

# Michael



Publication Series of The Norwegian Medical Society



## Høyere utdanning

1/16



# Michael Skjelderup

*Michael* is a publication series named after professor *Michael Skjelderup* (1769-1852), one of the fathers of Norwegian medicine. He was born in Hof, Vestfold in Norway as the son of a priest, and was raised in the Norwegian countryside. Because of severe speech disturbances as a boy he did not get proper schooling, but was at last accepted as an apprentice in an apothecary's dispensary in the city of Fredrikstad at the age of 16. During his youth he tried through hard work and by means of an intensive self-discipline to overcome his handicap, and he really succeeded, except for in stressed situations.

Lacking a student examination, an academic training seemed out of question, in spite of his obvious bright mind. However, in 1789 he was admitted to the new Surgical Academy in Copenhagen, where academic qualifications were not required.

From now on, his career flourished. He passed the surgical examination with the highest grade in 1794, entered positions in Copenhagen hospitals and at the University, where he defended his doctoral thesis in 1803 and was appointed professor in 1805.

The first University in Norway was founded in Christiania (now: Oslo) in 1811. Medical teaching was supposed to commence from the very beginning, and from 1814 the new medical faculty could offer medical training. Michael Skjelderup was appointed its first professor 1813, and started his teaching, mainly in anatomy in the fall of 1814, after a dramatic war time sea voyage from Denmark across the waters of Skagerrak where hostile Swedes fired at his swift sailing vessel.

As a University pioneer, he became active in several medical fields. Among other achievements, he published an authoritative textbook in forensic medicine in 1838. When he resigned in 1849, eighty years old, he had seen all Norwegian trained medical doctors in his lecture room.

Skjelderup was instrumental in building a scientific medical community in Christiania. Together with his University colleague Frederik Holst (1791-1871) he founded the first Norwegian medical journal *Eyr*, named after a Norse medical goddess, in 1826. A reading club of physicians established in 1826 was formalized into an association in 1833, the still existing Det norske medicinske Selskab (The Norwegian Medical Society), which over the decades to come played an important role in the development of the health services and of a national medicine.

*Michael* is devoted to the memory of the man who first realized the importance of a regular, national medical publication activity in Norway and implemented his ideas in 1826. *Michael* is published by the same association as was founded by Michael Skjelderup and his colleagues – Det norske medicinske Selskab.

## Høyere utdanning – noen tanker

*Michael 2016; 13: 7–12*

*Når man har lest dette temanummeret av Michael, vil man forstå at det for tiden kan være grunn til å være oppmerksom på problemene som faktisk foreligger for høyere utdanning. Dette gjelder også høyere utdanning i andre fag enn de akademiske. Innenfor akademisk høyere utdanning er det viktig å tilpasse undervisningstilbudet til fagenes, studentenes og samfunnets krav og behov. Både fagporteføljen som tilbys og nivåene for faglig dybde og bredde må være nøye planlagt. For de akademiske profesjonsutdanningene er forholdene litt spesielle. Der er det viktig å holde en gjennomtenkt balanse mellom utdanningenes yrkesrettede og kontekstrettede disipliner. Essensen av slike vurderinger viser seg gjennom studieplanene. Den ideelle studieplan er den som i størst mulig grad stemmer over ens med de berørtes forventninger – samfunnets, fagenes, lærernes, studentenes og andres. For å få det slik, kan det være nødvendig å gjøre noe med forventningene, slik at de passer med den virkeligheten man ser for seg framover.*

I de fleste land er det enighet om at allmenn tilgang til utdanning er et gode som det er høyprioritert å tilstrebe, både av hensyn til enkeltmenneskene og for samfunnet på kort og lang sikt. I Norge har vi lange tradisjoner for å ha universelle pedagogiske tilbud fra småbarnsalder til høyeste akademiske nivå som en del av den offentlige tilretteleggingen av liv og framtid for befolkningen. Vi hadde på 1800-tallet den gamle omgangsskolen for landens barn og universitetet som en embetsmannsskole for elitens sønner og for sultne bondestudentar. Nå er vi framme ved å ha gode og tilgjengelige undervisningstilbud til alle. Disse er blitt så selvfølgelige og heldekkende at vi tar dem for gitt. Er det da ingen problemer?

