

A Survey on Education in Norway

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN NORWAY

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Before examining the question of the training of teachers in Norway it is necessary to point out a few facts which have a bearing on education in Norway in general, and to mention a few questions of geography and population. The area of Norway is greater than that of Great Britain, but the population is only 3 million. 39 per cent. of the population live in towns and suburbs, 11 per cent. in built-up areas in the country districts, whilst no less than 50 per cent. live in absolute country districts. The *average* density of population is not quite ten per square kilometre (as against 195 in Great Britain), and in the country districts the population is often very scattered. These aspects of population create a number of problems for the development of a school system and make it very difficult to provide the country districts with educational possibilities of anything like the standard of those available in the towns.

The compulsory school age lasts from the seventh to the fourteenth year. One of the most important reasons why children are not compelled to go to school until they have reached their seventh year, is that those who live in the country often have a very long way to go to school; 5 kilometres is not an unusual distance and in fact it may often be more.

A notable feature of the Norwegian educational system is that the primary school—"folkeskolen"—lasts for seven years. This covers the entire period of compulsory school attendance and is the *common basic school for all children*. The primary school is a public institution. It is run by the municipality under the supervision of the State and the State meets some of the expenses. There are also a very few private primary schools.

In all the towns the primary school has one form for each age group, that is to say seven forms. In such a case the maximum number of pupils per form is set at thirty. In the country, however, where the number of pupils at each school is often very small, this division into classes cannot be practised. Of the 5,400 schools outside the towns, 824 are not divided. This means that the number of children cannot exceed twelve. 2,226 schools are divided into two forms, and schools also occur divided into 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7 forms, but the last mentioned occur in the country only in built-up areas.

The primary school gives instruction in the following subjects: scripture, Norwegian, history, geography, arithmetic, natural history, needlework, drawing, singing, and physical training. In the two upper forms domestic science and English are voluntary subjects. English is taught in all the town schools, but hitherto only 4 per cent. of pupils in the country schools are taught this.

All secondary education is based on the 7-year primary school. The percentage of pupils who apply for further schooling is large in the towns. In Oslo, which shows the best figures, only 4 per cent. of those who have completed primary school did not apply for some further education. The position in the country districts is, however, greatly inferior.

Secondary education can be divided into two main groups: vocational training schools and schools offering a general education, although there cannot be said to be any sharp distinguishing line between them. There are many different types of *vocational training schools* which offer elementary training for various practical occupations (commercial schools, technical schools, agricultural schools, etc., etc.). There will not be space in this article to review this aspect of education or the training of teachers for schools of this category.

The following schools offer a *general education* :

1.—**Continuation Schools.** These normally run a one-year course, or in some municipalities (for example Oslo) the courses last two years. Municipalities may, if they wish, make continuation schools compulsory for those pupils who do not apply for any other school on leaving the primary school.

2.—**Folk High Schools.** (or Youth Schools). These run courses of 6 months' duration and are intended for young adults in the country districts. Many of these schools are run by voluntary organizations (religious and secular). They give instruction in both theoretical and practical subjects.

3.—**"Realskoler."** Courses at these schools last for three or two years and lead to a public examination. The curriculum is based on a further study of the subjects covered by the primary school and two foreign languages (English and German).

4.—**"Gymnas."** The nearest equivalent to this in Britain is the Grammar school. The course normally lasts for five years, and the first two years coincide with the first two years of the "realskole." The "gymnas" leads to *examen artium*, which is the entrance examination for universities and high schools of university status. The three upper forms in the "gymnas" are divided into sides. Instruction is given to all sides in three modern languages (English, German and French).

Pupils enter the "realskole" or the "gymnas" either on the basis of a leaving examination taken at the primary school or on the basis of an entrance examination.

The present arrangement governing the schools which offer a general education, i.e., that all secondary education is based on a completed seven-year course at a primary school, was introduced by Acts in 1935-36. The question of how a system of education should be built up had been the cause of a controversy which had lasted for more than a generation. The slogan of those in favour of the new system was "*unity*" and they regarded the School Acts of 1935-36 as a victory for this principle and thus for the introduction of democracy to education.

Whilst the principle of unity has thus been practised in the organization of the schools themselves, this system has not been carried out in connection with the *training of teachers*. Teachers for the "realskole" and the "gymnas" are trained at the *universities* in Oslo and Bergen, whilst teachers for the primary schools, the continuation schools and the Folk High Schools are trained at *Teachers' Training Colleges*, of which, at the time of writing, there are eleven. These two types of teacher training are backed by different traditions, and right up to the present generation there has been, as it were, a great gulf between primary school teachers and secondary school teachers. This gulf is now, however, in the process of disappearing, thanks to developments which have been going on during the last thirty years.

Teachers for the "realskole" and "gymnas" are trained either at the humanistic or the scientific faculty at one of the universities. An examination for a teacher's degree at these faculties covers three or four different subjects, a practice which is not found in a good many other countries. The reason for this is primarily that, in Norway, there are a number of small secondary schools in the small towns and country districts. At each of these schools there is only a small number of teachers and each teacher must therefore be qualified to take several subjects.

The teacher's examination at the humanistic faculty comprises three subjects which may be chosen from the following curriculum : Norwegian language and literature, history, geography, English, French, German, Latin, and Greek. On the science side the examination covers three to five of the following subjects : Mathematics, physics, mechanics, geography, astronomy, chemistry, zoology, and botany.

At both faculties it is possible to take a lower or higher degree. In order to take the higher degree, which is in fact taken by the absolute majority of students, the student is required to produce a minor scientific thesis dealing with one of the subjects in the curriculum, and the curriculum itself is somewhat larger. The period of training required to take the lower degree ranges from four to five years, six to seven years being required for the higher. An examination from the State school of physical training may be submitted in place of one of the university subjects ; a similar arrangement has, however, not been introduced for the other practical subjects. Teachers of these subjects (needlework, drawing and singing) are trained at special

schools. They receive a lower wage than university trained teachers and may not take the same title as they do.

It can hardly be disputed that secondary school teachers are well equipped with academical qualifications for the subjects which they are to teach, but the pedagogic side of their training is not of such a high standard. The students receive their pedagogic training at a seminary which lasts for six months and which is taken on completion of their university studies. The "pedagogiske seminar" (University Department of Education) includes practice in actual teaching under the guidance of experienced teachers in the "realskole" or "gymnas" and also lectures in the history and psychology of teaching, method, pedagogic statistics and school hygiene.

For many years criticism has been directed against the training of teachers at the university because there is little connection between subjects taught and the pedagogic side of the courses. This latter has also been in itself insufficient. In recent years certain changes have been introduced which aim to rectify this. On the science side, for example, lectures in the psychology of teaching and pedagogic statistics are now being introduced at an earlier point in the course. No satisfactory solution has yet been found, however, and these problems are receiving constant attention.

The art of teaching, as an independent research, has not, until recently, held a very strong position in Norway. An important step was taken in 1938, when an institute of pedagogics was established at the University of Oslo. This made it possible, for the first time, to take pedagogics as a subject on an equal footing with the other subjects which comprise the teacher's examination at the University. The number of students at this institute has increased rapidly in the short time it has been in existence. An examination in pedagogics from the University is now a necessary qualification for appointment as a teacher in pedagogics at a Teachers' Training College. This qualification also gives access to a number of administrative positions.

For over 100 years now, the training of secondary school teachers has come within the domain of the University, whilst the training of teachers for the primary school has been carried out by the Teachers' Training Colleges which for a long time had no connection with the secondary schools or the University. The first Teachers' Training Colleges—or "seminaries," as they were then called—were established in the 1820's and 1830's. They ran a two-year course and the only entrance qualification required was that the candidates had completed primary school. In 1902 the course was extended to three years, and in 1930 to four years. The present system governing the Teachers' Training Colleges was laid down by an Act of 1938.

Candidates for the four-year Teachers' Training School are selected on the basis of a written and oral entrance examination, which measures their maturity and knowledge of primary school subjects. A candidate must, of course, have completed primary school and is also required to have taken a six months' course at a continuation school or youth school. In recent years, however, there has been an increasing number of applicants who have completed the "realskole." In 1951 they accounted for 47 per cent. of those who were accepted. The minimum age is seventeen years, but the absolute majority of those who are accepted are between eighteen and twenty-five. There is a minority of over twenty-fives.

The four-year Teachers' Training College provides a mixture of general education and specialized training. The following subjects are taught : scripture, Norwegian, English, history, and civics, geography, physics, chemistry, biology, arithmetic, pedagogics, practical teaching, singing and music, drawing, writing, needlework, physical training and gardening. The written subjects are Norwegian, arithmetic and pedagogics. Instruction in the theory of teaching begins in the second year and practical instruction in the third year.

In addition to the four-year Teachers' Training College, which is a direct descendent of the old "seminaries," we have had, since 1930, another form of teachers' training ; a two-year course which is built on the "gymnas" (*examen artium*). This course differs in several ways from the four-year course. Candidates are not required to take any entrance examination, but are accepted chiefly on the basis of their "*artium*" results. Account is also taken of additional education or training which they may already have acquired which can be of value to them as teachers, and also to experience gained by teaching at a primary school. Since the war there has been a great shortage of primary school teachers and it has therefore been easy for holders

of an "artium" certificate to find appointments as locum or temporary teachers in primary schools. "Artium" is normally taken at nineteen but many of those admitted to the two-year Teachers' Training Colleges are older. In 1951 53 per cent. were twenty-one to twenty-four years old, and 28 per cent. were twenty-five or more.

The two-year Teachers' Training College is a specialized school to a far greater degree than the four-year one, because it is assumed that those who have taken "artium" will have acquired a sufficient knowledge of academic and general subjects at the "gymnas." The main subjects are therefore the theory and practice of teaching, very little time being devoted to Norwegian, arithmetic or general knowledge subjects. In addition to pedagogics, most of the time is taken up by practical subjects (singing and music, drawing, needlework and physical training) and scripture, because the "gymnas" does not provide a sufficient foundation in these subjects.

The two-year Teachers' Training College has a separate side for the training of teachers in English. Eight periods a week in both years are devoted to English, and the timetable for the other subjects is reduced accordingly.

All Norwegian Teachers' Training Colleges are State schools, under the central leadership of the Ministry of Ecclesiastical Affairs and Education, through a special council. There is a joint examination board for the final examination and all the colleges work along the same line and have the same curriculum. The result of these factors is that the training of teachers in Norway is far more uniform than is the case in Britain. The very method of study is also different from that found at the usual training colleges in Britain. The method is more reminiscent of normal schooling than of free study, and the curricula have a considerable tendency to limit the individual teacher's freedom of movement. Instruction is given to forms which remain intact for most subjects, the exceptions being needlework and physical training where the men and women work in separate groups, and solo singing and voice production where instruction is given to smaller groups. Every student takes the same subjects and submits the same curriculum for examination. Each student is however required to submit a thesis on some subject chosen from a part of the curriculum and this may perhaps be regarded as the beginnings of freer study and work of a more individual character. In recent years group work has also been used to a certain extent for some subjects, including pedagogics.

The uniformity of teachers' training in Norway is partly due to certain peculiarities of Norwegian schools in general. The form-master system is practised in the primary schools (except in the larger towns where the upper forms are taught by separate teachers for certain subjects, for example English). This means that a Norwegian primary school teacher must be qualified to take any form in any subject. This helps to explain why teachers' training colleges in Norway cannot enjoy the system of voluntary study, but the general lack of freedom which is found throughout the entire system is also due to strong German tradition, still prevailing in Norwegian education and to the fact that the State has always played a predominant part in schools and their administration.

Teachers passing out from the Norwegian Teachers' Training Colleges are on the average well equipped for their work with regard to the subjects they are to teach and have also received a thorough theoretical training in the art of teaching. The weak point, however, as was the case with the University training of teachers, is that there is not sufficient co-ordination between theory and practice.

The practical training at the Teacher's Training College is not normally concentrated into one consecutive period, but takes place one morning per week throughout the school year. Some of the training colleges have their own practice schools but normally the practical training takes place in the ordinary municipal primary schools. The students are required to take their practical training in both types of primary schools, that is to say, those divided into seven forms and those divided into a smaller number. Some of the training colleges arrange a short consecutive practice period at one of the country primary schools. At all events the practical training is led by the teachers at the primary school concerned and they also give lectures on method and give marks for practical ability. The result of this arrangement is that the co-operation between these primary school teachers and the teachers of pedagogics at the training colleges is often very poor. It may often happen that the teaching the students hear and imitate

at the practice school does not link up very well with the theoretical training in pedagogics they receive at the training college.

There are to-day eleven training colleges in activity and they all take both women and men students. The colleges will be found scattered between Kristiansand in the south and Tromsø in the north (which corresponds to the distance from London to Rome). Two of the colleges are in Oslo, five in small towns, and four in the country. At most of the colleges the number of students varies between 130 and 190, the total number being 1,900. Compared with British standards, the buildings, on the whole, are not of a high quality. They are not large enough, often rather old and inadequately equipped, and lack sufficient separate rooms and boarding facilities for the students. An exception is Tromsø, where this year an ultra-modern and very well-equipped building will be taken into service.

Tuition is free. The amounts which are granted for scholarships for the students are very modest, but it is not difficult to raise an interest-free loan.

Most of the colleges run the two-year and the four-year courses. On account of the great shortage of teachers which has prevailed since the war, the number of students admitted to the two-year courses has been greater than that of those admitted to the four-year courses. In addition, two provisional colleges have been established which to some extent can be compared to the emergency training colleges to be found in Britain in the post-war years. At both these two colleges the students begin with one year's training, and then spend one year as a full-time teachers in primary schools to gain experience, and return to the college for their second year of training. Both the students and the teachers seem to be well satisfied with this arrangement, partly because of the very useful alternation involved between theory and practice.

An Act of 1938 requires that teachers of academic subjects at the training colleges must have had a university education. Some of the teachers at the training colleges who had been there before that time had in fact already had such an education. The teachers with a university education receive the same wages as secondary school teachers. Teachers of practical subjects are trained in special schools for needlework, drawing, music and physical training. Hitherto these teachers have not received the same wages as those with a university education. The Association of Training College Teachers are now endeavouring to rectify this weakness, arguing that the practical subjects must be regarded as being just as important as the academic subjects, and that teachers who have the best training available in the country in the practical subjects, should receive the same pay as the university trained teachers.

The introduction of the two-year courses in the training colleges which built on the "gymnas," established a link between the secondary schools and the training colleges, which institutions had previously been independent of one another. The fact that most of the teachers at the training colleges are required to have had a university education has also helped to reduce the distance between the university and the Teachers' Training College. A further factor having the same tendency is the regulation that an examination from a Teachers' Training College may be submitted as a subsidiary subject when taking a teacher's degree at the university. Students who select this combination become qualified to teach both in primary and in secondary schools. All these things have helped to build a bridge over the traditional gulf between the training colleges for the primary schools on the one side and the university, training secondary school teachers, on the other.

Plans are now being considered in several quarters for a new system of training primary school teachers. Here there are two schools of thought. One school asserts that the training of all teachers should be built on the "gymnas" and that the four year training college is now obsolete. They draw attention to the system being used in Great Britain and other countries, and feel that the training college should be a purely professional school; a student should have had a sufficient general education before entering the training college. By founding all training of teachers on the "gymnas," they would make the entire system more unified, in conformity with the "unity education principle."

The other school feels that the four-year training college should be maintained. They assert that this type of college represents a valuable tradition, and that they have a definite function to fulfil with regard to the recruiting of teachers. The four year college draws a large number of its students from thinly populated country districts which lie a long way from the

nearest "gymnas." Those favouring the four-year college regard these students as very valuable material, partly because most of them will have worked for several years in agriculture or other practical subjects before taking up the teaching profession.

At their last national meeting, the Association of Training College Teachers favoured the latter viewpoint, and appointed a committee whose task it was to prepare plans for a new training system on the basis of the following main principles:

1.—The four-year training college should be maintained, but should be based on an examination from the "realskole" (ten years' schooling) or corresponding qualifications, proved by an entrance examination.

2.—The training college which builds on the "gymnas," should be extended from two to three years.

In both types of college the number of compulsory hours should be reduced, and more time and opportunity should be allowed for the student to carry out independent work. In the three-year colleges, general knowledge subjects will assume a more important position than is the case in the present two-year colleges, and a practical training period lasting six consecutive weeks will form part of the course.

Efforts are being made to find better methods of selecting would-be teachers. The weakness of the present system is that book knowledge plays a far too important part in this selection, whilst no attempt is made to find out whether the candidates, purely from a point of view of personality, would make suitable teachers. Work on these important and difficult problems is at the preparatory stage, but part of the solution may be the introduction of interviews on the pattern of those used in Great Britain and other countries.

Although the systems of education and the training of teachers in Norway differ in many ways from those of Great Britain, there are also many points of similarity, as for example social ideals and our understanding of the object of education and the aim of schools in general. Britain is, therefore, one of the countries which Norwegian educationalists choose to visit when they are in search of new ideas to help them in their work, and among these visitors to Britain will be found both students and teachers from Norwegian Teachers' Training Colleges.

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THE LANGUAGE SITUATION IN NORWAY

BY

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The Language Situation in Norway

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OF LATE people in English-speaking countries have shown a new interest in learning Norwegian. However, foreigners are sometimes embarrassed or irritated by the lack of linguistic stability in Norway. First, they see the spoken language split up into a variety of dialects. While they probably perceive this phenomenon in their own country, in Norway it is accentuated by the greater dissimilarities which have developed over a period of time due to the sparse population and the rather poor communications between localities. Second, and more distracting, the written language presents a lesser degree of consistency than Englishmen or Americans are accustomed to in their own literature.

Norway has two official written languages. This fact may be hard to grasp, since the two idioms, *Bokmål* (Book-Language) and *Nynorsk* (Neo-Norwegian), are not greatly dissimilar. It is nothing like, for example, the obvious distinction between English and French in Canada or English and Welsh in Great Britain. On the contrary, they are evidently so closely related that one will not readily find justification for perpetuating both.

Within each of the two written languages the reader will soon be bothered by the great diversity of forms in spelling, grammar and vocabulary. The scholar who has managed diligently to comprehend most of a daily newspaper, may not feel certain that his knowledge will ensure him a full understanding of a modern author of fiction. And if he has worked his way through a post-war novel or drama, he may encounter fresh difficulties in reading the language Henrik Ibsen used.

These problems, of which the Norwegians are fully aware, naturally present greater obstacles to foreign students. Nevertheless, many of the difficulties are more of a theoretical than practical nature and thus should not discourage beginners from continuing once they have started.

This article will give, therefore, a description of the linguistic situation in Norway, and eventually indicate a *modus operandi* to those who intend to learn the language for the purpose of acquiring a better understanding of Norwegian literary culture. In presenting these facts it is necessary to trace the outline of an evolution which had its inception in early history.

Norwegian, like English, is a Germanic language. For this reason there still remain many words that are common to Norwegian and English. For example, *mann* (man), *vi* (we), *for* (for), *å bringe* (to bring), *rik* (rich). Grammar likewise presents striking similarities. This is readily seen in the comparison of adjectives such as *rikere* (richer), *rikast* (richest) in *Bokmål*, and *rikare*, *rikast* in *Nynorsk*. The old sagas relate that Norsemen who came to England during the Anglo-Saxon period were understood when talking their native tongue.

Whereas English belongs to the western branch of the Germanic languages, Norwegian, Swedish and Danish together form the northern. This explains

why the Scandinavian peoples have never had great difficulty in understanding one another. No doubt different dialects appeared early in the development of this northern strain, though little evidence of this will be found in the oldest written literature, the runic inscriptions. But by the close of the Viking Age (which lasted from ca. 800—ca. 1050), when the Latin alphabet was brought to Norway along with Christianity, the dialect divergencies are so distinct that they provide reason for dividing the Norse language into two main groups. These are *East Norse*, embracing Danish and Swedish, and *West Norse*, used in Norway and in her colonies, Iceland and the Faroe Islands. Thus the distribution between *bro* (bridge) and *ko* (cow) of the East Norse and *bru*, *ku* of the West Norse is very old. Somewhat later the old diphthongs were monophthongized in Danish and Swedish, while they are still preserved in the greater part of the Norwegian area. This means that Norwegian dialects and the early manuscripts generally maintain forms such as *stein* (stone) *øy* (island), *lauv* (leaf) in contrast to the Danish and Swedish *sten*, *ø* and *løv*. However, even before 1200 this development was taking place in certain Norwegian dialects too, especially in southeast Norway. Accordingly, the tendency to monophthongize the diphthongs was operative a long time before Norway became politically dependent on neighbouring countries. The effects upon the written language, which in its early period had been dominated by the scribal tradition originating in the archbishopric in Nidaros (Trondheim) and later by the standard emanating from the government office in Bergen, became stronger when the capital with its political and cultural life was established at Oslo about 1300.

In other respects Norwegian and Swedish kept company with one another but not with Danish. The two former have for a longer period retained the so-called "full-vowels" *a* and *o* (or *u*) in unaccented syllables. In Danish they were weakened to a slack *e* as early as the tenth century. Swedish and the Norwegian of the more isolated districts still have such forms as *vara* (to last), *kastar* (throws), *timar* (hours), *visor* or *visur* (ballads), *vidare* (further) and *gam(m)al* (old). The Danish equivalents developed into *vare*, *kaster*, *timer*, *viser*, *videre* and *gammel*. In other Norwegian dialects, principally in the southeast, the same weakening of vowels took place independently of Danish influence before 1200, and grew more usual in the following centuries. This accounts for the increasing simplification of the original multitude of grammatical forms, and subsequently for the breakdown of the old inflectional system. The coalescence in Danish of masculine and feminine nouns into a common gender is also partly due to such phonetic changes. Norwegian, on the other hand, has generally kept up a distinction, however vague, between masculine, feminine and neuter genders.

Some dialects in a comparatively narrow strip of land on the southern coast of Norway exhibit a phonetic development parallel to one of the most characteristic features of modern Danish. This is the transition of the old voiceless consonants *p*, *t*, *k*, into the respective voiced *b*, *d*, *g*, after a long vowel at the end of a word or syllable. Thus words like *tap* (loss), *gate* (street) and *bok* (book) have changed to *tab*, *gade*, and *bog*.

These dialect peculiarities are traceable in the copious Norwegian literature during the three centuries following the acceptance of Christianity. Commercial and cultural relations with England, France and later with Germany, particularly as trade began to be taken over by the Hanseatic League in the 13th century, led to a considerable import of loanwords from these countries. The Latin supremacy of the Middle Ages through the agency of the Catholic church provided a learned style which still prevails in religious and administrative literature.

Commercial and financial dependency on the German merchants is one of the chief causes of the weakening of Norwegian national life. This grew more manifest in the course of the 14th century. In 1319 the male side of the royal family became extinct, and Norway was forced into a political union with Sweden in order to fulfill the requirements of legitimacy. Far more grave were the effects of the Black Death (1349-50) which swept away about one third of the population. It crippled the national economy and directed a devastating blow at all literary activity, since the mortality rate was especially high among members of the clerical profession. It was this group which had been the leading exponents of intellectual life.

In the following decades a certain Swedish influence on the language is discernible. But of far more lasting effect was the Danish influence stemming from the political union of Norway-Denmark in 1380, which lasted until 1814. The literary decay, the state of linguistic dis-integration enhanced by growing Low-German influence, and the lack of a strong national, political and cultural centre which could have had a salutary effect in the direction of a standard written Norwegian, laid the road open for Danish supremacy in this field. During the period of more than 400 years the written Norwegian language was gradually replaced by Danish in public administration, in the church, the schools and the courts of law. All books distributed in Norway after the Lutheran Reformation were written in Danish and printed in Denmark. The impact of this was more keenly felt when laws were passed providing for establishment of elementary schools. Furthermore, the preference of Danes for the higher official positions in Norway, and the necessity that Norwegians who aspired to these offices must complete their education in Copenhagen, served to strengthen the development along the lines indicated. Norway did not establish a university of her own until the beginning of the 19th century. Consequently, for hundreds of years there was official sanction and support for the spread of Danish in Norway. This was in a more natural way facilitated by the fact that the dialects in some of the large cities and most densely populated areas in the southeast were subject to a linguistic evolution parallel to that of Denmark.

