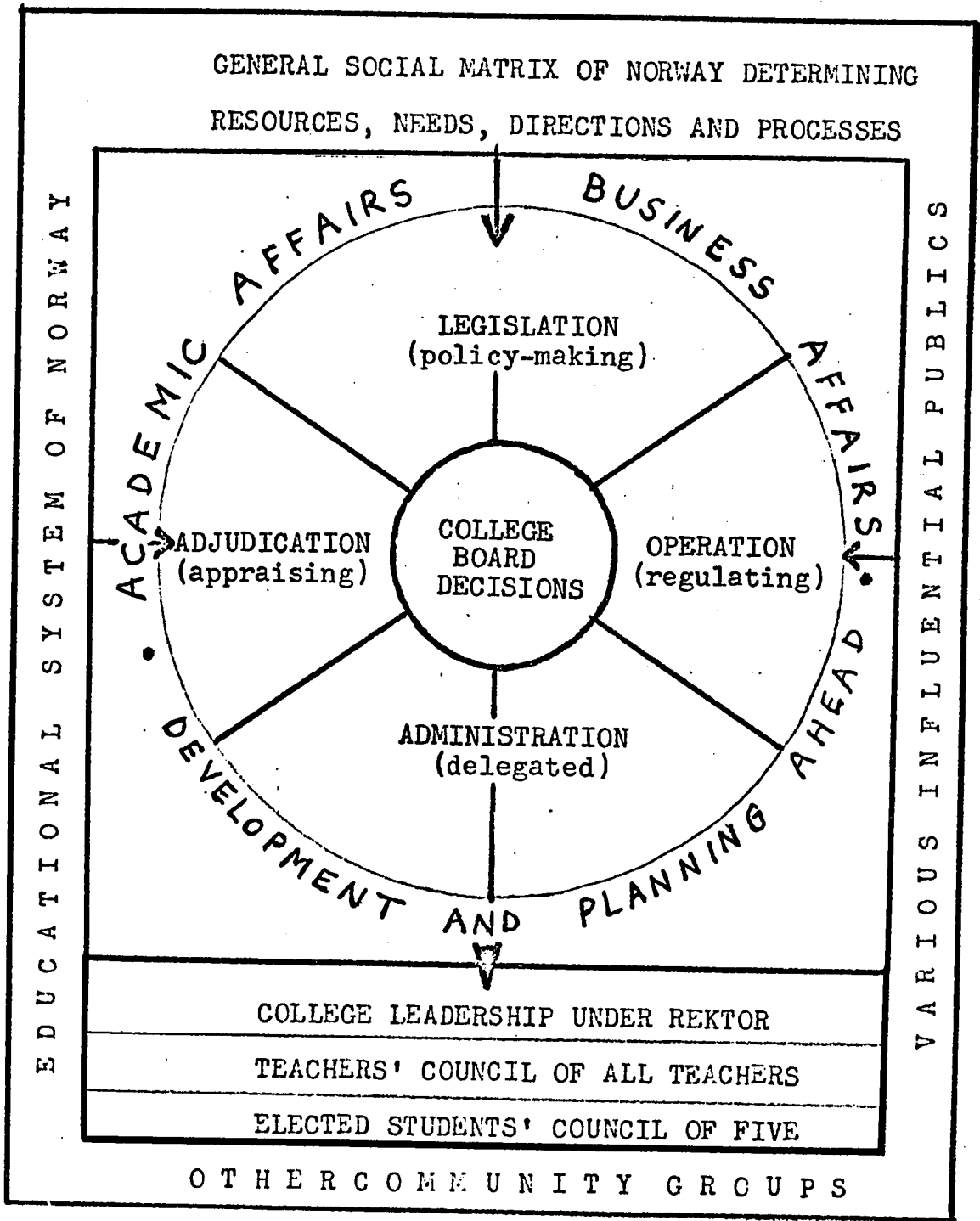


FIGURE 13
FRAMEWORK FOR COLLEGE BOARD DECISIONS

students. The rektor has unique opportunities to mold good relationships because of his proximity to all facets of the school program. Because the folk high schools are relatively small colleges, the rektor provides the central leadership in the following major areas: (1) academic affairs (2) business management (3) student services (4) public relations and development. All college personnel have a share in these areas of responsibility, but it is the task of the rektor to bind these functions into a coordinated program. It should also be remembered that all six levels of administration as shown in Figure 12 on page 170 interact in this total program. However, as shown in later material implicit managerial skills of both human and material resources are required to achieve this coordinated program. The four broad areas in which the rektor exercises leadership are considered to be:

(1) **ACADEMIC PROGRAM.** The ultimate function of the rektor is the provision of leadership in coordinating the academic program. This is done in cooperation with the staff and in harmony with the laws, regulations, and policies of higher authorities. As noted in the Law and the Regulations, the rektor recommends staff for appointment by the Board. Further, he evaluates and supervises his coworkers so that "each member of the staff works conscientiously and in mutual harmony." In addition to chairing the faculty council, the rektor is expected to have a part in the actual program of instruction. To the achievement of these goals, a major task

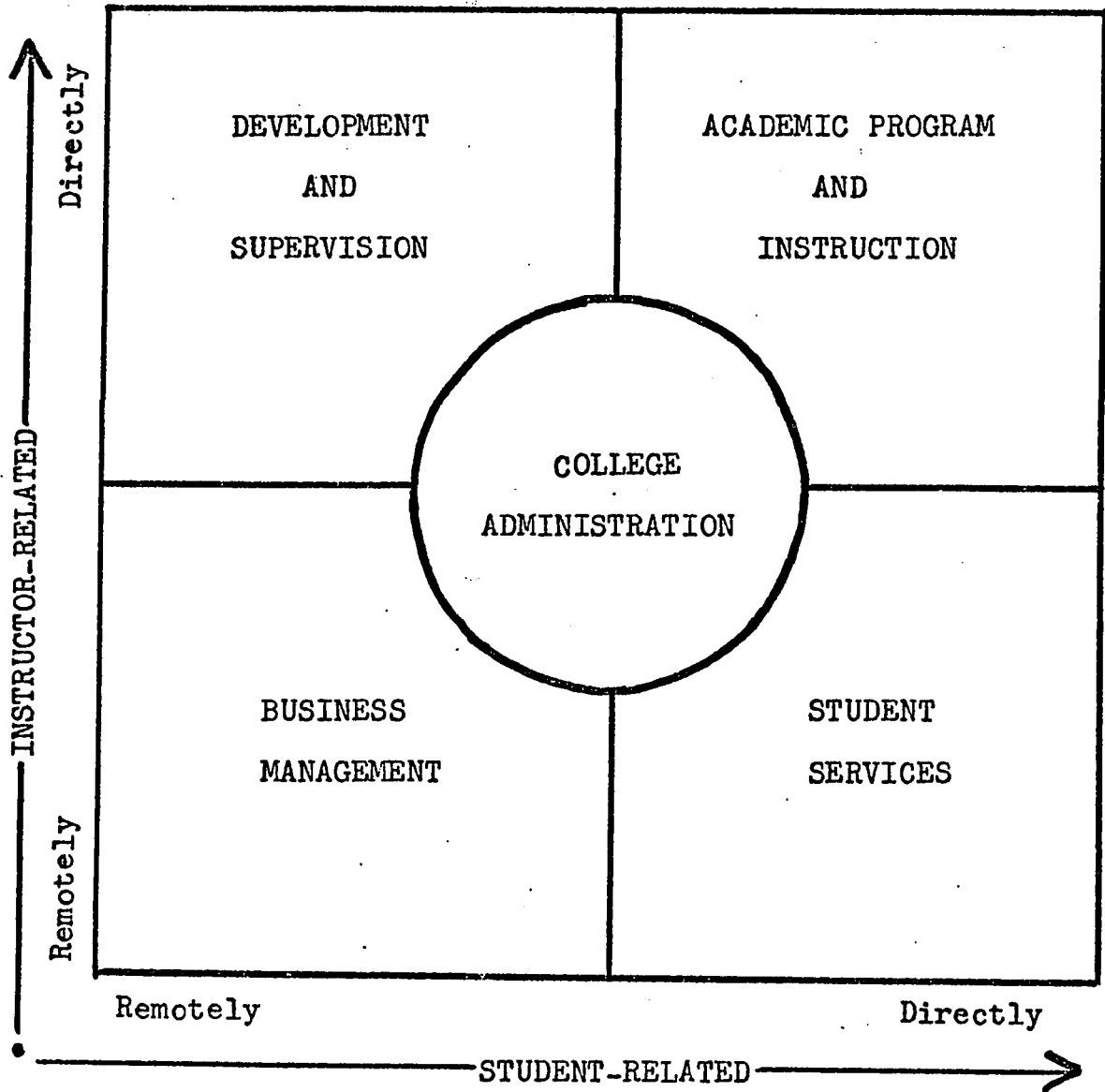


FIGURE 14

AREAS OF ADMINISTRATIVE FUNCTIONING
 (SOURCE: adapted from Clyde E. Blocker, et al,
The Two-Year College: A Social Synthesis, p. 186)

for any rektor is the building up of a competent and dedicated staff working together in a plant with adequate resources to serve the needs and interests of the students.

(2) BUSINESS MANAGEMENT. In the business management of the institution, the College Head has assistants who serve as extensions of the rektor's office. As indicated in the Law and the Regulations, the leadership of the rektor is pertinent to all aspects of internal governance. The chief aspects of internal government are: organization, control, and administration. As a manager of resources, the rektor exercises leadership in policy, program, personnel and plant provisions.

In particular direct responsibility is placed upon the office of the rektor for all accounts and reports relative to financial matters in connection with support from the government and the county. The rektor must see to it that records and accounts are up to date at all times, including the college inventory lists and the school archives. Further, the Regulations specify that national auditors shall audit the school accounts at the end of the school year which terminates on June 30th of each year.

The study revealed that the business affairs are very much the responsibility and under the control or direction of the rektor. He may utilize office assistants to expedite most of the routine tasks relative to such matters as payroll, accounting, budgets, financial reports, student payments, loans and scholarships, purchases, rentals, investments, and

income accounts.

The operation of auxiliary services of dormitory and dining facilities adds a heavy burden to business management. Here the rektor is specifically assisted by a Matron (Husmor). The Regulations specify her duties that the Matron shall:

(1) Assist the rektor in everything which concerns the dormitory, and preside over the boarding club.

(2) Be a member of the teachers' council.

(3) Do her utmost to create a homelike atmosphere in the school, and see to it that both students' rooms, class rooms, and lounges are in good order, and that students learn the social amenities.

(4) Assist the rektor in everything concerning the students in the dormitory both with respect to health and working conditions. She reports to the principal all cases of illness and sees to it that physician's instructions concerning care and diet are adhered to.

(5) Supervises regularly the dormitory rooms and other areas used by students including the sanitary equipment of the school. She shall report whatever is lacking and recommends improvements to the rektor.

(3) STUDENT SERVICES. In the area of student services, the study revealed that the rektor exercises supervision and control in the following principal categories: (1) admissions and records (2) Orientation and counselling (3) financial or scholarship assistance (4) health and safety standards (5) housing and food services (6) student activities and

college. Sections 12 and 13 of the Regulations make the following stipulations:

Every school shall have a teachers' council as stated in section 9 of the Law. The teachers' council shall meet at least once per month. The teachers' council shall discuss:

- (1) Proposed changes in subjects and timetables.
- (2) Social-pedagogical enterprises and the division of work amongst the teachers.
- (3) Changes in the school plans and arrangement of courses.
- (4) Regulations for the school, dormitories, and the daily activities.
- (5) Purchase of special collections. (samlingar)
- (6) Introduction of new text books.
- (7) Reports on the students.
- (8) Dismissal of students.
- (9) Other matters of interest to the school, the dormitories and the work there.

Thus, the faculty council not only deals with specific and immediate issues, but with internal policies and their consideration in terms of appropriateness, utility, and desirability. Some colleges reported that the faculty council met in an informal atmosphere as often as weekly to share problems, questions, and plans. Several colleges also reported joint meetings with the students' council thus permitting further consideration of matters prior to effectuation of policy or even of program.

The rektors indicated that the academic program received primary consideration and time in faculty council. Here Moehlman makes a pertinent comment:

The actual operation of an educational system in a country is a valuable and accurate index to its effectiveness in coping with the paramount issues of civilization. Orientation and organization may be admirable but they depend upon daily implementation in the operational sequence.⁵

The attitudes and perspectives of the individual folk high school teachers, reflected in the faculty councils, are considered to be influenced also by their associations with the teachers' organizations. Here, membership is not compulsory, but requires a basic minimum payment of 50 kroner plus one-third of one per cent of the gross salary. Annual conventions are usually held in the month of August for all members. There are two folk high school teachers' associations: Noregs Hogskulelaerarlag and Noregs Ungdomsskulelaer- arlag. The former is open to all folk high school teachers, and the latter to teachers from the Christian Youth Schools. These respective associations each publish widely circulated monthly papers: Hogskulebladet and Ungdomsskulen.

Another association reported as having important influence reflected in the faculty council is the annual Scandinavian seminar arranged by the Nordisk Folkehøjskolerad and known as Nordisk Folkhogskolemotet. Seminars are held either in Denmark, Norway, Sweden, or Finland. Summaries of

⁵Arthur H. Moehlman, Comparative Educational Systems (New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc. 1963), p. 90.

addresses and discussions are circulated to the membership, and serve to stimulate a contemporary approach to folk high school directions. With such stimulation, the faculty council has developed into a sounding board as well, for the exploration of new ideas and the experimental approach to new curriculum.

Students' Council. Both the Law and the Regulations for the folk high schools make stipulations relative to the students' council. Section 11 of the Law states:

Each folk high school is to have a pupil's council of at least five members, with deputies. The pupils' council looks after the interests of the pupils and at the same time assists the principal and the teachers in promoting comradeship, order, and pleasant relations in the school, and the dignity of its reputation.

Sections 14 and 15 of the Regulations issued by the Ministry provide greater specificity thus:

For yearly courses, the students' council shall be elected before the end of the first month. At least three days before the council is to be elected, the principal announces when the election is to take place. The principal presides over the election. The voting shall be by ballot. No one may refuse to accept election. If the courses include both men and women, both sexes shall be represented on the council.

The students' council shall have five members. When the students' council has been elected, substitutes are

elected for each member so that girls are elected for girls, and boys for boys. The chairman of the students' council shall be elected by a special election. The students' council itself shall elect the vice-chairman and the secretary. New elections shall be held when half the course is finished.

The students' council is free to hold meetings and discuss matters that it wishes to discuss. It may also call a general meeting of the student body to discuss a matter specifically named. The students' council chairman leads such meetings. Three-fourths of the student body constitutes a quorum. If a vote is a tie, the chairman casts the deciding ballot. Minutes shall be kept of the meetings of the students' council and the study body.

The rektor may call a meeting of the students' council when he deems it necessary, either together with the teachers' council or alone. He shall hold such meetings at least once with each council.

The philosophical position of the folk high schools places much of the decision, outcome, growth, and consequences of education upon the student. The place and importance accorded to the students' council indicates a practical application of the slogan of the folk high schools that they are "schools for life." The academic program stresses individual learning and the importance of personal contribution to the group. The internal governance pattern of these colleges does not place student representatives on either the college board or the faculty council. However, there is provision

for joint meetings of the faculty council and the student council.

To illustrate: Nansenskolen reported joint meetings of the faculty and student councils on all aspects of the program, and reported that teachers endeavored to be very sensitive to the needs and interests of the students. Here there was a declared effort to avoid any authoritarian regimentation by the faculty. Then, at Elverum it was reported that each school year was planned with due consideration to recommendations from last year's students. There, prior to the opening of a new school year, the faculty council would meet for one week to plan the year's program generally. When the students arrived, this was presented to them for their consideration and discussion. After the student council elections, student representatives would meet with the faculty council to discuss any changes for the balance of the year. The rektor reported that an improved program was developed by this approach. Generally, rektors in Norway emphasized that the student is very much in the centre of educational directions.

As shown in Figure 15, the direction of activities varies inversely with the distance from the student as the centre. Teachers, housemothers, and counsellors are the closest to the students in the classrooms or the campus life followed by persons further removed from the centre of the educational activities and directions.