Selvfølgelig er det bekymringer, og det er noe å diskutere. Å drøfte utdanning er imidlertid vanskelig, fordi utdanning i sin natur er normativ. Da blir meninger gjerne også normative og tatt for å være nettopp det. La gå likevel:

I dette heftet av *Michael* er temaet høyere utdanning forstått som utdanning etter ungdomsskolenivå. Den tidligere universitetslæreren, ekspedisjonssjefen og generalsekretæren i Universitets- og høyskolerådet, Per Nyborg (f. 1937), var gjennom en mannsalder en nøkkelperson ikke bare i norsk utdanningspolitikk, men også i den såkalte Bolognaprosessen som skulle harmonisere universitetsutdanningen i Europa. Nettopp fordi han har denne massive bakgrunnen er det viktig å merke seg hva han sier, når han nå ser tilbake på hvordan det har gått (1). Er det store bildet blitt slik man hadde tenkt seg?

Mistanken om at Nyborg ikke er helt sikker på dette, førte til at *Michael* intervjuet ham om et av de mange mulige spørsmål som i ethvert fall i Norge ser ut til å kreve oppmerksomhet: Har vi et adekvat opplegg for *høyere utdanning for dem som ønsker seg inn i ikke-akademiske yrker* (2)? Slike yrker er det mange av. Allerede på ungdomsskolen blir elevene stilt overfor linjevalg av stor betydning for senere yrkesliv. Noen velger slik at de etter videregående skole fortsetter ved universitetene og tar en akademisk utdanning. Andre går imidlertid i yrkesfaglig retning. For dem blir det mer og mer tydelig at systemet ikke fungerer optimalt. For mange yrkesfag er nåløyet å få en lærlingplass i en bedrift, der praksis kombineres med skolegang. Velger eleven da for sikkerhets skyld isteden en studieforberedende retning på skolen, uten egentlig å ha interesse eller legning for akademiske studier senere, er veien kort til å falle ut av skoleverket med alle de problemene dette kan medføre.

Høyere utdanninger som tradisjonelt var tillagt de oftest treårige høyskolene, påvirkes nå av de norske høyskolenes ambisjoner om å bli universiteter. De endrer profil fra å være erfaringsbasert til å bli forskningsbasert. Det er bra at vi får flere lærerkrefter med forskningskompetanse. Det er bra at unge mennesker får stimulert sin faglige nysgjerrighet og lærer hvordan ny kunnskap blir til, når de selv forsker seg fram til f.eks. en mastergrad. Vi må imidlertid ikke glemme de utdanningssøkende som egentlig ikke har lyst til dette. De som heller vil konsentrere seg om sitt framtidige yrke. Utdanningsprofilen går da ut over både dem og bachelor- og mastergrads-systemet. Det kan reises spørsmål om vi har en skikkelig ordning for undervisning som i hovedsak bygger på erfaringsbasert kunnskap. En utdanning som fører fram til en fagutdanning som har dybde, nivå og anseelse på linje med tilsvarende akademisk fordypning. Som likestiller mesterbrev og mastergrad. Norge er i forhold til mange andre land et egalitært samfunn og de fleste vil at det fortsatt skal være slik.

Men vi har også utdanninger der undervisningen egentlig er noe midt i mellom forskningsbasert og erfaringsbasert, en kombinasjon av teori og

praksis, nemlig de *akademiske profesjonsutdanningene*. De fleste legestudentene eller tannlegestudentene du treffer i korridorer og på lesesaler f. eks. i studentmiljøet på Gaustad i Oslo, har som klare mål å bli lege eller tannlege. For dem du møter i bygningene på Blindern, står sannsynligvis enkeltfagene de studerer, mer sentralt i bevisstheten enn et felles, definert yrkesmål.

Knut Ørnes, nå stipendiat ved Universitetet i Oslo, tidligere forskerlinjestudent sammesteds, forteller i dette heftet av *Michael* om hvordan medisinstudiet oppleves (3). Han målbærer samme budskap som mange studenter har gjort før ham, nemlig hvordan den biomedisinske forståelsesmodellen og dyktiggjøringen for den kommende legerollen blir dominerende i studiet. Rangering og prioritering av fagene avhenger av dette. Det blir en interessekonflikt overfor forskningsbaserte og erfaringsbaserte opplæringstilbud, mellom teori og praksis.