The language situation in Norway after the dissolution of the union in 1814 may be stated briefly. Danish was almost exclusively used in official letters, printed books and newspaper articles. Certain scattered native elements were present only in cases where the writers had to express themselves on typically Norwegian subjects. Many authors and grammarians tried to write Danish as perfectly as possible, and to avoid "contaminating"

their works with Norwegian "provincialism" or "vulgarisms." Improvement of the elementary school system gave the Danish idiom greater prestige and rooted it more firmly in the culture. The establishment of local self-government in the thirties spread its official sanction. The spoken language was influenced by the written idiom in the cities and towns and their adjacent districts. The principal theatre of the capital exercised for a long time a very strong Danifying influence. People in the higher academic professions took pride in attempting to speak a pure Danish. But even those who aimed at this seldom attained more than pronouncing written Danish with a Norwegian accent, thus laying the foundation of a "solemn language" distinguished from the local vernacular. In the more remote rural districts the people used their native speech, little influenced by the written norm and less coloured by spoken Danish. They sang ballads and told folk tales which had been maintained by oral tradition through generations, and which had preserved the old traditions of pronunciation, grammar and style.

At the time there were many to whom it became a point of honour to show that the reborn nation had a written language of its own different from the foreign idiom, which reminded them of the centuries of domination. Outstanding authors and poets began using Norwegian words and phrases in their literary production. One of these was *Henrik Wergeland*, (1808-1845), who wrote some minor poems in country dialect, and who tried to employ a clear, easy style in the writings intended for the common people. He prophesied that Norway would have a national language before the end of the 19th century.

The fairy stories and folk tales published in the forties had a decidedly Norwegianizing influence on the style and language of the literature in the middle of the century. A systematic attempt to bring the written language closer to the natural pronunciation and make it conform more nearly to Norwegian morphology and vocabulary was done by the grammarian and philologist *Knud Knudsen* (1812-1895). His works form the scientific and practical basis for later language reforms, and were a valuable contribution to Norwegian literature. The language used by the realistic authors of the last half of the 19th century could no longer be labelled simply Danish. Accordingly, the terms Norwegian-Danish, Dano-Norwegian and *Riksmål* (State-Language) were employed. *Bjørnstjerne Bjørnson* was the first to use the term *Riksmål* in the 1890's.

At the same time there were those who objected strongly to a gradual Norwegianizing of Danish. They cherished the plan of creating a completely new national norm. It was suggested that Norway should return to the written language used before the political unions, or cultivate one of the purest dialects into a national language. In the fifties *Ivar Aasen* (1813-1896) created his *Landsmål* (Country-Language), basing it on the dialects freest from foreign influence and most in accord with the linguistic traditions of the old classical period in Norwegian literature. This is why Aasen's normalized idiom acquired a rather old-fashioned appearance encumbered with a complex system of declensions and conjugations. Furthermore, it ad-

opted three genders, the old full-vowels, diphthongs and voiceless consonants. From the beginning Landsmål excluded many German loan-words, especially those with the prefixes *an-*, *be-*, *for-*, and the suffixes *-else*, *-het*. For example *anmerke* (mark), *betydning* (meaning), *å forblinde* (to blind), *endelse* (ending), *frihet* (freedom), have been replaced by words of more specifically Norwegian or common Germanic origin viz., *merkja*, *meining*, *å blinda*, *ending*, *fridom*. These are words familiar to English readers. The same linguistic purism has been applied by those who wished to Norwegianize Dano-Norwegian. Among them was Knud Knudsen who produced a dictionary of Norwegian substitutes for words of Danish, German and even Romanic origin.

Aasen's program had a twofold purpose. He first wanted to give back to Norway a national language. This is a reflection of the 19th century romantic point of view that nationalism most convincingly manifests itself through an independent language. Secondly, he saw in Landsmål a means to further the growth of social and democratic principles. This would be accomplished through education and the dissemination of knowledge making possible a broader popular participation in political and cultural life. And the educative process would be most effective if presented in an idiom which is the collective exponent of the spoken dialects of the whole country. As early as 1836 he had expressed his purpose in the following words, "We just want a people's language in which every countryman can easily take his part; this desire is warranted by our constitution."

The new language was immediately put to use by Aasen and other eminent writers. Attempts were soon made to have it sanctioned officially. This was accomplished by legislation which, since the last decades of the 19th century, placed Landsmål on an equal level with Riksmål. Since then Norway has had two written languages. In 1929 official action changed the names Landsmål to *Nynorsk* and Riksmål to *Bokmål*.

Today local school-boards decide whether *Nynorsk* or *Bokmål* will be used in their community, but all Norwegian school-children become acquainted with both. In order to pass matriculation examination a writing proficiency in both forms must be proven by the students. Those who hold official positions of any kind must have knowledge of both. Laws and decrees may be published in either language, and the same is the case with public posters and forms. Listeners to the Norwegian radio will hear programs in *Bokmål* and *Nynorsk*. *Nynorsk* has gradually gained a wider usage in the press, literature and scientific publications. Oslo for the past forty years has had a theatre whose aim has been to present dramatic literature in *Nynorsk*. From a geographical point of view *Nynorsk* dominates in rural districts, especially in the west and central regions, while *Bokmål* is used by the majority of urban population and the densely populated districts in southeast Norway.

Bilingualism is not limited to Norway, and it need not imply an absolute handicap. It is known from the experience of other countries that linguistic rivalry may prove a stimulus to literary achievement. There is ample reason for assuming that Norwegians are more occupied with their language than people who do not have such a problem. Those who read Norwegian news-

papers quite regularly will soon be aware that language is one of the topics most widely discussed. In a world where the exchange of ideas is so important it may indeed be a good thing that the people take a great interest in one of the chief means of human communication.

On the other hand, Norwegians are fully aware of the disadvantages of two written languages to a nation of about 3.3 million inhabitants.

First of all, in the schools linguistic drills in the two idioms mean a waste of time and energy that might better be spent on wider reading and a deeper penetration of literature. From an economic point of view it is an unfair expense to the taxpayers that a great part of official publications have to appear in both languages. Perhaps it is not an insignificant thought that bilingualism may in the long run be a force of disunity to the national consciousness of the country.

For these reasons people in Norway would prefer to have one written language. The real problem is to agree on a way to reach the goal.

Theoretically one written language in Norway can be attained in two ways. Either *Bokmål* or *Nynorsk* might be legally constituted the only official language with the proviso that adherents of the other language must be willing to dismiss its partial hegemony. However, with both languages counting many supporters such a course of action would appear unlikely. A second course, and one actually tried during the past fifty years, is to bring about a synthesis by means of spelling reforms. Action by the Storting (Norwegian parliament) on orthographic changes has pointed in the direction of combining the two languages into a single one, *Sammorsk*. This procedure has not been without its critics in certain quarters. Many authors and poets have rashly prophesied a rapid literary decline whenever a change has been made in the linguistic tradition. But in spite of denunciations changes have in the course of time been adopted and accepted, even by authors of sufficient prominence to be awarded the Nobel prize in literature.

Since 1907 Norway has had three language reforms. These have produced a steady Norwegianizing of *Bokmål* and a simplification and modernizing of *Nynorsk*. It was a decisive move towards conformity with Norwegian pronunciation when *Bokmål* in 1907 adopted the voiceless consonants *p*, *t*, *k* instead of *b*, *d*, *g*. Today scarcely anyone deploras the decision, although it was a definite break with the spelling used, for example, by Henrik Ibsen. A further step in the same direction took place in 1917, when *Bokmål* and *Nynorsk* were brought into agreement on certain important points of grammar and spelling. Today most literature and all newspapers are presented in the orthography brought about by the reform of 1938, which in some respects went so far that one has difficulty in deciding which of the two languages is used. In 1951 agreement was reached upon a single way to pronounce numerals, so that now it follows the English system. This means, for example that *førtito* (forty-two) is used instead of the former *to og førti* (two and forty). There can be little doubt that the goal, one written Norwegian language, is in sight.

We have used the term "spelling reform" although it is obvious that many

of the linguistic alterations in both languages do not concern solely orthography, as is the case when the Americans write *labor* for *labour* or *traveled* for *travelled*. Many of the changes in spelling reform, and especially that of 1938, affected radically both pronunciation and morphology.

To Nynorsk it meant the preference of a particular pronunciation, when *fåre* (danger) was removed in favour of *fare*, a Bokmål form deeply rooted in spoken Norwegian. The same process operated when the original forms *trettan* (thirteen) and *fjortan* (fourteen), with full-vowels in the second syllable, were replaced by *tretten* and *fjorten*. Nynorsk formerly distinguished between weak and strong declensions in nouns of feminine gender, which ended respectively in *-a* and *-i* for suffigated articles, and had the indefinite plural ending *-or* and *-er*. For example, *visa* (the ballad), *visor* (ballads), but *skåli* (the saucer), *skåler* (saucers). Since 1938 the ending *-a* and *-er* have been compulsory for all feminine nouns, just as in Bokmål, a change in accord with the spoken language of most of the population.

To Bokmål it was a real change of pronunciation when, for example, a widespread spoken form such as *sprog* (language) was replaced by the common obligatory spelling *språk*, or when the diphthongs were made compulsory in words like *stein* (stone) and *lauv* (leaf), or when *bru* (bridge) and *ku* (cow) were re-introduced in place of *bro* and *ko*. In many of these cases the new forms had been made optional in 1917. A far more radical step toward coalescence with Nynorsk took place when the recent reforms provided for a full system of three grammatical genders by stabilizing the feminine *a*-ending in the definite form of certain nouns like *gata* (the street), *boka* (the book), in contrast to the previous *gaten*, *boken* in which the suffigated article had coincided with the masculine in a common gender. The same *a*-ending was also made obligatory in the definite forms of certain neuter nouns, *dya* (the animals), being an example, and in the imperfect and past participle of some verbs, for example, *lauva* (cut leaf). The radicalising reform could be carried much further by applying the Nynorsk ending to larger groups of Bokmål words.

With regard to this policy of compromise Norway is in a more fortunate position than other bilingual countries. There is no meeting-point between English and French in Canada when, for example, the former uses *twenty* and the latter *vingt*. In Norway the corresponding words *tyve* and *tjuge* have been compromised on *tjue*, a form which is probably secure for the future. In 1917 and in 1938 the committees formulating the rules of spelling could not possibly feel prepared to submit strict rules for full amalgamation of the languages. A multitude of optional forms were submitted, leaving to the writer the choice between "moderate" and "radical" forms depending on his own taste and feeling.

From a linguistic point of view the terms "radical" and "moderate" are rather confusing, and have served partly to becloud the real problem. In effect, the choice, as far as both languages are concerned, is between a traditional literary form and one formed by compromise, yet with a broad base in the spoken dialects. Here lies the spark of a conflict of principles

that will always blaze forth whenever a new reform is promulgated, and which is at present in full flame.

Those who take the "moderate" viewpoint are of the opinion that rapid and radical alterations will lead to a sudden and therefore prejudicial break with the linguistic coherence of a literary culture of the past. They assert that a highly developed written language through long use becomes a fine instrument that can vibrate only in accordance with the shades of style that vary with the manifold subjects handled by the sensitive artist. They see in compromise, which they are inclined to call political and linguistic tampering with language, a threat to the two living idioms which will leave them nothing more than a mechanized and inorganic medley. It is symptomatic that this attitude is held primarily by a group of professional writers. But their views are shared by many others who are vexed because the extreme linguistic changes have to a large extent been put into schoolbooks basic to the preparation of the younger generation for the future unification.

Those who adhere to a more "radical" viewpoint maintain that it is desirable not to have the conflict going on endlessly. They believe that a comparatively rapid amalgamation based on the spoken language of broad strata of the population would enrich the literary output. This has been the case in earlier spelling reforms, which were met originally by the severe criticism and gloomy forebodings of conservative writers but eventually recognized and used by its most bitter opponents. With regard to the purely artistic side of the matter the "radicals" allege that no author or poet need feel obligated to use a regulated orthography. In Norway as well as in other countries a standardized spelling need concern only those who by virtue of their occupation have to write in conformity with an official norm.

It cannot be denied that both views have a reasonable foundation, and this explains why the present Norwegian literature is marked by a variety of spelling. When the new reform measure was passed in 1938, it was anticipated that one common language could be attained soon. Many writers bent over backwards in their radicalism in order to make the transition period as short as possible. The war came and put an end to language strife. After the war the consensus appeared to be that the change had been pushed too rapidly. Today most newspaper articles, periodicals and literary magazines are printed in a moderate orthography. The radical forms appear most frequently in school text-books. Much of the official printed matter likewise is presented in the radical forms, probably because the authorities feel a certain obligation of leadership in the campaign of linguistic amalgamation. Taken together the efforts have on the whole been praiseworthy, though there have been some results of dubious value. They have led to a modernizing of the orthography and the use of an uncomplicated style more readily grasped by larger and larger segments of the population.

As matters stand at present it is not unreasonable to prophesy that even this century will end before Norway has one written language. But progress due to improved communications, radio broadcasting particularly, and the

dissemination of all kinds of literature to larger groups of people may alter this estimate.

It is difficult to say what *Sammorsk* will look like in detail, but the rough outlines are discernible on the basis of agreements already reached in the two languages. In December 1951 the Storting passed a law providing for the establishment of a Language Committee (*Norsk Språknemnd*) to be comprised of members representing both languages and the various professions. It has the mandate to bring the two languages closer together on the basis of the popular dialects. It remains to be seen how fast the committee will find it advisable and possible to implement its mandate.

The project has again met with severe criticism from various quarters, especially from those who resist what they call State "dictatorship" in linguistic and cultural matters. A small group in the Storting expressed the same view. The majority opinion was that establishment of the committee would not lead to such undesirable results. Even now, the majority argued, the schoolbooks are subject to official scrutiny in order to obtain linguistic authorization for either moderate or radical forms. As long as the situation remains in a state of flux the committee will probably act only in an advisory capacity. But even so it has a good chance to bring about the stabilization of one written language in which all Norwegians may feel at home. After that, greater stress can be put on cultivation of the common language to the end that it will serve a high and valuable literary culture. It will then play the same role as similar institutions in France and in Sweden.

To this point the article has surveyed the internal aspect of the linguistic situation in Norway, and indicated how its problems may be solved to the benefit of the Norwegian people. It is, however, a matter of course that foreigners intent on learning the language, will soon have to face some of the prevailing difficulties. It is therefore necessary to suggest a method of study which will eliminate some of the hindrances arising out of the unstable conditions.

First of all, foreigners will be wise to study the language in its more moderate aspects. This will help them establish a closer contact with the classical Norwegian literature in which they may also be interested. They will find it most profitable to begin with articles in the newspapers, primarily the Oslo press. Of great help are essays in periodicals and scientific magazines, literary material in which there is no use of colloquialisms and slovenly language. Authors of fiction are naturally not so bound by strict orthographic rules, and in conversational language they often have to employ dialect and slang. On the other hand, some authors use less of this, and highly recommended are translations of foreign non-fictional literature.

With regard to the spoken idiom the situation is more complex. The historical and social facts that have made it so difficult to recognize one written norm, have made it still harder to agree on a spoken standard, which in other countries is strongly supported by the authority of a traditional literary language. Lack of this authority is most keenly felt in Nynorsk

where the literary tradition is fairly short. Generally speaking the oral language used by the higher intellectual and academic professions is closer to the written idiom, and this is more so in Bokmål than in Nynorsk. Radio broadcasts are of help to those who want to hear Norwegian spoken. Good linguaphone courses are also obtainable. It will be noted that the Norwegian grammar is simpler than that of many other languages, and it appears that foreign students can master it quite rapidly. Both in England and the United States good manuals and text-books are available, which can provide the student with a solid foundation in spoken and written Norwegian.

THE NORSEMAN

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N O R W A Y

TDVİSAM
Kütüphanesi Arşivi
No 08-128/3

Total population: 3.277.200	schooling (mentally defective)
Total area: 324.000 sq. km.	National income estimate: (1951)
Population density: 10 per sq. km.	15.504.000.000 Kroner
Population, between compulsory school age limits (7-14 years of age): 1951: 338.232	Public expenditure on education: (1951) 402.600.000 Kroner
Total enrolment, between compulsory school age limits: 1951-52: 337.198	Pupil/teacher ratio:
Illiteracy rate: There is no illiteracy in Norway except the very small percentage of the population which is not fit for	1938-1939: 28.95
	1950-1951: 25.12
	Cost per pupil in primary schools:
	1950-1951: Norwegian kroner 720.-
	Teachers in training/teachers ratio:
	1938-1939: 4.45
	1950-1951: 14.36

(For definitions cp. page 24.)

Legal basis.

There are no special references to education in the Norwegian Constitution of 1814.

Main laws now (1952) in force:

- 1935 Act on Secondary Schools.
- 1936 Act on Primary Schools in the country areas.
- 1936 Act on Primary Schools in towns.
- 1938 Act on Teachers' Training.
- 1940 Act on Vocational Schools.
- 1946 Act on Continuation Schools.
- 1948 Act on Correspondence Schools.
- 1949 Act on Folk High Schools.
- 1950 Act on Apprenticeship Training.
- 1951 Act on Special Schools for Handicapped and Mentally Deficient Children.

Provisions for compulsory schooling are laid down in the above-mentioned acts on primary education.

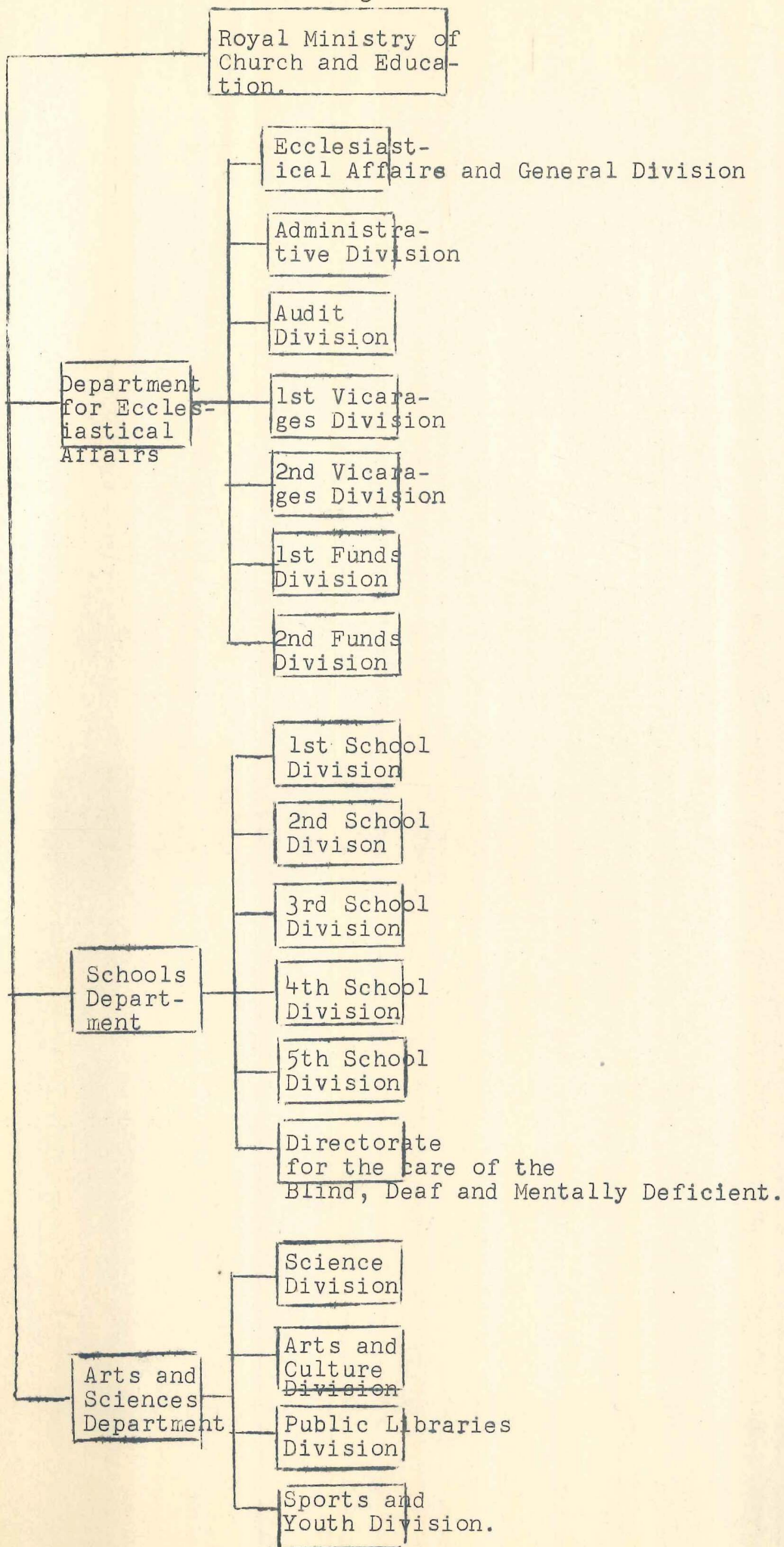
Administration.

The Ministry of Church and Education, with few exceptions, controls the whole educational system of the kingdom. While the Ministry deals with all questions of finance, appointment and administration, matters of a pedagogical nature are entrusted to councils:

- State Council of Secondary Education (Undervisningsrådet).
- State Council of Teachers' Training (Lærerskolerådet).
- State Council of Vocational and Technical Education (Yrkesopplæringsrådet).
- Council for Secondary Commercial Schools (Undervisningsnemnda for handelsgymnasene).
- Committee for Commercial Schools (Eksamenskommissjonen for handelsskolene).
- State Council for Correspondence Schools (Brevskolerådet).

Members of the councils are appointed by Royal nomination for five years at a time; they retain their normal positions in the educational system, make visits of inspection to schools and meet periodically in conference. In this way each council keeps in close touch with the conditions and needs of the schools in every part of the country, and has complete freedom to make recommendations to the Ministry, with which the final decision in all fundamental questions always lies.

The Ministry comprises the departments and divisions shown in the organisational chart of the Norwegian Ministry of Church and Education:



1st School Division.

Advisory councils: State Council of Vocational and Technical Education, Council for Secondary Commercial Schools, Committee for Commercial Schools, State Council for Correspondence Schools.

Supervision and administration of the vocational and technical school system, commercial schools and correspondence schools. (Act on Vocational Schools, Act on Apprenticeship Training, Act on Correspondence Schools.)

2nd School Division.

Advisory council: State Council of Secondary Education. Affairs relating to the training of teachers for secondary schools. Supervision and administration of the secondary school system (real-skoler and gymnas). (Act on Secondary Schools.)

3rd School Division.

Supervision and administration of the primary school system and the continuation schools. (Act on Primary Schools in the country areas. Act on the Primary Schools in towns. Act on Continuation Schools.)

4th School Division.

Accounting office for State funds to the primary and continuation schools.

5th School Division.

Advisory council: State Council of Teachers' Training. Supervision and administration of the teachers' training colleges, the folk high schools, the State School for Physical Education (Statens gymnastikskole), the State Teachers' Training College for Art and Manual Crafts (Statens slöyd- og tegnelærerskole). (Act on Teachers' Training, Act on Folk High Schools.)

6th School Division.

(Directorate for the Special Schools.)

Supervision and administration of all types of special schools. (Act on Special Schools for Handicapped and Mentally Deficient Children.)

The Director General of Education is recruited on a competitive basis from non-official professional ranks and is thus able to provide professional leadership to the whole school system.

Educational administration in Norway is considerably decentralized. For secondary schools the headmaster (rektor) has great freedom of action; as a rule he is assisted by a council of governors (representing the municipality, the State and the teachers) which supervises financial matters, school plant and makes recommendations for appointments. The primary school system is controlled by the Ministry through directors who supervise and inspect the schools of a given diocese. The director reports on primary continuation, young people's schools and teacher training colleges. He also acts as adviser to the County School Council, an elected body responsible for preparing the county budget in respect of education and for other general matters affecting the county as a whole. At the municipal level the local school council (comprising representatives of the Church, the local council and the teachers) exercises the most direct supervision of primary, continuation and special schools; The council is responsible for curricula, timetables and budget proposals. Finally, each school has a management committee for promoting good home-school relations.

Finance.

With the exception of the few private schools, Norway's schools are maintained by public funds, the expense being divided between the central, provincial and local authorities. The municipality bears the cost of premises and equipment, whilst the State contributes to the salaries of teachers according to a prescribed rate. State subventions to local authorities are designed to equalize opportunities, so that grants are also made for buildings, free school supplies and dental service, at a varying rate according to the municipalities' resources.