As has been shown earlier in the broad and long-range

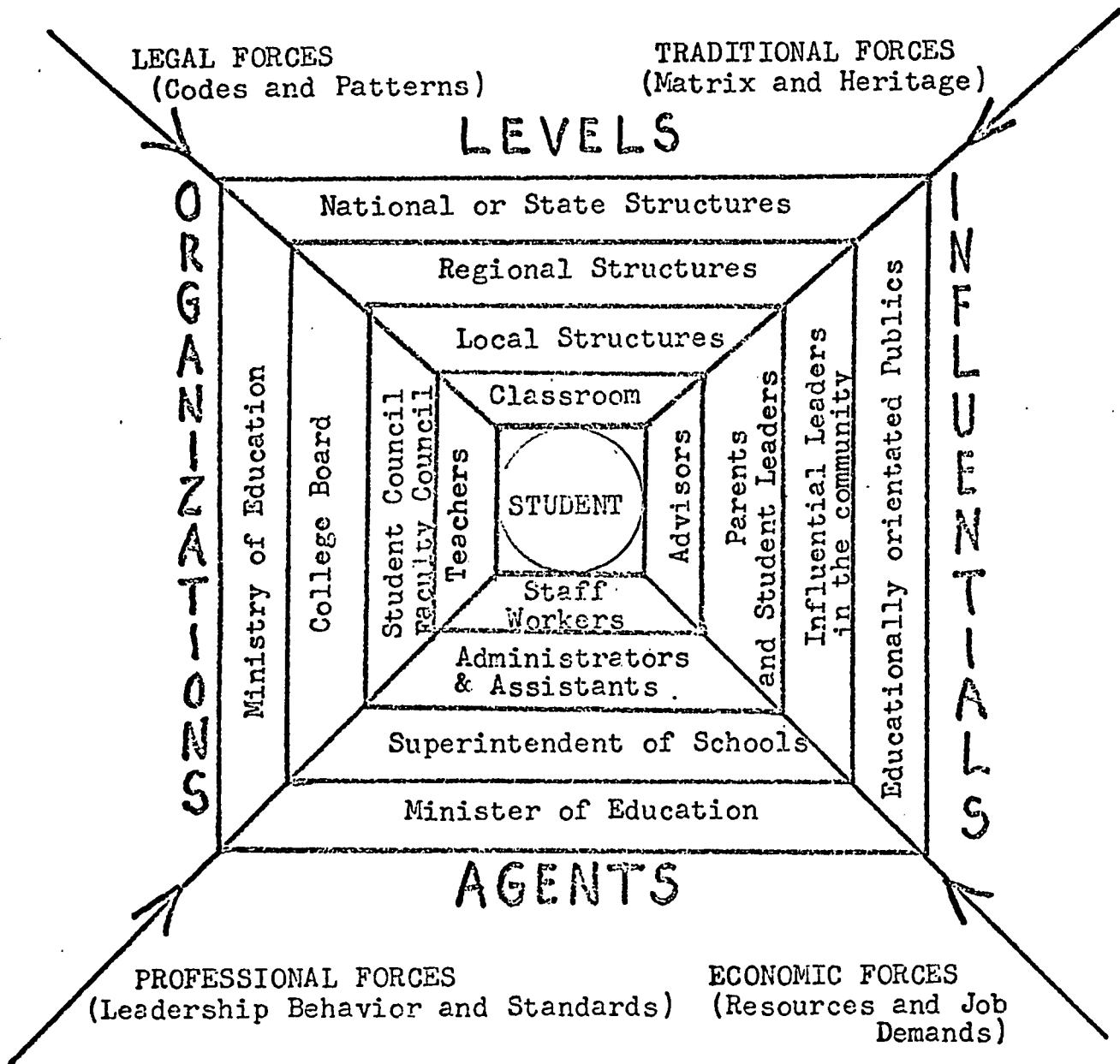


FIGURE 15
EDUCATIONAL DIRECTIONS

sense, the chart in Figure 15 tends to reverse itself. Gibson writes of this process in higher education when he states:

Board policy flows in from the society served, is sifted by the legislature, publics, regents, president, vice-presidents, deans, and faculty prior to formulation into curricula and courses, the latter being functions of the faculty because of their proximity to students.⁶

Thus, the folk high schools through internal structures provide for a balance between external and internal influences. The place of the students' council enables ideas, aspirations, and considerations of policy to move outward from the centre of the circle. The institutional objectives, functions, and services are an expression of the general society in which the college exists. Hence, there is also an inward movement from the outside environment. Synthesis can be achieved through a balance of these outward and inward forces--a compromise between centralization and decentralization.

III. ANALYSIS OF INTERNAL SEGMENTS IN INTERACTION

The internal organization of the folk high schools of Norway has been examined as a system of interpersonal relationships and interactions. To accomplish internal government, people have formed collectivized patterns characterized by proximity and dependence. The investigation

⁶Raymond C. Gibson, The Challenge of Leadership in Higher Education (Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Company Publishers, 1964), p. 125.

revealed that variations in administrative patterns were a function of personality differences and local traditions. Nevertheless, there was major concurrence in basic patterns of internal government.

General Impressions

The folk high school staffs of Norway are relatively small averaging 7.1 full-time teachers and 2.6 part-time teachers for these colleges in 1966-67. Formal line internal organizational structures tend to be dominated by informal approaches to academic administration. The individual brings his own unique personality into interaction with the group where status and role patterns tend to be prescribed by the environmental setting. A variety of linking processes based on communication networks generate stabilizing processes which expedite involvement in internal decision making. Thus, interaction between all the parts of the internal government promote patterns which lead to an integrated college program.

The small closely knit faculty functions as a committee of the whole, and gives regular attention to the program of the college under the chairmanship of the rektor. In fact, both the college board and the college faculty represent small groups in interaction. Such small groups in their associations have the potential for a great variety of interactions ranging on a continuum from conflict to cooperation. The ultimate goal of professional interaction is cooperation. Here, it will be recalled that the head of the college is thus charged by the Regulations: "...and see to it that all

work conscientiously and harmoniously."

In the folk high schools individuals are grouped and differentiated in terms of authority, status, and role with the result that personal interactions tend to be normalized. Thus, logical and consistent relationships become vehicles for the accomplishment of objectives.

Internal governance revolves around the organizational structure whereby a single administrative officer is responsible to the governing board. This chief administrative officer is known as the rektor or styrar. He is assisted by others who in turn are responsible to him. Such delegation of authority is accompanied by supervision. In fact, it is difficult to separate administration from its allied areas of inspection and supervision for these are of considerable consequence in assuring the success of the college. The investigator was impressed with the serious approach to responsibilities manifested by those who were interviewed. Furthermore, the investigation revealed that the folk high schools do not exhibit any marked hierarchical patterns but rather manifest a pattern of regular and effective interaction of the community of scholars who were highly committed to the maintenance of college integrity and purposeful program. Here it seemed that national values had influenced the societal patterns. Society by proper processes had developed acceptable structures and operative mechanisms which in turn had stabilized the college patterns.

Currently, the organization for administration and

the actual administration are instruments of governance devised to enable leadership in cooperation with others to achieve the objectives of the college. These tasks of educational administration in the colleges of Norway are generalized in Table XIII which follows. The principal tasks of college leadership have been indicated as follows: the definition of goals; the design of purposeful activities; the selection of qualified personnel; and, the procurement and maintenance of adequate resources. In all of this, it became apparent that the values and ideals of Norway provided a setting in which expectations and demands of the general society served to give purpose to the college organization and inspiration for the task. In this situation, it was emphasized that workers were highly motivated by ideals, and thus readily accepted authority and responsibility in order to achieve desired goals related to those ideals.

Partnership in Internal Government

The study revealed that there are three major organizational categories of internal government. The college supporters are represented in majority by the college board; the rektor and his staff function together in the faculty council; and the students are served by their elected student council. In the folk high schools of Norway, these three groupings do not function in complete isolation. There is opportunity for a shared approach to common tasks and problems. The rektor is a common agent to both the college board and the faculty council. There is legal provision for joint

TABLE XIII
THE TASK OF COLLEGE LEADERSHIP AND ADMINISTRATION

Sector	Key Word	Major Considerations
SETTING OF GOALS	POLICY	GENERAL GOALS determined by the PHILOSOPHY, PRINCIPLES, and PROCESSES of a democratic society. INSTITUTIONAL GOALS determined by cooperative educational leadership within the authority and framework of laws, regulations, and policies of various levels of government. PROFESSIONAL and PERSONAL GOALS as determined and promoted by teacher organizations and the individual teacher.
PURPOSEFUL ACTIVITIES	PROGRAM	SITUATIONAL FACTORS requiring planning and organization: 1. The kind and availability of staff. 2. The numbers and kinds of students. 3. The curriculum and available materials. 4. The time available and its scheduling. 5. The type of college space related to program. 6. The fundamental principles valued and promoted. 7. The patterns of expectations and direction of effort.
QUALIFIED PERSONNEL	PEOPLE	THE STRUCTURING OF RELATIONSHIPS--formal and informal. THE DEFINITION OF ROLES--division of labor and of authority. THE PROMOTION OF UNIFIED EFFORT--interaction and integration
ADEQUATE RESOURCES	PLANT	THE PROVISION AND IMPORTANCE OF: 1. Financial and material resources--budgets and plans. 2. Facilities, equipment, and materials as required. 3. A controlled and organized environment.

meetings of the faculty council and the student council. Of far greater consequence in the accomplishment of mutuality here is the general and daily involvement of staff and students in the college program. Then, the student council has legal access to the college board in the case of complaints (klager). If there is a basis for the complaint, the college board together with the rektor will try to correct the situation. In extreme cases, there is provision for referral to the Ministry for a final decision. However, this machinery thus provided is very rarely used. Figure 16 is a summary of these interstitial aspects of internal governance. It would appear that internal government operates in harmony when there is much of common values, mutual perceptions, and shared goals. Here it should be recalled as reported earlier that the folk high schools are boarding schools, and students, headmaster, teaching and domestic staffs work and play together as one big family, (supra, p. 117).

The folk high school can be regarded as an integrated social system which is subject to the ordering principle of goals which are meaningful to its participants. In the college there are both formal and informal structures in which the routines of the social system may be exercised.

Selznick has identified four concepts of leadership which must be understood by college administrators if the organization is to function smoothly and effectively. He states:

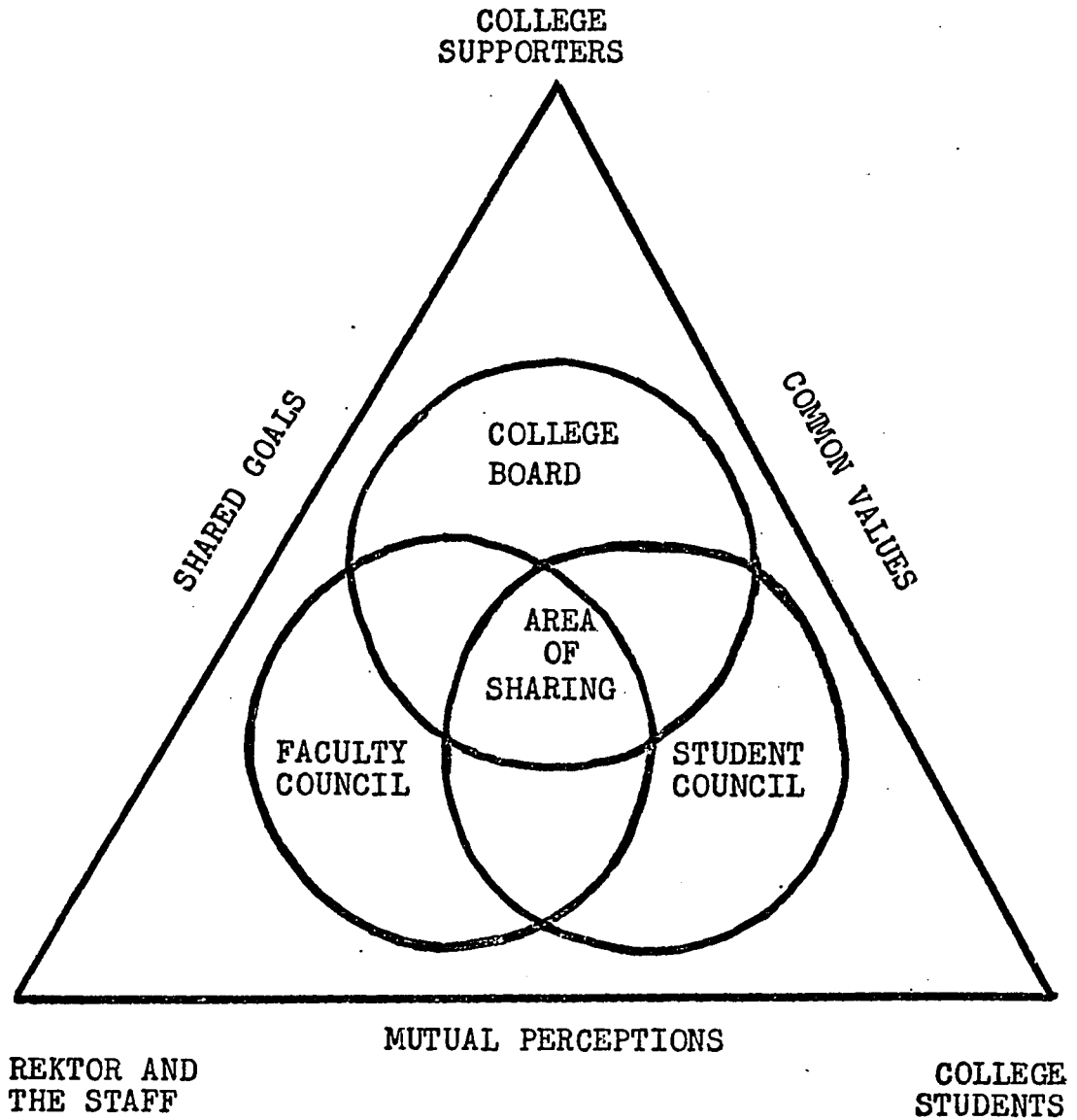


FIGURE 16
INTERSTITIAL ASPECTS OF INTERNAL GOVERNANCE

1. There must be a clear definition of institutional mission and role.
2. There must be a clear embodiment of institutional purpose.
3. There must be effective defense of institutional integrity.
4. There must be effective ordering of internal conflict.⁷

With respect to these concepts, Blocker comments:

Selznick sees each of these concepts as fundamental to the development and continuance of the effective life of all organizations. The neglect of any of these tasks by the administrator, whatever his level in the formal organization, will lead to dysfunction detrimental to the achievement of the objectives of the organization. These statements imply additional facets of the administrator's role as mediator, agent for change, power figure, and decision-maker. These activities grow out of the four concepts outlined, and they effectively embody the college administrator's roles.⁸

As the study has evidenced in the foregoing discussion, the leadership of the folk high schools has fulfilled the requirements outlined in the four concepts above. Further safeguards exist in the shared approach to aspects of the internal governance.

Levels and Nature of Internal Governance

Table XIV is a summary of the principal aspects of internal governance as presented in this chapter. The Table

⁷Philip Selznick, Leadership in Administration: A Sociological Interpretation (New York: The MacMillan Co., 1957), pp. 62 - 63.

⁸Blocker, op. cit., pp. 173-174.

TABLE XIV

PRINCIPAL LEVELS OF INTERNAL CONTROL OF COLLEGES

Level	Internal Legal Control	Nature of Control
College Board	A corporate body created and prescribed by national law. Four members are required.	Operation of College. Policy formulation. Adjudication & Appraisal. Administration delegated.
Faculty Council	A college structure required by the Law. All teachers and the matron are members.	Institutional Goals. Program evaluation. Student Services. Public Relations. Planning & Development.
Student Council	An elected structure required under the Law. There are five members. Members serve for one-half of the school year.	Extra-curricular program. Reactions to Program. Joint meetings with Faculty Council relative to College directions.

is limited to the three categories of control provided for in the laws and regulations pursuant to the folk high schools.

In general, it might be said that the college board is predominantly functional in the matter of internal control, the faculty council basically transactional, and the student council often exploratory. Each is influenced by the sphere of the other as has been shown in Figure 16 on page 200, and there is some overlapping.

The Function of Leadership

The study revealed that status relations in the folk high schools are patterned and stabilized by tradition, practice, and law. Thus, leadership tends to promote patterned interactions within the internal segments of the college. Leadership in the folk high school organization provides much opportunity for frequency of interaction among the participants. This promotes the sharing of ideas, opinions, and insights for the consideration of the group. Cooperative interaction becomes an integrative and self-reinforcing power. Such interaction aids mutual adjustment, negates factionalism, assists communication, and promotes consensus.

The challenge to the leadership of the rektor is that of maintaining a dynamic equilibrium between the goal-orientation of the college and the needs-satisfaction of the staff and students. Interaction is the basic social process whereby this dynamic equilibrium can be maintained. Thus, the process of leadership is concerned with creating,

maintaining, stimulating, and unifying the energies of the college participants in goal-directed activities.

Internal college governance aims at teamwork in staff participation so as to build mutuality, integration, and effectiveness. The ultimate goal of effective governance is cooperation in the interactions of the various organizational categories. College leadership endeavors to channel conflict into useful participation, to promote creativity into goal-directed performance, and to build cooperation into incorporation. At the level of incorporation, the college can function as a body in unity for its designed purpose and in dynamic equilibrium of the interacting internal segments.

IV. SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

An examination of the various levels of internal government against the background of the legal provisions of Norway has provided insights into the structures and functions of the principal internal organizational categories. An analysis of these internal segments in interaction has provided concepts of the internal processes of government. Tables and figures have been used in illustration. Internal control is accomplished by the interaction of three principal levels of control--college board, faculty council, and student council. Leadership in the colleges of Norway endeavors to promote cooperative interaction which integrates and reinforces the program.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, SYNTHESIS AND IMPLICATIONS

I. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A summary has been provided at the end of each of the principal chapters of this study. Hence, only a summarizing survey of the study has been provided in this final chapter. The conclusions provide particular focus for the study.