Å finne denne balansen er en meget gammel utfordring. For vårt lands vedkommende stammer interessekonflikten helt fra 1785, da det ble felles utdanning ved et kirurgisk akademi for tradisjonelt håndverksmessig utdannede kirurger og tradisjonelt akademisk utdannede leger. Det medisinske fakultetet ved det nye norske universitetet (1811) la seg på samme linje som ved det kirurgiske akademiet i København da undervisningen startet i 1814 (4). Siden har det fra lærerhold vært tilstrebet en spagat mellom boklig og praktisk lærdom. Denne har alltid vært vanskelig.

Selv kommer jeg fra en familie med så å si utelukkende skolefolk. Derfor har jeg hørt diskusjoner om hvordan undervisning bør være helt fra tidlige barneår. Det er dessuten i 2016 seksti år siden jeg begynte som medisinerstudent ved Universitetet i Oslo, og jeg har hittil deltatt i undervisning for medisinerere i 52 år. Jeg synes derfor at jeg er meningsberettiget når det gjelder legestudiet. Studieplanen ved fakultetet har vært revidert flere ganger også i perioden jeg har vært berørt av den. Gamle folk sier ofte at alt var bedre før. Jeg sier ikke det. Mange sider ved fortidens medisinstudium skal vi være glade for at vi er blitt kvitt (5). Men hver gang studiet er blitt endret, har imidlertid gjennomgangsmelodien vært den samme – ønsket om mer praksisopplæring. Studenter og især kliniske lærere har stått på med en argumentasjon som fra et praktikersynspunkt har vært helt relevant. Men er det ikke også andre hensyn?

Den største pedagogiske omleggingen i nyere tid skjedde ved innføringen av studieplanen «Oslo-96» i 1996 (6). Ønsker om nærhet mellom studium og legerolle, bedret kommunikasjonsopplæring, bedre studentmedvirkning m.v. ble nå forsøkt innført i en innfløkt mosaikk av læringsformer. En bærende idé i «Oslo-96» var såkalt problembasert læring (PBL), der en gruppe på 7-10 studenter gjennom noen uker skulle gjennomdisku-

tere noen forhåndsutarbeidede oppgaver sammen med en lærer. Tidkrevende, ja vel. Men med erfaring fra PBL-undervisning for første års studenter gjennom hele studieplanens levetid, vil jeg si at riktig anrettet fra lærerens side, var dette en effektiv kunnskapsoverføring, både teoretisk og praktisk. En annen sak var at man som lærer da også kom ganske nær inn på studentene. Dette var berikende, og man forsto bedre hvordan de tenkte og opplevde studiet. Det slo meg blant annet hvor stor variasjon det var blant studentene allerede ved studiets begynnelse. I samme PBL-gruppe kunne spredningen være fra den livsbejaende 18-åringen rett fra videregående skole til den enslige mor på 26. Den ene med øl og jenter som fritidsinteresse, den andre med bekymringer for barnehageplass og boliglån. En vellykket studieplan skal passe for begge. Den skal oppfylle forventninger. Studiet er ikke bare en vei fram mot et mål, det er også en tilstand i en viktig livsfase.

Studieplanrevisjonene, og især fra og med «Oslo-96», demoniserte visse undervisningsformer, især forelesningene. Dette må sees i sammenheng med utviklingen av teori-praksis-balansen, og gikk altså i teoripresentasjonens disfavør. Den godt forberedte og godt framførte forelesningen er etter mitt skjønn undervurdert som pedagogisk verktøy, spesielt hvis man vil formidle teoretiske tenkemåter til et helt studentkull.

Når disse linjer leses i 2016, er «Oslo-96» erstattet med en ny studieplan med navnet «Oslo 2014». Den er beskrevet i dette nummeret av *Michael* av tre av arkitektene bak den, Jan Frich, Ingrid M. Middelthoen og Ingrid Os (7).

Denne nye studieplanen er simpelthen blitt tvunget til å legge særlig vekt på praktisk opplæring. Nå får man nemlig *autorisasjon som lege umiddelbart etter bestått eksamen*. Dette har sammenheng med at det i 2013 skjedde en omlegging til søknadsbasert turnustjeneste. Denne var begrunnet med tilpasning til EØS-området regelverk. Fullført turnustjeneste har vært en forutsetning for å få autorisasjon som lege fra innføringen i 1954 til og med sommeren 2014 (8). De fleste som har gått gjennom et medisinstudium, vil kunne enes om at det først var under turnustjenesten at man virkelig lærte å arbeide selvstendig som lege – etter halvannet år «the hard way». Dette betyr at legeutdannelsen i Norge fram til autorisasjon som lege er blitt skåret ned fra syv og et halvt år til seks år, og det uten at saken har vakt særlig offentlig oppmerksomhet. Nedskjæringen er egentlig dramatisk. Den gjør at studieløpet simpelthen *må* være mer yrkesskolepreget enn før, for at det skal være trygt å slippe den nye typen nyutdannede leger løs på den norske befolkningen direkte fra eksamensbordet. Vi får håpe studieplanen ivaretar dette. Men hva mister vi?