ORGANIZATION.

Pre-school education.

Nursery schools, being regarded as part of the family and child welfare, are at present under the supervision of the Ministry of Social Affairs.

Primary education.

The primary course lasts seven years. Urban primary schools have seven classes, and all teaching takes place in the forenoon. For rural areas the scattered population makes for certain adaptations: a number of schools are undivided, or allow pupils to attend on alternate days. There is a trend towards consolidation, however, with pupils transported by boat and car to central schools. The primary curriculum includes Christian knowledge, Norwegian, arithmetic, writing, singing, local knowledge, drawing, physical training, carpentry, sewing, history, geography, domestic science and gardening. English may be taught in the two top classes.

Primary education is free.

Secondary education.

Each municipality is entitled to adopt an eighth compulsory school year, arranged as a continuation school (framhaldsskolen). The Act regulating these schools was passed in 1946, but there is no statutory obligation on local authorities to set up continuation schools. At present the course is organized along two lines - one providing general education and the other more directly technical.

At this point mention should be made also of the various types of youth school. These are described more fully under the heading "Adult Education" below, in due regard to the interpretation usually given by foreign educators to the folk high schools and other types. However, these schools provide a post-primary education to young people, largely but not exclusively in rural areas; the schools receive State aid, and although informal they have a definite place in the organized school system, since the course may qualify students to enter a secondary school or teacher-training institution of more formal type.

The secondary schools proper are termed "higher education" (högre almenkskoler). The Act of 1935 established two types of school: the realskole or secondary school and the gymnasium. The former gives a more advanced general education which serves both as a basis for further specialized training and as a preparation for intermediate posts in the public service and private

concerns. Generally the realskole provides a three-year course based on the primary school with instruction in two foreign languages (English and German). The final class is varied in different parts of the country to suit local needs. Apart from the usual type, a number of other realskoler exist: three-year winter schools for rural areas where the students have to work during the summer; two-year country schools for gifted pupils who are recruited by competitive entrance examination from the whole county.

In an urban three-year realskole combined with a gymnasium (see below) the two first years are the same for all the students, including those who are not going to take the matriculation examination (examen artium). For those who are not working for an examen artium degree, there is a third year, with a more practical type of advanced general education and an examination of a lower grade called "realskoleeksamen". The students who pass this examination are awarded a certificate.

On the final testimonial the subjects appear in two categories, "written" and "oral". As far as the written subjects are concerned, there is a countrywide written examination in the latter half of May. This examination is given under the supervision of the State Council of Secondary Education. It is the same for all schools and the papers are graded by committees of teachers.

The so-called "oral" subjects include all the subjects offered except physical training, and the grades on the testimonial are usually those given by the respective teachers in the courses. They are called "oral" because they are theoretically subject to oral examinations at the end of the course. For practical reasons no student is ever so examined in more than one subject unless he has not gone to a regular realskole (a realskole with examination rights). Students, who have not gone to a regular realskole, are called "privatister", and have to take examinations in all subjects. (Ca. 24% of the students who were tested at the 1952 examination were "privatister".)

The gymnasium provides a secondary education in preparation for further studies. The course lasts five years when it is based on the primary school with instruction in English. A six-year course might be offered to pupils in rural areas. Some four-

year gymnasiums in the rural areas are based on the continuation school. For practical and financial reasons the first two classes of the realskole and gymnasium are similarly organized; thereafter the gymnasium students have the choice of the following sequences: science, modern language sequence, Latin, natural science and Norse.

The science sequence and the modern language sequence hold the greater part of students in the gymnasium. According to a statistic for 1948/49 the modern language sequence had 46% of the total number of students graduating in the spring 1949, the science sequence about 45.7%.

The weekly schedule for the science sequence and the modern language sequence:

Subjects	Science sequence				Modern lang. sequence			
	3.yr.	4.yr.	5.yr.	Total	3.yr.	4.yr.	5.yr.	Total
Religion	1	1	1	3	1	1	1	3
Norwegian	5	5	6	16	5	5	6	16
German	3	-	-	3	4	4	-	8
English	4	4	-	8	5	7	8	20
French	4	4	4	12	4	6	7	17
History	2	3	5	10	2	3	5	10
Geography	3	-	1	4	3	-	-	3
Biology	-	2	-	2	-	-	4	4
Chemistry + physiology	4	-	-	4	4	-	-	4
Physics	-	6	6	12	-	-	-	-
Mathematics	6	5	7	18	4	5	-	9
Descriptive geometry	-	1	1	2	-	-	-	-
Physical training	3	4	4	11	3	4	4	11
Singing	1	1	1	3	1	1	1	3
Totals	36	36	36	108	36	36	36	108

The final examination at the gymnasium is called examen artium. This examination is also given under the supervision of the State Council of Secondary Education. As is the case with the realskoleeksamen, the subjects are divided into "written" and "oral" on the final testimonial issued to the student upon passing the examination. In general the written exam-

ination grades are given more weight than the oral grades.

Students who are graduating from an ordinary gymnasium (a gymnasium with examination rights) are examined in just one oral subject, while students from gymnasiums without such rights have to take examinations in all subjects. (At the 1950 examination about 21% of the students tested were "privatister".)

The certificate issued upon completion of the examen artium entitles the student to enrol at the universities and colleges for further studies.

Vocational education.

Close collaboration between the public authorities and private enterprises has ensured for Norway a comprehensive system of vocational education.

The 1940 Act on technical schools for crafts and industries provides a unified pattern for schools of this group so that a bright pupil may work his or her way up to the higher levels of training. The technical schools are designed to give practical instruction and theoretical knowledge as a supplement to the training that is obtained at the place of employment. They fall into the following categories:

1. Schools providing training prior to the period of apprenticeship. Workshop schools. (Verkstedskoler.)
2. Schools providing training during the period of apprenticeship. Apprenticeship schools. (Lærlingskoler.)
3. Schools providing training after the period of apprenticeship. Elementary technical schools. (Elementærtekniske skoler.)
4. Technical occupational schools. (Tekniske fagskoler.)
5. Technical schools. (Tekniske skoler.)

In the above-mentioned act of 1940 provisions are made to enable the students to proceed through the vocational and technical school system, step by step, to the highest technical education given on the university level. On the top of the two-year technical school there is planned an additional course of one year leading to a matriculation examination which entitles the students to enrol at the Norwegian Technical University. Owing to the World War II and the reconstruction this course is not yet established, but the plan will be effectuated within a short time.

The ordinary workshop school as a rule offers a course of training of one year's duration. If the training is given for one full school year, the trainees also receive theoretical tuition corresponding to that of the three-year apprenticeship school (see below). The standard plan for the training given in the workshop schools is worked out by the State Council of Vocational and Technical Education and approved by the Ministry.

The apprenticeship schools are intended for industrial trainees who enter a paid occupation after the completion of the elementary or the continuation school. Simultaneously with their becoming apprenticed trainees shall be entered into the apprenticeship school. Normally the apprenticeship school is of three years' duration, but there are also schools which, with their supplementary courses, last four years. The subjects taught comprise Norwegian and correspondence, drawing, mathematics and surveying, science, occupational economics and occupational science and drawing.

The tuition is ordinarily given after working hours. Pursuant to the act of 1940 on vocational schools the sum of working and training hours is not to exceed 48 hours per week. The act also comprises provisions for payment of the trainees' expenses incurred in the school attendance, notification of apprenticeship contracts etc. Further details about apprenticeship training are laid down in the Act of 1950 on Apprenticeship Training, cp. the chapter on Legal basis.

The object of the elementary technical schools is to give general education and elementary technical training to workers and employees in industrial works. These schools are specially intended for trainees employed in production and wishing to acquire technical knowledge of a somewhat more comprehensive character than that afforded by the apprenticeship school. On the whole, however, the elementary technical schools teach the same subjects as the apprenticeship schools, but the trainees attain a more advanced knowledge, because in most cases they are older, and lessons given during the day prove more effective. The age of admittance to the elementary technical schools is 17.

The technical occupational schools are not an ordinary part of the vocational training programme. They are practical-theoretical schools established for the purpose of giving the edu-

cation required for various positions in works and industrial plants. Thus they train their students for further positions as foremen, works managers, designers and similar qualified positions.

The courses at the technical occupational schools have a duration of two years. They are day schools and the practical and theoretical education is given in the approximate proportion of 50% each. The age of admittance to the technical occupational schools is 16. Students, applying for admittance on the basis of a primary school certificate, have to take and pass an entrance examination test. Students, having completed realskoleeksamen, are exempted from this test.

The 1940 Act provides for a one year additional course on the top of the two-year course at the technical occupational schools. This supplementary course is intended to give further instruction either in general subjects or in technical subjects or in both of them, according to needs. The immediate aims are to qualify the students for technical schools.

The elementary technical schools and the technical occupational schools are intended to supply industry with labour technically trained to a certain standard of skill.

The objectives of the technical schools are to give the students technical and general education. These schools are purely theoretical schools intended for students wanting to obtain technical education in order to qualify for responsible and leading technical positions as works managers, master builders, contractors, designers, technical assistants in state and municipal administration and other positions where no university education is required.

The ordinary courses at the technical schools last two years. Students applying for admittance to the technical schools have to have reached the age of 17. At least they must have two years of apprenticeship training in the field in which they want to specialize at the school. In advance this training has to be approved by the school concerned according to the regulations set by the Ministry. Before admittance the student, who applies on the basis of a primary school certificate and the above-mentioned practical training may attend a preparatory course of half a year's duration. If the results of the tests given at the end of this course are positive, the student will be admitted. Students with

realskoleeksamen and students having passed the examination of a third year course at the technical occupational schools mentioned above, are exempted from any entrance examination test of the type given at the end of the preparatory course.

The subjects taught in the technical schools are: Norwegian and correspondence, foreign languages, commercial subjects, citizenship, descriptive geometry, drawing, mathematics, mechanics, physics, chemistry, construction of various types, land-measuring, applied mechanics (engineering), electro-technics, mechanical and chemical technology, business and industry economics and physical education. Not all of these subjects are offered in the same course, as the courses are divided into branches (sequences) specially adapted to train the students for different services upon graduation.

As mentioned above there is planned for an additional third school year on the top of the technical school. The examination to be passed at the end of such a course will qualify for the same degree of competence as the matriculation examination as far as the entrance to the Norwegian Technical University is concerned.

Besides the vocational and technical schools Norway has a number of other schools and institutes which furnish vocational and technical training in shorter or longer courses. Some of them are institutions which offer in-service training for craftsmen and workers. Along with the training courses such an institution as the State Technological Institute carries out research work.

Mention should also be made of the State School for Arts and Crafts which, in a way, as far as some courses are concerned, ranks as a college. The courses at this school differ widely in scope and duration, some of them lasting as much as 4 - 5 years. The list of courses comprises for instance ornament drawing, finer metal work, textile, woodcraft, ceramics and graphics, applied arts etc.

The State School for Teachers of Arts and Crafts (Women) offer education in sewing, applied arts and training of needlework teachers for primary and secondary schools.

There are also established schools for foremen in-

tended to train skilled supervisors in the iron and metal industry, in the mines and woods and in other occupations.

The vocational and technical school system of Norway has developed rapidly after the World War II. On the part of the Government steps have been taken to expedite the development of this vital part of the nation's educational programme.

Supervision of the technical school system is entrusted to the State Council of Vocational and Technical Education. Some of the schools are maintained by the State, with contributions from the municipality or county; others are municipal schools, with the State contributing up to one-half of the running expenses; still others are set up by private industries, and they receive a State grant when they have been approved by the Ministry. Each technical school has its own council in which over half the members represent the practical trades concerned both as employers and workers.

Schools for other occupations.

A great variety of other types of schools provide for education for other occupations. These schools are not covered by the Act of 1940. In some cases schools of this type are not regulated by law, but their origin is based on laws or regulations pertaining to certain occupations. This applies for instance to the commercial schools of which there are two categories: elementary commercial schools (handelsskoler) and secondary commercial schools (handelsgymnas).

The elementary commercial schools provide for technical business training. These schools are either day schools or evening schools, or combined. There is no entrance examination involved in the admittance, and students are admitted either on the basis of a primary school certificate or on the basis of additional general education such as continuation school or the realskole.

The elementary commercial schools offer two main types of courses: a six months' course and a one-year course, both of which are day courses. The same courses might be transformed into evening courses of one year or two years respectively. The curriculum, comprising a certain minimum of subjects, somewhat different for the two above-mentioned courses, is set by regulations. In addition to the compulsory commercial subjects, the schools offer

rather a wide variety of optional subjects, such as foreign languages, geography, history of commerce, political economy, etc.

The majority of elementary commercial schools are private, but some of them are run by the municipalities.

The leaving certificate examination is supervised by the Committee for Commercial Schools, appointed by the Ministry. Students, holding certificates from the courses mentioned above, are entitled to a tradesman's licence.

The secondary commercial schools are intended to give a somewhat higher commercial education together with general education on a secondary school level. The proportion of the two areas is about 50% each.

The secondary commercial schools are day schools with three years of study. Admittance is confined to students who have two years of general education in the realskole or in the gymnasium, or students with realskoleeksamen. Thus, there is no continuous upward line between the elementary commercial schools and the secondary commercial schools.

The programme offered in the secondary commercial schools comprises the following subjects: Norwegian, English, French, German, history, geography, mathematics and business accounting, natural science, business law, political economy, bookkeeping, the organization and technique of commerce, industrial economy, typing and physical education. In addition to the above listed compulsory subjects Spanish and shorthand are rendered optional to the students.

The leaving examination at these schools, if passed, entitles the students to enter the State College of Business Administration and Economics, or to take up the study of political economy at the universities.

Apart from the ordinary three-year course the commercial secondary schools offer two courses based on the matriculation examination (examen artium), a secretarial course and a general commercial course. These two courses are day courses of one year's duration.

All the examinations at the secondary commercial schools are supervised by the Council for Secondary Commercial Schools, appointed by Royal nomination. Students holding certificates from the courses outlined above, are entitled to a tradesman's licence.

The secondary commercial schools are maintained by municipalities without any State subsidy.

For other occupations there are provided schools which give training and education of different duration. Thus there are established occupational schools for fishery, agriculture, dairy, horticulture, forestry, domestic science, catering, shipping, engineering and also seamen's schools etc. These schools are not supervised by the Ministry of Education, but by other ministries pertaining to the professions concerned.

Special schools.

Children who owing to mental or physical defects are unable to receive their education in the ordinary elementary schools, attend as far as possible schools specially established for them, cp. the Act of 1951 mentioned above. The supervision of all kinds of special schools is carried out by the Directorate for Special Schools, a division of the Ministry of Education.

The following categories of special schools are established or under planning:

Schools for the deaf:

1. Kindergartens
2. Schools for children from the age of 7 years
3. Continuation schools
4. Vocational schools
5. Schools for deaf of limited ability

Schools for the blind:

1. Nursery schools
2. Children's schools
3. Continuation schools
4. Vocational training schools

In addition there are State schools for blind adults, for men as well as for women.

A typical feature of the special schools for the deaf and the blind is the workshop where instruction is given for carpenters, basket-makers, upholsterers, brush-makers, piano tuners etc. For women instruction is given in domestic science, weaving, knitting and various women's handicrafts. Some of the schools are residential, for others provisions are made to accommodate the pupils.

Special schools for children of limited ability.

A ten year plan for the development of this type of special schools was adopted in 1947. This plan proposes:

1. Additional children's schools including kindergartens.
2. Vocational training schools.
3. Small schools for children of limited ability suffering from their environment.

At the moment the State runs six boarding schools for children, with accommodation for about 600 children. The children's schools admit educable children of limited ability, from 8 to 16 years of age (IQ 50-75). Teaching and education in the schools are intended to educate them for citizenship, to develop and train their abilities and to teach them the necessary theoretical and practical subjects.

For youngsters of limited ability there are established three State vocational schools for boys. The duration of the course given at these schools is two years.

After completing their education at the vocational schools the pupils are assisted in obtaining paid employment. The aim of these vocational schools is first and foremost to make these young boys of limited ability self-supporting and independent citizens.

Special schools for those suffering from speech defects.

A national scheme for the case of those suffering from speech defects was drawn up by a ministerial committee and submitted to the Ministry in 1949. This scheme comprises the following proposals:

1. The building of a central institution.
2. The establishment of local boarding schools for those suffering from speech defects.
3. Increased state assistance to the special classes for children in primary schools having defective speech.

During the years which have elapsed after the World War II, great stress has been laid on the development of special schools for blind, deaf, limited-ability children and for those suffering from speech impediments. For the time being (1952) there are, however, still children and youngsters on the waiting lists for special training. But within a short time, when the national scheme referred to above has been realized, the special schools of

different types will be able to afford the necessary special training and education for those who need it.

Training of teachers for special schools.

The teachers at all special schools must have the normal teacher's qualifications, and should have special training in addition. Teachers of the deaf receive such training at 1 - 2 year courses and speech therapists receive one year's additional training. Shorter training courses for teachers and employees at special schools are also arranged or sponsored by the Directorate for Special Schools. For in-service training of teachers at special schools the State also grants scholarships.

Teacher training.

The preparation of teachers for the primary school is ensured by training colleges (lærerskoler). Requirements for teachers trained for service in the primary and continuation schools are established in the law and regulations concerning training of teachers for primary schools, cp. the Act of 1938 mentioned above.

At the teacher training colleges there are two main types of courses, a four years' course and a two years' course. The former recruits pupils competitively from the continuation school, folk high school and the realskole. Thus the teaching profession is open to rural youth as well. Upon completing the final teaching test, pupils acquire certain credits towards the matriculation examination (examen artium), the university entrance examination.

The weekly schedule for the four years' course.

Subjects taught:	1.year	2.year	3.year	4.year	Total
Religion	2	3	2	3	10
Norwegian	7	6	5	5	23
Foreign language (English)	5	3	2	-	10
History and citizenship	-	3	3	3	9
Geography	3	2	-	-	5
Natural science:					
a) Physics and chemistry	2	3	3	-	8
b) Biology	2	2	2	2	8
(Continued)	21	22	17	13	73

Subjects taught: (Continued)	1.year	2.year	3.year	4.year	Total
	21	22	17	13	73
Mathematics and geometry	4	4	3	-	11
Pedagogy	-	2	4	4	10
Teacher training (practice)	-	-	4	9	13
Singing and music	2 1	1 1	2 -	2 -	7 2
Drawing	2	2	2	2	8
Writing	1	-	-	-	1
Crafts	2	2	2	2	8
Physical training	4	3	3	4	14
Totals	37	37	37	36	147

In addition to the above listed compulsory subjects the students have to attend short courses in gardening and librarianship. Domestic science is rendered optional to the students, and instruction is given in rather short courses.

The ordinary two-year course is reserved for students who have graduated from the gymnasium (all sequences), whilst the two-year English course only admit students from the modern language sequence (English branch) of the gymnasium. At the last mentioned course the students qualify as teachers of English in the primary schools.

The weekly schedule for the ordinary two-years' course.

Subjects taught:	1. year	2. year	Total
Religion	4	4	8
Norwegian	2	2	4
Citizenship	1	-	1
Natural science	3	3	6
Mathematics	1	-	1
Pedagogy	6	6	12
Teacher training (practice)	5	8	13
Singing and music	2 1	3 1	5 2
Drawing	4	3	7
Writing	1	-	1
Crafts	3	3	6
Physical education	4	4	8
Totals	37	37	74

The weekly schedule for the two-years' English course:

Subjects taught:	1. year	2. year	Total
Religion	3	3	6
Norwegian	2	1	3
English	10	10	20
Citizenship	1	-	1
Natural science	2	1	3
Mathematics	1	-	1
Pedagogy	4	5	9
Teacher training (practice)	5	8	13
Singing	2	2	4
Drawing	2	2	4
Crafts	2	2	4
Physical education	3	3	6
Totals	37	37	74

For the two-year courses there are the same additional compulsory subjects as for the four-year course. The same optional subject is also represented in the curriculum.

Pursuant to the regulations the students have to pass the examinations in each of the above listed compulsory subjects in order to be granted certificate for teaching in primary and continuation schools.

The teachers' training colleges are run by State funds and all of them have the same curriculum. The training of teachers is provided free of charge and the State allots bursaries.

Primary school teachers in service may apply for leave to acquire special training in one or more subjects. A number of institutions provide this specialized training: The State School for Physical Education, The State School for Arts and Crafts, The State School for Teachers of Home Economics, The State School for Teachers of Arts and Crafts (Women). Courses usually last one year, instruction is free and bursaries are awarded. In addition to the courses provided by the above-mentioned schools, there is a wide variety of short in-service training courses, arranged either by the State or by the teachers' associations, or jointly.

Secondary school teachers are trained at the universities; the teachers of foreign languages, history etc. at the departments of liberal arts, the teachers of mathematics, physics

Utbildning av trädgårdsmästare är anordnad vid tre *trädgårdsskolor*. Kurstiden är vid två av skolorna 16 månader och vid den tredje skolan 20 månader. Inträdesåldern är lägst 20 år. Vidare fordras för inträde minst tre till fyra års praktik i trädgårdsskötsel. Utbildning av trädgårdskonsulenter etc. är tvåårig och anordnas såsom högre trädgårdskurs vid Alnarps lantbruks-, mejeri- och trädgårdsinstitut. Inträdesåldern är lägst 24 år. Samtliga trädgårdsskolor äro internatskolor och statsunderstöd utgår enligt i huvudsak samma grunder som gälla för lantmannaskolor etc. Eleverna kunna erhålla statsstipendier med högst 90 kronor per månad. Förutom ovannämnda skolor finns en icke statsunderstödd trädgårdsskola, som anordnar tvååriga kurser för utbildning av trädgårdsmästare. För att vinna inträde fordras att ha fyllt 21 år och att ha minst tre års trädgårdspraktik. Elevinternat finns.

Kortare statsunderstödda *trädgårdskurser* ordnas främst av hushållningssällskapen samt vid en del folkhögskolor och lantmannaskolor.

Läringsutbildningen inom trädgårdsnäringen är fyraårig. De två första läroåren tillbringas på en och samma arbetsplats. Under de båda följande läroåren skall lärlingen söka utbildning vid tvenne andra företag så att den praktiska utbildningen under de fyra läroåren förvärfvas vid tre olika arbetsplatser. Den praktiska utbildningen kompletteras med teoretisk utbildning, som meddelas per korrespondens, vid trädgårdsskolor och kommunala anstalter för yrkesundervisning.

För att meddela personer, som vuxit upp vid jordbruket, kunskaper för tillträde till högskolemässig utbildning finns ett tvåårigt *specialgymnasium*, förlagt till folkhögskolan Hvilan. Statliga stipendier utdelas. Internatskola.

Den centrala ledningen av utbildningen inom jordbruk inkl. utbildningen inom mejerihantering och trädgårdsskötsel utövas av lantbruksstyrelsen, som sorterar under jordbruksdepartementet.

Viss kursverksamhet på jordbrukets område anordnas även, efter samråd mellan överstyrelsen för yrkesutbildning och lantbruksstyrelsen, vid kommunala anstalter för yrkesundervisning.

Vid en särskild *fiskeriskola* utbildas sådana tjänstemän för fiskevård, fiskodling och fiskeriundervisning som fiskmästare, fiskerikonsulenter och fiskeriinstruktörer. För inträde i denna skola fordras att ha fyllt 18 år, att ha genomgått två årskurser vid folkhögskola eller ha motsvarande kunskaper samt av fiskeristyrelsen godkänd praktik i fiske och fiskodling under minst två år. För yrkesfiskare anordnas därjämte *navigationskurser* vid tre folkhögskolor, varjämte ambulerande sådana kurser anordnas av en länsstyrelse.