Summary

The study was undertaken in the recognition that the educational systems of the world constitutes an unusual but relatively unused laboratory for the study of educational administration. The area of college governance in Norway was finally selected as being promising because of this country's long experience in adult education.

It was the general aim of the study to investigate the nature of the government of the folk high schools of Norway. As such the study was concerned with both external and internal factors that have interacted to shape the patterns of governance. With the help of sociological and theoretical concepts, a framework or design was developed which gave pattern to both the approach and the organization of the thesis. In particular, the study was guided and assisted by the basic social science concepts of interaction and integration especially as these promoted a systemic approach to the concept of social organization.

In general, the approach to this non-quantitative study of the exploratory type, required the formulation of tentative generalizations and a conceptual framework designed to explore the area of college government both systematically and functionally. As outlined in Chapter II, the emphasis was on the processes of government, and therefore the focus of the theoretical resources was on the interactions of the components of governance rather than on their mathematical correlations. Considerable background material provided the base and perspective for the better understanding of the primary dimensions of governance. The field studies served as a corrective check on the preliminary generalizations, and provided the final insights and perspectives. A final synthesis of the study provides a theoretical model of the major components of government in simultaneous interaction. This model is offered as a step toward a theory of college governance. Pursuant to this, other topics for later empirical and further research are suggested.

Basically, two techniques were used in the collection of the data: full use of printed information and documentary materials related to the problem; and, a series of field trips in which the focused interview technique was designed to explore in depth the nature of the governance of the folk high schools. In particular, these interviews were aimed to discover the coherent perceptions and feelings of two leadership groups playing interdependent roles in the government of Norway's colleges. Throughout the study an effort

was made to maintain a consistent and inclusive approach in order to provide the final focus reflected in the report.

In writing the report, extensive use was made of both tables and figures to highlight, summarize, and analyze the data. The study aimed to formulate ideas, insights, and concepts relative to the problem, and to express these in systematic form with the aid of systemic models and useful theories. The investigator found that conceptual resources simplified the approach, organized the study, and promoted new insights. In short, the social sciences became a disciplinary umbrella for the integration of the various components of government into a meaningful system.

In part, the study endeavored to identify and describe major long-range environmental factors which have affected the primary components of the government of Norway's colleges. Here the insights from the available literature and from Norwegian leaders were utilized. As was shown in Chapter III, the particular topography and location of Norway, the abundant presence of water, unique language developments, demographic patterns, philosophical bases, and economic factors were found to be among those basic forces which have influenced the special character and the pattern of governance of the college of Norway. In illustration, the study cited many examples. Community isolation has fostered strong independent local government in the separated communities of the land. The rugged topography of the land and the consequent problems related to transportation and communication

have resulted in as many as seventy-five folk high schools in operation across the face of Norway. Many of these colleges have relatively low enrolments and exist in considerable isolation.

Geography was noted to have placed constraints in the way of implementing the principle of equal and universal education in spite of the desire to provide both quality and quantity in the educational program of the nation. The program of each college has continued to be characterized by promotion and participation of the people in the region even though major support and regulation now comes from the central government. In overcoming the constraints of geography, but promoted by democratic and egalitarian ideals, education has become the means of welding isolated and independent people into productive nationhood, established freedom, and a higher standard of living. The building of this cooperative society required community planners, leaders, and builders. In large measure, the folk high schools have arisen to meet these community needs. From these colleges have come many of the leaders who have helped to build a productive society in spite of the limited natural resources of Norway.

It was pointed out that the folk high schools have played a significant role in promoting love of country, national vision, and appreciation of heritage. The factors of unity of race, common ideals, a basically common language, and established political sovereignty have promoted common understandings and national character. Deliberately,

Norwegians have determined to create a better land through major support of higher education including the folk high school movement in general.

The recent industrialization, the growth of technology, the mechanization of the primary industries, and the rapid growth of the service occupations has intensified the need for all kinds of post-secondary education in Norway. Thus, in recent years the enrolments in the folk high schools have continued to rise. These developments have promoted special problems for those in charge of programs of national education in terms of planning, financing, and supervision. In view of the strong local democratic approaches over the years, the state has had to devise special integrative approaches to the solution of major educational problems of the nation. A rising portion of the gross national product has been voted for the support of college education. The image of the folk high schools has been accepted. National status has been accorded to the movement by virtue of the Law of 1949.

It was noted that special problems have been created by the existence of variance in languages or dialects for an otherwise relatively homogenous Nordic race. Thus, Norwegians are a people very conscious of language. The desire for a common and accepted language has grown. The need of trade and the place of shipping in balancing the economy has spurred interest in other important languages--English, German, and French. Thus, it is not surprising that the

matriculant in Norway has been required to spend much time and effort in mastering foreign languages as well as struggling with the variations in his own native language. All of this has promoted the folk high school emphasis of "windows on the world."

It was noted that a monolithic Lutheranism, a Christian orientation, and a Nordic humanism have had much influence upon educational patterns. The Church of the Reformation popularized education for both sexes in the language of the land, and built support for both public and private colleges. The desire grew for "schools of the people" which could acquaint students with the riches of their own culture and heritage. The church and many of its outstanding spokesmen spurred a unity of aspirations, promoted popular education for the common man, and established order and priority for mass education. Religious instruction and Christian orientation have been almost axiomatic in the educational system of Norway. The close cooperation of state and church was indicated in respect to educational directions, emphasis, and support for both public and private colleges. The Labor party, in power for many years in Norway, actively promoted and finally voted the enabling legislation for major support of all of the colleges that were merged by the 1949 Law. Various long-range societal factors have weighed heavily in the determination of Norway's patterns of governance of her folk high schools. The interplay of these factors over time was considered as the social matrix of the special patterns

surrounding these colleges. To provide adequate base and perspective, the folk high school pattern was projected against the background of the total educational system of Norway with its numerous and diverse opportunities for adult education.

The growth of nationalism in the nineteenth century coupled with the defeat of Napoleon was indicated under which circumstances Norway achieved a measure of independence and the implementation of liberal constitution for her people. The significance of the 1814 constitution as a springboard to the development of free and democratic institutions was suggested. The work of influential leaders in paving the way for experimental efforts in adult education was surveyed. In particular, the pervasive influence of Grundtvig upon the folk high school movement was underlined. The interactive forces of historical factors, crises events, constitutional developments, influential leaders, and the national style were traced. Thus, perspective was afforded on special causal relationships and sequences that gave rise to the current patterns of folk high school governance in Norway. The three basic streams of county schools, Christian youth schools, and folk high schools that were merged by the Law of 1949 to form the present folk high school movement were isolated and examined also in Chapter IV. This provided further insight into the social matrix in which the government of Norway's colleges functions.

The study of external government revealed that the

democratic governance of the folk high schools of Norway required an integration of three major levels of legal control--national, regional, and local. Cooperation between national and municipal levels of government has been achieved through the creation of intermediate machinery at the county or regional level. Thus, both are represented in making the decisions that affect the college very directly. These decisions are arrived at within an evolved framework of nationally established patterns codified in laws and regulations. Again, the mechanisms of formal decision-making were recognized as being culture-based and anchored in the Norwegian society. The specific nature of these controls at each of the three levels was analyzed in detail and reported in respect to both the structures and processes of college government to show the nature of the control at each level.

The various categories of internal government were investigated and reported in relation to the national laws and current regulations established by central authority. The various levels and specific roles of the principal categories of internal government were listed and described. The processes of internal government were examined in terms of the interaction and integration of the various categories of internal governance.

The college board was discovered to be functioning in four principal areas: operation, policy, adjudication, and delegation of administration. These major areas of decision-making revolve around academic affairs, business affairs,

and, development and planning.

The study revealed that the rektor provides major leadership with the board in the following areas: program, business management, student services, public relations and development. Democratic decision-making is achieved by considerable interaction with both the faculty council and the student council, both provided for in the Law. It was noted that internal governance was unified by the goal of cooperative interaction between the principal parts of internal government. Stable and regular interactions which are common to the colleges of Norway have promoted an integrated approach to internal governance. Likewise, logical principles and consistent relationships stipulated by the central authority have become vehicles for the orderly accomplishment of goals by a cooperative approach to internal government.

Each of the four principal chapters of the actual study and report was designed to provide description of some basic facet of the problem of the study as outlined in Chapter I; social matrix in Chapter III; national perspectives in Chapter IV; external government in Chapter V; and, internal government in Chapter VI. In each of these four chapters the report was concerned also with meaningful interpretation or diagnosis guided by theoretical considerations. The closing chapter has provided the summary, synthesis, and the overall pattern or basic design of college governance as discovered by this study in Norway.

Major Conclusions

The analysis of the data which has been presented in the chapters so far, has led to the conclusions regarding the problems of the study as first described in Chapter I. These conclusions are as follows:

1. The educational patterns and college directions of the folk high schools of Norway have been influenced by a variety of long-range societal factors in interaction.

Chapter III presented selected authoritative opinion which underlined the general significance of the social milieu of a nation in shaping its organizations. Also, educational policies were viewed as being generated over time by basic socio-economic forces of that society. Thus, the patterns of the folk high schools were seen as a reflection of the larger and total complex patterns of the society in general. In short, Norway's colleges are related to and influenced by that society in which they exist.

The study identified a variety of the following factors as providing the social matrix for the colleges of Norway: the challenge of topography, climate, and northern isolation; language developments; uneven and scattered population; increasing industrialization and urbanization; diversification of the economy; growth of technologies and specializations; national propensity to education; religious unity; and, the long national experience in providing diversified educational opportunities for adults.

The study afforded some insight into the cooperative approach required to overcome the restraints of the environment and to maximize the opportunities of developing both human and natural resources. This concerted effort has been aided by several basic facets of nationhood: (i) Unity of race, (ii) Unity of religion, (iii) Growth in national language and communication generally, (iv) Political sovereignty and stability. Limitations have been imposed by the language controversy, the scattered rugged nature of Norway's territory, and the limitation of natural resources. Overall, Norway has provided considerable unity in her national culture so as to endorse a national folk high school movement. Finally, because of the relatively stable nature and long-range aspect of these societal factors, they were considered to be influential at all levels of government--national, regional, and local.

2. The present folk high school organization and operation is a product or crystallization of historical factors, antecedent movements, and national perspectives.

Chapter IV indicated that the turmoil created by Napoleon in Europe and that the infusion of revolutionary ideas from other countries stimulated Norway to achieve her own independence after centuries of domination by external powers. Strong personalities and educational movements gave focus and direction to the aspirations of Norwegians. In particular, the educational concepts of Bishop Grundtvig of Denmark provided unique inspiration for the development of

the folk high school movement in Norway. Then, during a period of critical evaluation, counteracting forces promoted the development of competing county youth schools and the Christian youth schools. Later, these three main streams tended to merge in a common program and purpose. However, these three principal streams are still recognizable even though the Law of 1949 officially merged all of these colleges, and at the same time stipulated conditions which had to be met in order to receive state support.

The study revealed that nationalistic movements and charismatic leadership had promoted experimental ventures into the area of college programs. As sound philosophies were promulgated and acceptable programs were developed, public interest grew. The growing acceptance of the philosophy and program of these colleges led to a growing public endorsement. In time, this endorsement was expressed in national codes and provisions for college support from larger bases than local ones. Over time, societal needs and national values have developed acceptable structures of college control. These structures have developed, directed, and stabilized those institutions which that society has endorsed. The organization and the operation of the Norwegian folk high schools were seen to reflect the many facets of the social setting--historical developments, antecedent movements, and national perspectives. In short, current national statutes were considered to be a crystallization of national orientations.

3. The folk high schools of Norway are a part of a large administrative complex of national, regional, and local government affecting the organization, operation, and the administration of these colleges.

Chapter V provided insight into the nature of the external government of the folk high schools. Here it was shown that the responsibility for the folk high schools had developed into a cooperative enterprise among three principal levels of government. As has been noted, the colleges are owned and operated predominantly by area or county associations. Also, the Law of 1949 stipulated that one-sixth of the costs of operation normally should be provided by the county and that five-sixths of such costs should come from the national treasury. However, such state support required that the folk high school must meet the conditions as laid down in the Law of 1949 and amplified in the Regulations of 1965. The imposition of such conditions affirmed the principle that the provision of state support tends to be concomitant with centralized control in spite of a traditional background of college autonomy. To some degree at least, a system of national colleges has become an instrument of national policy.

As reported, the counties must raise their share of the costs by requiring the local municipalities to levy taxes on the local front. The cooperation of local government is thus necessary at this point. By tradition, the folk high school movement has reflected the spirited

independence of the Norwegian people, and evidenced the tendency to reject any undue interference by external officialdom. As was shown in Chapter V, this problem was resolved by the creation of intermediate machinery for the cooperative promotion and control of the colleges. This has led to the balance between local control and state direction through a shared approach which has accomplished reconciliation of the bureaucracy of the state and the democracy of a local area. In short, the greater resources of national government have been made available without undue restriction of the local enterprise. The processes of cooperative college control exist in a permissive climate of an ordered society which places high trust and confidence in its duly elected representatives to the higher levels of government. The democratic base of all government is maintained by strongly entrenched concepts of local government, the regular and extensive use of the ballot, and the rigid retention of power in the hands of those who are regularly elected to serve under constitutional guarantees.

4. The internal governance of the folk high schools is characterized by a partnership approach by the principal levels of control in interaction.

The status relations in the internal government of the folk high schools have been patterned and stabilized at a variety of levels to promote both direction and efficiency. Then, because the size of these colleges afford much interaction for all the members, there are wide opportunities for

cooperation, discussion, and mutual agreement on the many matters of organizational directions. It was recognized that individualities and preferences of the internal organizational categories are guided by the general patterns and prescriptions of national and regional authorities.

The internal organization of these colleges is designed to coordinate activities and to order the roles of individuals towards the accomplishment of those tasks which are deemed to promote the goals of the college. Internal administrative organization has been shaped to provide stable patterns of working relationships so that each individual may contribute to mutually planned activities, and so that the talents and energies of all may be employed both effectively and harmoniously. The rektor is charged with major leadership. The Law and the Regulations prescribe the various college roles in considerable detail.

The analysis of the internal components of government indicated an interactive partnership among the three major levels of internal governance--college board, faculty council, and the student council. The local college organization is characterized by a systemic and authoritative approach to the structuring of interactions. Courses of action and program planning are transacted and planned by the faculty council in regular meetings. Such meetings are chaired by the rektor. In the Scandinavian tradition, the rektor has both voice and vote on the college board. The student council has access to both the college board in event of special problems and

regular access to the faculty council in matters of mutual concern. The principal areas of the functions of the college board were grouped under four headings: (1) operation, (2) legislation, (3) adjudication, and (4) the delegation of administration. However, there was no sharp distinctive line between the area of policy making and policy execution because of the overlapping of roles. Leadership stood out as that process of initiating, maintaining and integrating patterned interactions toward the accomplishment of goal. The patterns of internal government as prescribed in detail under the Law and the Regulations have provided for a flow of authority, the definition and the distribution of responsibilities, and the provision of structures for decision-making. Each level of internal government was seen to function, not as an isolated unit, but in relationship with other levels and with the total system within which each was contained and of which each was a component. The goal of internal government has been determined by the Law as being the provision of a program of broad general education in the community setting.

5. When the interactions of the major components and factors of college government are reviewed and reflected upon, basic dimensions come into focus to suggest a conceptual framework of the process of governance.

A synthesis of this study has provided a frame of reference which is discussed in the following section. Also, as a means to the end of a better understanding of this

general framework, an analytical model of these dimensions of governance has been included. Taken as a whole, this model becomes an integration of the study.

Other Conclusions

In the course of the study, the investigation produced other insights somewhat removed from the stated problems under examination. These findings are reported in a final section of this chapter relative to implications from the study.

II. SYNTHESIS

Summarizing Discussion

The study has indicated significant factors of the societal setting which have interacted to provide a "spawning ground" for the incidents, accidents, and personalities of history. Out of this social matrix, college government has developed and become operative. In time, societal forces and antecedent movements generated actions which became formalized into national codes and regulative patterns.

The study of the folk high schools in Norway has suggested the following pattern: Forces on the social scene generated pioneering efforts by private groups or individuals. Under charismatic leadership and considerable experimentation, public interest was developed. In time, there was a wider endorsement of the philosophy and the program of the folk high school movement. Eventually, the question of allocation of resources became predominant. Considerable stabilization

occured when support by regional and national structures was coupled with general patterns of control established by central authority.

Today, activities related to the organization and the control of the folk high schools of Norway are carried out by a variety of agencies which are interrelated at local, regional, and national levels. The concept of partnership was required in order to reconcile some elements of centralization with some elements of decentralization. The structures and the processes which have been developed are a reflection of the perspectives and experiences of Norwegian society.

In the development of control machinery both compromise of position and delegation of authority became necessary in order to develop patterns of governance that were acceptable to the principal levels of government. Again, the patterns of control and organization tend to reflect the philosophical positions of the people forming the controlling groups. It has been noted that state support for the colleges was followed by national policies that provided both control and direction. Nevertheless, founding and traditional patterns have tended to be reflected in the actual application of these national statutes. As the interviews revealed, an uninformed legalistic interpretation of the law alone varied considerably from the actual behavioral application of the laws and regulations of central authority. It would appear that the law exists as a safeguard which can be applied should the need arise. Again, the democratic nation of

Norway influenced by ordering principles and a sense of social conscience has aimed at establishing those provisions and safeguards needed to assure responsible, orderly, and purposeful development of democratized educational opportunities.