Legeyrket utøves i en samfunnsmessig *kontekst*. I helsetjenesten i Norge var det pr. 2014 27 ulike autoriserte helsepersonellgrupper med definerte

arbeidsområder og utdanningskrav (9). Når det gjelder utvikling og forvaltning av det vitenskapelige, medisinske kunnskapsgrunnlaget for den faglige virksomheten, må legene sies å stå på høyeste nivå i dette hierarkiet, selv om kunnskap også innhentes fra andre fagfelt og andre aktører. Den praktiske utøvelsen av legearbeidet fordrer kvalifiserte kunnskaper og ferdigheter tilsvarende det som til enhver tid er dagens standard. Et gjennomført studium skal ha sikret dette. Der er det mye stoff. Når noe må tas inn og når noe må tas ut, blir det lett slik at undervisningen vedrørende konteksten lider. To sider av dette kan nevnes spesielt:

For det første: Ordet *dannelse* lyder elitistisk og gammeldags. For alle studenter var *examen philosophicum* ment å gi en basis for den allmenne kulturorienteringen. Her har utviklingen visket ut den opprinnelige grunn tanken. *Dannelse* omfatter evnen til kritisk refleksjon og evnen til å danne ny erkjennelse for seg selv og andre, i samspill med den sosiale konteksten. Dette hører med til universitetenes grunnidéer. En 840 sider tykk bok med tittelen *Dannelse. Tenkning, modning, refleksjon. Nordiske perspektiver på allmenndannelsens nødvendighet i høyere utdanning og forskning* ble gitt ut i 2011 (10). I kapitlene som er skrevet av 56 tungvektene fra norsk akademisk liv, herunder også medisinere, er samstemmigheten komplett: Vi trenger dannelse, dvs. allmennkunnskap i akademisk arbeid. Legearbeid er akademisk arbeid. Legearbeid fordrer kjennskap til bakgrunn, tenkemåter og resonnementer ikke bare hos pasientene, men også i samfunnet rundt. Fordi mange av dagens pasienter har høy alder, er det også nødvendig å kjenne *historien*, tiden da pasientenes referanserammer ble dannet. Især tidlig i studiet, mens ansvarsfullt legearbeid foreløpig er på noe avstand, viser i det minste min erfaring at de unge er reseptive og interesserte, både i samfunnskunnskap og historie og i spesialemner som medisin og kunst, medisin og litteratur m.v. (11). For studentene tror jeg dette er en god vaksinerings mot ensoprethet og faglig tunnelsyn i senere studium og yrkesliv. Og det går greit å undervise, med forelesninger som den foretrukne metode.

For det andre: Et felt som for meg synes stadig mer stemoderlig behandlet, er de *samfunnsgeografiske* aspektene ved samfunnsmedisinen. Hva feilet og feiler nordmenn før og nå? Hvordan utvikler samfunnsstrukturene seg? Hvem har bestemt og på hvilket grunnlag? Hvordan utvikler samfunnets betingelser for helse seg? Osv. osv. Dette var det nødvendig for legen å kunne noe om og å forholde seg til i det daglige i distriktslegerollens glanstid. Dette var især fra den ble konsolidert med Sundhedsloven i 1860, og fram til distriktslegeordningen ble avviklet i 1984 (12). Den samfunnsbevisste norske legen med blikk ikke bare for sine pasienter, men også for samfunnet omkring, trengs etter mitt skjønn fortsatt (13).

*Fra pødestall til skammel* var tittelen p̃ festskriftet til Olaf Gjerløw Aasland ved hans 70-års-dag (14). Temaet var legerollen. Man konstaterte og diskuterte et fall i legens status. Det er mange årsaker til denne utviklingen. En av dem kan være at man ut fra et noe kortsiktig resonnement har valgt å nedprioritere refleksjons- og kontekst-fagene i utdanningen. Legens røst som allmenn samfunnsaktør har ikke samme klangbunn lenger. Ved universitetene i Norge skjer denne utviklingen paradoksalt nok i en tid da bemanningen med forskere og stipendiater innenfor nettopp disse fagene er bedre enn p̃ lenge.