Inom skogsbruket finnas fyra under domänstyrelsen stående stat-

liga *skogsskolor* samt en enskild skogsskola, vilka anordna ettåriga kurser för utbildning av skogsvaktare eller därmed jämförlig befälspersonal. Inträdesålder lägst 19 och högst 29 år. För inträde fordras minst tjugo månaders godkänd praktik samt att ha genomgått en fyra månaders förberedande skogskurs, som anordnas av staten två gånger årligen på två platser. En liknande kurs anordnas även vid ovannämnda enskilda skogsskolor. För befattningar, för vilka högre utbildning än skogsskola är önskvärd, anordnas ettåriga kurser vid en statlig *skogsmästarskola*. För inträde i denna läroanstalt fordras att ha fyllt 19 år och att ha genomgått skogsskola. Inträde kan även vinnas av den som genomgått förberedande skogskurs och har skogspraktik men icke genomgått skogsskola utan i stället förvärvat lantbruksutbildning eller avlagt realexamen. Vid såväl skogsmästarskolan som vid skogsskolorna och de förberedande skogskurserna finnas elevinternat. Statsstipendier utdelas till elever i skogsskolorna och skogsmästarskolan. För arbetarpersonal ordnas *kortare kurser* av skogsvårdsstyrelser, domänstyrelsen, skogsbolag m. fl. Statsunderstöd utgår till kurser, som stå under tillsyn av skogsstyrelsen och anordnas av skogsvårdsstyrelser. Sådana kurser anordnas antingen med enbart muntlig undervisning eller med kombinerad muntlig och skriftlig undervisning. Kurser med enbart muntlig undervisning anordnas såsom ungdomskurs för meddelande av grundläggande yrkesutbildning åt ungdom, skogsarbetarkurs för meddelande av ökad yrkesutbildning åt skogsarbetare, körarkurs för meddelande av undervisning i skogskörslor och vad därmed äger samband samt förmanskurs för utbildning av arbetsförmän. Vidare anordnas med anslag av statsmedel allmänna skogsvårdskurser avsedda att meddela kunskaper i skogsskötsel för ägare till bondeskogsbruk och deras söner. Vid de flesta lantmannas- och lantbruksskolor lämnas också undervisning i skogsbruk.

Övrig yrkesundervisning

Inom andra näringsgrenar än de som ovan behandlats meddelas en omfattande yrkesundervisning i skolor och kurser i anslutning till *offentliga institutioner eller samhällseliga företag*, t. ex. sjuksköterskeutbildning vid sjukhus, viss yrkesutbildning vid försvarsväsendet, post, telegraf, tull, järnvägar, spårvägar m. m. Undervisning för utbildning av fartygs- och maskinbefäl på svenska handelsfartyg meddelas vid fem *sjöbefälsskolor*, vilka stå under central ledning av kommerskollegium och främst avse utbildning på högre stadium.

Till yrkesutbildande undervisningsanstalter räknas också *universitetet, högskolorna och akademierna*.

Yrkesutbildningens omfattning

Den relativa elevtillströmningen till högre skolor har sedan mitten av 1930-talet stigit praktiskt taget oavbrutet och i mycket jämn och stadig takt. Man kan räkna med att omkring en tredjedel av en årskull numera vinner inträde i realskolan och därmed jämförbara skolformer i det allmänbildande skolväsendet. Ganska många elever i realskolan avbryta studierna efter ett eller ett par år. År 1950 var det omkring 10.800 ungdomar som avlade realexamen, varav 1.300 praktisk realexamen. Elevantalet i yrkesbestämda högre folkskolor uppgick hösten 1950 till cirka 1.250.

Även elevtillströmningen till gymnasierna inom det allmänbildande skolväsendet ökar och för närvarande går omkring 8 procent av en årskull till sådana läroanstalter. Under 1920-talet uppgick antalet avlagda studentexamina till i genomsnitt något över 2.000 per år. Under 1930-talet ägde en stark ökning rum och år 1940 utexaminerades 3.800 studenter. År 1950 uppgick antalet avlagda studentexamina till omkring 4.500.

Antalet elever vid under överstyrelsens för yrkesutbildning in-seende stående läroanstalter med undervisning på lärlings- och yrkesskolstadiet inom industri och hantverk samt handel och husligt arbete framgår av nedanstående sammanställning.

Antal elever i statsunderstödda anstalter för yrkesundervisning

Läsår	kommunala*	enskilda
1934/35	30 046	7 785
1935/36	33 279	7 747
1936/37	36 695	7 958
1937/38	40 092	7 717
1938/39	43 351	8 136
1939/40	42 889	7 369
1940/41	46 489	7 168
1941/42	49 912	8 351
1942/43	56 000	9 019
1943/44	61 477	9 171
1944/45	66 918	9 361
1945/46	75 023	10 978
1946/47	80 926	11 064
1947/48	90 128	10 893
1948/49	99 892	13 228

* Lärlings- och yrkesskolor, kommunala och centrala verkstadsskolor, handelsskolor, husmodersskolor m. fl. Beredskapskurser för verkstadsindustrin och yrkesutbildningskurser för arbetslösa m. fl. ingå icke; i sådana kurser ha fr. o. m. maj 1940 t. o. m. utgången av år 1950 deltagit sammanlagt 19.124 personer.

Den snabba stegringen av antalet elever i statsunderstödda kommunala anstalter för yrkesundervisning fortgår. Enligt preliminära uppgifter kan sålunda antalet elever i dessa läroanstalter uppskattas till minst 105.000 under läsåret 1949/50 och till minst 110.000 under läsåret 1950/51. Av dessa ha dock endast i runt tal 10.000 under vartdera av båda dessa läsår gått i heldagskurser om minst fem månaders längd. Övriga ha gått i kurser med deltidsundervisning eller i kortare heldagskurser. Nära hälften av samtliga elever äro över 24 år och endast en sjättedel under 18 år. Kursverksamheten inom husligt arbete omfattar inemot hälften av hela elevantalet och återstoden är ganska jämnt fördelad på dels industri och hantverk dels handel.

Av de i runt tal 10.000 elever, som gått i heldagskurser om minst fem månaders längd, ha omkring 5.500 elever gått i verkstadsskolor (cirka 2.500 i centrala verkstadsskolor och omkring 3.000 i kommunala). Av återstoden ha omkring 1.500 elever gått i kurser för industri och hantverk (främst tekniska skolor), 2.000 inom handel (huvudsakligen ettåriga handelskurser) och omkring 1.000 inom husligt arbete (husmodersskolor, barnsköterskeskolor etc.)

Beträffande de statsunderstödda enskilda läroanstalter, varom här är fråga, torde elevantalet icke ha ökat under läsåren 1949/50 och 1950/51 utan kan uppskattas till ungefär samma antal som under läsåret 1948/49, d. v. s. i runt tal 13.000. Inemot hälften av elevantalet hänför sig till kurser inom handel; återstoden fördelas på dels husligt arbete, dels — och detta är större delen — industri och hantverk. Omkring 3.000 elever deltog i heldagskurser om minst fem månaders längd inom industri och hantverk, handel och husligt arbete.

Vad särskilt angår verkstadsskolorna framgår av nedanstående sammanställning elevernas fördelning på olika yrkesavdelningar under läsåret 1950/51 enligt uppgifter avseende senare hälften av oktober 1950.

Antal närvarande elever i olika yrkesavdelningar i verkstadsskolor under senare hälften av oktober 1950

Yrkesavdelning för	Centrala verkst.-skolor	Komm. verkst.-skolor	Enskilda verkst.-skolor	Summa
Gjutare	—	8	—	8
Svetsare	—	17	—	17
Rep.-smed.-svets.	159	23	—	182
Lantbruksmaskinrep.	16	—	—	16
Bleck- o. plåtslagare	73	1	—	74
Transport	248	49	—	297

Yrkesavdelning för	Centrala verkst.-skolor	Komm. verkst.-skolor	Enskilda verkst.-skolor	Summa
Transport	248	49	—	297
Metallarbetare	476	1032	173	1681
Motormekaniker	13	74	—	87
Bilmekaniker	187	198	—	385
Bil- o. flygmotormekaniker	30	11	—	41
Flygmekaniker	119	225	—	344
Flygmotormekaniker	15	—	—	15
Elektriker ¹	223	334	—	557
Radiomontörer	—	30	—	30
Instrumentmakare	68	60	—	128
Urmakare	—	13	8	21
Cirkelsågare	16	—	—	16
Verkstadssnickare	—	—	22	22
Snickeri o. smide	—	16	—	16
Modellsnickare	—	3	—	3
Möbelsnickare	206	392	23	621
Träbildhuggare	—	7	—	7
Båtbyggare	—	5	—	5
Fotografer	—	27	—	27
Charkuterister	—	10	—	10
Skräddare	7	65	16	88
Damskräddare	—	10	—	10
Sömmerskor ²	49	236	54	339
Hattmodister	—	28	—	28
Körsnärer	—	21	—	21
Pälssömmerskor	—	11	—	11
Tapetserare	48	35	—	83
Betong- o. asfaltarbetare	5	—	—	5
Byggnadssnickare	178	51	—	229
Murare	179	101	—	280
Målare	166	124	—	290
Värme- o. sanitetsmontörer	185	8	—	193
Vävnad o. heminredning	—	—	10	10
Kockar	22	—	—	22
Kokerskor i storkök	33	—	—	33
Tvättpersonal	9	—	—	9
Summa	2482	3176	306	5964

¹ Här ingå även avdelningar för elektromekaniker.

² Här ingå även avdelningar för byx- och västsömmerskor, konfektionssömmerskor och damkonfektionsindustriarbetare samt klännings-sömmerskor.

Antalet elever vid de speciella yrkesskolorna för vanföra, blinda och dövstumma uppgår för närvarande till omkring 650, varav ett sjuttioal är utplacerade för yrkesutbildning hos enskilda näringsidkare på skolorten eller i vissa fall, t. ex. för handelsutbildning, vid en skola på orten.

Antalet elever vid under socialstyrelsens tillsyn stående yrkesskolor för barn och ungdom, som omhändertagits för skyddsuffost-ran, uppgår för närvarande till omkring 400.

Vad avser sådana enskilda skolor utan statsunderstöd, vilka i huvudsak finansieras genom avgifter, har elevantalet vid tekniska institut under höstterminen år 1948 uppskattats till omkring 5.000 och vid handelsinstitut till ungefär samma antal. Vidare förekomma enskilda skolor utan statsunderstöd för industri och hantverk och för husligt arbete, vid vilka elevantalet tillsammans torde uppgå till några tusen. Härtill komma slutligen elever vid korrespondensinstitutens undervisning med yrkesutbildande inriktning.

Beträffande lärlingsutbildningen inom hantverket kan nämnas att enligt en av Sveriges hantverks- och småindustriorganisation år 1943 verkställd uppskattning voro vid nämnda tidpunkt omkring 12.000 lärlingar under utbildning. Många av lärlingarna inom hantverket deltaga i kurser i statsunderstödda kommunala skolor för yrkesundervisning och få där den yrkesteoretiska delen av utbildningen.

I den av Statens hantverksinstitut anordnade kursverksamheten deltog arbetsåret 1949/50 6.230 personer, fördelade på 238 kurser.

I fråga om lärlingsutbildningen inom industrin har av Arbetsmarknadens yrkesråd under åren 1947—1948 verkställt vissa undersökningar bland till Svenska arbetsgivareföreningen anslutna företag. Av till arbetsgivareföreningen då anslutna företag — drygt 8.000 med omkring en halv miljon arbetare — har yrkesrådet erhållit uppgifter från 3.200 företag. Av dessa uppgåvo 1.338 företag att de hade sammanlagt inemot 8.000 lärlingar, varav lärlingskontrakt upprättats med 1.800. En del av dessa lärlingar deltaga — liksom lärlingar inom hantverket — i kurser i statsunderstödda kommunala skolor för yrkesundervisning och erhålla där yrkesteoretisk utbildning. Ett tjugotal större företag inom metallindustrin meddela utan understöd av samhället yrkesteoretisk undervisning i egna skolor för omkring ett tusental lärlingar.

Arbetsledarinstitutet anordnade under år 1950 31 kurser med sammanlagt 1.024 deltagare.

Antalet elever i under överstyrelsens för yrkesutbildning in-seende stående läroanstalter för yrkesundervisning på högre stadium har ökat avsevärt under de senaste åren och uppgick under hösten 1950 till cirka 7.000, fördelade enligt följande sammanställning.

Antal elever hösten 1950 vid under överstyrelsens för yrkesutbildning inseende stående läroanstalter för yrkesundervisning på högre stadium.

Läroanstalter	Antal skolor	Antal elever
Högre tekniska läroverk	15	3.790
Handelsgymnasier	14	1.962
Konstfackskolan	1	816
Särskilda anstalter för yrkesundervisning:		
Bergsskolan i Filipstad	1	51
Textilinstitutet i Borås	1	98
Lennings textiltkniska institut	1	163
Grafiska institutet	1	94
Summa	34	6.974

Antalet utexaminerade elever har från år 1940 till år 1950 vid de tekniska gymnasierna ökat från 300 till 750 och vid de tekniska fackskolorna från 150 till 350. Vid handelsgymnasierna har antalet utexaminerade ökat från 630 år 1940 till 800 år 1950.

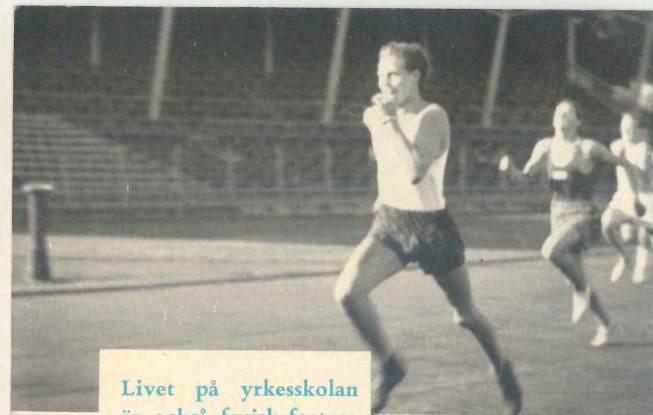
Omfattningen av yrkesundervisningen vid fasta lantbruksundervisningsanstalter läsåret 1949/50 framgår av nedanstående sammanställning:

Skoltyper	Antal elever
Lantbruksskolor	327
Lantmannaskolor	2.095
Lanthushållsskolor	1.600
Jordbrukets yrkesskolor	141
Mejeriskolor	70
Trädgårdsskolor	88
Summa	4.321

Antalet elever i det tvååriga specialgymnasiet vid Hvilan uppgick under läsåret 1949/50 till ett fyrtiotal.

Det sammanlagda elevantalet vid skogsmästarskolan, skogsskolorna och de förberedande skogskurserna uppgår i regel till inemot 300 per år.

SVISAM
KROPHANES ARSIV
No 089-127/7



Livet på yrkesskolan
är också fysisk fostran
och kamratlig samvaro.



Vill Du veta mera om vanföreanstaltnas yrkesskolor, vänd Dig till pensionsnämnden eller arbetsförmedlingen där Du bor. Eller också kan Du vända Dig till någon av vanföreanstaltna eller till

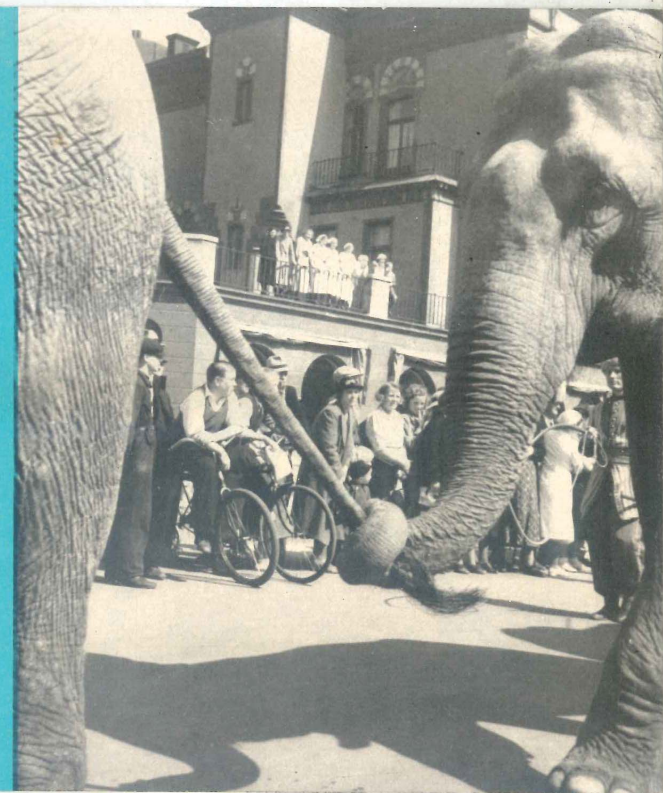
SVCK

Svenska Vanföreanstaltnas
Centralkommitté

Jutas Backe 1 Telefon 10 84 83
STOCKHOLM

Möller + Solbreck / Esselte, Sthlm 49 960308

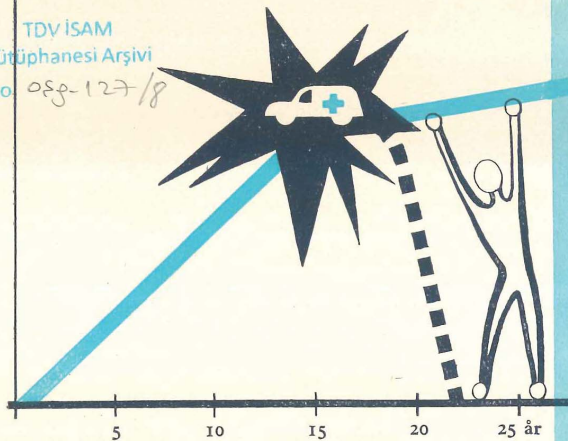
*Släpp
inte
taget!*



Kom ihåg

*Du får själv
inte släppa taget!*

TDV ISAM
Kütüphanesi Arşivi
No. 058-127/8



Vem som helst kan bli utsatt för olycksfall eller sjukdom. Om Du kommit i denna situation, bör Du veta, att det finns krafter, som hjälper Dig att vrida kurvan uppåt mot

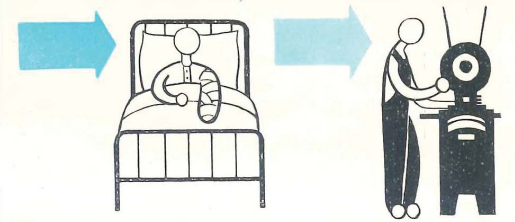
arbetsglädje och produktivitet

Vårt samhälle har en hel del resurser för att bistå Dig i en sådan situation. Det gäller för Dig att utnyttja dessa möjligheter.

Ibland kan det vara möjligt att utan yrkesutbildning gå ut i produktionslivet igen.

Men alldeles särskilt om Du är ung, skall Du allvarligt tänka på yrkesutbildningens fördelar. En lämplig yrkesutbildning ger Dig trygghet och självkänsla.

Ungdomsvårdskommittén visar i en utredning, att av utbildade hantverkare 98 % trivs i sitt yrke medan detta endast gäller 58 % av tempoarbetarna.



98%

YRKESARBETE



58%

TEMPOARBETE

Du får Din utbildning vid vanförestalternas yrkesskolor

Yrkesutbildning kan Du få på olika sätt. Du kan få den inom näringslivet eller på olika slag av skolor. Rådgör härom närmare med kurator-kontor på vanförestalt eller med arbetsförmedlingens yrkesvägledning. Vill Du ha undervisning av lärare, som har särskild erfarenhet av skadade elevers problem, står vanförestalternas yrkesskolor till Ditt förfogande.

Ett tjugotal olika yrkesavdelningar finns på dessa yrkesskolor, och man ordnar undervisningen i många fall ute på andra utbildningsställen.



Oberoende av Dina egna eller Dina anhörigas ekonomiska förhållanden får Du Din utbildning helt kostnadsfritt vid vanförestalterna.

- * *fri undervisning*
- * *fri kost*
- * *fritt logi*
- * *fickpengar*

Vanförestalternas yrkesskolor finns markerade på vidstående karta.

Du kan själv välja yrke och utbildningsort



Utbildning inom:

Finmekanik
Metallslöjd
Billackering
Möbelsnickeri
Polering
Skrädderi
Skomakeri
Tapetseraryrket
Måleri
Konfektionssömnad
Barnklädessömnad
Klädessömnad
Husligt arbete
Diverseverkstaden

STOCKHOLM
170 elevplatser



Utbildning inom:

Mekanikeryrket
Radioreparatöryrket
Möbelsnickeri
Polering
Sätter
Tryckeri
Bokbinderi
Skrädderi
Fotografyrket
Skomakeri
Tapetseraryrket
Måleri
Linnesömnad
Barnklädessömnad
Klädessömnad

GÖTEBORG
165 elevplatser



Utbildning inom:

Billackering
Möbelsnickeri
Polering
Korgmöbelmakeri
Bokbinderi
Skrädderi
Skomakeri
Tapetseraryrket
Måleri
Borstbinderi
Linnesömnad
Barnklädessömnad
Klädessömnad
Modistyrket
Trikestickning
Diverseverkstaden

HÄLSINGBORG
130 elevplatser



Utbildning inom:

Möbelsnickeri
Polering
Skrädderi
Skomakeri
Tapetseraryrket
Måleri
Linnesömnad
Barnklädessömnad
Klädessömnad
Husligt arbete

HÄRNÖSAND
98 elevplatser



5

Erfarenheten har visat, att det knappast finns någon invalid, som inte passar in någonstans i produktionen. Det är därför viktigt, att man gör allt för att ta till vara vars och ens anlag på bästa sätt. Yrkesvägledningen är här nödvändig. Inom vanförelvården har man börjat göra försök med psykologiska anlagsprövningar, som visat goda resultat. Eleven får också pröva på de olika yrkesavdelningarna, om så behövs. Här kan Du se några exempel på de yrken,

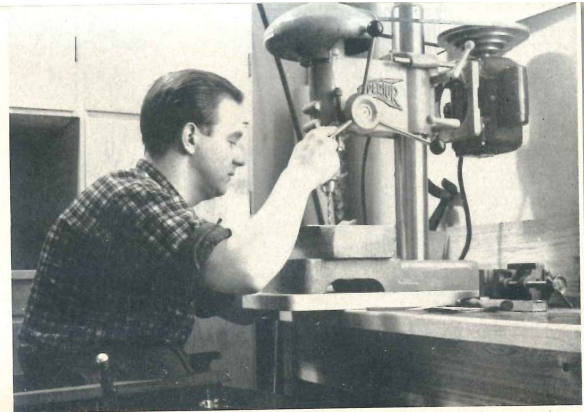


TDV ISAM
Kürüphanesi Arşivi
No 089-127/8



6

som finns på vanförelvårdens yrkesskolor. Det är hantverks- och industribetonade yrken, som även passar för svårt skadade. I samtliga yrken ansluter sig utbildningen till den vid andra yrkesskolor vanliga. Vid vanförelvårdens yrkesskolor finns en samlad erfarenhet rörande möjligheterna att upphjälpa en begränsad arbetsförmåga med tekniska hjälpmedel. Vid samtliga vanförelvårdens yrkesskolor finns bandage- och protesverkstäder, som står till elevernas förfogande.





Aktiebolaget
Förenade Tryckerier
Stockholm
1949

TDV ISAM
Kütüphanesi Arşivi
No 089-127/9

NORRBACKAINSTITUTET
(Vanförestalten)
STOCKHOLM



1

NORRBACKAINSTITUTET utgör Karolinska institutets ortopediska klinik samt omfattar dessutom skolhem, yrkesskolor med elevhem och arbetshem.

Ortopediska kliniken

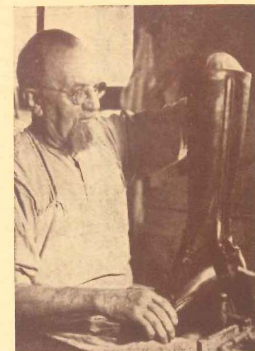
innefattar *sjukavdelning* och *poliklinik*. På polikliniken hålles mottagning varje helg-fri vardag kl. 10–12. Patient mottages endast på remiss av läkare och efter för-anmälan. För patient, som ej medför medellöshetsintyg, är poliklinikavgiften 3: – kr. per besök. Å sjukavdelning är vårdavgiften 1: – kr. per dag å allmän sal. För poli-klinisk röntgenundersökning utgår särskild avgift.



TDVÍSAM
Kütüphanesi Arşivi
No 059-127/9

Arbetssterapi på sjukavdelningen.

För patienters förseende med erforderliga bandage, prote-ser och ortopediska skodon finnes vid institutet *bandage-verkstad* och *ortopediskt skomakeri*. Till ändamålet utgår bidrag av statsmedel med 2/3 av kostnaden.