In summary, the study suggests three general dimensions of college government as follows:

1. SITUATIONAL FACTORS. These situational factors are relatively established in the general setting of the nation.

2. DOMINANT PHILOSOPHIES. National values and philosophical positions normally change very slowly. They provide the foundation which is reflected in laws, regulations, and policies.

3. ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIORS. Behaviors are more readily modified according to the will and determination of men.

The dominant philosophies of the nation provide a dimension which is basic to college governance. Within Norway there are shades of divergency rather than bitter cleavages e.g. labor vs. conservative; state planning vs. individual enterprise; nationalism vs. universalism; humanism vs. materialism; change vs. tradition; egalitarian control vs. elite control; and, secular vs. Christian. Philosophical commitments and values of the people portend other aspects of the college organization and program. The college system of the nation possesses a strategy reflecting and supporting

the national style of coping with the environment. Norway is fortunate that there is no major conflict about its basic goals leading to serious internal dissension and dissipation of its resources. The study has indicated that the folk high schools are greatly influenced by Christian idealism, humanistic philosophies, democratic principles, and egalitarian political concepts.

The principal situational factors are: (1) the national setting consisting of the total social matrix of basic long-range factors and antecedent forces that have shaped the nation's institutions; (2) the college or institutional setting with its local history, traditions, and aspirations; and, (3) the staff and student personnel who are products of their environment in training, experience, and perspectives. Situationally, there are three important components: the societal setting, the institutional setting, and the college personnel.

The principal organizational behaviors are: (1) National orientations embodying societal needs and dominant objectives or directions of the society; (2) External and internal organizations and control mechanisms evolved to provide effective direction toward the accomplishment of objectives; (3) Local leadership and personnel at work implementing the program by some individuality of pattern and process. The local college structure, climate, and goals are influenced by the philosophical perceptions of the participants.

Formulation of a Comprehensive Model

Taken together these three major dimensions outlined above are considered to have provided the major components in the governance of Norway's colleges. From these generalized concepts as reviewed and synthesized, a comprehensive model was developed as pictured in Figure 17. This model attempts to portray the major dimensions and components of governance in interplay, and to suggest some of the possible results of the many interactions at a variety of levels. As such, it provides a final general synthesis of college government. In order for the model to be more generally applicable and thus more useful, the terms of the model have been somewhat generalized. The model is deemed to be useful in outlining the principal dimensions of college government, and in suggesting possible consequences from the interactions of the components of governance operative at various levels.

Analysis and Applications of the Model

The three major dimensions and the various components of the model are conceived to be in interaction at a variety of levels and in a variety of transactions as shown in Figure 17. The direction of the lines of flow does not preclude the possibility of feedback from "lower" to "higher" levels. The results of various interactions are suggested briefly on the nine faces of the nine divisions of the model. The process of governance is conceived as being the composite of all the levels of interaction in a variety of simultaneous transactions.

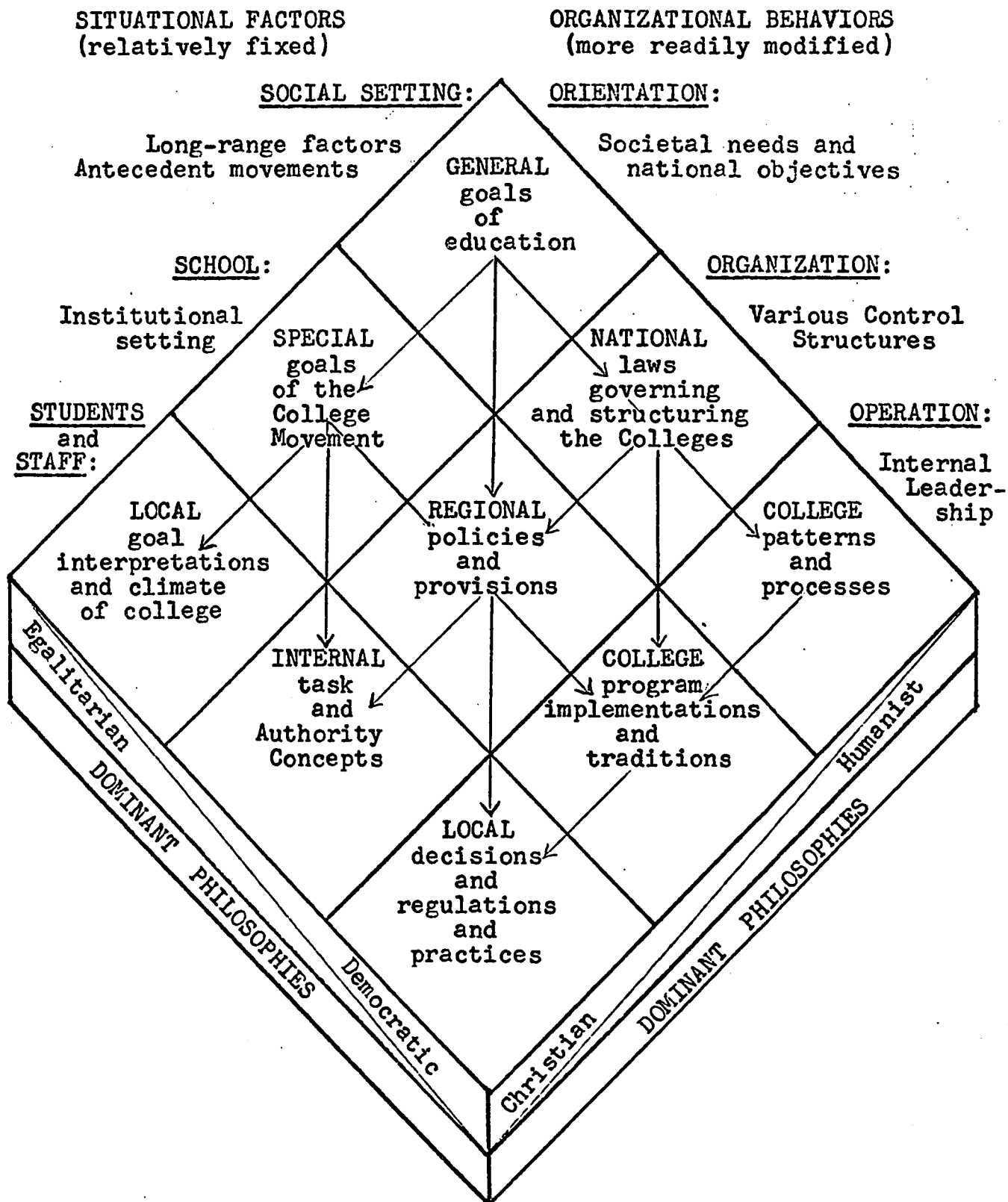


FIGURE 17

MAJOR DIMENSIONS AND COMPONENTS OF THE GOVERNANCE OF COLLEGES
IN INTERACTION

As illustrated, the base for this composite of interactions constituting governance is philosophical. Sociopolitical activities are rooted in dominant philosophies, national thought patterns, and societal values. As has been emphasized, philosophy is antecedent to policy, and policy to program. Philosophical considerations tend to crystallize and formulate college policies and programs. To illustrate, philosophical assumptions govern answers to such basic questions as: Who should be permitted to go to college? What program should be offered? What provisions should be made for the organization and control of the colleges? What resources should be allocated and by whom? What are the real purposes of college education? In short, dominant philosophies are an ordering principle for a college movement.

Further, it is suggested by the model that the societal goals of education are determined by the interplay of dominant long-range factors or movements and general educational objectives arising out of dominant philosophies. As shown in the model, these societal goals directly influence in the following three principal directions: national laws governing the colleges; county or large area policies and provisions; and, the special goals of the folk high schools or colleges. These general societal goals influence the special goals of the colleges both collectively and individually. All goals at the higher levels are finally interpreted and implemented by the perceptions of local leadership. As has been discussed, in time goals become codified as laws, regulations, policies,

and other legal provisions at the various levels of government. Such provisions tend to formalize the organization and operation of the colleges. National laws must be broad enough to provide a comprehensive but general framework within which regional government and local administration can function effectively and responsibly. These laws must permit the county or college board to finalize task and authority concepts, to encourage local decisions and democratic processes, and to stimulate local program implementations and behaviors.

Organizational behaviors constitute a major dimension of governance. Again, organizations are developed in the social setting under the influence of national orientations. Organizations are controlling structures which tend to institutionalize the operation of the local college. Thus, orientation influences organization, and organizations pattern the operation of the college. Internal leadership is challenged to comprehend, interpret, and operate the college in terms of community and societal needs. Internal structures are created and coordinated by processes which are acceptable in a democratic society.

The situational factors of a college movement constitute another dimension of governance as shown in the model. As proposed, the college is a reflection of many facets of the social setting. This social setting is the matrix for the school institution; the school is the arena in which staff and students function. Locally, society is perceived and

interpreted by the college board, the staff, and the students in a shared enterprise of common endeavor concerned with goals.

Each major dimension of the model provides various components producing outputs when in interaction. As shown, these outputs are interrelated both directly and indirectly to one another. As has been illustrated, many of the outcomes of the interactions of these components have effects in many directions but are established on the base of dominant philosophies.

The model also suggests that greater latitude is possible for the local college if the lower components of the model are prominent. To illustrate: If in the operation of the college, internal leadership is given much freedom in important areas, and assuming that a capable and enterprising staff is available, local decisions and processes will predominate in the operation of the school. It is suggested that the model is fruitful in suggesting further implications and insights. Some of these will be suggested in a section on further implications from the study. In essence, the model enables the administrator to view governance as a process of variable factors simultaneously in interaction at a variety of levels.

III. IMPLICATIONS

The findings of this study have implications for college education in Canada. Some of these implications have

been reinforced in the synthesis of the study and report.

Further Implications and Comments from the Study and the Model

Ideally, college leaders should have much understanding of the dominant societal forces and national value systems because of the influence of these on the machinery of education. Such insights can be most helpful in the promotion of effective and efficient administration of the total college program. Only then can the goals or purposes of education be defined and evaluated, sound and defensible decision-making structures coordinated, and a desirable college climate maintained. Educational leadership cannot be removed from the economic, social, spiritual, and political pulse of the nation. An awareness of the social milieu can enable the school head to participate fully and wisely in policy decisions with the board of control. At the same time, it must be recognized that philosophical premises, administrative patterns, and educational goals take on significance only when related to the needs of the people being served.

Legal provisions for the organization, operation, administration, and financing of higher education need to be carefully and systematically formulated so as to achieve a balance between the elements of centralization and the elements of decentralization. Cooperation is required between central authority and local agencies in order to provide a democratic base for a college movement. The creation of intermediate machinery can facilitate this process. In this, responsibility as well as power and authority are shared

among the various levels of government.

The involvement of local people in the determination of the pattern and program of college directions maintain the democratic base which is best able to assess and adjust to local needs and aspirations. Such flexibility is basic in a day of rapid change. Decentralization is meaningful only if local initiative and responsibility are encouraged. Democratic governance requires the intelligent cooperation-- and participation of all who are directly affected by the college program. It would seem that codification and coordination are tasks of central authority while program implementation is a matter for the local area. In this division of task, the democratic destiny of the nation is supported in that enlightened and informed citizenship is being trained by participation in the common task. This also tends to promote the kind and quality of education required.

State support should not be so pervasive as to negate local or area involvement and responsibility. However, the formulas of support must be adequate to promote the diversity and quality of program required to assure the proper development of human resources. It is recognized that education is a matter of national and public concern. By providing operational support for private as well as public schools, the nation repudiates any monopolistic approach and provides recognition of special values in the educational fabric of the society.

Positively, the active participation of all staff in

the faculty council under prudent leadership affords the opportunity for a dynamic college climate, majority consensus, group loyalty, maximization of effort, continuous evaluation of program, and the acceptance of internal control structures as a means of goal accomplishment.

The contributions of students to a college program should not be overlooked. Their contributions should be encouraged and explored through regularized and legitimate channels to both the college board and the college faculty. The experience of Norway would suggest the cooperation and sharing of separate organizations rather than integration of representative members. In such a college climate, students do not feel threatened by the higher levels of the internal control.

This study has demonstrated the usefulness of concepts and theoretical models in the direction of an exploratory study. In implication, models beget theories, and theories beget further hypotheses to be investigated.

Although this study was not directed at any examination of the human resources of Norway, it became apparent during the course of the investigation that this land has done much in the development of her human resources. The study underlined this implication: The key to development and proper utilization of the total resources of a nation is the development of its human resources. The chief factor in determining the level of productivity and the standard of living for a people is not the abundance of natural resources, but the

adequate development of human resources by the right kind of education.

It would appear to be very important for a nation to provide variety in courses and range of depth in educational opportunities. In particular, diversity of educational program should be stressed for youth and adults without de-emphasizing the value of a general education. Even as the folk high schools of Norway were reported to be remaining as "sanctuaries of general education" purposefully removed from any tyranny of specialization and standardization, it could be inferred that it is important and valuable for a nation to make provision of liberal studies in a day when the demand for many new technologies tends to overshadow the humanities.

It would seem to be wise to provide means of overcoming barriers to higher education for that significant number of the population who do not meet the rigid matriculation requirements of many universities. More "open door" schools are needed which stress that they are "schools for life." Such colleges should be recognized as representing an important and significant in democratizing education for the adult who needs stimulation to upgrade his education in a rapidly changing world of many problems. Such schools must draw students from all classes and walks of life, and from a variety of backgrounds and experiences.

In spite of our pluralistic Canadian society, more could be done to provide a sense of common human destiny and reason for being in the totality of the universe. Therefore,

colleges are needed which can provide meaningful interaction and the strengthening of democracy through having many "windows on the world" in a program which stresses critical and open evaluation, seminar techniques, outside lecturers, and a variety of exploratory activities. The example of Norway is recognized in this area of activity in promoting solid responsible citizenship and a sense of social conscience anchored in axiomatic foundations. Such colleges need to be geared to the problems of our times and yet anchored in the tried and proven values which are a part of the national heritage.

As a nation, Norway has committed herself to major support of her "people's colleges." In return the nation has obtained much of the enlightened leadership required for the wide and general participation in social democracy and a high standard of living. Her colleges are claimed to have crystallized the aspirations of the people and motivated them to greater achievements and humanitarian service. By implication, every nation should make a significant effort to strengthen adult and post-secondary education in general in spite of any constraints of geography or limitations of natural resources. Investment in higher education has proven to be the means of securing high national dividends.

The needs of a changing society are such as to require more and more education for the average citizen. To be most useful, such opportunities must be within reach of the local citizen and carried out in a small enough local

setting to meet individual needs. For many such educational activity must be organized around spare time or periods of slack season.

To provide such a program there must be support of a major nature from those central agencies which have ready access to the greater national resources. At the same time there must be willingness on the part of central authorities to permit the local college or program to operate uniquely and creatively. In short, there should be adequate state support without external management of the college program. This would seem to be the resolution of a key problem which resolves itself around the problem of reconciling bureaucracy and democracy.

Finally, it is suggested that many of these implications are worthy of consideration by Canadian educational administrators. Canada faces growing problems in the area of college directions and government. In this relatively new land there continues to be generous opportunities for innovations. Canadian leaders must continue to explore and experiment in this important area even by looking at significant efforts on other continents. It should be recognized that important attempts are well under way in the provinces of British Columbia, Alberta, Ontario, and Quebec. Imperatively, it would seem that no province can afford to be retarded in providing generous opportunities for post-secondary education or to continue to maintain rigid barriers to advanced education for the many who desire or require that opportunity.

Implications for Further Research

The study has suggested that the educational systems of the world offer a vast though relatively unused laboratory for the study of many topics related to educational administration. Such research offers the challenge of language barriers and of field studies on location in distant lands.

The generalizations of exploratory research identify and describe the processes of variables in interaction. Many of these generalizations may offer challenging topics to the research empiricist to devise operational definitions of the variables and measurement techniques to establish precise relationships between independent and dependent variables. For example, the interactions of various interstitial and internal sectors of college government could be subjected to small-group research techniques that have been developed in recent years. Some further topics for research are suggested as follows:

1. The interpersonal relationships of Norway's college board members in decision-making.
2. The interactions of faculty council in formulating internal college controls.
3. The influence of community leaders in establishing college policies in Norway.
4. The roles and achievements of graduates of the folk high schools of Norway.
5. An appraisal of various adult education programs of a non-residential nature in Norway.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

A. BOOKS

- Agger, Robert E. and others. The Rulers and the Ruled. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc. 1964.
- Bakke, E. Wight "Concept of the Social Organization" in Mason Haire (ed.) Modern Organization Theory New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1959.
- Barnard, Chester I. The Functions of the Executive. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1941.
- Blau, Peter M., The Dynamics of Bureaucracy Chicago: The University Press, 1955.
- Blocker, C.E., R.H. Plummer, and R.C. Richardson. The Two-Year College: A Social Synthesis. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1965.
- Brubacher, John S. Bases for Policy in Higher Education. Toronto: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1965.
- Campbell, R., L. Cunningham, and R. McPhee. The Organization and Control of American Schools. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1965.
- Campbell, Roald R. and others. Introduction to Educational Administration. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1962.
- Cartwright, D. and A. Zander (eds.) Group Dynamics: Research and Theory. Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson, 1953.
- Clark, Burton R. The Open Door College: A Case Study. Toronto: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960.
- Connery, Donald S. The Scandinavians. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1966.
- Cooper, William Mansfield and others. Governments and the University. Toronto: The Macmillan Company of Canada Limited, 1966.
- Corson, John J. Governance of Colleges and Universities. Toronto: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960.
- Coser, L.H. The Functions of Social Conflict. Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1956.