Det er grunn til å følge høyere utdanning med et ṽkent øye.

## Litteratur

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2. Larsen Ø. Per Nyborg: P̃ tide med en faghøyskole? *Michael* 2016; 13: 67-72.
3. Ørnes K. Studentenes manglende stemme i medisinstudiet. *Michael* 2016; 13: 61-6.
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# University development and co-operation in Norway and Europe

*Michael 2016; 13: 13–49.*

*After the Second World War, higher education became one of the driving forces in a continuing societal and industrial development. University leaders started to meet regularly, to develop common principles for the further development of higher education and research in the universities. As rector conferences developed into association of universities, new fora were established where university representatives met with representatives for national and European authorities, discussing higher education policies, culminating with the 1999 Bologna Conference and the still continuing Bologna Process. This article describes the development of the Norwegian higher education system and the parallel development of the Norwegian rectors' conferences into the Norwegian Association of Higher Education Institutions. On the European level it describes the development of rectors' conferences, leading to the European University Association, the cooperation between university and ministerial authorities in the Council of Europe, and how it all came together in the Bologna Process. In Norway, this was the start of the Quality Reform. Now, ten years later, we may need a new reform, focusing on experience-based tertiary education relevant for a labour market in rapid change.*

## **Introduction**

In Norway, as in other countries in Europe, higher education and research became one of the driving forces in a continuing societal and industrial development after the Second World War. Higher education policies developed in an interaction between public authorities and university leaders, both nationally and on European level.

In 1958, the rectors of the Norwegian universities decided to meet once or twice a year to discuss common problems and challenges. In 1963, these meetings were formalized as the Norwegian University Rectors' Conference.

Similar permanent rectors' conferences were established in other countries. Over the years, the rector conferences developed into regular bi-annual meetings and later into university associations. In Norway, the Rectors' Conference developed into the Council of Universities and then into the Association of Higher Education Institutions (UHR).<sup>1</sup>

On European level, rectors' conferences in Cambridge (1955), Dijon (1959) and Göttingen (1964) led to CRE – Standing Conference of Rectors of European Universities and to the Confederation of EU Rectors' Conferences. CRE representatives also met as national academic representatives in the Council of Europe Committee for Higher Education and Research. In 2001 CRE and the Confederation merged, establishing the European University Association (EUA). There was a European network of rectors and of the organisations they represented.

As Secretary General of the Norwegian Council of Universities and later on the Norwegian Association of Higher Education Institutions, I was taking active part in this co-operation in the period 1991–2005. I regularly attended meetings in CRE and the Confederation and I also met as the academic representative for Norway in the Council of Europe Committee from 1991, acting as the committee's Vice-Chair and Chair 1999–2003. I was also involved in establishing the Nordic University Association in 1995, acting as this association's first secretary general up to 2001.<sup>2</sup>

Much happened in this period, culminating with the 1999 Bologna Ministerial Conference and the development of the Bologna Process. Here, the university associations joined forces with national government representatives and the EU Commission in the development of the European Higher Education Area. As a Council of Europe representative, I participated in the Bologna Follow-up Group (BFUG) until 2003, thereafter being Head of the BFUG Secretariat up to the 2005 Bergen Ministerial Conference.

Ten years later and ten years retired, I have been looking back to this hectic and very interesting period.<sup>3</sup> Much has been written about the Bologna Process, but until recently, little has been written about the university co-operation that preceded it.<sup>4, 5</sup> This presentation covers the fifty years from the 1955 Cambridge conference up to the 2005 Bergen conference

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1 Nyborg P. *Universitets- og høskolesamarbeid i en brytningstid, Femti års utvikling*. Oslo: Unipub 2007.