- *Medellös eller mindre bemedlad kan komma i åtnjutande av statsbidrag för resa från hemorten till institutet ävensom för återresa till hemorten. Är för den sjukas transport vårdare nödvändig, kan resebidrag utgå även för denne. Patient å sjukavdelning använder sjukhusets kläder.*



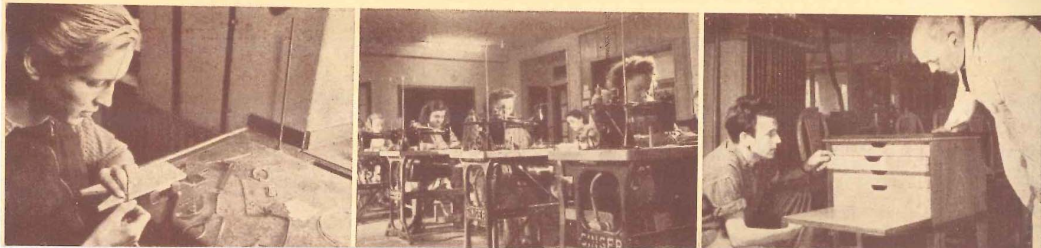
Vid yrkesskolorna

meddelas yrkesutbildning huvudsakligen åt normalbegåvade vanföra med företräde för yngre elever, dock ej gärna under 16 år. Första halvåret provas elev praktiskt och teoretiskt med hänsyn till såväl yrkesförutsättning som arbetsförmåga och arbetsvilja.

Visar det sig efter genomgången prøvotid att eleven ej kan i väsentlig grad tillgodöra sig utbildningen, tränas han i visst tempoarbete eller uppläres i visst arbete av huvudsakligen sysselsättningskaraktär eller utskrivs från skolan. Såväl undervisning som kost och logi bekostas i sin helhet av statsmedel.

- *Medellös eller mindre bemedlad elev kan komma i åtnjutande av statsbidrag för resa från hemorten till institutet ävensom för återresa till hemorten vid termins början och slut. Är för elevens transport vårdare nödvändig, kan resebidrag utgå även för denne.*

Yrkesskolorna stå under inspektion av Överstyrelsen för yrkesutbildning.



Kurser med 4-årig utbildningstid:

Finmekanik	Möbelsnickeri	Svarvning
Möbel- & rumsmåleri	Maskinsnickeri	Skrädderi
Billackering	Polering	Tapetserareyrket

Kurser med 3-årig utbildning:

Skomakeri	Klädessömnad
Barnklädessömnad	(enklare och finare)

Kurser med 1½—2 års utbildning:

Hushållsskola	Konfektions-
Metallslöjd	sömnad

Diverseverkstaden undervisar i:

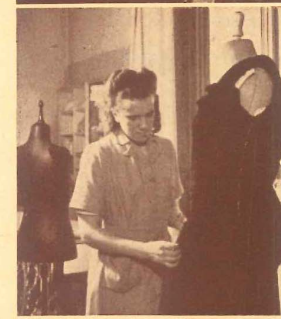
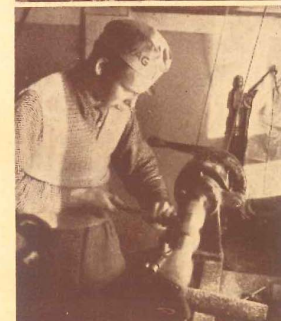
Broderi	Enklare vävning	Hand- och maskin-
Märkning	Lampskärmstill-	stickning
Handarbete	verkning	m. m.
Knyppling	Målning	

Fullständig yrkesutbildning avslutas ofta, såvitt möjligt, med gesällprov.

Yrkesutbildningen är såväl praktisk som teoretisk och bedrivs efter av Överstyrelsen för yrkesutbildning fastställd plan för varje yrke.

Undervisningen pågår under 300 dagar av året. Under jul- och sommarferier kvarstannar eleven ej vid institutet.

- *Norrbackainstitutet ordnar yrkesutbildning även inom yrken som ej finnas representerade vid institutet.*



Skolhemmet, Lidingö,

är avsett för skolpliktiga, normalbegåvade barn, som i följd av sin vanförhet icke kunna besöka vanliga skolor. Barn med sviter efter barnförslamning äga företräde. Undervisningen omfattar såväl småskolans som folkskolans kurser. Å skolhemmet mottagas barn såväl från Stockholms stad som landsorten. För undervisning, kost och logi erlagges — utöver utgående statsbidrag — av den för barnet ansvarspiktige en avgift av 50 öre per dag.

Folkskolans högre avdelning, jämväl realskola,

är förlagd till Norrbackainstitutet å Norrbacka, där samma betalningsförhållanden som för folkskolan gälla. Under jul- och sommarferier kvarstannar eleven ej vid institutet. Ang. resebidrag gälla samma normer för elever vid skolhemmet och folkskolans högre avdelning som för yrkesskolornas elever, se under Yrkesskolor!



Undervisning i högre folkskola.

Norrbackainstitutets arbetshem för höggradigt vanföra,

NORRBACKAGÅRDEN, Kullsveden i Hedemora socken, är avsett för höggradigt vanföra, som till en viss grad kunna utföra arbete och vilka ej ha möjlighet att på annat sätt ordna sin tillvaro. Här finnas verkstäder av olika slag för metallslöjd, vävning, sömnad och stickning, halmarbeten, industriellt hemarbete m. m.

Kurator

ger råd och vägledning i sociala frågor.

Inträdesansökan

för såväl ortopediska kliniken, skolhem, yrkesskola som arbetshem, ställd till Norrbackainstitutet, adress Stockholm Va., skall vara åtföljd av

- läkarintyg
- åldersbetyg
- skolbetyg (om ansökan avser skolutbildning)
- ansvarsförbindelse

Institutet tillhandahåller för ändamålet erforderliga formulär.

Närmare upplysningar meddelas av Norrbackainstitutet, adress Stockholm Va.

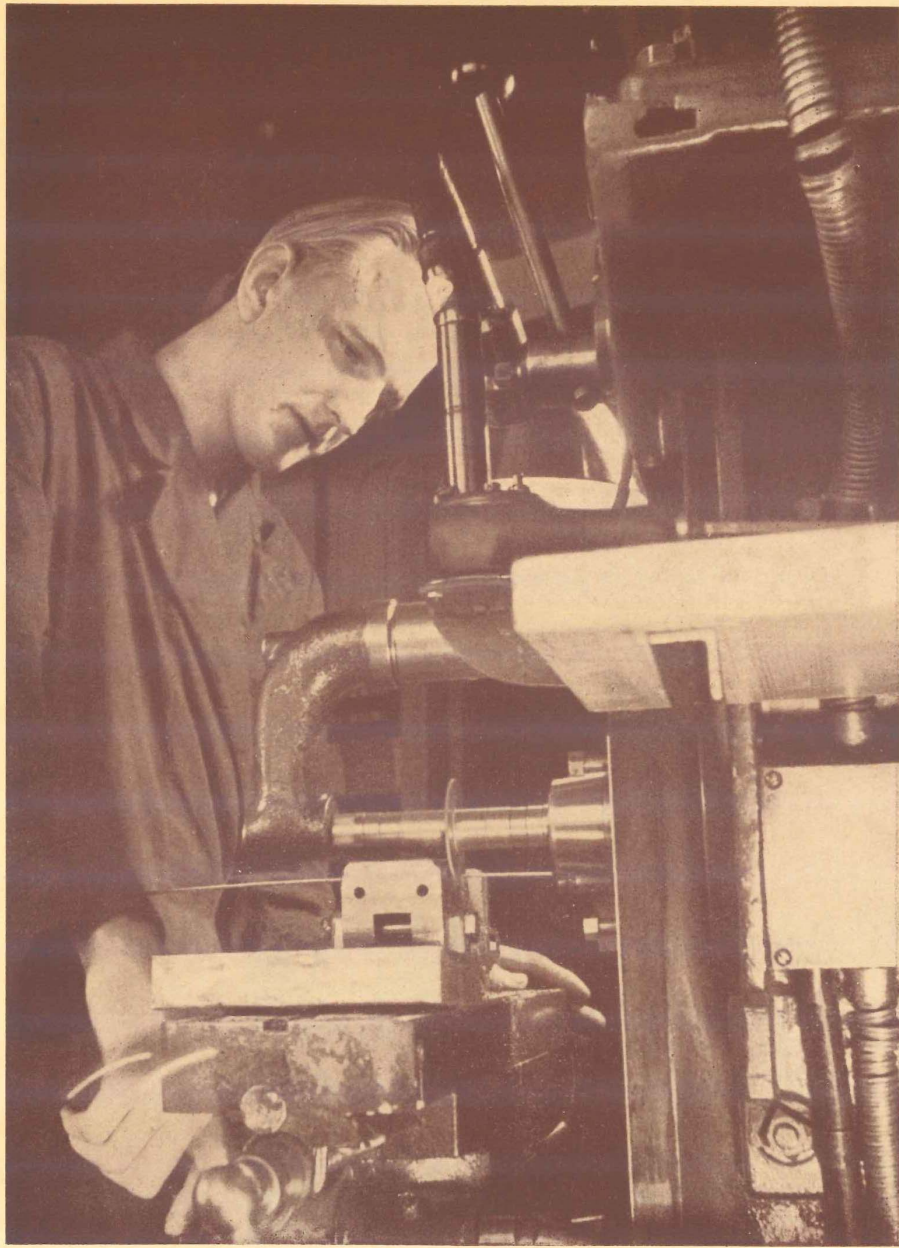
Telefon: växel 23 00 30.

Obs!

I händelse patient och elev, som fått underrättelse att infinna sig vid Norrbackainstitutet eller ämnar besöka polikliniken, nyligen genomgått smittosam sjukdom (difteri, kikhosta, mässling och scharlakansfeber) eller om sådan förekommer i hans omgivning, måste besöket vid institutet uppskjutas till minst en månad efter sjukdomens upphörande.



Protesgång tränas.



Välj det yrke Du har intresse för!



Från Skolhemmet, Lidingö.



*Pojkarnas blockflöjtsorkester.
Skolhemmet å Lidingön.*

DV İSAM
İphanesi Arşivi
10 039-127/9

NORRBACKAINSTITUTET

(Vanförestalten)

Stockholm Va.

POLIKLINIK - SJUKAVDELNING

YRKESKOLOR - KONTOR

TELEFON (växel) 23 00 30

Nattkoppling kl. 21—8:

Föreståndarinna . 23 00 34	Jourhavande läkare 23 00 33	Kurator 23 00 35
Sjukavdelning II 23 00 31	Manl. ungdomsled. 23 00 36	Personal 23 00 38
» III 23 00 32	Kvinnl. » 23 00 37	Personalförest. . . 23 00 39

Överläkare: *Professor STEN FRIBERG.*

POLIKLINIK

alla dagar efter föransmälan.

Föreståndarinna, rektor: *Fröken SIGRID HÖJER.*

Mottagningstid: kl. 9—10.

KONTORSTID

Kl. 9—16, lördagar och dag före helgdag kl. 9—14.

Beställningar till yrkesskolorna mottagas kl. 9—16.

SKOLHEMMET, LIDINGÖ

Tel. 65 00 46.

Vård- och arbetshemmet

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THE DANISH SCHOOL

Talk given at the educational course for British teachers in 1950.

HISTORY

It is my task to try and give you an impression of the Danish school, and I will begin at the year 1814. In that year compulsory education was introduced in Denmark, and it has been a source of pride to us ever since that we were the first country to carry out such a reform. It has given us a feeling of being pioneers in the field of education, a feeling which may not always have been fully justified.

Of course we had schools before 1814, and indeed I think that the majority of the people could read and write even before that time. The first attempt to organise a real popular education was made already about 1520 by King Kristian the Second. But he was so far ahead of his time that he was dethroned - not mainly because of his school reforms, but because he was in the habit of beheading anybody who crossed his plans.

After the reformation in 1536 various types of schools gradually developed. First the latin schools or grammar schools, qualifying the pupils for university studies. Next the Pietist movement in the beginning of the 18th century established elementary schools for poor children in the towns, and at the same time both King and several landowners built similar schools in the villages.

Then in 1736 Confirmation was made compulsory. Nobody could be married without having been confirmed. And in order to be that, people had to learn Luther's Catechism by heart together with a lot of difficult commentaries; so the Church practically forced people to learn to read. This made the school a sort of appendix to the Church, a thing which has created a sort of inferiority complex in generations of teachers. In consequence of this, a complete plan for the introduction of compulsory education was made in 1739, but hard times and fear of the costs prevented it from being carried out. Nevertheless a lot of new schools were established in the following years.

When industrialism began at the end of the century, most of the schools for poor children were made into small factories or spinning mills. At the same time a new type of school was created by the prosperous middle classes, the so-called Realskole, a type of secondary school preparing pupils for what may be called practical life and not for the university.

However, the real starting point for popular education in Denmark is 1814, when schooling was made compulsory for all children between the age of 7 and 14. The plans for the organisation of the educational system were drawn up by a committee which had been working for no less than 25 years. By 1814 only three of its original seven members were alive. (I do not know what the average age of committees is in your country, but we have had some which have been sitting for much longer periods without achieving anything at all - apart from issuing reports on their meetings). But this committee really achieved something which was of outstanding importance.

The general condition of the country at the time did not favour reforms. A severe financial crisis had just ended in national bankruptcy, but gradually the reforms were carried out.

After a few years another danger threatened the new school. The monotorial system was introduced. It was a sort of teaching by the taught, consisting merely of drill and cramming, but requiring very few teachers, and consequently it was favoured by the very parsimonious king. It was against this dull, mechanical, and soulless school that men like Grundtvig and Kr. Kold rebelled, men whose names you will hear later on if you have not already heard them. After the death of King Frederik the Sixth in 1839, this system of teaching slowly died out again.

The next important event took place in 1849, when we got a free constitution and Denmark became a democratic nation. In the following years several new reforms were carried out, among others the employment of women in the service of the school.

Under the influence of Grundtvig's ideas of freedom many people wanted to have their children educated in "free" or private schools, and several education acts were passed, facilitating the establishment of such schools.

So far I have been talking only about the elementary schools. Now I shall turn for a while to the secondary school. All through the 19th Century there was no connection between the elementary and the secondary or higher school. The latter were latin schools (grammar schools or gymnasiums) which were either private or, more commonly, State schools, and the above-mentioned secondary school or Realskoler.

In 1903 - after Parliamentarism had been introduced in 1901 - the first step was taken to create an unbroken line from the bottom of the elementary school to the top of the university. A new type of secondary schools came into being, the so-called Mollemsskole - Middle School - which begins at the age of 11 or 12, and after four years qualifies for entering a gymnasium, which after three years will qualify for matriculation at the universities. This new type of secondary school was a great success and has become exceedingly popular. The next great reform came in 1937, and this leads to the conditions of to-day, which we are now going to study more closely.

STRUCTURE

As I have already mentioned, schooling was made compulsory in 1814, but it is not so any longer. It is only instruction that is compulsory. The 83rd paragraph of the Constitution reads: "Children whose parents are not able to take care of their education are entitled to free instruction in the municipal schools. Parents who provide an instruction for their children equal to that given in the municipal schools are not bound to let their children attend these schools."

This freedom for parents to teach their own children is one of the signs of Grundtvig's influence on the Danish school system.

At present only about 300 children receive instruction in their homes, which shows that very few parents avail themselves of this right.

The school age is still from 7 to 14 years, but the school-leaving age will probably be raised in not too distant a future. As it is now, a large proportion of the children do not leave school at fourteen. At present there are 425,000 children in the ages from 7 to 14, but about 490,000 children are attending schools, so that more than one eighth of the pupils are above school-leaving age.

As the school age does not begin until the age of 7 we have no obligatory nursery schools, but even then there are many nursery schools - børnehaver (Kindergartens) - both private and municipal, which take children from the age of three. But it is entirely voluntary whether parents will send their children to such schools or not.

The normal type of elementary school is the municipal school which comprises nearly 90% of all pupils. It is generally co-educational and in most places where it is not, it is being made so. Tuition is free and the pupils are provided with books and other materials.

The municipal school is divided into two main types: the country school and the town school. I have tried to make a sort of diagram showing the various types of schools. The first type is the normal country or village school of 7 years, which may be prolonged with an eighth year if the parents of at least 15 pupils desire it.

The most primitive village schools have all the children from 7 to 14 in one form, but this type is rapidly dying out, if it exists at all any longer. The type with two forms, one of three and one of four years is more common, and you may find schools with any number of forms up to seven. Normally the first three years are called primary school (Forskole), while the last four years are called main school. In the primary school, instruction is often given by school mistresses with a special two-year training, qualifying them for teaching smaller children.

The instruction given in the village schools does not comprise as many subjects as that given in elementary town schools, and it falls short of the town school education in various other ways, and above all it does not lead to any secondary education. Therefore the education

act of 1937 demands the establishment of central schools in the country with a standard equal to that of town schools. If the inhabitants of a school district in the country do not want to have a central school, because of the great distances or for other reasons, they will have to bring all the smaller schools in the district up to town standard within a certain time limit. (This time limit has been prolonged several times, because of the war and of shortages after the war).

The establishment of central schools is opposed by many defenders of the small village schools with only one or two teachers. They prefer this type of school because of its possibilities of personal contact between teacher and pupils and between teacher and parents. And there can be no doubt that if the teacher is really first class, this school is an ideal one, but of course, it cannot offer the same sort of instruction as the larger schools.

In towns all the forms are of one year, the school year beginning either on April 1st or after the summer vacation.

By the Education Act of 1937 the elementary school and the municipal secondary school - the so-called Mellemskole (Middle School) - have been melted into one. There is a primary school from 7 to 11, or more often from 7 to 12, and on top of that there are two sorts of secondary schools, the free secondary school - "free" meaning free from examinations, which lasts from 12 to 15, but pupils may leave it already at 14, and it may be extended to 16 if there is a sufficient number of pupils for the fourth form - but generally there is not. (When I talk of secondary schools in general I leave this type out, speaking only of schools preparing for an examination).

There there is the normal - or examination secondary schools from 12 to 16 from which pupils with credit marks may pass on to the gymnasium, which after three years qualifies for the university. Or they may pass on to the so-called Realclass of one year, where they pass a sort of school certificate exam, which does not qualify for the university, but which is necessary to obtain employment in the civil services and in several other spheres of life, and besides they may pass from the real-class into the gymnasium.

I have not been able to get figures for the whole country as to the proportion of children that go to the exam. secondary and those who go to the "free" or modern secondary schools, when the primary school is split up into those two sections at the age of 12. But I have got the figures for Århus, the greatest provincial town. They are:

Primary school:	about 8000	pupils
Exam. secondary:	" 2200	"
Modern secondary:	" 1500	"
Backwards:	" 300	"

The first form of the exam. secondary school has 550 pupils, and the first form of the modern secondary has 750. But then the pupils of the latter type leave school two or three years earlier than the rest.

In smaller towns and in some central schools we may find elementary schools with no exam. secondary schools.

In some towns there are municipal gymnasiums, but most gymnasiums are State schools, where tuition is not quite free. Parents must pay according to their income. All gymnasiums have their own middle schools and real classes, so now we have two sorts of secondary schools: the municipal one and the State schools. The teachers of the gymnasiums have university degrees, whereas teachers at municipal schools come from training colleges. There is a certain rivalry and tension between the municipal secondary schools and the gymnasium secondary schools. The gymnasiums quite naturally prefer pupils from their own middle schools and so make it a bit difficult for pupils from the municipal schools to pass into the gymnasiums, but still there is an unbroken line from the bottom of the primary school to the university.

The gymnasium of three years ends with an examination - the so-called students exam, which corresponds, I should think, to a higher school certificate, and which qualifies for any university study. There are three lines in the gymnasium: classical, modern languages and science. Nowadays science is the most popular.

Now we come to the private schools. The first private elementary schools are the so-called "free schools", which were founded by the followers of Grundtvig. "Free" in this case means free from government control and direction. Tuition in these schools is not free, of course. The parents who send their children to such a free school are able to choose their own teachers and to control that their children are educated in the spiritual atmosphere they want them to grow up in. There is very little government control with such schools although they are amply supported by the State. But in order to get the support their instruction must be up to the standard of the municipal schools. With very few exceptions all these free schools are in the country. One of the things which shows that the influence of Grundtvig has been strongest among the rural population.

In the towns we find other types of elementary schools. There are a few preparatory schools of only five years, preparing for the gymnasium or private secondary schools. Besides there are some elementary schools run by various religious denominations or sects - mainly Catholic - which give full elementary instruction throughout the school age.

On the whole, the private elementary schools are of minor importance comprising only 3% of the total number of pupils in the elementary schools.

The private secondary schools play a much more important part in the life of the Danish school. About one third of the children receiving secondary education go to private schools. In the country they are absolutely the dominating type of secondary school, as there are still very few central schools to give secondary education. In most of these private secondary schools the pupils pass the real-exam. (School Certificate) and many of them have their own primary schools.

There are some private gymnasiums too, and a few of them are boarding schools resembling the English Public Schools.

The present private secondary schools have developed from the real-schools which were founded by the middle classes at the end of the 18th century. They are the third kind of secondary schools we have met, the two others being the municipal schools and the bottom of the gymnasiums. But although we have three different kinds of secondary schools, instruction in all three kinds follows much the same lines. The examinations passed in them are of equal value, and both municipal and private schools are controlled by the same government inspectors. All private secondary schools receive ample support from the State, and apart from paying part of the teachers' salaries and other costs of the schools, the State gives free tuition to about one third of the pupils.

There may be several reasons for preferring private schools. In many cases they have been established from religious motives, e.g. the "free schools" and many elementary schools in the towns. In other cases the leaders of private schools work on special educational principles or have their own theories they want to test. And the greater freedom of the private schools has enabled many headmasters to make their schools into small experimental workshops, where new thoughts and methods have been worked out. In some cases, especially in towns, private schools may be run only for the sake of making money, and parents may send their children to them out of mere snobbishness, because they are thought to be finer than municipal schools, but I think this attitude was much more common some years ago than it is now. Formerly the municipal school was regarded as the poor school, but nowadays it is held in much higher esteem, and all sorts of people let their children attend it. Besides, even poor children may attend private schools now that free tuition is so easily obtained there. On the whole there is a tendency towards a gradual decrease in the number of private schools. Fifteen years ago their total number was about 600. Now it is 380. Most of the private schools that have been abolished have been elementary. The number of secondary schools is about the same: 135 - 123. Several of these schools have been bought by the municipalities and made into municipal schools.

Standing a little apart from the normal school system we have various courses which will prepare pupils of any age for the "Realeksamen" and the "Studentereksamen." Usually either of these last for two years, and of course this shorter period necessitates a lot of cramming, but still they offer an opportunity for people who have got only elementary education to supplement their education and go in for university or other studies if they want to do so later in life.

ORGANISATION

Having now dwelt on the structure of the school, I will try to give a brief outline of its organisation.

The top of the school system is the Minister of Education. Under him we have County School Boards - or Educational Committees - in the country and Educational Committees of the Borough Councils in the towns. Under the County School Boards we have the Parish School Boards. The Educational Committee of Copenhagen has greater independence and self-government than the other School Boards, Copenhagen being a County Borough.

In many towns the head of the School Board is a school-director who supervises all the schools in the town. The headmaster of each school is called the inspector, and at larger schools he has some vice-inspectors or deputy inspectors to help him. The School Board appoints the teachers, draws up plans for the instruction, and controls the teaching, provides the necessary material, etc. Last year an Act was passed, which allows the election of parents councils. Where such councils are elected, the local School Boards will have to share their duties and functions with them. Besides there are teachers' councils at all schools, which are consultative in all matters concerning the school.

A number of government inspectors are continually on circuit throughout the country, controlling instruction in the secondary schools. (There are two sets of inspectors, one for municipal and private schools and one for the State schools.)

Now I have tried to describe what might be called the frames of the school, and I am now going to say a few words about the teaching given within those frames.

PURPOSE.

The popular Education Act begins by stating the purpose of the school: it reads:- "The purpose of the school is to develop the powers and talents of the children, to strengthen their character, and to give them useful knowledge. It ought to encourage and strengthen the sense of ethical and Christian values in the children, to teach them respect of humanity, love for home and country, tolerance, feeling of fellowship between the nations, especially the Scandinavian nations. The school must help to give the children ideals to follow, make them love truth and sincerity, and strengthen their sense of duty. By means of sound discipline they must be taught good behaviour and love of order."