- Cramer, John F. and G.S. Browne. Contemporary Education: A Comparative Study of National Systems. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., Inc. 1956.
- Dahl, Robert A. Modern Political Analysis. New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc. 1963.
- Dahl, Robert A. Who Governs? New Have: Yale University Press, 1961.
- Duff, Sir James and Robert O. Berdahl. University Government in Canada. Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1966.
- Easton, David. A Framework for Political Analysis. Toronto: Prentice-Hall of Canada, 1965.
- Engeberg, Paul. De Nordiske Folkehøjskoler. Copenhagen: Nordisk Folkehøjskolerrad, 1963.
- Festinger, Leon and Daniel Katz (eds.) Research Methods in the Behavioral Sciences. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1953.
- Fossgard, Stein. Folkehøgskolen og var Tid. Bergen: Boktrykk L/L, 1965.
- Fostervold, Kaare (ed.) Mot Rikare Mål: Den Norske Folkehøgskulen 1864-1964. Oslo: Noregs Boklag, 1964.
- Gibson, Raymond C. The Challenge of Leadership in Higher Education. Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Co., 1964.
- Grambs, Jean Dresden. Schools, Scholars, and Society. Toronto: Prentice-Hall of Canada, Ltd., 1965.
- Griffiths, Daniel E. Administrative Theory. New York: Appleton-Century Crofts, Inc., 1956.
- Griffiths, Daniel E. "Administration as Decision-Making," Andrew W. Halpin (ed.) Administrative Theory in Education. Chicago: The Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1958.
- Grimley, O.B. The New Norway. Oslo: P.M. Bye & Co., 1937.
- Gross, Neal. Who Runs Our Schools? New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1958.
- Halpin, Andrew W. "The Development of Theory in Educational Administration", Andrew W. Halpin (ed.) Administrative Theory in Education. Chicago: The Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1958.

- Halpin, Andrew W. (ed.) Administrative Theory in Education Chicago: The Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1958.
- Hans, Nicholas. Comparative Education. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul Ltd., 1951.
- Haugen, Einar, Norsk Engelsk Ordbok. Oslo: Grøndahl and Son, 1965.
- Homans, George. The Human Group. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1964.
- Hove, Olav. An Outline of Norwegian Education. Oslo: Å.W. Brøggers Boktrykkeri, 1958.
- Hove, Olav. The System of Education in Norway. Oslo: Ministry of Church and Education, 1966.
- Huus, Helen. The Education of Children and Youth in Norway. Pittsburgh: University Press, 1960.
- Kandel, I.L. Types of Administration. Wellington: New Zealand Council for Educational Research, 1938.
- Kimbrough, Ralph B. Political Power and Decision-Making. Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1964.
- Knezevich, Stephen J. Administration of Public Education. New York: Harper & Row, 1962.
- Koht, Halydan and Sigmund Skard. The Voice of Norway. New York: Columbia University Press, 1944.
- Lambert, William W. and Wallace E. Lambert. Social Psychology. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964.
- Lindzey, Gardner (ed.) Handbook of Social Psychology. London: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1954.
- Litchfield, Edward H. "Notes on a General Theory of Administration" Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol 1, No. 1, June 1956.
- Lonsdale, Richard C. "Maintaining the Organization in Dynamic Equilibrium" in Daniel E. Griffiths (ed.) Behavioral Science and Educational Administration. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1964.
- Lundevall, Elisabeth and Per Hagen (eds.) Facts About Norway. Oslo: Naper Boktrykkeri, 1965.
- Lyche, Ingeborg. Adult Education in Norway. Oslo: Aas and Wall Boktrykkeri, 1964.

- Merton, R.K., M. Fiske, and P.L. Kendall. The Focused Interview. Glencoe: Free Press, 1956.
- Miller, Van and W.B. Spalding. The Public Administration of American Schools. New York: World Book, Co., 1952.
- Moehlman, Arthur H. Comparative Educational Systems. New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1963.
- Nygaard, Kristian (ed.) Fra Amtsskole til Folkehøgskolen i Noreg. Trondheim: Aksjeselskapet Trykk, 1951.
- Parke, Kathryn E. Norway's Folk High Schools. New York: State University of New York, 1963.
- Parsons, Talcott, "Suggestions for a Sociological Approach to the Theory of Organizations," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. I June, 1956.
- Porter, John. The Vertical Mosaic. Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1965.
- Ramseyer, John A. et al., "Factors Affecting Educational Administration: Guideposts for Research and Action." School-Community Development Study Monograph No. 2. Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University Press, 1955.
- Ramseyer, John A. and others. Factors Affecting Educational Administration. Ohio: College of Education, Ohio State University, 1955.
- Reller, Theodore and Edgar L. Morphet. Comparative Educational Administration. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1962.
- Riffel, J. Anthony and Ian E. Housego, "Co-operative Decision Making in Education" in The Canadian Administrator Vol. VII, No. 2, November 1967.
- Rørddam, Thomas. The Danish Folk High Schools. Copenhagen: Det Danske Selskab, 1965.
- School Systems: A Guide to Norway. Strasbourg: Council for Cultural Cooperation, 1965.
- Selltiz, Clare and others. Research Methods in Social Relations. Toronto: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1966.
- Selznick, Philip. Leadership in Administration: A Sociological Interpretation. New York: The MacMillan Co., 1957.

- Shartle, Carroll L. "A Theoretical Framework for the Study of Behavior in Organizations." Administrative Theory in Education Andrew W. Halpin (ed.) Chicago: The Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1958.
- Weber, Max. The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism. Tr. Talcott Parsons. New York: Scribner, 1930.
- Whyte, William F., "An Interaction Approach to the Theory of Organization", in Mason Haire, Modern Organization Theory. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1959.
- Zaleznik, Abraham. "Interpersonal Relations in Organization." James G. March (ed.) Handbook of Organizations. Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1956.

B. SCHOOL PUBLICATIONS

- (Folk High School Catalogs, Yearbooks, Histories, Student Publications, papers, and articles from the schools)
- Baptistenes Folkehøgskole, Stabbek, opplysninger 1967
- Buskerud Folkehøgskole, Darbu, Kursplan 1966
- Bjerkley Folkehøyskole, Arneberg, kursplan 1966
- Bjerkley, Julebog 1967
- Danvik Kristelige Ungdomsskole 50 år festskrift
- Elverum Folkehøgskule 30 år festskrift
- Framnes Ungdomsskule, kursplan 1966
- Framnes Ungdomsskule, 50 år festskrift
- Folkehøjskolen i Norden, 1965 Arbog
- Hallingdal Folkehøgskule, 1966 kursplan
- Høgskulebladet, opplysningsorgan på høgskulegruun
- Nansenskolen Norsk Humanistisk Akademic, 1965 kursplan
- Numedal Folkehøgskule, kursplan 1966
- Nytt frå Nansenskolen nr. 1, 1967
- Referat frå Laerarkurs på Danvik Kr. Folkehøgskole, August 1966

- Ringerike Folkehøgskole, 1876-1956 festskrift
- Ringebu Folkehøgskole frå Gudbrandsdal Fylkesskule, Skuleplan 1966
- Romerike Folkehøgskole, 90 år 1876-1966
- Skogn Folkehøgskule, opplysninger 1966
- Ungdomsskulen--organ for Noreg Ungdomsskuleleararlag
- Viken Kr. Ungdomsskole Folkehøgskole, 1966 skuleplan
- Voss Folkehøgskule, 1966 skuleplan
- Årsmelding fra Laerarkurs pa Danvik Kr. Folkehøgskole, August 1966
- Årsmelding fra 1965-66, Danvik Kr. Ungdomsskole

C. GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS

- Lov om Folkehøgskular 1949. Oslo: Ministry of Church and Education, 1949.
- Reglement For Folkehøgskolane. Oslo: Ministry of Church and Education, 1965.
- Report of the Royal Commission on Education. Edmonton: Queen's Printer, 1959.
- Statistisk Sentralbyra. Statistisk Arbok 1966. Oslo: Grondahl & Sønns Boktrykkeri, 1966.
- Statistisk Sentralbyra. Undervisningsstatistikk 1965-66 Folkehøgskolar. Oslo: Central Bureau of Statistics of Norway, 1966.
- Statutes of Alberta. The Public Junior Colleges Act (Office Consolidation). Edmonton: Queen's Printer for Alberta, 1965.
- Statutes of Alberta. An Act Respecting Provincial Universities Edmonton: Queen's Printer for Alberta, 1966.
- Statutes of Alberta. An Act to Authorize Assistance to the University of Alberta and to Junior Colleges. Edmonton: Queen's Printer for Alberta, 1964 and amendments to 1967.
- Stewart, Andrew. Special Study on Junior Colleges in Alberta. Edmonton: Queen's Printer for Alberta, 1965.

United States Bureau of Education. The Danish Folk High Schools by H.W. Foght, Washington: Government Printing Office, 1914.

United States Bureau of Education. The Danish People's High School by Martin Hegland. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1915.

D. UNPUBLISHED MATERIALS

Brofoss, Erik. "Economic Growth and Problems of Economic Structure in Norway." Oslo: University of Oslo, 1967. (Mimeographed.)

Fossgard, Stein. "The Folk High School in Scandinavia." Oslo: Ministry of Church and Education, 1965. (Mimeographed.)

Funk, Howard V. and Robert T. Livingston, "A Tridimensional View of the Job of Educational Administration." New York: CPEA-MAR, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951. (Mimeographed.)

International Summer School. "General Survey of Norwegian Life and Culture." Oslo: University of Oslo, 1967. (Mimeographed.)

Loken, Gulbrand. "An Analysis of the Junior College in Alberta: Progress, Program and Prospect." (Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1965.)

Matthews, Neville O. "A Study of the Decision-Making Process of Two School Boards in an Alberta Community." (Unpublished Ph. D. thesis, University of Alberta, 1967.)

McInnis, William Raymond. "A Descriptive Survey of the Organization, Functions, and Operations of Collegiate Institute Boards in the Smaller Cities in Saskatchewan." (Unpublished Ph. D. thesis, University of Alberta, 1962.)

Ostergren, David L. "The Folk High Schools of Sweden." (Unpublished Ph. D. thesis, Teachers' College, Columbia University, 1949.)

Post Secondary Conference Materials. Edmonton: University of Alberta, November 28-30, 1966.

Sollie, Finn. "The Political Situation in Norway." Oslo: University of Oslo, 1967. (Mimeographed.)

Southwood, Howard D. "Adult Education in Scandinavia: A Study in Democracy and its Meaning for Continuing Education in the United States, especially as it Pertains to the Community Colleges." (Unpublished Ph. D. thesis, University of Florida, 1956.)

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

INFORMATION ON FIELD TRIP INTERVIEWS

INTERVIEW GUIDE PATTERN

Confidential interviews with supervisory personnel in the Ministry of Education and with selected heads of the folk high schools produced most valuable data. The information gathered in these focused interviews was derived from opinions, perceptions, and feelings of the above two categories of people.

The principal areas of exploration and discussion were:

BACKGROUND. The factors that were and are dominant in the patterns of governance established in the folk high schools.

REASONS FOR BEING. The special influences that led to the establishment, maintain operation, and promote expansion.

AUTHORITY STRUCTURES. The legal provisions pertaining to legislation, operation, adjudication, and administration.

EXTERNAL CONTROLS. The nature, levels, and areas of control by state agencies, regional authorities, and other groups.

INTERNAL CONTROLS. The nature, role, and interactions of the local board, administrative structures, faculty council, and the student body as principal aspects of internal government.

PROBLEM AREAS. The unique features, recent trends, or special problems appearing in the government of the folk high schools. Such consideration was designed to bring out some evaluation of the organization, control, operation, and administration of these colleges in Norway.

With these broad areas in mind, it became the task of the interviewer to ask specific questions as required in the course of the discussion to bring out pertinent data and the special judgments from the interviewee. Whenever possible, the rektors were asked to supply corroborating documents.

SCHEDULE OF VISITS TO FOLK HIGH SCHOOLS IN NORWAY

June, July, and August 1967

Centre	Date	*Folk High School	Founded	Rektor
Stabbek	June 24	Baptist. ungdoms.	1958	Jens L. Oen
Drammen	June 24	Danvik ungdoms.	1913	Arne Lynne
Store Milde	July 14	Fana fhsk.	1915	Kristian Bakke
Voss	July 15	Voss fhsk.	1895	I. Bolstad
Gol	July 16	Hallingdal fhsk.	1959	Olav Akerlie
Elverum	Aug. 5	Elverum fhsk.	1928	Sigmund Moren
Arneberg	Aug. 6	Bjerkely ungdoms.	1918	Erling Melberg
Hamar	Aug. 7	# Sagatun fhsk.	1864	Closed in 1892
Gjøvik	Aug. 7	Viken ungdoms.	1901	Olav Moe
Lillehammer	Aug. 8	Nansenskolen	1939	H. Torfang
Ringebu	Aug. 9	Ringebu fhsk. (f)	1876	B. Hovstad
Rollag	11-12	Numedal fhsk. (f)	1906	Knut Hoff
Darbu	Aug. 13	Buskerud fhsk.	1913	Leiv Bjøstad
Jessheim	Aug. 13	Romerike fhsk. (f)	1876	R. Skogestad
Sakshaug	Aug. 16	Sund fhsk.	1868	A. Haugsand
Verdal	Aug. 16	Bakketun ungdoms.	1915	Magne Bjørkøy
Skogn	Aug. 16	Skogn fhsk.	1914	Sigurd Vik
Nordheimsund	18-19	Framnes ungdoms.	1897	Rolf Onarheim

*fhsk. indicates a folk high school in the traditional sense; (f) marks ownership by the county (fylke); ungdoms. specifies a school owned by a Christian organization.

#site of the first folk high school in Norway.

The Norwegian Folk High Schools

1. Gudbrandsdalens Folkehøgskule Hundorp
¹⁾ Styrrar Aas Stauri, T. Hundorp 1084
2. Gudbrandsdal Fylkeskule Ringsbu
 Styrrar Bernh. Hovstad, T. Ringsbu 2057
3. Nansenskolen
 Norsk Humanistisk Akademi Lillehammer
 Styrrar Halvard Grude Forfang, T. 51062
 T. 50598
4. Ringsaker Folkehøgskule Ringsaker
 Styrrar Faste Forfang, T. Hamar 48542
5. Elverum Folkehøgskule Elverum
 Styrrar Sigmund Moren, T. 1353
6. Vestoppland Folkehøgskule Brandbu
 Styrrar Ola Arne, T. 346
7. Toten Folkehøgskule Iena
 Styrrar Petter Gullbrekken, T. Ø. Toten 80
8. Solbakken folkehøgskule Skarnes
 Styrrar Reidar Garnes, T. Skarnes 1812
9. Romerike folkehøgskole Jessheim
 Styrrar Erling Østerud, T. 1188
10. Ringerike folkehøgskole Hønefoss
 Styrrar Stein Fossgard, T. 597
11. Hallingdal folkehøgskule Gol
 Styrrar Olav Akerlie, T. Gol 251
12. Numedal folkehøgskule Rollag
 Styrrar Knut Hoff, T. Rollag 1
13. Buskerud folkehøgskule Darbu
 Styrrar Jon Fanavoll, T. Darbu 247
14. Landsognsinsjonens folkehøgskole Klemetsrud
 Styrrar Ketil Nordahl
15. Follo folkehøgskole Vestby
 Styrrar Ole H. Vethal, T. 101
16. Bondelagets folkehøgskule Mysen
 Styrrar Jofred Stortrøen, T. 1300
17. Skjebjerg fylkeskule Skjebjerg
 Styrrar Borge Moum, T. 70
18. Skiringssal folkehøgskole Sandefjord
 Styrrar Egill Thoresen, T. 62646
19. Agder folkehøgskule Søgne
 Styrrar Gunnar Lande, T. Kristiansand 34004
20. Jærens folkehøgskule Klepp
 Styrrar f. t. ingen
21. Utgarden folkehøgskule Kopervik
 Styrrar Knut Mykswoll, T. 322
22. Ryfylke folkehøgskule Sand i Ryfylke
 Styrrar Arne Steinbakk, T. 332
23. Sunnhordland folkehøgskule Halsnøy Kloster
 Styrrar Sigurd Sandvik, T. Sebevik 27b
24. Hordalanger folkehøgskule Lofthus
 Styrrar Norvald Dyrvik, T. 8
25. Voss folkehøgskule Voss
 Styrrar Ingvald Bolstad, T. 376
26. Fana folkehøgskule Store Milde
 Styrrar Kristian Bakke, T. Bergen 76603