2 Nyborg P. *Det Nordiske Universitetssamarbeidet vokser frem* [http://www.uhr.no/internasjonalt/samarbeidspartnere/nus/sentrale\\_dokumenter](http://www.uhr.no/internasjonalt/samarbeidspartnere/nus/sentrale_dokumenter)

3 Nyborg P. Den sosiale dimensjonen i høyere utdanning, *Michael*, 2013; 10: Supplement 14.

4 Barblan A. *Academic cooperation and mobility in Europe: how it was, how it should be*. 2003. [http://www.eua.be/eua/jsp/en/upload/CEPES\\_30thAn.1069322899147.pdf](http://www.eua.be/eua/jsp/en/upload/CEPES_30thAn.1069322899147.pdf)

5 Nyborg P. *The Roots of the European University Association*. 2014. <http://www.eua.be/about.aspx>

– coinciding with my own retirement. A more detailed presentation is available on internet.<sup>6</sup>

## 1. Development of higher education in Norway

Norway's first university – the University of Oslo – was founded in 1811, three years before the country's independence from Denmark. By 1938 there were 4 200 students at the university, the total number of students in the country then being 5 600, as specialised institutions for agriculture, veterinary medicine, dentistry, theology, technology and business studies had been established.<sup>7</sup>

The University of Bergen was founded in 1948, but as late as in 1956, the total number of students at Norwegian higher education institutions was not higher than it had been in 1938, i.e. 5 600.

The expansion started in 1957, the year of *Sputnik*. In 1960 the number of students in Norway had reached 9 600, a 70 % increase over four years, with no indication of a flattening out. The increased demand for places at universities could not be explained only by a higher number of candidates from the relevant age groups and a response to growing employment options. In Norway, as in many other countries, it was probably also a result of the population's higher social and cultural expectations.

There was now a need for planning higher education development, by the authorities and in the institutions. On the national scene, a commission was set up, chaired by State Secretary Per Kleppe (b. 1923) from the Ministry of Finance. The 1961 report from this commission estimated a need for 30 000 study places by 1970, but deemed such an expansion unrealistic and advised Government to build a “normal capacity” of 18 000 by 1970. This was followed up by a White Paper in 1962 and approved by Parliament (Stortinget) the next year.

### 1.1. *The Ottosen Commission (1966–70)*

By 1970 there were more than 30 000 students in Norway and still no indication of flattening out. The next national commission, appointed already in 1965 with Kristan Ottosen (1921–2006), founding father of student services in Norway, as its Chair, was given a much wider mandate than its predecessor,

- to propose ways and means for better use of study time and capacity;

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6 Nyborg P. *Fifty years of university co-operation in Europe*. 2015. [http://www.uhr.no/om\\_uhr/about\\_uhr\\_1](http://www.uhr.no/om_uhr/about_uhr_1)

7 For references to documents in the Norwegian language mentioned in chapters 2 and 3, see reference 1 above.

- to consider alternatives to the university institutions for lower level education;
- to consider alternatives to the traditional long university studies;
- to estimate capacity needs in a long term perspective.

In the period 1966–70, the Ottosen Commission produced five reports, the first one estimating a need for 100 000 study places by 1985. The next one proposed a three-cycle main structure for university degrees, the first two cycles of 4 years and 2 years duration respectively. Life-long learning was also introduced in higher education. The third report advocated a system of regional state colleges for professional training and short cycle higher education. This was an immediate success and the first regional colleges began operations in 1969. New teaching methods were proposed, focusing on what we 40 years later would call learning outcomes and competences. Contents and quality of study programmes should be an institutional responsibility. A credit system should simplify transfer between institutions (including transfers from colleges to universities). The social dimension of higher education was introduced: All qualified applicants should have the possibility for higher education, irrespective of socio-economic conditions.

The follow-up of the total Ottosen package came in a White Paper to Parliament in 1973. However, a change of government resulted in a withdrawal of that document and the production of a new one and finally a full discussion in Parliament in 1975. By then many proposals of the Ottosen Commission had already been realised by the Ministry of Education and by the higher education institutions themselves. The Commission's estimate of 100 000 study places was reduced to 80 000 by Government and Parliament. Traditional training of teachers, nurses and other groups was upgraded to higher education, but it took another twenty years to merge the small professional schools with the new regional colleges. Still, a binary higher education system was the outcome. Student numbers reached 100 000 in the mid-1980s, with approximately 50 000 study places in the university sector and another 50 000 in the college sector.

### *1.2. The Hernes Commission (1988)*

A new national commission, chaired by Professor Gudmund Hernes (b. 1941), later Minister of Education and Research, gave its recommendations to the Government in 1988. It was followed up by a White Paper to Parliament in 1991. The policy drawn up by Hernes in the White Paper was based on a binary system of interacting institutions with a university sector and a college sector, each institution being under Ministerial supervision of its

educational programmes. As a national system of higher education, it was more centralised than what the university sector had previously experienced.