We see that the development of character is mentioned before the imparting of knowledge. Education of the whole child is thought to be more important than mere intellectual instruction. It is well worth noticing this distinction, and every teacher ought to keep it in mind whenever he enters a classroom. But I am afraid that under the present conditions too many teachers are fully occupied in trying to impart the necessary amount of knowledge to the children, and get very little time to think of developing their character. And of course this is a matter which cannot be directed by laws and rules. It depends on the personality of the teacher, but his job can be made more or less difficult by outer circumstances, such as e.g. the crowding of children in too large classes.

SUBJECTS AND METHODS.

Although the Education Act speaks first of the development of character it quite naturally speaks most of the subjects that are to be taught and the methods to be used. The subjects taught in the elementary schools are:

Religion, History, Geography, Zoology, Botany and Science.
Gymnastics, including games, athletics, swimming and hygiene.
Woodwork, drawing, needlework, cookery and gardening.
Singing.

In the last forms of the free secondary schools you may also have English or German and Mathematics.

The small village schools cannot give instruction in all these subjects. And as the Education Act of 1937 makes woodwork, cookery and gymnastics compulsory in all schools, it has been necessary to build central schools in the country, where these subjects can be taught. But the requirements of the law are still far from being fulfilled, although the building of central schools is in rapid progress.

In some schools the teaching is not split up into different subjects, instead it is concentrated round a number of central themes. A theme like "Fishing" for instance will offer opportunities to study the various fishes which are caught - here we are within the sphere of zoology. There will be a lot of geography too. We must find out where the different kinds of fish are caught, where the fishermen live, where the fish are sold etc. Of course, we go down to the harbour one day to study the ships and the methods of fishing and draw pictures of ships and fishing utensils. There will be literature about fishing and the lives of fishermen, which must be studied, and reports and perhaps compositions must be written, so we will be having Danish all the while. A lot of arithmetic may come in as well, when weights, numbers and prices of fish are calculated. In this way the various subjects are combined, and the education gets a closer connection with the life of the community which the children are to enter after leaving school. This method also helps them to work independently and they learn to use books and libraries.

In the free secondary schools there are no examinations whatever, and usually no marks are given. But there is a number of tests by means of which the standard of the pupils can be controlled, and the results of such tests may be used instead of examination certificates.

The subjects of the examination secondary schools are the same as the above mentioned, but here such subjects as English and German and Mathematics are compulsory and a great proportion of the lessons are devoted to these subjects, whereas manual subjects get fewer lessons. French and Latin are optional in the last forms, and a little Swedish is taught in connection with Danish.

The knowledge demanded at the examination is set down by regulations. But teachers are free to use any methods they want in their teaching. The educational liberty of the Danish teacher is very great, and this freedom has often led to valuable innovations. Provided he does not mismanage his job, a teacher is free to try his own methods and follow his own ideas. Not even his headmaster can prevent him from doing so, if the latter's opinion should be contrary to his own.

Some teachers maintain that the examination always looming on the horizon is felt as a heavy burden throughout the secondary school. They want examinations to be limited to a few central subjects, so that most of the subjects can be freed from the pressure of it, and reforms on that line are expected. Others are strongly opposed to the very existence of a division between examination secondary and free secondary school education. They want an undivided school from 7 to 14, and all secondary education must be piled on top of that. They think it undemocratic to divide children into groups according to their intellectual standards. However, I am afraid that these people are not aware of the fact that the basic fault is that children are not equipped with equal abilities.

As I have already mentioned, religious instruction is compulsory, and it might be expected that this would cause no difficulties in this country where 97% of the population are members of the national Lutheran Church. Still there has been some controversy on this problem. Until recently the local rector was the inspector of religious instruction at the schools in his parish, and it was felt as a degradation by many teachers that a person outside their profession was to control their teaching. Now this has been altered, and the parson is only entitled to be present at the lessons, but he has no special authority any longer.

A child who is not a member of the Lutheran Church is not bound to receive religious instruction. A child belonging to the Lutheran Church may be exempted from it if a parson will guarantee that it receives similar instruction from other sources. If a teacher does not want to give religious instruction, he can be free from such lessons, if it can be arranged.

It has been discussed whether religious instruction should be objective or subjective. There has been a demand for objective instruction from some quarters, but it is in the nature of things that it is extremely difficult if not impossible to give such instruction. Although the teacher ought not to make propaganda for his own opinions or to preach to the children, it is inevitable that his own attitude towards the subject he is teaching is felt. A teacher is a living personality, who is giving and receiving impulses, he cannot be a mere teaching machine.

All that I have mentioned up till now has been about normal children. But in all larger towns there are special classes for backward children and for children who suffer from other defects as e.g. deafness, wordblindness, stammering and other defects of speech. Sickly and undernourished children are taken to camps in the country, where they get special treatment. All children receive a meal a day at school to make sure that they get enough vitamins. Their health is controlled by school doctors and nurses, and they get free dental treatment. There are special school psychologists who examine abnormal children and decide what treatment they are to receive, and I could mention even more precautions that are taken to protect children who are handicapped in some way and to give them a better start.

I think most teachers agree that individual instruction must be preferred to class instruction, but circumstances prevent most of them from practising it. Above all, the classes are too large. During the war and since, the number of children had been growing so fast that we have not been able to keep pace with it in building new schools and training more teachers. But the principle of individual instruction and the encouragement of independent activity in the pupils are held up as the ideals in the Education Act.

At many schools this sort of instruction is possible at least once a year, namely when the pupils go to the camp school. This type of school is growing steadily more popular, and an increasing number of schools send their pupils or part of them to such camp schools in the country for a couple of weeks during the summer.

THE FUTURE

I have tried to give a description of the Danish school as it is now. But a school is not a static body. It is always in a sort of transition stage, and it may be moulded into a new shape in the years to come. There is a number of educationalists in this country who advocate radical reforms. And several experimental schools have been established - either on private or government initiative. In those schools the new methods are being tested and worked out, and the results are awaited with great interest. We do not wish to plunge headlong into reforms without knowing where we shall end, but we want a natural and gradual development towards a better school, in conformity with our traditions of the past. Perhaps we are no longer so far ahead of other countries as in 1814, others may have caught up and even overtaken us, but still I think that the average standard of the Danish school comes up to that of any school in the world.

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By Mr. Lønning, lecturer of Århus Teachers Training College.

İsveççe harflerin telaffuzu.
sesli harfler.

- a.
1. Uzun olduğu zaman : älem, äl daki gibi telaffuz edilir bra. (iyi) dam (bayan) v.s.
 2. Kısa olduğu zaman. kälem, kä kitap dakigibi t.e. all (hepsi) falla (düşmek) damm (göl).
- e.
1. Uzun olduğu zaman. ev, - deki gibi t.e. se (görmek) lek (oyun) re sa (seyahat etmek).
 2. Kısa olduğu zaman. kel, bel diki gibi t.e. fem (beğ) men (fakat) verk (iş, çalışma)
o - R harfinin önüne gelirse "e" umumiyetle daha açık telaffuz edilir.
 3. Tek sesli hecelerde (e-el-en-er, len nihayât bulanlar) e. harfi gayet hafif telaffuz edilir. Fransızcadaki " e muet " ye benzer fakat hiç bir zaman telaffuz edilmediği yer yoktur. gosse (çocuk) fagel (kus) botten (dip) finger (parmak)
- i.
- Daima türkçedeki " i " gibi telaffuz edilir
- o.
- Üç çeşit sesle telaffuz edilir
1. İsveçlilere mahsus bir sesle. Biraz türkçedeki " u " ya benzemekle beraber, dudaklar " u " derken biraz daha kisilirse bu ses elde edilir. Misal - bo (bu-oturnak) stor (stur-büyük). broder (kardeş) jord (yer) ord (kelime)
Bu misallerde " o " uzun olarak telaffuz edilir misal 2. " o " nun kısa olarak t.e. orm (urm-yılan) ost (ust-peynir) Blomma (Blumma-çiçek)
 2. Türkçede " o " harfi gibi telaffuz edilir ve daima uzundur. hov (avlu) sova (uyumak) kol (kömür) moln (bulut) son (ogul)
 3. Türkçedeki " o " harfi gibi fakat daima kısa. Stockholm)- komma (gelmek) norr (sinal)
- u.
- İki çeşit ses arzeder -
1. Uzun ve türkçedeki " ü " harfi gibi. (Fakat bu " ü " söylenirken dudaklar çok kisilir. İsveçliler konuşurken arkasından " b " diyorlarmış gibi gelir, hakikatte bu " b " harfinin i du-yulması dudakların aşırı kisilmesinden ileri gelmiştir. hus (ev) (hü(b)s) bud (haber) (bü(b)d)
 2. Kısa ve İsveçlilere mahsus bir seda ile t.e. Busesi ince bir türkçe " u " harfinin telaffuzu İsveçlilerle yapılacak muhabere-lerde iyi öğrenilebilir hund (köpek) kurna (muktedir olmak)
- y.
- Türkçedeki " ü " gibi t.e.
1. Uzun - fyra (füra-dört) ny (nü-yeni)
 2. Kısa - tyst (tüst-sessiz) mynt (münt-para)
- ä.
- Türkçedeki " o " harfi gibi t.e.
1. Uzun - gå (girmek, yürümek) gå måla (mola-boyamak)
 2. Kısa - ätta (otta-sekiz) långa (long-uzun)
- ä.
- Türkçedeki " e " gibi t.e.
- Här (her-burası) äta (eta-yemek) Häst (hest-at) värk (verk-agri)
- ö.
- Türkçedeki " ö " gibi t.e.
- Dä ölmek öga (göz) höst (sonbahar) böja (böya-bükme)

Sessiz harfler.

- B.D.F.V. Türkçedeki gibi telaffuz edilir.
- c. Bu harf e.i.y. önünde türkçe " s " harfine tekabül eder. Cicero - cylinder (sülinder-silindir)

ck-terkibi -k-
misal-flicka (flike) genç (is-tacksan) (t-ksan-müteşekkir)

ch-terkibi -ş-
choklad (şuklad-çikolata)

g-Türkçedeki -g- gibi telaffuz edildiği yerler.

a- -a, o, u, â- harflerinin önünde-gata (sokak) god (god-iyi) gâ (gâ-gitmek)
b- Tek sesli hecelerde "e" harfinin önüne gelirse.
misal-nake (mide) fâgel (fogel-kuş) nager (zayıf)

c- Sessiz harflerin önünde. (. 4 deki istisnalarına dikkat)
misal-şlad (şen) şula (ü la-bayuş) şega (şemirmek)

d- son harf olarak geldiği zaman: (İstisnai haller l-r-den sonra
geldiği zaman ve -ng- terkiibi) şvag (zayıf, kuvvetsiz) şyş (rüş-sirt)

2-Türkçedeki "y" harfi gibi telaffuz edildiği haller.

a- -e, i, y, â, ö- sesli harflerinin önünde. et (et-keçi) giva (vermek)
gârna (yerna-memruniyetle) şıra (yöra-yapmak) v.s.

b- Bazı kelimelerde l ve R den sonra-şalge (şalye-sikar) şelg (şelye-
bayram) şarg (ary-kızgın) şarg (şary-kurt) şerg (şery-dag) şarg
şery-renk) şorg (şory-pazar yeri) v.s.

3- (S)ve(t) harfleri önünde-k-gibi telaffuz edilir hōgst (hōkst-enyük-
sek) lakt (lokt-aşagi)

4- Sesli harfle "n" harfi arasına gelirse. Vagn (vagn) (araba)
regn-regn-yağmur) (lugna-lugna-sakinleşmek) Dikkat-Burada bu "ng"
terkiinde-g-harfi, türkçedeki "g" gibi telaffuz edilir.

5- Fransızcadan gelme kelimelerin içinde e, i, harflerinin önü
gelirse türkçe "ş" harfine benzetilerek t.e. geni (şeni-dahi)
tragede (tragedi-facie) ingeniör (mühendis) loci (şiginak)

h- Türkçe "h" gibi t.e.

j- 1. Ekleri "y" gibi t.e. - Ja (ya-eyet) jul (yül-noel)
Dikkat "j" ile yapılan şu terkiplerde (dj-gj-hj-lj) yalnız
"j" harfi telaffuz edilir. Misal - djur (yü(b)r-hayvan) gjorde
(yorde-yarmıştı) hjort (yort-kayık) ljuga (yüga-yalan söylemek)
2. Gene Fransızcadan gelme kelimelerde türkçe "ş" ye yakın t.e.
journal (şurnal) projekt (proşet-proje)

k- 1. Türkçe "k" gibi telaffuz edildiği haller

- a- a-o-u-a- gibi sesli harflerin önünde kall (şoguk) komma
(gelmek) kulle (tepe) kal (kol-lahana)
 - b- Tek sesli hecelerde e-vei önünde. rike (kirallik) trakig
(troki-sıkıcı)
 - c- Sessiz harften sonra ve evvel geldiği zamanlar- mörker
(karanlık) kniv (biçak) lukt (koku)
 - d- kelimenin sonuna gelince. Lök (boğan)
2. Türkçede "ç" harfi gibi telaffuz edildiği haller
e-i-y-a-ö- sesli harflerinin önünde. kejsare (çeyşare-
imparator) kind (çinda-yanak) şyss (çüş-öpücük) kar (çerç-
sevgili) kopa (çöpa-satınalmak)

l,m,n,p Türkçede deki gibi telaffuz edilir.

r- İsveçlilere mahsus bir sedit ile denaklü dil arasında ezilere
telaffuz edilir.

s- Türkçedeki gibi-ros (gül) lasa (lesa-okumak) go se (çocuk)v.s.
sch, si, sei, sj. terkiplerli hemen hemen türkçe "s" gibi
t.e. şack (şak-satranç) schena (şena-) pension (pension)
passion (paşion-ihtiras) sju (şü-yedi)
skj, stj- de aynı "ş" gibi t.e. skjorta (şurta-gömlek)
skjuta (şüta-teşetmek) stjåla (şela-çalmak) stjarna (şerna-
yıldız)

sk- terkiibinin telaffuzu-

1. Türkçe İskandinavya kelimesindeki gibi tellafuz edildiği
haller

- a- a,u,o,â, sesli harflerinin önünde olduğu zaman- skaka
(sallanmak) skog (şlug-orman) skuld (borç) skåp (dolap)
- b- Tek sesli hecelerde. e,i önüne gelirse buske (çalılık)
- c- Sessiz harfin önünde veya kelimenin nihayetinde
olduğu zaman, misal skrike (bağırarak) mask (solucan)

2. e,i,y,a,ö, sesli harflerin önünde " ş " gibi t.e.
sked (şed-kaşık) maskin (makine) skyla (şüla-saklamak)
skåra (şera-kesmek) skön (güzel)

Dikkat- iskyla (işçüla-buz soğuşu) buşekilde yapılan terkiplerde yani burada is: buz, kyla : soğuk demektir bu ikisinin birleşmesinde yaptığımız terkiplerde sk birleşmesi kaideye uymaz yani " ş " değil ayrı ayrı okunur.

- t- Türkçedeki gibi okunur.
1. " ş " ye benzer şekilde telaffuz edildiği yerler tion, la nihayet bulan kelimelerde lektion (lekşion-ders) addition (adışion-toplama) nation (naşion-millet)
 2. " ç " yi benzer şekilde telaffuz edildiği yerler aktie (akçie-hisse) initial (inişial-baş harfler) tj terkibi " ç " ye yakın t.e. tjuv (çüv-hirsiz) tjara (çera-ketran)
- x- Türkçe " ks " gibi t.e. (exempel-eksempele-misal)

II. Kısım

Konuşma dilinde sedalar.

Sesli harflerin uzun telaffuz edildiği yerler eksori bir tek sessiz harften evvel geldiği zamanlardır - misal. dag (gün) rät (hak) fina (iyi-cemisifat)

Sesli harflerin kısa telaffuz edildiği yerlerde birkaç sessiz harften evvel geldiği zamanlar - dagg (kırak) rätt (doğru) finna (bulmak)

Dikkat 1- Tek heceli kelimelerde " m " len nihayet bulanlar sesli harf gayet kısa telaffuz edilir - dom (hüküm) rum (oda) stum (dilsiz). Aynı hal " n " len nihayet bulanlardada varittir man (adam) han (o-zamir) en (bir)

2- şugibi terkiplerin önünde sesli harf uzun telaffuz edilir (dj, rd, rl, rn, vl, vr) Misal: glädje (gledye-neşe) ord keline) pärla (perla-inci) barn (cocuk) tavla (tablo) havre (yulaf)

AKSAN

Kuvvet aksanı. İsveççede umumiyetle kelimelerin ilk hece agizdan kuvvetli olarak çıkar, sonra ses biraz daha düşürülür - misal: stå-velse (hece) ä-llmänhet (halk) vi-nter (kiş)

Dikkat. Bu kaidenin istisnaları arasında başlıca şunları sayabiliriz.

a- be-för gibi başekleriki bunlar sessizdirler, ozaman aksan ikinci heceye konur. - begära (dilemek) försvära (müdafaa etmek)

b- era gibi son ekli hezolanlarda (fiiller) aksan " e " den sonra konur. misal: genö-ra (cansıklamak) plantöra (dikmek)
Umumi olarak birleşmiş kelimelerde ikinci bir kuvvet aksanı bulunur. (Yeni burada ses gene yükseltilecek) - vi'nterla"ndskap (kiş menzarası) a'rmba"nd (bilezik). Aynı aksan dom-het-lek-skap-aktig-bar-faldig-sam- gibi son ekleri olan kelimelerde de vardır - fa'ttigdo"m (fakirlik) a'rbetsämhe"t (çalışkanlık) kä'rlo"k (aşk) gra'nnska"p (komşuluk) ú'ppenba"r (nümayiş) mä'ngfa"ldig (birçok) trö'ttisa"m (yorucu) v.s.

(") - ikinci kuvvet aksanı (') - birinci kuvvet aksanı

Yazma diliyle konuşulan dil arasında fark

1. Konuşma dili çoğul şahıslarda dahi fülün tekil şeklini kullanır.
2. Bazı fiiller konuşma dilinde kısaltılmış şekilde kullanılır.

Konuşma dili		Yazma dili	
Master.		Master.	
be-	(istemek) şimdiki zaman	ber	Bedja-ş.z. boder
bli	(olmak)	blir	bliva " bliver
dra	(çekmek)	drar	draga " drager
ge	(vermek)	ger	giva " giver
ha	(Malik olmak)	har	hava " haver
ta	(almak)	tar	taga " tager

3. Konuşma dilinde I inci gruba ait olan fiillerin geçmiş zamanlar; master in aynı olarak söylenir - misal: Jag kallade yerine jag kalla - çağırıyordum.
4. Konuşma dilinde tek heceli ve d.g.t ile nihayet bulan kelimelerde bu son harfler telaffuz edilmez. Misal: Ja(g)- (ben) de(t)- (bu) va(d)- (ne) go(d) - (iyi) da(g) -(gün)
5. Mig, dig, sig, de, şahıs zamirleri konuşma dilinde mej, dej, sej, dom, şeklinde söylenir.

§ İsim ve Harfi-tarifler

İsveç gramerinde iki türlü isim vardır. Umumi isim (erkek ve dişi için) bu kisma, tekil ve (defini-malum) şekillerinde sonlarına (en) veya (n) malum harfi-tarifini, alan isimler dahildir. Nötr isim, tekil ve malum şekillerinde sonlarına (et) veya (t) malum harfi-tarifini alanlardır.

misal: Umumi isimler - sonen (ogul) bilden (resim) gossen (erkek çocuk) nötr isimler - huset (ev) biet (arı) snöret (sicim)

Dikkat: İnsan ve ekseri hayvan ve canlı isimleri Umumi isimlerdir Fakat bu bir kaide değildir, lügat"a bakarak çalışma, isimlerin hangi kisma dahil olduğunu, yani hangi harfi tarifin kullanılacağını öğretir.

§ İsimlerin çoğul şekilleri

İsveççede çoğul takilari, türkçede olduğu gibi basit değildir. İsimler çoğul olunca cins ve sonuçlarına göre değişikliklere uğrarlar.

Kısım I- Bu kisma "a" ile biten bütün umumi isimler girer ve çoğul şekillerinde "a" kaybolur ve yerine "or" gelir.

misal; Tekil Çoğul
flicka (kız) flickor (kızlar)
blomma (çiçek) blommor (çiçekler)

Kısım II- (e-el-en-er-dom-ing-) ve sessiz harflerle biten bütün tek heceli umumi isimler çoğul şekillerinde "ar" ekini alırlar.

misal; stol (iskemle) - stolar, tidning (gazete) - tidningar
fattigdom (fakirlik) - fattigdomar

Kısım III- (ad-skap- ile biten u.is. yabancı dillerden alınan ve kuvvetli bir aksenle biten ekseri isimler ve birçok tek heceli u. isimler dup çoğul şekillerinde "er" ekini alırlar.

misal; en bild (bir resim) tre bilder (üç resim) vetenskap (ilim) vetenskaper

Kısım IV- sesli harflerle biten bütün nötr isimler, çoğul şekillerinde "n" ekini alırlar.

misal; ett bi (bir arı) två bin (iki arı)

Kısım V- sessiz harfle biten bütün nötr isimler ve are - ande- ile biten isimler, çoğul şekillerinde değişmezler.

misal; ett hus (bir ev) fyra hus (4 ev) en pelare (1 sütun)
fem pelare (5 sütun) en levande (1 canlı) tio levande (10 canlı)

Dikkat, I. e-el-en-er gibi zayıf aksenli biten isimler çoğul yapılarındaki son hecelerinde değişikliğe uğrarlar.

misal; (tekil) - gosse, angel, botten, syster
(çoğul) - gossar, anglar, (melekler) bottnar (dipler)
systrar (kızkardeşler)

II. Bazı isimlerin çoğul yapılarındaki ana hece dağılımına uğrar

misal; moder (ana) mödrar, dotter (kızevlat) döttrar, stad (şehir) stader

III. Bazı isimler çoğul şekillerinde hiç bir kaideye uymazlar.

Misal; (tekil) man (erkek) fader (baba) broder (kardeş)
öga (göz) bra (kulak) afton (akşam) morgon (sabah)

fot (ayak) bok (kitap) gäs (kaz)
(çoğul) män, fader, bröder, ögon, öron, aftnar, morgnar,
fötter, böcker, gäss

sesli harfle biten ve ekseri tek heceli isimler çoğul şekillerinde
" r " alırlar. Misal; sko (ayakkabi) skor - ko (inek) kor -

§ Isimlerin mühem ve muayyen şekilleri

Mühem şekil (en) flicka (en) stol, (en) bild, (ett) bi (ari)
(ett) dike, (çukur)

en - ett kelimeleri mühem harfi - tarifler olup isimlerin önlerinde
gelir ve mühem şekillerinde kullanılırlar. Yani isimlerin bu
şekillerinde, mesela en flicka dediğimiz zaman laettayin, hiç bir
suretle tayin etmeden bir kız demekteyiz

Muayyen şekil (tekil) flickan, stolen, bilden, biet
(çoğul) flickorna, stolarna, bilderna, bina

Tekildeki (n-en-t-et) çoğul eki (na-a) ekleri muayyen harfi
tarifler olup isimlerin bu şekilde kullanılır. Yani flickan
dediğimiz zaman, malum, muayyen bildiğimiz bir kızdan bahsediyoruz dur.

§

harfi tarifler

Muayyen harfi - tarifin şekilleri

A Umumi isimlerde (tekil)

a) sessiz harfle biten isimlerin sonuna - en - olarak eklenir. (istisna-
el-er-or- la biten isimler) Misal; stolen, bilden

Dikkat: (en) - le biten isimlerde -e- harfi en harfi tarifi eklenişinde düşer Misal; botten, bottnen

b) sesli harfle veya (el-er-or) le biten isimlerin sonuna - n - olarak eklenir. Misal; kon, gossen, flickan, fageln, fadern

B- Nötr isimlerde (tekil)

a) - e - ile bitenler heriş bütün nötr isimlerin sonlarına - et - olarak eklenir. Misal; biet, ägget

b) - e - ile bitenlerde - t - olarak eklenir. Misal; diket (çukur) snöret (sicim)

Dikkat: (el-en-er) le biten isimlerde - e - harfi - ot - harfi tarifi eklenişiyile. Misal; exempel - exemplet (misal) vapen - vapnet (silah) fönster - fönstret (pencere)

A II. Umumi isimlerde (çoğul)

Bütün isimler - na - ekini alırlar. Misal; gossarna, glickorna, bilderna

Dikkat: I- çoğulları hiçbir kaideye uymayan isimlerde harfi tarif aynen ismin tekil şekline takıldığı gibidir.