¹⁾ Styrrar means principal



27. Frekhaug folkehøgskule Frekhaug
 Styrar Knut Garli, T. 6
 28. Manger fylkeskule Manger
 Styrar Øyvind Aknes, T. 107
 29. Sogndal folkehøgskule Sogndal i Soga
 Styrar Olav Eivindson Hognestad, T. 57b
 30. Fjordane folkehøgskule Nordfjordeid
 Styrar Mathias Skrede, T. 173b
 31. Møre folkehøgskule Ørsta
 Styrar Ivar Grunstad, T. 12
 32. Nordmøre folkehøgskule Sunndal
 Styrar Markus Magnar Skogstad, T. Surma 17a
 33. Torshus folkehøgskule Fannrem
 Styrar Dagfinn Forfang, T. 109f
 34. Gauldal folkehøgskule Melhus
 Styrar Olve Flakne, T. 112
 35. Fosna folkehøgskule Rissa
 Styrar Ingaur Roset, T. 29
 36. Skogn folkehøgskule Skogn st.
 Styrar Sigurd Vik, T. 34
 37. Sund folkehøgskule Sakshaug
 Styrar Albert Haugstad, T. Indreøy 218
 38. Namdals folkehøgskule Grong
 Styrar Vermund Benum, T. 17
 39. Vefsn folkehøgskule Halsøy i Vefsn
 Styrar Hilmar Kornmark, T. Mosjøen 115
 40. Vågan folkehøgskule Kabelvåg
 Styrar Karstein Laupstad, T. 7a
 41. Trondarnes folkehøgskule Harstad
 Styrar Asbjørn Eidnes, T. 2346
 42. Senja ungdomsskole Hamnvik
 Styrar Øyvind Hursberg, T. 29
 43. Solhov ungdomsskole Lyngseidet
 Styrar Tormod Valle, T. 2a
 44. Svanvik ungdomsskole Skaidi
 Styrar P. Kjelsberg, T. 11
 45. Bapstienes Folkehøgskole Grammensvn. 406, Stabekk
 Styrar Jens Øien, T. 53 58 53.
- Dei kristlege ungdomsskolane*
45. Den samiske ungdomsskolen Karasjøk
 Styrar Paul Ryan, T. 47a
 46. Øyrun ungdomsskole Havøysund
 Styrar Kåre Tveit, T. 109a
 47. Heimly ungdomsskule Fineses
 Styrar Sverre Mortensen, T. 72
 48. Fredheim ungdomsskule Berg i Helgeland
 Styrar Håldor Sandvin, T. 11a
 49. Bakketun ungdomsskole Verdal
 Styrar Aslak Bjorvatn, T. 120
 50. Fredly ungdomsskole Nidarvoll
 Styrar Peder Jensen, T. Trondheim 3587
 51. Rodde ungdomsskule Klett
 Styrar Asamund Pægetild, T. Trondheim
 46 317
 52. Nordmøre ungdomsskule Torvikbukta
 Styrar Aasmund Eikli, T. 17a

53. Rauma ungdomsskule Molde
 Styrar Johs. O. Bondevik, T. 47
 54. Møre ungdomsskule Borgund
 Styrar Johs. Hagesæter, T. Alestund 7182
 55. Sunnmøre ungdomsskule Ulsteinvik
 Styrar Anfin Sundnes, T. 4
 56. Nordfjord ungdomsskule Vereide
 Styrar Erling Agedal, T. Sandane 1006
 57. Sunnfjord ungdomsskule Forde i Sunnfjord
 Styrar Rikvald Skaheim, T. 87
 58. Sogn ungdomsskule Balestrand
 Styrar Martin Konstad, 13a
 59. Nordhordland ungdomsskule Frekhaug
 Styrar Olav Amidal, T. 17b
 60. Framnes ungdomsskule Norheimsund
 Styrar Olav Tveit, T. 6b
 61. Solborg ungdomsskole Stavanger
 Styrar Karl Eieisen, T. 24735
 62. Trygghheim ungdomsskule Nærbo
 Styrar Johs. Kvalheim, T. 57b
 63. Vest-Agder ungdomsskule Høgemo
 Styrar Tarjei Norberg, T. Krås 41
 64. Sorlandets kr. ungdomsskole Birkealand
 Styrar Hylje Halvorsen, T. Lilleland 728
 65. Risøy ungdomsskule for sjømenn Gjevning
 Styrar Jakob Rørvik, T. Risøy 3334
 66. Sagavoll ungdomsskule Gvarv
 Styrar Fetter Kolberg, T. 155
 67. Grenland ungdomsskule Nysstrand st.
 Styrar Gunnar Eikeland, T. 80a
 68. Frikikens ungdomsskole Stavern
 Styrar Sverre Ferkeisen, T. Larvik 9315
 69. Danvik ungdomsskole Drammen
 Styrar David Munkefjord, T. 856564 eller
 852562
 70. Haugeun ungdomsskole Lisleby st.
 Styrar Jan Iversen, T. Fredrikstad 9342
 71. Bjekesly ungdomsskole Arneberg st.
 Styrar Erling Melberg, T. 1600
 72. Hurdal Verk ungdomsskole Hurdal
 Styrar Asbjørn Mugaas, T. 7148
 73. Viken ungdomsskole Gjøvik
 Styrar Gunnar Nordset, T. 71690
 74. Valdres folkehøgskule Leira st.
 Styrar Nils Asheim, T. 1414

SOURCE: Poul Engeberg, De Nordiske Folkehøgskoler,
 Copenhagen: Nordisk Folkehøgskolerad, 1963, pp.28-31

APPENDIX B
CORRESPONDENCE

AIRMAIL

Oslo, Norway
February 2, 1968

Dear Mr. Loken,

I am rather happy to be able to follow up my first letter so soon.

Mr. Fossgard was well satisfied with your work, and has only some minor corrections and remarks to make--which I enclose in this letter. I have--as you will see--warned the school that you may wish a translation although I am almost convinced that your command of the language is more than adequate for the task.

I hope that the school has been quick in sending you the necessary documents to prove that you have earned your extra credits in B-110.

Yours sincerely,

(signed) Dagfinn Skar*

*Dagfinn Skar is Inspector-General of Experimental Education for the Norwegian Ministry of Education, Oslo, Norway.

DET KONGELEGE
KYRKJE- OG UNDERVISNINGSDEPARTEMENT

253b

TILSYNSMANNEN FOR FOLKEHØGSKOLANE

OSLO DEN October 3,
1968

To whom it may concern.

We have read the part of professor G. Loken's thesis dealing with the administrative aspects of the Folk High Schools in Norway, and find it an exact and thorough work.

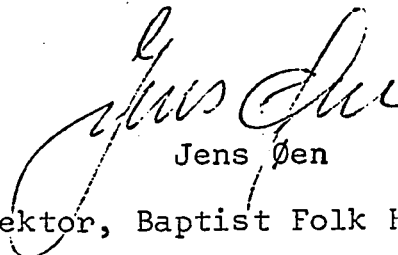
We find the information presented relevant and correct and the comments and evaluations sound.

The presentations in the different chapters are well balanced and well arranged with the view on giving a true picture of the situation in the selected field.

We want also to point out that we consider the diagrams very apt in clarifying problems and facts.



Stein Fossgard
Supervisor of Folk High Schools
Ministry of Church and Education
Oslo - Norway.



Jens Øen
Rektor, Baptist Folk High School.
Director, Information Office of
Folk High Schools.
Stabekk - Norway.

APPENDIX C

THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF NORWAY

THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF NORWAY

The land of Norway presents many problems for those who are charged with the task of providing education for the people. Special problems originate from the physical characteristics and location of this country. Of this Hove writes:

In a country such as Norway, where such a great proportion of the land is covered with mountains, glaciers and forests, where the interior is traversed by a large number of rivers, and where the coast is broken by thousands of deep fjords, the rural population lives on scattered islands, or along the fjords and in the valleys separated by high mountains. Only in the south-eastern part of the country is there a certain density of rural population, whilst in the central and the northern parts there are large areas practically uninhabited. Owing to these natural conditions, there have been and still are many problems connected with the development of educational facilities for the children, as well as for the young people, of the nation.¹

General Principles

The school system in Norway is almost entirely administered and financed by public authorities at three levels: state, regional, and local. Patterns of organization and administration have been determined by the various laws passed by the Norwegian parliament (Storting). There is usually a separate law or act for each of the main types of schools. The Ministry of Church and Education exercises control and supervision in accordance with these school laws. This Ministry is also responsible for specific regulations affecting operation, curriculum, and instruction.

¹ Olav Hove, An Outline of Norwegian Education (Oslo: A.W. Brøggers Boktrykkeri, 1958), p. 13.

In a sketch of the development of Norwegian education,

Hove comments:

The foundation of educational institutions in Norway dates back to the year 1152, when the first cathedral schools were established in Oslo, Bergen, and Trondheim. These schools were attached to the churches of the respective towns, and were intended for the education of officials for the Church and the Government. They were called "learned schools" or "classical schools." From these schools our modern secondary schools have developed. Thus the three above-mentioned cathedral schools, still in existence after 800 years of educational activities, are regarded as the corner stones of Norwegian secondary education of today.

Apart from the establishment of the "learned schools" there was no organized teaching in Norway till some time after the Reformation. The need for elementary education arose among the people as the Bible was made available to everybody. The Church made the first attempts to introduce education in reading for the common people during the first centuries after the Reformation. The introduction of Confirmation in Norway in 1736, however, is the basis of our primary education system. By a royal ordinance of 1739 an endeavor was made to establish a permanent school for each church parish, and to introduce general school attendance. Although these regulations were never repealed, the effect of the measures was very limited on account of the lack of teachers, the scattered population, and the long distances. Another ordinance of 1741, therefore, left it to the parishes and the magistrates to arrange their school affairs according to the opportunities and the local situation. Nevertheless the ordinance of 1739 established basic principles on which all later educational legislation has built. In accordance with the wording and the spirit of the ordinance it has become the right and the duty of the State to take the initiative in the field of education, to make school attendance compulsory for all educable children, and to impose on the municipalities the provision of schools for the children of the community.²

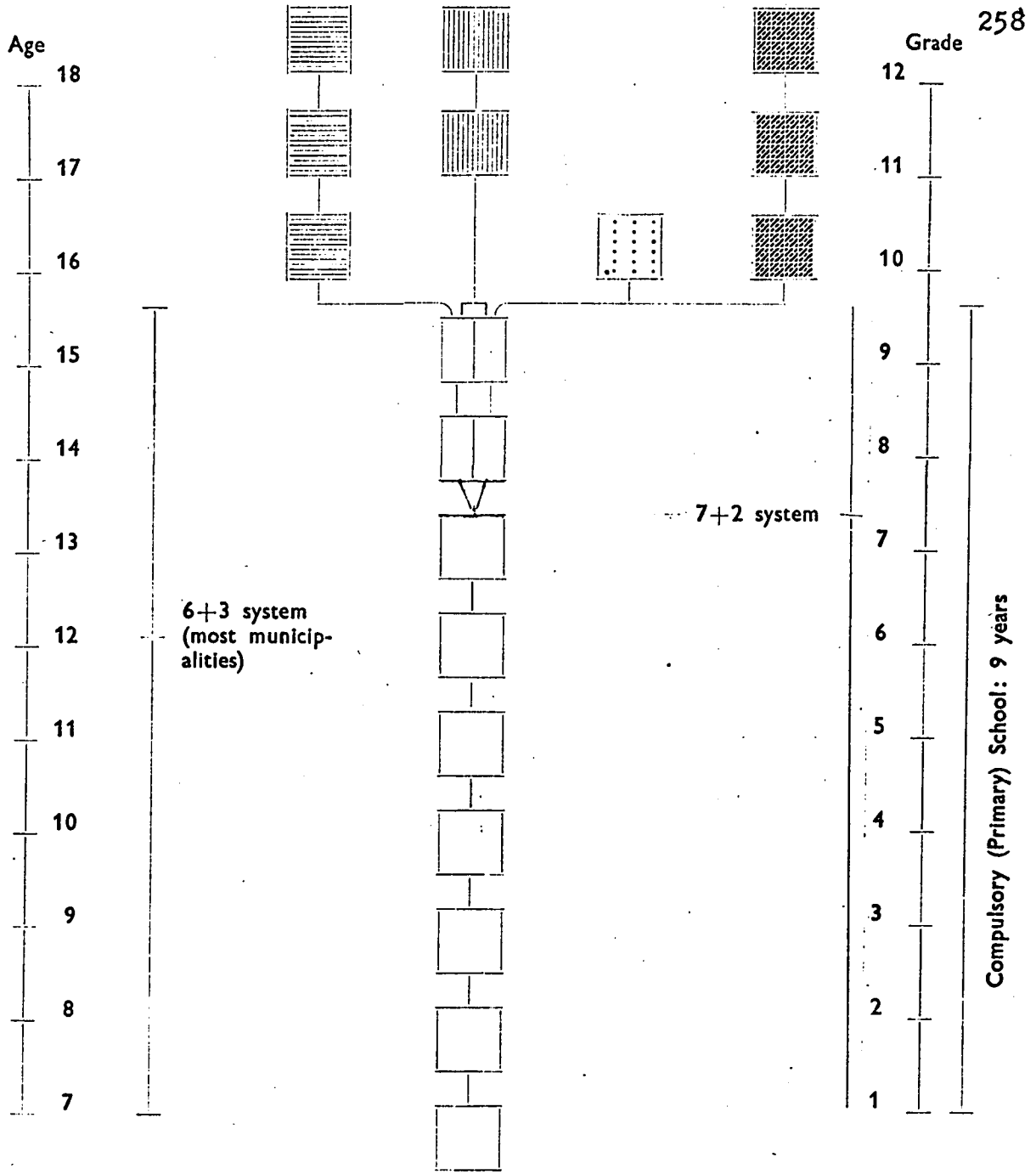
² Olav Hove, op. cit., p. 14.

Formal education in Norway began after Christianity was introduced about the year 1000. The foundations for a program of universal education came with the Lutheran Reformation introduced into the country in 1536.

General Education

By 1975 or earlier, Norway will have completed the transition of extending the compulsory years of schooling from seven to nine years. It was the Law of 1959 Concerning the Primary School which gave local authorities the right to extend the years of compulsory education. The new folkeskolen is divided into the 6-year primary school known as barneskolen, and a 3-year junior high called ungdomsskolen. As an alternative to this 6:3 pattern, some areas have chosen a 7:2 pattern. Grades 8 and 9 provide for a choice of programs as shown in Figure 1.

Under the older plan of seven years of compulsory schooling, the pupil required five years of secondary education in order to meet the entrance requirements of universities and colleges. These five years consisted of two years of a lower stage school (realskolen) followed by three years of a high stage (gymnas). In the new nine year compulsory school program, a minimum of three years of senior high school is required. After compulsory schooling, a pupil might elect to take a year or two at a continuation school offering general education with a practical bias. There are still some 700 of these schools in Norway with their flexible curriculums and the absence of formal exams.









-   Primary School (Grade 8 and 9 have different streams or groups.)
-  Folk High School (1 or 2 years)
-  Gymnasium (Senior Matriculation)
-  Vocational aducation
-  Grade 10 of the primary school (not compulsory)

FIGURE 1

THE SYSTEM OF GENERAL EDUCATION IN NORWAY

based upon the Act of 1959 on Primary Schools

With the gradual introduction of the 9-year school, the continuation school (framshaldsskolen) is going out of existence. Also, the lower stage of the secondary school (realskolen) is being absorbed into the upper stage of the 9-year school known as the ungdomsskolen.

The senior high schools of Norway stress an academic program including foreign languages in preparation for the admission to the universities and the university colleges. This high school program has six branches or lines of study: science and mathematics, English, Latin, natural sciences, Scandinavian studies, and economics. By far the greatest part of the students elect science and mathematics or the English line of studies. However, in recent years interest has been growing in the natural sciences and the economics courses. In 1965, there were 322 secondary matriculation schools in Norway with 5,276 teachers and 106,918 students.

Norway is a leader in the operation of special schools for physically and mentally handicapped persons. The first school for the deaf was established in Trondheim in 1825. A school for the blind followed in 1861, and a school for the retarded was established as early as 1876. All of Norway's 63 special schools are well equipped and staffed by professionally trained people. These schools operate mostly as boarding and residential schools. They are financed completely by funds from the government.

Kindergartens operate independently in some urban centres. Figure 2 provides an overview of general education in Norway compared to English and American systems.