The follow-up of the Hernes Commission brought many improvements to Norwegian higher education: Transfer of credits and recognition of previous learning became necessities, institutional co-operation was stimulated, and organised doctoral programmes were introduced for the third cycle. Quality of teaching and research came into focus. Internationalisation was to be an external dimension of Norwegian higher education.

A continued expansion of the higher education system was necessary to cope with the rapidly increasing number of young students queuing for admission. By 1997, the student count was over 170 000. Then, the number of new students started to decline. So did the budgets of higher education institutions. Later, student numbers increased again, but slower than previously. Higher education budgets grew even slower.

During the 1980s and 1990s the binary system was eroded by a sequence of decisions in Parliament, giving colleges the right to develop secondary, research-based degrees, to hire professors and to take part in the training of researchers, to engage in fundamental as well as applied research, and placing universities and colleges under a common law in 1996. After a change of government, the new Minister of Education and Research gave additional concessions to the state colleges, including the right to some colleges to award doctoral degrees in special fields. As he also decided that state colleges might be called university colleges, and that such institutions might be upgraded to universities, little was left of the binary system when the next commission submitted its report in May 2000. This commission was chaired by Professor Ole Danbolt Mjøs (1939–2013), former Rector of the University of Tromsø and former President of the Norwegian Council of Universities.

### *1.3. The Mjøs Commission (2000) and the Quality Reform*

When the Mjøs Commission started its deliberations in 1998, it was apparent that challenges from the private sector had rendered the legal and economic framework for state higher education institutions obsolete, hindering contract activities and co-operation with external institutions. Stronger university leadership was also needed.

While the commission was still sitting, ministers responsible for higher education in 29 European countries met in Bologna in 1999. This certainly influenced the Norwegian process and the report from the Mjøs Commission was in many respects a fusion of national development, signals from Bologna and a dash of market liberalism. For the higher education institutions, the outcomes would clearly be of great importance.

The objectives of the resulting Norwegian policy on higher education – the Quality Reform – as defined in the 2001 White Paper, very strongly involved the HE institutions, making it clear that higher education is a public responsibility and an element in national politics, and that HE institutions are *partners* in the realisation of a national policy for higher education.

Bachelor and Master's degrees were introduced. A national grading system with A, B, C, D, E for passed and F for failed and the use of a Diploma Supplement was prescribed by the law.

With increased autonomy, much of the follow-up was left to institutions, such as the development of new study programmes and new teaching methods. Development work started immediately after the Parliamentary decision in 2001. The Reform was operational from the academic year 2003–2004.

An independent national body for accreditation and evaluation (NO-KUT) started operations in 2003 to oversee institutional quality and to accredit institutions and study programmes. On the outset, the four existing universities were accredited with the right to establish new programmes in any field and at any level. State colleges were allowed to establish new programmes in any field at Bachelor level. They may seek programme accreditation on higher levels and they may also be upgraded to universities by a special accreditation procedure. Private institutions may operate on the basis of programme accreditation in special fields, but they may also apply for institutional accreditation.

The assumption of the Ministry for Education and Research was that the Quality Reform should be financed by higher efficiency in universities and colleges. However, the Norwegian Association of Higher Education Institutions (UHR) pointed out to the Parliamentary Committee that the proposed improvements in teaching and learning would have a much higher cost. As a result, Parliament asked for extra resources to make the Quality Reform operational. The State budget for 2003 included such resources and this was followed up in later budgets until the agreed level had been reached, but only to be cut back in 2006 after a change of government.

A revision of the Law on Universities and Colleges was proposed by Government and decided by Parliament in 2002. It was a leaner law than its predecessor, delegating more decision power to the institutions. Three years later (2005) it was superseded by the Law on Higher Education (state and private) giving state institutions even more autonomy, with more responsibility and accountability. The outcome was that Norwegian HE institutions obtained the autonomy they had asked for: The institution

appoints its professors, admits its students, decides its study programmes, is responsible for the quality of its programmes, and receives a lump sum budget from the state in addition to income from contracts with industry and state agencies.

#### *1.4. The imprints of Bologna*

In this way, national higher education policies and the Bologna Process came together in the Norwegian Quality Reform. Institutions and their umbrella organisation have been and still are important partners in the process.