Misal: mannen (erkek) (tekil) männen (çoğul)
gäsen (kaz) (-"-") gässen (-"-")

II-are- ile biten isimlerde -e- harfi, harfi tarifin takılması ile düşer. Misal: läkaren (doktor-tekil)

läkarna (doktorlar)

B II. Nötr isimlerde (çoğul)

a) çoğul şekli IV. şekle uyan isimler -a - eki alırlar. Misal; bina, dikena

b) V. şekle uyan nötr isimlerde ve (öga - öra) da - en - eki alırlar. Misal; äggen, träden (ağaçlar), ögonen, öronen

Dikkat: - el-en-er ile biten nötr isimlerde - e - harfi düşer.
(tekil) exempel - (çoğul) exemplen, (tekil) fönster - (çoğul) fönstren

Sifatlar

Mukayese - ve üstünlük

Model sıfatlar - stark (kuvvetli)
hög (yüksek)

Mukayese şekli- starkare (daha kuvvetli) högre (daha yüksek)

Üstünlük şekli- starkast (en kuvvetli) högst (en yüksek)

Sıfatların çoğu - stark-modeli gibidirler.

Dikkat (el-en-er) le biten sıfatlar mukayese ve üstünlük eklerinin takılmasıyla - e- harfini kaybederler.
Misal; ädel (asil) ädlare - ädlast, trogen (sadık) trognare - trognast

Hög - sıfati modelini takipeden bazı sıfatlar mukayese ve üstünlük eklerinin takılmasıyla ana sesli harflerinde değişikliğe uğrarlar.

Misal; grov (kalın) grövre-grövt, låg (aşağı) lägre-lägst
tung (ağır) tyngre-tyngst, ung (genç) yngre- yngst
stor (büyük) störrer-störst, få (birkaç) färre, små (küçük) smärre

Bazı sıfatlarda hiç bir kaideye uymazlar.

Misal; bra (iyi) bättre-bäst, dälåg (fena) sämre-sämst
ond (hain) värre-varst, ond (kızgın) ondare-ondast
gammal (ihtiyar) äldre-äldst, liten (küçük) mindre-minst
manga (birçok) flera-flesta, mycken (çok) mera-mest

Bazı sıfatların mukayese ve üstünlük şekilleri, daha - mera on fazla - mest zarfları ile inşa edilir. Bu sıfatlar ad-e-isk ile nihayetlenenlerdir. Misal; nitisk (gayretli) mera nitisk (daha gayretli) mest nitiskt (en gayretli)

Sıfatlar beraber kullanıldıkları isimlerin şekillerine uyurlar den, det, de - kelimeleri sıfatların harfi - tarifleridirler

Misal; Den stora gossen (malum büyük erkek çocuk)

Det stora huset (malum büyük ev)

De stora gossarna (malum büyük erkek çocuklar)

Dikkat! Sıfatlar türkçede olduğu gibi beraber kullanıldıkları kelimelerin önüne gelirler.

II. Harfi - tarifli bir sıfattan sonra gelen isim muayyen şeklini alır.

Sıfatların şekilleri

- I. Sıfatın hiç değişikliğe uğramadığı yerler.
 - a) - muphem (en) harfi tarifinden ve sorgu ve şaşkınlık sıfatlarından sonra geldiği zamanlar. Misal; En stor gosse (büyük bir çocuk vilken stor gosse! (ne büyük bir çocuk!)
 - b) haber şeklinde kullanıldığı zaman. Misal; gossen är stor (çocuk büyüktür)
- II. Sıfatın değişikliğe uğrayıp nötr ve tekilde - t - eki aldığı yerler.
 - a) müphem (ett) harfi tarifinden sonra epitet olarak kullanılırsa ve sual nida sıfatlarından sonra gelirse. Misal; Ett stort hus (bir büyük ev) vilket stort hus! (ne büyük ev!)
 - b) haber olarak kullanıldığı zaman. Misal; Huset är stort (ev büyüktür)
- III. Sıfatın -a- ekini aldığı yerler.
 - a) çoğulda kullanıldığı zamanlar. Misal; Stora gossa, flickor, hus gossarna äro stora (çocuklar büyüktürler)
 - b) sıfat harfi tarifinden mulki ve işaret sıfatlarından sonra gelirse Misal; Den stora flickan - mitt nya hus (benim yeni evim) detta nya hus (şu yeni ev)
- IV. Sıfatın - e- eki aldığı yerler
 - a) mukayese sıfatları hiç değişmezler
 - b) sıfat harfi tarifi, veya mulkiyer sıfatından sonra gelen üstünlük sıfatları - e- eki alırlar. Misal; Den starkaste gossen de starkaste gossarna (en kuvvetli çocuklar)

Dikkat:

I. nötr şekilde

- a) sesli harflerle biten tek heceli d-t- ile biten sıfatlar -tt- alırlar
Misal; blå (navi) blått ny (yeni) nytt god (iyi) gott
- b) sessiz harften sonra -t- ile biten sıfatlar hiç değişmezler
Misal; fast (sabit) -fast, stolt (gururlu) - stolt
- c) sessiz harften sonra -d- ile biten sıfatlarda -d- harfi düşer.
Misal; ond - ont (kızgın), hård - hart (sert)
- d) -en- ile biten sıfatlarda -n- düşer, Misal; mogen (olmuş) moget
- e) -nn- ile bitenler tek -n- ile yazılırlar. Misal; sann (sahi) sant

- II- a-e ile biten sıfatlarda.
a) -el-en-er-ile biten sıfatlarda -e- düşer.
misal: ädel-ädle, magen-magna, tapper-tappra
b) Gammal (eski) sıfatı son hecesindeki -a- harfini kaybeder.
misal: gammal-gamla
- III-Liten (küçük) sıfatı hiç bir kaideye uymaz. Misal: en liten gosse (bir küçük çocuk). Den lilla flickan (malum küçük kız). Çogul- små gossar
- IV- a-e ile biten sıfatlar değişikliğe uğramazlar. mis: bra, stilla (sakin)

Şahıs zamirleri, mülkiyet zamir ve sıfatları

Şahıs zamirleri			Mülkiyet zamir ve sıfatları		
Iinci şahıs	Faill&haber Jag (ben)	Mef'ul Mig (bana, benden)	Min (benim)	Nötr is. Mitt (benim)	Çogul Mina
	Vi (biz)	Oss (bize, bizden)	Vår (bizim)	Vårt (bizim)	Våra
IIinci şahıs	Du (sen) Ni (siz)	Dig (sana, senden) Er (size, sizden)	Din (senin) ER (sizin)	Ditt Edert	Dina Edra
III üncü şahıs	Han (o, erkek) Hon (o, dişi) Den (O, um. is. için) Det (o, nötr için)	honom (ona) Henne (.) Den det	Isveççenin IIIüncü şahisi için mülkiyet zamir ve sıfatı yoktur Bunun yerine şahıs zamirlerinin genetik şekli kullanılır ("s" ilavesi)	IIIüncü şahıs için mülkiyet zamir ve sıfatı yoktur Bunun yerine şahıs zamirlerinin genetik şekli kullanılır ("s" ilavesi)	hans (onun) hennes dess (onun nötr) deras (onların nötr)
IIIüncü şahıs reflektif	tekil ve çoğulda sig (kendine)		sin (kendinin)	sitt	sina (kendinin kiler)

Han-hon şahıs zamirleri insanlar için kullanılır. Eşya ve hayvanlardan bahsederken den-det kullanılır. mis: gossen-han, flickan-hon, hunden-den
Det-zamiri aynı zamanda IIIüncü nötr şahıslar içinde kullanılır.
Mesela, yağmur yağıyor derken-det regnar- hava güzel derken-det är vackert väder.

IIIüncü reflektif şahıs zamirini ve mülkiyet zamir ve sıfatlarını misalle izah edelim.

Misal: Han mötte sin broder-o kardeşine rastladı-eger bu cümleyle kendi kardeşine rastladığını anlatmak istiyorsak "sin" yani reflektif mülkiyet sıfatını kullanırız.

Eger başkasının kardeşine rastladığını ifade etmek istersek cümle değişir "sin yerine "hans" mülkiyet sıfatı kullanılır. Han mötte hans broder.

Birbirini : Zamiri isveççe-varandra- dir. Vi älska varandra (birbirimizi seviyoruz) De hjälpa varandra (birbirilerine yardım ediyorlar)

İşaret zamir ve sıfatları

I-Den-(bu) zamir olarak kullanıldığı zaman (den) şahıs zamirinin aynıdır
sifat olarak kullanıldığı zaman (den) sıfat harfi-tarifinin aynıdır.

II-Denne (bu, buradaki) zamir ve sıfat olarak kullanılır. Zamir olarak kullanıldığı zaman genetik formda "s" alır.

Tekil- Umumi isimlerde- denne-denna-Nötr isimlerde- detta-
Çogul- Her iki cins isimlerde- dessa- dir.

III-Densamme, samma (aynısı) -Densamme zamirdir ve genetik formda "s" alır. Samma sıfatdır.

Tekil-Umumi is. densamme-a. Nötr is. Detsamma-samma.
Çogul- Her iki cins isimlerde- dessa-samma- dir

İzafi zamir ve sıfatlar

- I- Som-değişmez zamirdir. Hem fail hem meful olarak kullanılır. Misal:
Du som är ung kan springa. Genç olan sen, koşabilirsin. Burada som faildir. Hon var som en orm. O, (kadın) y. lan gibiydi. Burada som meful dur.
- II- Vad- zamirdir. Fail olarak kullanıldığı zaman som ile beraber gelir
Gör vad som är rätt. Doğru olanı yap (Vad-ne demektir)
Det är allt vad jag vet om saken. Mesele hakkında bildigimin hepsi bu kadar. Vad burada mefuldur.
- III- Vilken- (hangisi, oki) Zamir ve sıfat dir. Vilken sıfat olarak kullanıldığı zaman beraber geldiği ismin şekline uyar.
Tekil. Umumi is. - vilken. Nötr is. vilket.
Çogul. Her iki cins isimlerdede. vilka- dir.
Bu şekiller zamir içinde aynıdır, yalnız genetik olunca "s" eklenir.

Sual sıfat ve zamirlerir

- I- Vem (kim) zamir, izafi (genetik) şeklinde " s " alır Mis: Vem kommer? kim geliyor?
- II- Vad (ne) nötr dür değişim ez hem sıfat hem zamir olarak kullanılır
Mis: Vad säger du? ne diyorsun?
- III- Vad för en, ett? (nebiçim? ne cins?) zamir ve sıfat - çogul ve topluluk isimleri önünde yalnız - vad för - olarak kullanılır
Mis: Vad för människor? (nebiçim insanlar?) vad är det för färg? (bu hangi renk?)
Dikkat- indirekt sual şeklinde, sorgu zamirleri - som- ile beraber gelirler. Mis: Jag vet inte vem som har gjort det. Bunu kimin yaptığını bilmiyorum. Vet ni vad som har hänt? Ne olduğunu biliyor musunuz?

Hüphem (indefini) zamir ve sıfatlar.

<u>umumi cins</u>	<u>nötr cins</u>	<u>çogul</u>
man (birisi)	--	--
någon (birisi)	någonting något (birşey)	några (birkaç)
ingen (hiç kimse)	intet, ingenting (hiç birşey)	inga
sonlig (bazi)	sonligt	sonliga
annan (başka)	annat	andra (başkaları)
den andre-a (başkası)	det andra	de andra
mången (birçok)	månget	många
var (her)	vart	---
varje (her)	varje	---
var och en (herkes)	vart och ett	---
all (hepse)	allt, allting	alla
sådan (böyle)	sådant	sådana
dylik (benzer)	dylikt	dylika
viss (malüm)	visst	vissa
själv (kendi)	själv	själva

Bu kelimeler ehemmiyetli olup, ezberleneceklerdir.

Fiiller-

Dört Tasrif şekli

- Tip fiiller - Grup I- kalla (çagırmak)
Grup II- böja (bükmek) - köpa (satılmak)
Grup III- tro (in-nmak)
Grup IV- gripa (yakalamak)-binda (bağlamak)
- Fiillerin altları çzik olan kısımları kök olup tasriflerde ek'ler buna ilave edilir.

Grup I

<u>HAL</u>		<u>GEÇİŞ Z.</u>	
Jag kallar - çağırıyorum		Kallade - çağırıyordum	
Du kallar - çağırıyorsun		kallade - çağırıyordun	
Hon, han, den, det kallar	çağırıyor	kallade - çağırıyordu	
vi kalla	çağırıyoruz	kallade - çağırıyorduk	
ni kalla	çağırıyorsunuz	kallade - çağırıyordunuz	
de kalla	çağırıyorlar	kallade - çağırıyordular	

<u>di-li geçmiş</u>		<u>mişli-geçmiş</u>	
Jag her kallat - çağırdım		hade kallat - çağırmıştım	
du her kallat - çağırdın		hade kallat - çağırmıştin	
hon, han, den, det her kallat - çağırdı		hade kallat - çağırmıştı	
vi ha kallat - çağırdık		hade kallat - çağırmıştik	
ni ha kallat - çağırdınız		hade kallat - çağırmıştiniz	
de ha kallat - çağırdılar		hade kallat - çağırmıştilar	

<u>gelecek z.</u>		<u>sart</u>	
jag skull kalla - çağıracağım		skulle kalla - çağıracaktım)	
du skull kalla - çağıracaksın		skulle kalla - çağıracaktin)	
hon, han, den, det, skull kalla - çağıracak		skulle kalla - çağıracakti)	
vi skola kalla - çağıracağız		skulle kalla - çağıracaktik)	
ni skola kalla - çağıracaksınız		skulle kalla - çağıracaktiniz)	
de skola kalla - çağıracaklar		skulle kalla - çağıracaktilar)	

<u>emir</u>	<u>mestar siygesi</u>	<u>feri-fiil</u>	<u>partisip</u>
kalla - çağır	att kalla - çağırnak	kallat -	kallande (çağırıcı)

Grup I- Bu gruba ait fiiller hal'de - tekil şahıslarda - ar- eki çoğul larda ise olduğu gibi mestar şeklinde kalırlar - geçmiş zamanda - ade - eki alırlar - di-li geçmiş deima yardımcı fiil olan - hava- (malik olmak) ile yapılır, sonu - at- ile biter. miş-li geçmiş gene hava- fiil'inin geçmiş zaman olan - hade- ile yapılır fiil sonu gene - at - ele biter. gelecek zaman - skola - yardımcı fiiliyle yapılırki bunun hal' i - skall -, dir, fiil mestar olduğu gibi kullanılır. Sart - skola - fiilinin geçmiş zamanı olan - skulle - ile yapılır fiil geçmiş mestar olarak ilave edilir. Emir fiilin mestaridir, yalnız ikinci şahıs için mevcuttur. Mestar siygesi İsveççe de - att - kelimesiyle yapılır (partisip) isim veya sıfat yerine kullanılan fiil siygesi, fiilin köküne - ande- eklenmesiyle yapılır. Bu gurup ekseri İsveç fiillerine modeldir.

Grup II-

Grup II- Bu gruba ait olan fiiller hal'de "er" ile biter. İki kısma ayrılır a) kökleri k-p-s-t ile bitmeyen fiiller -böja- fiil'i şeklinde tasrif olunurlar yani- geçmiş zamanda -de- ile b) kökleri k-p-s-t ile biten fiiller -köpa- tip fiili şeklinde tasrif edilirler yani geçmiş zamanda -te- ile sonuçlanırlar.

Hal	Geçmiş z.	Di-li geçmiş
Jag böjer (büküyorum)	böjde (büküyordum)	har böjt (büküdüm)
Du böjer (büküyorsun)	böjde (büküyordun)	har böjt (büküdün)
Han, hon, den	böjde (büküyordu)	har böjt (büküdü)
det böjer (büküyor)		
Vi böja (büküyoruz)	böjde (büküyorduk)	har böjt (büküdük)
Ni böja (büküyorsunuz)	böjde (büküyordunuz)	har böjt (büküdünüz)
De böja (büküyorlar)	böjde (büküyordular)	har böjt (büküdüler)

Mış-li geçmiş	Gelecek z.
Jag hade böjt (bükümüştüm)	skall böja (büküceğim)
Du hade böjt (bükümüştün)	skall böja (büküceksin)
Han, hon, den	
det hade böjt (bükümüştü)	skall böja (bükücek)
Vi hade böjt (bükümüştük)	skall böja (büküceğiz)
Ni hade böjt (bükümüştünüz)	skall böja (büküceksiniz)
De hade böjt (bükümüştüler)	skall böja (bükücekler)

Şart	Emir	Master
Jag skulle böja (bükücektim)	Böja (bük)	Att böja (bükmek)
Du skulle böja (bükücektin)		
Han, hon, den		
det skulle böja (bükücekti)	<u>Feri-fiil</u>	<u>Partisip</u>
Vi skulle böja (bükücektik)	Böjt	böjande (bükücü)
Ni skulle böja (bükücektiniz)		
De skulle böja (bükücektiler)		

Dikkat:

Bu grubun ikinci k sına giren "köpa" fiili tamamen aynı olarak tasrif edilir yalnız geçmiş zamanda "de" yerine "te" alır.

Grup III

Bu grup "tro" tip fiili gibi tasrif edilenlerdir. "a" ile nihayet bulmıyan bütün tek heceli fiiller bu gruba girerler. Misal: Bo (ikamet etmek) ro (kürek çekmek) sy (sü-dikiş dikmek) fly (flü-kaçmak) v.s.

Hal	Geçmiş z.	Di-li geçmiş
Jag tror (inaniyorum)	trodde (inaniyordum)	har trott (inandım)
Du tror (inaniyorsun)	trodde (inaniyordun)	har trott (inandın)
Han, hon, den		
det tror (inaniyor)	trodde (inaniyordu)	har trott (inandı)
Vi tro (inaniyoruz)	trodde (inaniyorduk)	har trott (inandık)
Ni tro (inaniyorsunuz)	trodde (inaniyordunuz)	har trott (inandınız)
De tro (inaniyorlar)	trodde (inaniyorlardı)	har trott (inandılar)

Mış-li geç.	Gelecek z.
Jag hade trott (inanmıştım)	skall tro (inanacağım)
Du hade trott (inanmıştın)	skall tro (inanacaksın)
Han, hon, den	
det hade trott (inanmıştı)	x skall tro (inanacak)
Vi hade trott (inanmıştık)	skall tro (inanacağız)
Ni hade trott (inanmıştiniz)	skall tro (inanacaksınız)
De hade trott (inanmıştılar)	skall tro (inanacaklar)

	<u>Sart</u>	<u>-II-</u> <u>Emir</u>	<u>Master</u>
Jag	skulle tro(inanacaktim)	Tro(inan)	att tre(inanmak)
Du	skulle tro(inanacaktin)		
Han, hon, den			
det	skulle tro(inanacakti)		
Vi	skulle tro(inanacaktik)	<u>Feri fiil</u>	<u>Partisip</u>
Ni	skulle tro(inanacaktiniz)		
De	skulle tro(inanacaktilar)	trott	troende(inanan)

Dikkat: Bu gruba ait fiillerde partisip "ande" ilavesi ile yapılacağı yerde "ende" ilavesiyle olur.

Grup IV

I-II-III-üncü gruplara giren fiiller zayıf fiillerdir. Yani geçmiş zamanlarında "ade-de-te-dde" eklerinin kök fiille ilavesi ile tasrif edilirler. Bu IV üncü grup fiilleri kuvvatli fiiller olup geçmiş zamanlarında kök lerinden değışirler.

Bu grubuda ikiye ayırabiliriz-gripa- tasrif edilenlerki geçmiş zamanlarında tekil ve çoğul şahislerinde aynı kök değışikligini muhaffaza ederbler.

	<u>Master</u>	<u>geçmiş z.</u>
gripa	tekil şahislerde-grep	
kök	çoğul şahislerde-grepo	

II-Binda- gibi tasrif edilenler geçmiş zamanlarında tekil ve çoğul şahislerinde ayri kök değışikligine ugrarlar.

	<u>Master</u>	<u>geçmiş z.</u>
binda	tekil şahislerde-band	
	çoğul şahislerde-bundo	

	<u>Hal</u>	<u>Geçmiş zaman</u>	<u>Di-li geçmiş</u>
Jag	griper(kavriyorum)	grip(kavriyordum)	har gripit(kavradım)
Du	griper(kavriyorsun)	grip(kavriyordun)	har gripit(kavradın)
Han, hon, den			
det	griper(kavriyor)	grip(kavriyordu)	har gripit(kavradı)
Vi	griper(kavriyoruz)	gripo(kavriyorduk)	har gripit(kavradık)
Ni	griper(kavriyorsunuz)	gripo(kavriyordunuz)	har gripit(kavradınız)
De	griper(kavriyorlar)	gripo(kavriyordular)	har gripit(kavradılar)

	<u>Miş-li geçmiş</u>	<u>Gelecek zaman.</u>
Jag	hade gripit(kavramıştım)	skall gripa(kavriyacagım)
Du	hade gripit(kavramıştın)	skall gripa(kavriyacaksın)
Han, hon, den		
det	hade gripit(kavramıştı)	skall gripa(kavriyacak)
Vi	hade gripit(kavramıştık)	skall gripa(kavriyacagız)
Ni	hade gripit(kavramıştiniz)	sk ll gripa(kavriyacaklar)

	<u>Sart</u>	<u>Emir</u>	<u>master</u>
Jag	skulle gripa(kavrayacaktim)		
Du	skulle gripa(kavrayacaktin)	grip(kavra)	att gripa(kavramak)
Han, hon, den			
det	skulle gripa(kavrayacakti)		
Vi	skulle gripa(kavrayacaktik)	<u>feri fiil</u>	<u>partisip</u>
Ni	skulle gripa(kavrayacaktiniz)		
De	skulle gripa(kavrayacaktilar)	gripit	gripande(kavrayici)
		bundit	bindande(baglayici)

Dikkat: Konuşma dilinde fiil çoğul şahislerinde dahi aynı tekil şahisler'i gibi tasrif edilir

	Jag	kallar	Jag	kallar
	Du	kallar	Du	kallar
Konuşma dili-	han	kallar	han	kallar
	Vi	kallar	Vi	kalla
	Ni	kallar	Ni	kalla
	De	kallar	De	kalla
			Yazma dili-	

Aşagıda bu kuvvetli fiillerin en çok kullanılanlarının bir listesini veriyorum. İsveçcede tekil şahısların aynı olarak tasrif edildiğini ve tasrifdeki değişiklik çoğul şahıslarda olup bunlarında hepsinin aynı bu sonuçla devam ettiğini bildiğimiz için aşağıdaki verdığımız misallerde fiiller yalnız tekil ve çoğul şahıslar diye iki şekilde verilmiştir. Diyli, ve mişli geçmiş -hava-yardımcı fiiline, fiilin ferî siygası ilave edilerek yapıldığı için burada yalnız ferî siygasını veriyorum.