**UNIVERSITY OF OSLO
INTERNATIONAL SUMMER SCHOOL**

Chronological Comparison of the Educational systems of:

England & Wales	Age	Norway	Age	United States	
<p><i>Note: G. C. E. -- General Certificate of Education</i></p> <p>U Post-Graduate study N M. A., M. Sc., Ph. D. (after 2 years, often longer) I B. A., B. Sc. (after 3 or 4 years' study) V Teacher training colleges E R S I T Y</p>	26	U Dr. philos. (age 30-60)	26	<p>U N I and V or E C R O S L I L T E Y G E</p>	
	25	N Cand. philol. (Lib. Arts) } Lektor	25		Pb. D. (possible at 24-25, but not usual)
	24	I Cand. real. (Nat. Sciences) } V Major (Hovedfag) *** E Cand. mag.** = Adjunkt	24		M. A., Post-Graduate study
	23	R 3rd minor (bifag) Inst. of Technology, Schools of Business Admin., Agriculture, etc.	23		M. Sc.
	22	S 2nd minor subject	22		(Under-graduate) B. A., B. Sc.
	21	I T 1st minor subject	21		4th year (senior)
	20	Y Preparatory subjects	20		3rd year (junior)
	19		19		2nd year (sophomore)
	18	S <i>Examen artium*</i> E GYMNAS 5th gym. Commercial gym., C (Eng., Sc., etc. lines) 4th gym. Technical Schools, etc.	18		1st year (freshman)
	17	O 3rd real 3rd gym. 10th opt. I	17		4th year
16	N 2nd real REAL- 9th	16	3rd year		
15	A R 1st real SKOLE 8th	15	2nd year		
14	Y (Old 7th class) E 7th (New 9-year elem. pattern)	14	1st year		
13	pat- 6th " E 6th	13	8th grade		
12	tern) 5th " E 5th	12	7th grade		
11	4th " E 4th	11	6th grade		
10	3rd " E 3rd	10	5th grade		
9	2nd " A 2nd	9	4th grade		
8	1st " Y 1st	8	3rd grade		
7		7	2nd grade		
6		6	1st grade		
5	Compulsory school ages: 7-14 but will be 7-16.	5	Kindergarten		
4	(Pre-school facilities now available for only c. 1/10 of children 3 to 6, but are being steadily increased.)	4	Compulsory school ages: 6 to 16		
3	(Nursery school attended if parents wish)	3	(Nursery schools mainly private)		
5-day week, 40-week average school year. National system described above, excluding independent (private) schools.		6-day week, 38-week school year. National system under Ministry of Church and Education; only 5-6 private schools exist.		5-day week, 40-week average school year. Autonomous systems in each of 50 states.	

* Leaving diploma & qualification for matriculation.
** 3 minors = Cand. mag. *** 2 minors + major = Cand. philol. or cand. real.

FIGURE 2

COMPARISON OF EDUCATIONAL SYSTEMS
(SOURCE: International Summer School, 1967, Oslo.)

Adult Education

General education for adults in Norway is provided by a network of residential folk high schools and a very comprehensive program of adult education. This adult education is prepared to meet many widely differing interests, and provides access to every section of cultural life.

Folk High Schools. The seventy-five folk high schools provide education in first and second year courses for adults and youth who have reached age 17. These courses extend over eight months in the winter, and when offered in the summer short courses over a two month period. These colleges do not offer instruction within a formal framework, but stress personal development. The group in attendance operate as a closely knit residential group. Syllabi vary considerably from school to school and may also include practical subjects. More information on their operation and program has been given in Chapter IV.

The folk high schools of Norway serve as focal centres for adult education in their areas. In fact, the Norwegian word for adult education (folkeoplysning or "popular enlightenment") was closely associated with the folk high school movement from the very beginning.

Adult cultural programs. Adult education in Norway has become very rich and many-sided. The state provides support and guidance for the activities of numerous study groups and diverse voluntary organizations. The Arts and Culture Division of the Ministry of Church and Education provide coordination in bringing cultural values to the

citizenship at large. Numerous consultative councils, advisory bodies, and promotional organizations represent a democratic approach to a very broad and effective program of adult education. Common activities are: public and travelling libraries, correspondence courses, travelling theatre, educational broadcasts and telecasts, singing and musical associations, film organizations, visiting lectures, travelling exhibitions, and a great variety of cultural groups and activities. The oldest active adult education association in Norway was founded in 1859 as a temperance organization, Det Norske Totalavholdsselskap.

During the long winter evenings, study circles are in session all over Norway. These studiegrupper exist in a variety of forms to share and discuss topics of interest. It is estimated that there are over 3000 studiegrupper. They are mostly set up by voluntary organizations and mostly represent small independent study groups in the Scandinavian tradition.

In more recent years, special study circles known as university circles have developed. Here a university teacher is regularly involved in guiding the study. The state gives a grant to cover travelling expenses and an honorarium for the guest leader. There is also a growing international and Nordic cooperative effort in adult education especially in the use of audio-visual media to supplement lectures and discussions.

Technical and Vocational Training

Norway has a wide variety of semi-professional, trade, industrial, technical, and training colleges as shown in the Figure 3 on the next page. The numbers indicate the 1965 schools in operation following the English explanation. These many schools exist to provide specialized training, skilled workmen, industrial technicians, and specialist personnel to meet the manpower needs of the nation. Often the formal training is supplemented by practical or field experience.

The first teacher training college was founded in Norway in 1749. Today there are 17 ordinary and 11 specialized teachers' training colleges. These 28 colleges employed 596 full-time teachers and served 7,787 students in 1965. High school matriculants require a minimum of two years at one of these colleges with others requiring four years of studies before they can teach in the compulsory schools of the country. Teachers in the senior high schools (gymnas) must hold a degree from the university supplemented by courses in pedagogy. They must also write the lektor examination.

Organized courses in commercial subjects date back to 1816. Business education is available in a 3-year course at the handelsgymnasium. Those preparing for advanced business or secretarial work may elect to take a fourth year with more emphasis on practical experience.

Navigation schools were first established in 1845, marine engineers in 1890, and schools for marine stewards in 1893.

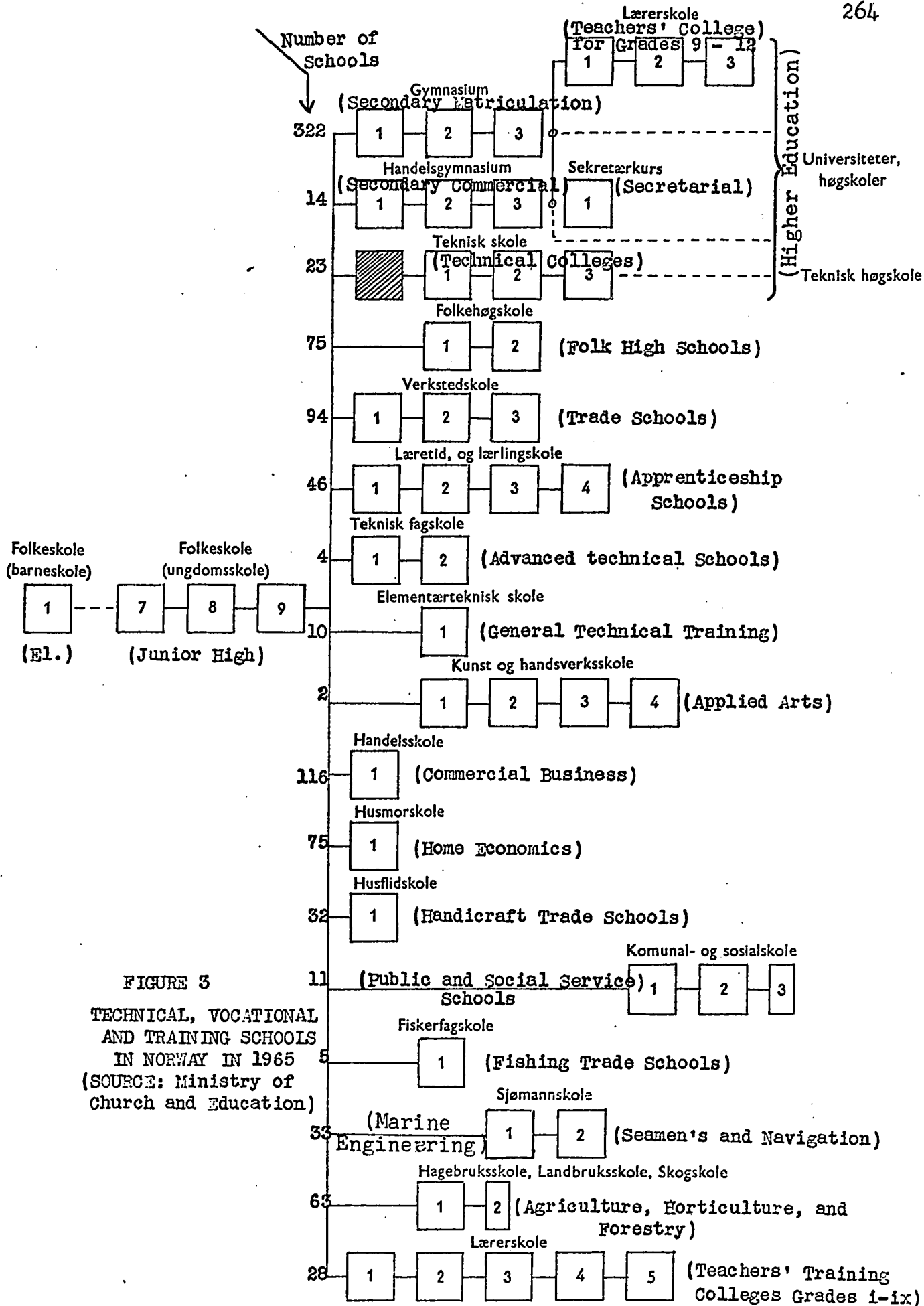


FIGURE 3
TECHNICAL, VOCATIONAL
AND TRAINING SCHOOLS
IN NORWAY IN 1965
 (SOURCE: Ministry of
 Church and Education)

These examples cited from Hove, illustrate the long experience that Norway has had in technical and vocational training. In 1965 there were 662 vocational school of all types involving nearly 5000 teachers, and training 72,816 students. Hove explains the development of many of these schools thus:

A common feature in the development of institutions for further education is clearly observed when the history of Norwegian education is reviewed: as a rule the first schools of different types were founded by private persons who considered that the training in question was needed and who took an interest in providing educational facilities aiming at general or at professional education, or at both. In most branches of education, however, the State gradually contributed to institutions which proved to be sound and valuable to society. As education in this country has been and still is regarded as the responsibility of society, the private schools of the pioneers were replaced by municipal schools or by State schools or by schools established and run jointly by the two authorities. Since the beginning of this century the number of private schools has been constantly decreasing. The remaining private schools of any importance are to be found in the field of commercial education and in the field of adult education, where some folk high schools are still run by private persons or by private organizations. On the whole the Norwegian educational system is to be regarded as a public school system.³

Higher Education

Higher education in Norway does not date back further than 1811 in which year the University of Oslo was founded. This was partly due to the small population of the country for many years following the Bubonic plague which wiped out half of the population in the middle of the fourteenth century, and partly to the Danish control of higher education for many centuries.

³ Ibid, p. 20.

In Norway today there are two universities, one at each of Oslo and Bergen, and five university level colleges in urban centres; in addition, there is the independent self-supporting theological seminary founded in Oslo in 1908. Thus, there are in all eight university type institutions which in 1965 employed some 2000 teachers and served almost 20,000 students. Table I provides a summary of data relative to these institutions which are engaged in both teaching and research. The admission of students to these universities and colleges is normally based on success in examen artium, the matriculation examinations of Norway.

TABLE I
NORWEGIAN UNIVERSITIES AND EQUIVALENT INSTITUTIONS
1965-1966 DATA

University or College	Location & Founding	Number of Teachers	Number of Students
University of Oslo	Oslo 1811	883	11,597
State College of Agric.	Aas 1859	171	375
Independent Seminary	Oslo 1908	12	434
Institute of Technology	Bergen 1910	446	2,641
State College for Teachers	Trondheim 1922	56	1,036
State Veterinary College	Oslo 1935	68	143
State College for Business Administration & Economics	Bergen 1936	67	516
University of Bergen	Bergen 1946	273	2,776
Totals	8	1,976	19,518

Source: Statistisk Arbok 1966, p. 274

In recent years both the universities and other types of higher institutions have shown a marked increase in the number of enrolments. Studies have shown the great need for more student places. Plans are well on the way for the establishment of two more universities. It is proposed that the Institute of Technology and the State College for Teachers which are both located in Trondheim should be merged into a new university. Then, a fourth university is under consideration for Tromsø in northern Norway where basic courses in popular university subjects are already being offered in limited facilities. Construction of these two universities is expected as soon as the Storting has approved the plans and voted the necessary funds.

In 1967 a committee on the organization of higher education recommended the establishment of 12 district colleges for post-secondary education offering both transfer and terminal courses in a variety of fields. The first two years of a basic university program could then be taken at a district college. Currently, there are 28 teacher training colleges which are regarded as specialized district colleges. It is possible that some of these schools could be expanded to offer the more diversified program required in the proposed district college. Others have suggested the possibility of some of the larger folk high schools being expanded to become a part of the district college network.

Basic Comparisons with Alberta. Table II which follows is a comparison of some of the natural and human resources of Norway with those of the Province of Alberta. Both Norway and Alberta achieved special status in 1905--Norway as an autonomous state, and Alberta as a province of Canada.

The table suggests that Alberta has a greater abundance of natural resources, but that Norway has greater human resources at the present time. Then too, Norway in its longer tradition of education has developed a greater variety of educational opportunities for its youth and its adults. As pointed above, the key to the development and proper utilization of the natural resources of a nation is the development of the human resources.

TABLE II

NATURAL AND HUMAN RESOURCES IN ALBERTA AND NORWAY

Area of Comparison:	Alberta	Norway
Total square miles	255,285	125,064
Arable land	43%	3.3%
Productive forest	46%	23%
Freshwater lakes(sq.mi)	6,485	6,003
Hostile terrain	11%	74%
Islands	none	150,000
Coastline in miles	none	17,000
Land borders in miles	2,200	1,607
Total number of farms	69,411	198,300 (small)
Total population	1.5 million	3.7 million
Race	heterogenous Eskimos & Indians	homogenous and Lapps & Finns
Population per sq. mi.	6	30
Rural population	32%	40%
Industrial workers	26%	55%
Service occupations	52%	25%
Cities over 10,000	6	21
Religion	Pluralistic	96% Lutheran

Source: Alberta Bureau of Statistics, Edmonton
Statiskisk Arbok 1966, and Facts About Norway 1966

APPENDIX D

LAWS AND REGULATIONS CONCERNING
THE FOLK HIGH SCHOOLS OF NORWAY

Norway.

Ministry of Church and Education.

LAW
of July 28, 1949
CONCERNING FOLK HIGH SCHOOLS

1. Type and Name of School.

This law concerns county schools, folk high schools and private youth schools which are recognized by the Ministry (see clause 4) as qualifying for state support.

These schools are called folk high schools in this law.

2. Aims.

The folk high schools shall provide further general education for adolescents.

3. Conditions for State Support.

If a folk high school is to obtain state support, the school's site, name, curriculum, and buildings must be approved by the Ministry on the recommendation of the county and the school director.

A newly established school must have at least 30 pupils attending its main course of instruction before it can obtain state support. In the case of older schools state support is discontinued if the school has had an average of less than 25 pupils attending its main course for four years in succession. The Ministry may make exceptions from these conditions in special cases. It also lays down regulations concerning other conditions to be satisfied before schools may obtain state support.

4. Administration and Supervision.

The Ministry of Church and Education is the supervisory authority for the folk high schools.

The County School Board supervises these schools.

The King nominates a superintendent for the folk high schools.

5. School Boards.

The County School Board is the board of governors for schools run by the county.

Other schools are to have a board of four members, three of whom are elected for 4-year periods. The owner of the school selects two members, and the Ministry one member, with personal deputies. The school principal is also a member of the board, with the right to vote on all matters not affecting himself or his position.

6. The Appointment and Termination of Employment of Directors and Teachers.

Principals and teachers are appointed on terminable contract. They are bound to belong to a recognized fund for substitute teachers. The period of notice for principals is six months, and for teachers three months. The first year is to be a trial period, during which the appointee can be given one month's notice.

All appointments shall be publicly advertised in advance.

The board appoints and terminates the employment of principals, and also of teachers and matrons on the recommendation of the principal. Appointments and terminations of employment must be approved by the Ministry.

The principal appoints substitute and temporary teachers for periods of up to three months. The school board, with the customary approval of the Ministry, appoints substitute and temporary teachers for longer periods of time.

7. Qualifications of Principals, Teachers and Matrons.

Principals and teachers in theoretical subjects shall normally have been educated at a teachers' training college, university, or other college.

Teachers in practical subjects must normally have had teachers' training in those subjects. Boarding school matrons must normally have undergone training at the State Teachers' College of Domestic Science or its equivalent.

Principals must normally have administered a youth school for two years, or have been a teacher at such a school for five years.

8. The Principal.

The principal is responsible for the school in accordance with the law and current regulations.

9. The Teachers' Council.

Teachers in full-time posts, the matron, and part-time teachers belong to the teachers' council. The principal is the chairman of this council and summons meetings when he considers it to be advisable, or when one-third of the teachers demand it.

10. The Pupils.

Pupils are to have reached the age of 17 before January 1 of the school year in question. In special cases the school may accept pupils who are up to one year younger.

11. The Pupils' Council.

Each folk high school is to have a pupils' council of at least five members, with deputies. The pupils' council looks after the interests of the pupils and at the same time assists the principal and the teachers in promoting comradeship, order and pleasant relations in the school, and the dignity of its reputation.

12. Length of Instruction.

The main course of instruction is to last at least 24 weeks. Normally the schools shall also hold other courses for a total of at least eight weeks, which may emphasize special practical subjects.

13. Expenditure on Folk High Schools, State Support, etc.

1. The state shall as a rule contribute five-sixths and the county one-sixth of the expenses for the running of schools which are recognized in accordance with clauses 1 and 3. Contributions to the State Pension Fund will be paid by the state. The Ministry may permit the part of the expense borne by the county to be obtained in some other way.

Administrative expenses for which state support is given are as follows:

- a) Teachers' salaries in accordance with scales laid down by the Storting.
- b) Interest on capital for the rental of housing as decided by the Ministry.
- c) Defrayal of maintenance costs, insurance, property tax, etc. for the part of the school used for teaching purposes.
- d) Heating, lighting and cleaning expenses for the part of the school used for teaching purposes.

- e) Payment for the use of furnishings and educational equipment.
 - f) Public lectures, school libraries, newspaper subscriptions and other expenses listed in detail in the regulations.
2. The state grants scholarships to pupils who need them.
 3. The state contributes annually as much to the substitute teachers' fund for the folk high schools as the members pay in annual dues.

14. The Sale and Rental of Schools.

A school which has support from the state in the form of a loan, or security for a loan, or which has received state support for new buildings or for improvements to its property, cannot be sold or rented for purposes other than those of a folk high school without the permission of the Ministry.

15. Textbooks.

Textbooks for the folk high schools must be approved by the Ministry.

16. Expropriation.

The King may decide that land needed by a folk high school for a building site, roads, water and sewage, dwellings for boarders and teachers, and for sports grounds and school gardens, may be expropriated according to its estimated value if the parties cannot reach agreement.

17. Regulations.

The Ministry lays down detailed provisions concerning:

- a) The organization of schools and courses.
- b) The specification of the duties of the board, the principal, teachers, matron, school doctor, and others.
- c) Matters to be discussed by the teachers' and pupils' councils.
- d) Buildings and equipment belonging to schools and boarding departments.
- e) The distribution of scholarships.
- f) The basis for the calculation of state support for main courses and other courses.
- g) The specification of the supervisor's duties.

18. Operation of the Law.

This law comes into force on the day appointed by the King. On the same day the law of June 14, 1918 on the compulsory expropriation of land, etc. for county schools, folk high schools or other youth schools, is rescinded.

NORWAY

MINISTRY OF CHURCH AND EDUCATION

REGULATIONS FOR FOLK HIGH SCHOOLS

as established by the Ministry of Church and Education,
August 2, 1965, in accordance with section 17 of the Law
of July 28, 1949 Concerning Folk High Schools.

OUTLINE OF CONTENTS

- I. Arrangements of schools, etc. Buildings and equipment.
- II. Arrangements of courses.
- III. Arrangements of services.
- IV. Teachers' Council.
- V. Students' Council
- VI. Scholarships for students.
- VII. Regulations for State Support.
- VIII. Miscellaneous Regulations.

5000.8.65.SJS

REGULATIONS FOR THE FOLK HIGH SCHOOLS OF NORWAY

I. ARRANGEMENT OF SCHOOLS ETC. BUILDINGS AND EQUIPMENT

1. In order for a folk high school to be approved, these conditions are set down: (Compare section 3 in the Law)

a. A folk high school shall be fixed in owned or rented facilities. The Department may, in special circumstances, make an exception to the condition that the school shall be thus located.

b. The name of the school must not be so similar to names of other schools that mistakes may occur.

c. The school should not be situated too near another approved folk high school.

d. A folk high school must normally provide student dormitory space.

2. Buildings, furniture, equipment and teaching aids must meet educational standards.

3. New buildings to be considered in the formulas for state support must be approved by the Department before work on the building is begun. Well in advance, plans with estimates of costs must be submitted to the Department. This procedure must be followed in the expansion and renovation of older buildings. When a school changes in ownership, the Department must approve of the purchase price in advance, if this is to be the basis of any calculation for state support. The same holds true for the purchase of additional facilities when state support is being considered. If a school requires rented facilities, the amount of the rent which is to be included in the basis for state support, must be approved in advance by the Department as outlined in section 17, point 4 in the Regulations.

II. ARRANGEMENT OF COURSES

4. The total instruction time in the school year must normally not be less than 33 weeks. The school may have a continuous yearly course of 33 weeks or more. Practical courses must last at least 3 weeks and have at least 10 hours a week in theoretical subjects. The schools may also arrange lecture courses, study courses, and other educational courses of at least 3 days. Plans for such courses must be approved by the Department in advance; likewise visiting lecturers must be approved.

5. The schools may have both first year courses, second year courses, and more advanced courses. The courses which shall be of a general educational character (Section 2 of the Law Concerning Folk High Schools) may be arranged with emphasis on special subjects or combinations of subjects, both theoretical and practical. Such courses must usually have at least 24 hours per week in subjects such as Norwegian, literature; history, sociology, psychology, religion, ethics, philosophy, natural science, and the like. Courses with an emphasis on theoretical subjects usually ought not have over 40 hours per week, and courses with emphasis on practical subjects not usually over 44 hours per week.

6. Students in second year courses or similar advanced courses must have taken at least one first year course in a folk high school, or have corresponding education or prerequisites. Second year courses, similar advanced courses, and shorter or practical or theoretical courses must have at least 22 students 17 years of age before January 1 of the school year. (Compare section 10 of the Law.) The Department may make exceptions to this.

7. At the end of a yearly course every student gets a diploma which shows what courses the student has taken, and what his performance has been during the course. Those students who have finished shorter courses of at least one week may receive a letter stating what the course covered.

III. ARRANGEMENT OF SERVICES

8. The Board shall:

a. Supervise the school, the instruction, and the dormitory, and see to it that the school is operated in accordance with the Law and the Regulations.

b. Appoint and discharge principal, teachers, and preceptress. (See section 6 of the Law.) Reasons for discharges must be given.

c. Give leave of absence to teachers and matron for more than one month, and to the principal for more than a week. If a principal or teacher wish partial salary for a leave of absence, an application must be sent directly to the Department. This also applies for any sick leave over 3 months for all who hold full-time approved positions. Teachers who are paid by the hour, must apply to the Department if they are to receive pay during an illness.

d. Investigate submitted complaints from students,

teachers or principal. If there is a basis for the complaint, the Board shall together with the principal try to correct the situation. If this does not succeed, the Board shall refer the matter to the Department.

e. Keep minutes of every meeting. Normally the meetings of the Board ought to be held at the school.

9. The Principal shall:

a. Administer the school in accordance with the Law and directives. It is his duty to confer with the Board in all important matters.

b. Be the immediate superior for all in the school, and see to it that everyone works conscientiously and in harmony. He is chairman of the teachers' council and leads its meetings.

c. Draw up time schedules, and divide the work among the teachers and others in the school after discussion in the teachers' council. He shall take part in the instruction.

d. Give leave of absence without salary up to one month, provide for advertising of positions, appoint substitutes and temporary teachers up to 3 months and advise the Board about other appointments. Substitutes for principal and teachers of other courses other than the yearly courses must be approved by the Department when such courses last more than 2 weeks. The principal appoints his own substitute when the leave does not last more than one month. (Compare section 10, point e.)

e. Supervise everything that belongs to the school, be responsible for its good condition, and that the property is not damaged.

f. Do the correspondence for the school, and unless other arrangements are made, be responsible for all payments and accounts relative to the state and the county. He is also responsible for the school archives, and sees to it that records and accounts are up to date at all times including school inventory lists.

g. Provide information on questions which the Department requests information, and send in the reports which the Law and directives require. Changes in subjects and timetable must be sent to

the Department within 6 weeks after the year's course has started. The plan of changes in subjects and the timetables shall be accompanied by the plan for the social-pedagogical program.

h. Conform to the laws and directives which are in force concerning retirement age, pension conditions, and sick leave. Furthermore, he must conform to any changes and additions to the Regulations which may be decided upon.

10. The teacher shall:

a. Work in harmony with the purpose of the school, and with the plan and rules laid down for the school.

b. Take part in creating a good relationship of confidence and cooperation among all in the school, and in his work follow the advice and the guidance of the principal.

c. Be a member of the teachers' council.
(Compare section 9 of the Law.)

d. Take part in creating extra-curricular activities and associations (student meetings, program work and the like), and otherwise do his part of this supervision. When the school offers summer courses, the teacher in conference with the principal should take part in this work as necessary.

e. Take over the administration of the school up to one month, if the principal is sick or has leave for other reasons.

f. Assume duties of a teacher who is excused. Assume the work of collecting materials, etc. which by nature belong to his discipline.

h. Conform to the laws and directives which are in force concerning retirement age, pension conditions, and sick leave. Furthermore, he must conform to any changes and additions to the Regulations which may be decided upon.

11. The Matron shall:

a. Assist the principal in everything which concerns the dormitory and preside over the boarding club.

b. Be a member of the teachers' council.

c. Do her utmost to create a homelike atmosphere in the school, and see to it that both the students' rooms, class rooms, and lounges are kept in good order, and that students learn good modes of conduct.

d. Assist the principal in everything concerning the students in the dormitory both with respect to hygiene and working conditions and report to the principal all cases of illness and see to it that physician's instructions concerning care and diet are adhered to.

e. Have regular supervision of dormitory rooms and other rooms used by students such as the sanitary equipment of the school. She shall report whatever is lacking and recommend improvements to the principal.

IV. TEACHERS' COUNCIL

12. Every school shall have a teachers' council. (Compare section 9 of the Law.) The teachers' council shall meet at least once per month.

13. The teachers' council shall discuss:

- a. Proposed changes in subjects and time tables.
- b. Social-pedagogical enterprises and divisions of the work among the teachers.
- c. Changes in school plans and course arrangements.
- d. Rules of order for the school and the dormitory and the daily supervision. (Compare 10, d.)
- e. Purchase of collections. (samlingar.)
- f. Introduction of new text books.
- g. Student reports. (Compare section 7.)
- h. Expulsion of students,
- i. Other matters of interest to the school, the dormitory and the work there.

V. STUDENTS' COUNCIL

14. For yearly courses the students' council shall be elected before the end of the first month. At least three days before the council is to be elected, the principal announces when election is to take place. The principal presides at the election. The vote shall be by ballot. No one may refuse to accept election. If the course includes both boys and girls, both sexes shall be represented on the council. The students' council shall have five members. When the students' council has been elected, substitutes are elected for the members so that girls are elected for girls and boys for boys. The chairman of the students' council shall be elected by a special election. The students' council itself elects a vice-chairman and a secretary. New election of students' council shall be held when half the course is finished.

15. The students' council is free to hold meetings and to discuss matters it wishes. It may also call a general meeting of the student body to discuss a specific announced matter. The students' council chairman leads such meetings. Three-fourths of the student body constitutes a quorum. If a vote is a tie, the chairman casts the deciding vote. Minutes shall be kept of the meetings of the students' council and the student body. The principal may call a meeting of the students' council when he deems it necessary, either together with the teachers' council or alone. He shall hold such meetings at least once per term with each council.

VI. SCHOLARSHIPS FOR STUDENTS

16. The council for scholarships at the school consists of the principal, another member of the teachers' council, and one of the board members. The scholarship committee prepares the list of applicants and submits the list with proposals and remarks to the state loan fund committee which distributes the grants to the schools. When the school knows the amount of the grant available, the principal convenes the scholarship council which then decides the grant available to each student. A student who has received a grant is obligated to finish the course, unless special obstacles occur. If the student withdraws before the end of the course, the grant shall decrease in proportion to the time that he has attended the school.

A student who is expelled under section 13.h., or without satisfactory reason quits before the end of the course, may upon decision of the council of scholarships, lose all of his scholarship. A student who takes less than

half the course, can in no circumstance receive a scholarship. The scholarship ought not as a rule be paid out before the student has settled his account with the school. Otherwise, the rules of payment decided upon by the scholarship committee are in force.

VII. REGULATIONS FOR STATE SUPPORT

17. As a basis for granting state support there shall be sent in every year an accounting as mentioned in section 19 of these regulations. For calculation of grants these rules are maintained:

1. The state grants support for the rent of rooms required for the activities or the dormitory of the school.
2. When the house rent grant is to be decided upon, the Department shall use as a basis the cost of erecting the building or the actual purchase price, and take into account only the actual outlay that the school has made.
3. Where residences of principal, teachers, and janitor are included in school buildings or dormitories, the house rent grant shall be in proportion to the floor area used for actual school purposes. In special cases, other circumstances such as the height of rooms may also be considered.
4. The house rent is calculated on the basis of the approved house rent grant, and the median rate of interest of the mortgages which is applicable to the buildings. If there are no interest-bearing loans against the school, or if the loans are small in proportion to the total cost of the whole school complex, the interest which the Department decides on shall be in force at that time. If the school is conducted in rented quarters, the state gives support for the rent which is paid for such room subject to section 3 of these regulations.
5. a. Compensation for the maintenance of the buildings shall be calculated according to the floor area of the school based on rates which at that time have been approved by the Department. New buildings are usually not included the first year. Schools must produce documents showing how maintenance grants are used.
 - b. The state grants support for such fixed expenses as insurance, property tax, and renovations.

6. a. The state grants support for fuel and power. The school must submit proof of total expenses of heating the plant showing the division between the costs for the school facilities and the dormitory facilities on the other hand.

b. The state grants support for custodial expenses calculated according to approved floor area as in 5.a. with a 25 per cent deduction, and up to a price per square metre as determined by the Department. The total costs must be accounted for.

7. For rent and maintenance of approved school furnishings and the means of instruction, the grant is calculated on the basis of the purchase price and the interest rate which the Department sets. The value of furnishings is adjusted every fifth year when a new list of furnishings is sent in.

8. a. The grant for free lectures, concerts, and rental of films shall be calculated on the basis of a fixed grant for every week of instruction of the yearly course and a total additional grant for the other courses.

b. Upon application, the Department may agree to a national grant for a series of lectures at one or more schools by university teachers or others with special insights into certain topics e.g. literature, sociology, natural science, art, etc.

9. For school libraries the state grants support according to fixed rules.

10. For journals and magazines, the state grants support which is calculated according to a fixed grant for every week of instruction of the yearly course, and a total additional grant for other courses. The students shall have at least one large daily paper for every political party represented in Parliament, and in addition at least four central magazines.

11. The state grants support for janitor help based on a fixed sum for every square metre of approved area as outlined in section 5.a. The grant has an upper and lower limit. The expenditures must be accounted for.

12. For secretarial help, the state grants support according to a fixed sum for each week of instruction of the yearly course. To this is added a total sum for other approved courses.

13. The state grants support for various other expenses such as advertising, office supplies, printing of approved school catalogs, etc. The grant shall be calculated on the basis of a fixed sum for each week of instruction for the yearly course and a total additional sum for other courses.

14. The state grants support for advertising concerning the dormitory, school publications for the students, and materials for instruction in manual subjects (wood, metal, textiles, etc.)

15. The grants under sub-sections 8,9,10,11, 12, and 13 above are determined by the Department. The school's expenses here must be specified in the reports relative to expenditures.

18. The school year is from July 1 to June 30. The fiscal year in the folk high school is the same as the school year.

19. The national auditors audit the books at the end of the school year. A summary of accounts on prescribed forms of income and expenditures is sent by the principal before October 1 to the Department and a carbon copy to the county school board. Accompanying documents must be numbered and ordered. Each entry in the accounting must be accompanied by list of enclosures which shows how the sums in the summary have been arrived at. Enclosures must be specific and it must be clear from each what the outlay is for. When the Department requests it, the school must submit a summary of accounts relative to the management of the dormitory. Information as to the opening day and the final day of all courses and vacations during the school year must accompany the accounting.

VIII. MISCELLANEOUS REGULATIONS

20. When application is made to the Department for approval of principal and teachers, it must be accompanied by a copy of the advertising, list of applicants, the individual applications with enclosures and a copy of the Board's decision concerning the appointment. For the appointee, the reports must show years of service. For a teacher who has taught by the hour and is appointed to full-time position it must be clear how many hours per week he has taught so that the time

of service may be recalculated. For newly appointed teachers, teachers who resign or whose pension contributions are interrupted, the principal must submit reports on prescribed forms as soon as possible to the state pension fund. Two copies of this report must be sent to the Department.

21. If a course is not offered, for example if there are not enough students who have applied, the principal must immediately report to the Department. If there are special reasons for a low enrolment, the Department may dispense with the demand of a minimum number of students.

22. Application for expropriation according to the law of October 23, 1959 concerning expropriation of fixed property must be submitted to the Department. The application must be accompanied by: Information about how large an area the school needs; that the land is not available by amicable agreement testified to by the board and fully reported there-to; a blueprint of the land in question; the name of the owner; farm number and bruk number of the property from which the piece is to be expropriated.

The base lines of the parcel of land ought to be straight, and on the blueprint the corners of the parcel are to be marked with letters.

The owner must have been given the opportunity to voice his opinion concerning the case, and his statement must accompany the application.