Master	Geçmiş		ferî siygası
	tekil.	çoğul	
flyga (flüga-uçmak)	flög	flögo	flugit
flyta (flöta) yüzmek	flöt	flöto	flutit
frysa (früsa-üşümek)	frös	fröso	frusit
försvinna (kaybolmak)	försvann	försvunno	försvunnit
giva (yiva-vermek)	gav	gåvo	givit
gjuta (yüta-erimek)	göt	göto	gjutit
glida (kaymak)	gled	gledo	glidit
gnida (sürtmek)	gned	gnedo	gnidit
gråta (grotta-ağlamak)	grät	gräto	grätit
hinna (yetişmek)	hann	hunno	humnit
hugga (hüga-kesmek)	högg	höggo	huggit
hälla (hälla-tutmak)	höll	höllo	hällit
kliva (hızlı yürümek)	klev	klevo	klivit
klyva (klüva-yarmak)	klöv	klövo	kluvit
knäta (knüta-düğümlemek)	knöt	knöto	knutit
komma (gelmek)	kom	kommo	kommit
krypa (krüpa-sürünmek)	kröp	kröpo	krupit
lida (acı çekmek)	led	ledo	lidit
ljuda (yüda-ses çıkar.)	ljöd	ljödo	ljudit
ljuga (yüga-yalnız söylemek)	ljög	ljögo	ljugit
läta (lota-birlemek)	lät (let)	läto	lätit
njuta (yüta-zevketmek)	njöt	njöto	njutit
rida (ata binmek)	red	redo	ridit
rimna (akmak)	rann	ranno	rumit
riva (parçalamak)	rev	revo	rivit
sitta (oturmak)	satt	sutto	suttit
sjuda (şüda-kaynamak)	sjöd	sjödo	sjudit
sjunga (şünga-şarkisöy.)	sjöng	sjöngo	sjungit
sjunka (şünka-alçalmaksjönk)	skönk	sjönko	sjunkit
skina (şina-parlamak)	skön	skeno	skinit
skjuta (şüta-ateşetmek)	sköt	sköto	skjutit
skrida (kaymak)	skred	skredo	skridit
skrika (bağirmek)	skrek	skreko	skrikit
skriya (yazmak)	skrev	skrevo	skrivit
skryta (ögünmek)	skröt	skröto	skrutit
skära (şera-kesmek)	skar	skaro	skurit
slippa (kurtulmak)	slapp	sluppo	sluppit
slita (kullanmak)	slöt	sleto	slitit
smyga (kaçırmağ)	smög	smögo	smugit
sova (uyumak)	sov	sovo	sovit
spinna (sapları ayır.)	spann	spunno	spunnit
spricka (çatlamak)	sprack	sprucko	spuruckit
springa (koşmak)	sprang	sprungo	sprungit
sticka (sokmak)	stack	stucko	stuckit
stiga (çikmak)	steg	stego	stigit
stjåla (şela-çalmak)	stal	stulo	stulit
stryka (üstünden geçmek)	strök	ströko	strukit
svida (yanmak)	svöd	svedo	svidit (yara için)
svåra (küfür-yemin)	svor	svuro	svurit
taga (almak)	tog	togo	tagit
tjuta (çüta-ulumak)	tjöt	tjöto	tjutit
vika (katlamak)	vek	veko	vikit

Yardımcı fiiller şu aşağıdakiler olup tasrifleri ezberlenecektir

<u>mastar</u>	<u>Hal</u>	<u>çogul</u>	<u>geçmiş z.</u>		<u>feri siy.</u>
Hava(ha-malik olmak)	tekil har	ha-va	tekil hade	çogul hade	haft
Vara(olmak)	är	äro	var	verø	varit
skola(golecek zamanda yardımcı)	skall	skola	skulle	skulle	skolat
bliva(olmak-is-tikbalde)	blir	bliva	blev	blevo	blivit
vilja(arzu etmek)	vill	vilja	ville	ville	volat
kunna(muktedir olmak)	kan	kunna	kunde	kunde	kumat
Få (muktedir olmak)	(elde etmek) får	få	fick	fingo	fått

Dikkat: II inci gruba ait olan şu-fiiller geçmiş zamanlarında aynı kaideye uymazlar. Bunlar-ja- ile bitenlerle -a- ile biten bazı fiillerdir.

<u>Mastar</u>	<u>geçmiş z.</u>	<u>feri siyg.</u>
glädja(neşelenmek)	glädde	glätt
sälja (satmak)	sälde	sält
välja (seçmek)	valde	vält
vänja (alışmak)	vande	vant
dölja (saklamak)	dolde	dolt
smörja(yaglamak)	smorde	smort
stödja(abanmak)	stödde	stött
skilja(şilya-ayirmek)	skilde	skilt
<u>-a- ile bitenler</u>		
lägga(koymak)	lade	lagt
säga (seya-demek)	sade	sagt
sätta(setta-koymak)	satte	satt
göra(yöra-yapmak)	gjorde(yurde)	gjort(yurt)
töras(cesaret etmek)	tordes	torts

Aşğıdaki fiiller hiçbir kaideye uymadan tasrif edilirler. Ezberlenecek!

<u>Mastar</u>	<u>Hal</u>	<u>Geçmiş z.</u>	<u>feri siy.</u>
heta(isimlenmek)	heter	hette	hetat
leva(yaşamak)	lever	levde	levat
veta(bilmek)	vet	visste	vetat
dö (ölmek)	dör	dog	dött
se (görmek)	ser	såg	sett
le (tebessüm et.)	ler	log	lött
stå (ayakta durmak)	står	stod	stått
slå (dögmek)	slår	slog	slagit
gå (gitmek)	går	gick(yik)	gått
ligga(yatmak)	ligger	låg	legat
tiga(susmak)	tiger	teg	tegat
stiridå(savaşmak)	strider	stred	stridit

§ ZARFLAR-

Zarfların mühim bir kısmı sıfatlara -t- harfi eklenmesi ile yapılır.

<u>Misal:Sıfat</u>	<u>Zarf</u>
snabb(çabuk)	snabbt(çabukcana)
vänlig(arkadaşca)	vänligt(arkadaşcana)

Zarfların mukayese ve üstünlük şekilleri

Tamamen sıfatlarıncı gibidir ,yani mukayese edilince "are" üstünlük olunca "ast" eki alırlar.

snabbt(çabukcama)	snabbare(daha çabuk)	snabbast(en çabuk)
troget(sadıkama)	troggnare(daha sadık)	troggnast(en çabuk)
ofta (sık)	oftare (daha sık)	oftast (en sık)
väl(iyi)	bättre (daha iyi)	bäst (en iyi)
fort(çabuk)	fortare(daha çabuk)	fortast(en çabuk)
illa(fena)	värre (daha fena)	värst (en fena)
nära(yakın)	närmare(daha yakın)	närmast(en yakın)

Yer ve istikamet zarflarının farkları ve kullanılmaları.

Misal:han gick in(içeri girdi) in burada istikamet zarfidir
han är inne evdedir,içerdedir)inne yer gösteren zarf
han gick ut (dışarı çıktı) ut istikamet zarfı
han är ute (dışardadır) ute yer zarfı
vart reste han(nereye gitti) vart istikamet z.
var är han? (nerede?) var yer,mekan zarfı.
kom hit(buraya gel) hitistikamet z.
han är här(burada) här yer z.
gå icke dit(oraya gitme) dit istikamet z.
stanna där(orada dur) där yer z.
han gick ner(aşağıya doğru gidiyordu) istikamet z.
han är nere (aşağıda) nere yer z.
han gick upp på kullen(teponin üstüne doğru çıkıyordu) istik
han är där uppe (orada yukarda) uppe yer zarfı

Arkadaş lar,

Bu elinizdeki gramer hulasanın hulasasıdır.Size luzumu olmayan kısımlar kısaca geçilmiştir.Tavsiyem mümkün olduğu kadar bu kaideleri ezberlemeğe çalışın.Çünkü hiç luzumsuz yeri yoktur.

PRATIGIN EHEMİYETİ ÇOKTUR.MUMKUN OLDUGU KADAR ETRAFINIZDAKI ISVECLILERLE KONUSUN.ILK ZAMANLAR BELKI YANLIS OLACAK FAKAT ENINDE SONUNDA BU YANLISLARINIZI DUZELTEREK IYI BIR AKSANLA DOGRU BIR ISVECCEYE ULASACAKSINIZ.

S T O C K H O L M I Temmuz 1951

E N G I N . Y O N T U N C

TDV İSAM
Kütüphanesi Arşivi
No 059-127/11

Läroåret 1952/53.

1. Betr. exkursioner under sommaren.

För allmän geologi tillkommer för avdelning V, frivilligt för A, fältövningar under 7 dagar efter första årskursen.

För geodetisk mätningsteknik tillkommer fältövningar under 14 dagar efter andra årskursen för V och 10 dagar för A samt under 30 dagar valfritt efter tredje årskursen för avdelning V. Dessutom fältövningar under 5 dagar efter fjärde årskursen frivilligt för V.

2. Betr. övergångsbestämmelser.

Där ett ämne flyttas från en högre årskurs till en lägre, skall undervisningen i ämnet - förutom i den lägre årskursen - meddelas övergångsvis jämväl i den högre årskursen, varvid timtalet för den högre årskursen kan tillfälligt överskridas. I den mån kostnader för denna dubblerade undervisning uppstå, som icke kunna täckas ur arvoden till speciallärare och biträdande lärare, föreslås de utgå ur fonden för assistentmedel.

3. Betr. nyinförda obligatoriska ämnen.

Om ett nytt obligatoriskt ämne tillkommer för en årskurs, skall den regeln gälla, att varje studerande skall vara skyldig deltaga i och avlägga tentamen i samtliga ämnen, som äro obligatoriska för en studerande, som normalt följer årskurserna. Om en studerande t.ex. genom frånvaro eller annan anledning kommer in i en avdelning, där i någon föregående årskurs införts ett obligatoriskt ämne, skall denne studerande för att kunna avlägga examen resp. flyttas till högre årskurs avlägga tentamen även i det införda obligatoriska ämnet.

Om ett ämne införts i en årskurs, skola de studerande i årskursen, som det året äro frånvarande, vara skyldiga att avlägga tentamen även i det nyinförda ämnet, men erhålla en kortare respit följande år för tentamen i det nyinförda ämnet och kunna följande år flyttas som extra studerande utan hänsyn till det nyinförda ämnet.

4. Betr. koncentrationsläsning.

I viss utsträckning kommer koncentrationsläsning att an-

ordnas, särskilt i V_3 och V_4 , på så sätt, att vissa ämnen studeras företrädesvis första hälften av terminen, övriga ämnen under senare hälften. I mindre omfattning flyttas även veckotimmar från höstterminen till vårterminen och omvänt.

Regler för tillval av valfria ämnen.

Avdelningen för maskinteknik.

I. De studerande inom avdelningen för maskinteknik skola i tredje årskursen tillvälja endera av ämnena maskinelement fk eller järnbyggnadslära.

II. De studerande inom avdelningen för maskinteknik, som icke tillvälja textila ämnen, skola i fjärde årskursen delta i föreläsningar i tre av ämnena ångteknik, pumpar, fläktar och vattenturbiner, förbränningsmotorteknik, mekanisk teknologi, högtryckskompressor- och gasturbinteknik samt transportanordningar. De äro då skyldiga delta i övningarna i två av dessa ämnen.

III. Studerande, som i tredje årskursen tillvälja de textila ämnena textilmekanik och textil materiallära, kunna, om de så önska, erhålla befrielse från ämnena förbränningsmotorteknik, högtryckskompressor- och gasturbinteknik samt materiallära i samma årskurs. I fjärde årskursen skola dessa studerande därutöver tillvälja pumpar, fläktar och vattenturbiner, textil provningsteknik samt ett av ämnena konfektionsteknologi, ångteknik samt transportanordningar. De skola därvid delta i övningarna i minst tre tillvalsämnen.

Avdelningen för elektroteknik.

I de tre läroämnena elektromaskinlära, elektrisk anläggningsteknik och teleteknik I finnes dels en allmän kurs, dels en fortsättningskurs. I läroämnet elektronik finnes dels en allmän kurs, dels tre stycken fortsättningskurser, nämligen i allmän elektronik, i vågutbredning och i ultrakortvågteknik. De allmänna kurserna äro alla obligatoriska. Fortsättningskursen är obligatorisk i två av de fyra läroämnena. Normalt skall den studerande härvid välja någon av följande kombinationer:

1. Elektromaskinlära och elektrisk anläggningsteknik.
2. Teleteknik I, en av fortsättningskurserna i elektronik samt ytterligare en fortsättningskurs.

För studerande, som väljer kombination enligt 2. eller annan av Kollegienämnden godtagen kombination med tre fortsättningskurser, är undervisningen i elektrisk anläggningsteknik II (installationsteknik) i fjärde årskursen frivillig (1 timma föreläsning och 2 timmar övningar under höstterminen).

Avdelningen för väg- och vattenbyggnad.

Tillvalsschemat för fjärde årskursen i valfria ämnen skall omfatta följande två ämnesgrupper:

Ämnesgrupp A: Byggnadsteknik

Brobyggnad och byggnadsstatik

Vattenbyggnad

Ämnesgrupp B: Vägbyggnad

Vattenlednings- och vattenavloppsteknik

Geodetisk mätningsteknik (valfri även i V3)

Stadsbyggnad

Stadsbyggnadsrätt

Byggnadsekonomi och byggnadsorganisation

De studerande skola välja minst sex ämnen, varav minst två ur grupp A. Därvid räknas brobyggnad och byggnadsstatik som ett ämne och vidare skall geodetisk mätningsteknik och stadsbyggnadsrätt väljas tillsammans.

Avdelningen för kemi.

De studerande äro skyldiga att välja tre valfria ämnen ur endera av följande fyra grupper:

I. Textilkemi (K3), färgeri- och appreturteknik, textil materiallära samt textil provningsteknik. De två första ämnena inom denna grupp äro obligatoriska.

II. Teknisk kemi fk, silikat kemi samt elektrokemi fk. Samtliga ämnen äro obligatoriska.

III. Organisk kemi fk, teknisk kemi fk, textilkemi (K3) samt oljekemi. De två förstnämnda ämnena äro obligatoriska i denna grupp.

IV. Organisk kemi fk, livsmedelskemi samt vattenkemi. Samtliga ämnen äro obligatoriska.

etc. at the departments of natural science. The requirements for these teachers are established in the laws and regulations concerning training of teachers for secondary schools.

The universities issue two different degrees for teachers in secondary schools: the degree of "cand. mag." which qualifies for the position of "adjunkt" and the degree of "cand. philol." or "cand. real." which qualifies for the position of "lektor". Generally speaking the students who are working towards a cand. mag. degree, have to take care that the three subjects selected for study are among the subjects taught in the realskole. The same applies to the students who are working for a cand. philol. or a cand. real. degree, they have to see to it that they choose their subjects among the subjects taught in the realskole as well as in the gymnasium.

The requirements for a cand. mag. degree are three minor examinations (examinations in three different subjects). The requirements for a cand. philol. or a cand. real. degree are two minor examinations and one major examination together with a written thesis which has to be evaluated and approved by the professors in charge of the examination before the student is admitted to the final university examination. - (To compare, the Norwegian cand. mag. degree is - roughly speaking - somewhat beyond the general degree of M.A., while the cand. real. or cand. philol. in some cases may be the equivalent of an American Ph.D.)

The study for a cand. mag. degree takes from 4 - 5 years, and a study for a cand. real. or a cand. philol. degree takes from 6 - 7 years after the passing of the university entrance examination (examen artium). The duration of the courses is partly dependent on the subjects selected.

Upon completing the university examinations the candidates have to participate in half a year of practical and theoretical training at a pedagogical seminary. The practical part of the training at the seminary is supervised by experienced teachers, selected by the seminary among the secondary school teachers working in schools adjacent the area where the universities and seminaries are located.

The requirements for a teaching position in a secondary school are completed when the final examinations at the university and at the seminary are passed by the students. The certificates issued by the universities and the seminaries entitle the

candidates to teach in the secondary schools of the country.

Higher education.

The University of Oslo (founded 1811) comprises five faculties: theology, history and philosophy, law, mathematics and natural science, and medicine. Numerous special institutions for individual subjects come under the respective faculties. While being a State institution, with funds derived from the national exchequer, the University has complete independence and considerable administrative autonomy. The governing body is the Council (the Collegium Academicum) comprising the Rector and five Deans. This body recommends candidates for appointment to vacant senior posts, the final decision resting with the King-in-Council. Within certain limits the students of each faculty also have a considerable measure of self-government.

The Bergen Museum, after a long history of specialized work as a private institution, has recently been organized as a university although it does not yet have all the faculties.

The condition for admission to the universities is by and large the matriculation examination (examen artium). Most of the studies are open for all students, the admission to others is subject to competition on the basis of the matriculation examination.

A number of other higher institutions exist throughout the country. Their administration and organization are modeled on that of the University, and the final certificates they confer are equivalent to degrees. They are, in order of their establishment, the State College of Agriculture (Ås nr. Oslo), the Technical University (Trondheim), the State College of Dentistry (Oslo), the State Veterinary College (Oslo), the State College of Business Administration and Economics (Bergen) and the Independent Theological College (Oslo), a privately endowed institution which trains pastors for service in the Norwegian State Church.

Adult education.

As mentioned above under "Secondary education" the schools for young people may now be regarded as part of the country's organized school system. There are various types of these institutions: the folk high schools (folkehøgskoler), the county schools (fylkesskoler) and youth schools (ungdomsskoler), broadly

speaking similar in scope and purpose. While practical courses have become more prominent in the curriculum, the schools' main aim is general education. For all of them the principle holds good that they are liberal in organization, and that pupils return to their work after passing through the customary six months' course.

For adult education proper a special section in the Ministry of Church and Education has been set up - the Arts and Culture Division. This is the central government agency and it acts as a secretariate for the State Council for Adult Education, a body representing a wide range of private and public agencies. Adult education in Norway is characterized by the voluntary nature of the movement, the variety of forms and agencies concerned and the granting of State subsidies which in no way lead to central control. Among the most important types of activity may be mentioned: folk academies (folkeakademiene) providing lectures and courses of a general educational nature; study groups (studie-sirkler) arranged by the leading organizations and receiving State aid through the parent bodies; and important adult education programmes are run by the libraries, the Workers' Educational Association (Arbeidernes Opplysningsforbund), the Travelling State Theatre, travelling cinemas and the Norwegian State Broadcasting Service.

School welfare services.

Norway has a comprehensive system for school medical service. By statute, school medical officers are appointed at all primary and secondary schools. In larger towns specialized nurses are also engaged. Children are examined upon coming to school, and at regular intervals thereafter up to the time they leave, and medical record cards are maintained for each pupil. The hygiene of the school building is also supervised by the school doctor. Dental care is a part of the medical service.

As a complement to this preventive treatment, instruction is given in all schools on hygiene and diet.

The provision of a free meal at school was begun in 1925 - the so-called "Oslo breakfast", now well-known in most parts of the world.

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Definitions.

Primary school (folkeskolen): 7 years of compulsory school attendance for children between 7 - 14.

Continuation school (framhaldsskolen): one year, might be two, largely optional, but at times compulsory. Optional - compulsory left to the municipalities to decide. - Certificate granted upon passed final examination.

Realskole (Norwegian term): 3 year modern secondary school for boys and girls. The two first years are equivalent to the two first years at the gymnasium (combined schools). Certificate granted upon passed final examination taking place at the end of the third year.

Folk high schools (folkehøgskoler): 6 month courses, general education, for male and female youngsters and adults. Additional courses of 2 months. Schools liberal in organization, certificate granted.

Elementary commercial schools (handelsskoler): one year and 6 month courses for technical business training. Certificate granted.

Secondary commercial schools (handelsgymnas): 3 year courses, one year courses, the former built on the second year of study at the gymnasium or the realskole, the latter on matriculation examination (examen artium). Certificate granted.

Workshop schools (verkstedskoler): one year of practical and theoretical training. Certificate granted.

Apprenticeship schools (lærlingskoler): 3-4 year of theoretical training during period of apprenticeship. Certificate granted.

Elementary technical schools (elementærtekniske skoler): one year courses of general education and elementary technical training for workers and employees in industrial works. Certificate granted.

Technical occupational schools (tekniske fagskoler): 2 year

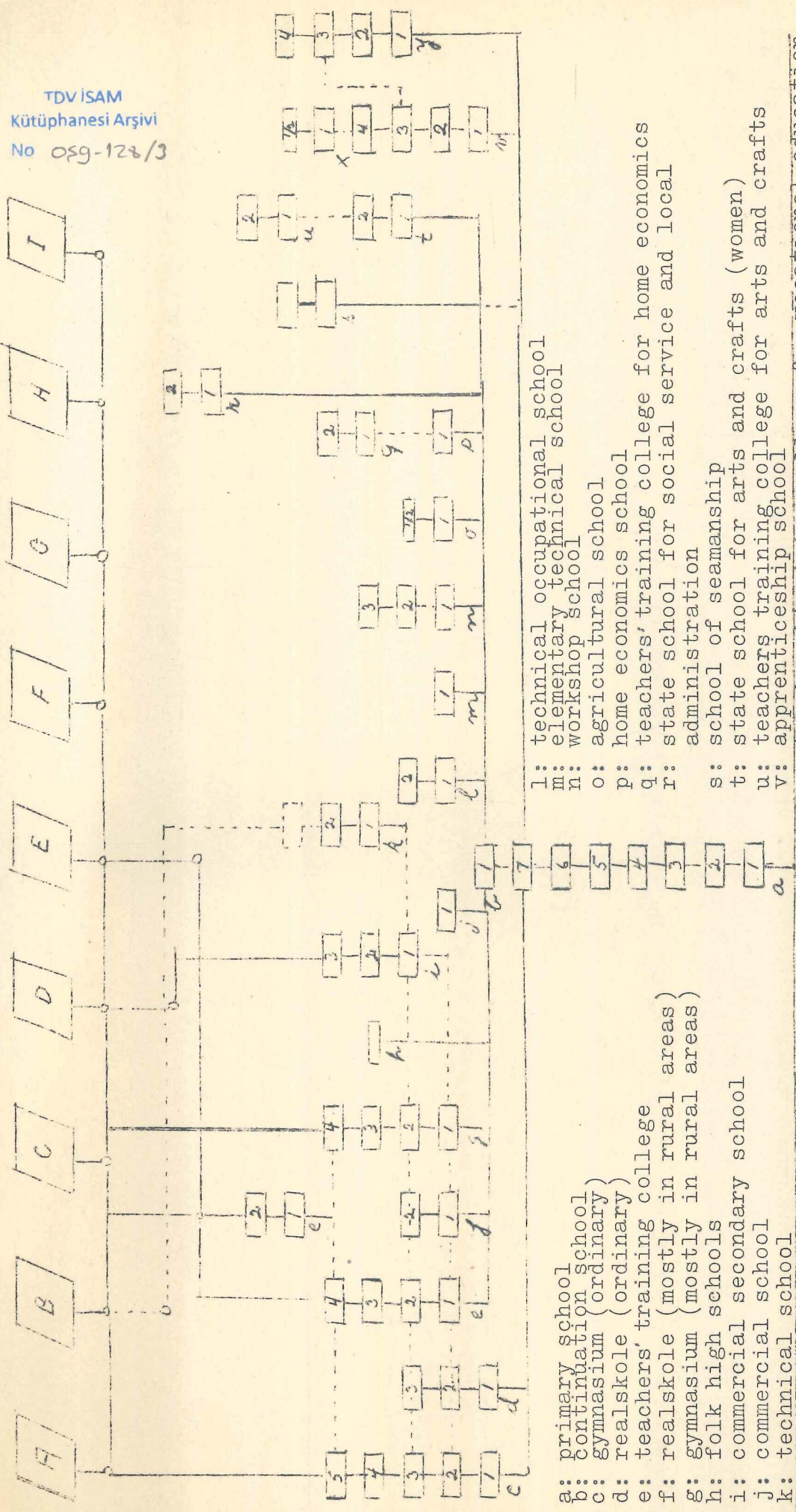
courses of practical-theoretical education for various positions in works and industrial plants. Certificate granted upon final examination.

Technical schools (tekniske skoler): 2 year courses of theoretical technical and general education qualifying for intermediate and leading positions. Certificate granted.

TDV İSAM
Kütüphanesi Arşivi
No 056-128/3

Articulation of the Norwegian School system - 1952

TDV ISAM
Kütüphanesi Arşivi
No 059-128/3



Age of pupils
20
19
18
17
16
15
14
13
12
11
10
9
8
7

- a: primary school
- b: continuation school
- c: gymnasium (ordinary)
- d: realskole (ordinary)
- e: teachers' training college
- f: realskole (mostly in rural areas)
- g: gymnasium (mostly in rural areas)
- h: folk high schools
- i: commercial secondary school
- j: commercial school
- k: technical school

- l: technical occupational school
- m: elementary technical school
- n: workshop school
- o: agricultural school
- p: home economics school
- q: teachers' training college for home economics
- r: state school for social service and local administration
- s: school of seamanship
- t: state school for arts and crafts (women)
- u: teachers training college for arts and crafts
- v: apprenticeship school
- x: teachers' training college for vocational education
- y: state school for arts and crafts

- A: Universities
- B: Norwegian Technical University
- C: State College of Dentistry
- D: State College of Business Administration and Economics

- E: State College for Teachers
- F: State College of Agriculture
- G: State Veterinary College
- H: State School for Physical Education
- I: The Independent Theological College.