An independent evaluation of the Quality Reform was carried out in 2007. The report and the following White Paper concluded that great changes had taken place since the new system became operational in 2003. A large number of new study programmes have been introduced at Bachelor and Master level, in universities as well as in university colleges. There has been an important expansion in research and research training at PhD level (third cycle), even though teaching had become more time-consuming. Four institutions have been upgraded to universities by the new accreditation procedures.

Over the years, student numbers have continued to increase, reaching 200 000 in 2001 and 250 000 in 2014.<sup>8</sup>

## **2. Norwegian Association of Higher Education Institutions**

In 1958, the rectors of the seven university-level institutions in Norway<sup>9</sup> decided to meet once or twice a year to discuss common problems and challenges. In 1963, these meetings were formalized as a standing conference: *The Norwegian University Rectors' Conference* (De norske rektormøtene).

### *2.1. A Standing Conference (1958)*

As a basis for discussions in their semi-annual meetings of their standing conference, the Norwegian university rectors organised groups of university professors to discuss and prepare written reports to the rectors. Among the themes discussed during the first years (and also later), were the following:<sup>10</sup>

- The expansion of higher education;
- The role of universities in a new structure of higher education;
- Open access;

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<sup>8</sup> <http://dbh.nsd.uib.no/statistikk/>

<sup>9</sup> University of Oslo and University of Bergen, specialized universities for technology, business administration, agriculture, veterinary medicine, and teacher training.

<sup>10</sup> See previous references 2 or 7 for more details.

- Access of students not having a diploma from secondary school;
- Recognition of exams from other institutions;
- University staff;
- Training of young researchers;
- Research and education;
- University budgets;
- Developments in university administration.

Most of these topics, if not all, were in the same period of time discussed with European colleagues at European Rectors' Conferences and later on in CRE meetings (chapter 3). The first item on the agenda for the Norwegian Rectors' Conference was always *Reports from international meetings*. Discussions regarding the 1968 student unrest were reported back to the Norwegian rectors both from the CRE Permanent Committee and from Council of Europe's Committee on Higher Education and Research (see chapter 5).

In 1973 the Ministry of Education presented a White Paper to Parliament on the further expansion and organisation of higher education in Norway. The Rectors' Conference commented that a priority for the universities would be to meet the demand for higher education from all qualified candidates.

The Conference saw the new regional colleges as an important supplement to the universities, giving shorter, professionally oriented education. The rectors pointed out that such education might be integrated in a university degree; they also indicated that first level university studies might be given by colleges. There should be a possibility for research in the regional colleges, preferably in co-operation with a university. It was an implicit understanding that higher level courses and research training was to be carried out in the universities.

Some years later, in 1982, the rectors took an initiative for a broader discussion – involving also college representatives and students – on the co-operation and sharing of responsibilities between the university sector and the college sector. It was agreed that education on the highest level and the training of young researchers must be the duty and responsibility of the universities. The main responsibility for institutions in the college sector should be short, professionally oriented education and practically oriented research and development related to local industry and administration. As mentioned previously (chapter 1), over time, this binary system gradually eroded.



## 2.2. *A Council of Universities (1977)*

When the first White Paper on Norwegian research policy was discussed in Parliament in 1976, there had been no comments from the Rectors' Conference, as the rectors met two weeks *after* the discussion in Parliament. It now became clear to the rectors that for influencing political discussions relating to research and higher education, semi-annual meetings were not enough. In 1977 the Norwegian rectors copied the 1964 European Rectors' Conference in Göttingen (see chapter 3.), transforming their Conference into an organisation, *The Norwegian Council of Universities* (Det norske universitetsråd).

In between Council meetings, a Steering Group would act on behalf of the Council. One of the university directors served as Secretary General.

With the expansion of higher education during the 1960s and 1970s, universities had been rapidly growing, with new infrastructure and more staff. Research was not any longer only a privilege for professors; it was seen as an important factor for societal development. University budgets had been growing with the ongoing expansion, but were now levelling off. However, money for research was coming in from new sources. How should universities meet the new challenges? University budgets were still decided in detail by the Ministry of Education with no flexibility for the institution to reallocate. The rectors and their Council of Universities started to ask for more autonomy.

It would only come gradually.

In 1977, a Working Environment Act came into force, to ensure sound conditions of employment and to protect the rights of employees. Regulations according to the new Act were formulated by the new Ministry of Cultural and Scientific Affairs in late 1981. As a consequence, several hundred «unofficial» research staff obtained regulated contracts with the universities where they had been working for years. But this was only after Council of Universities and the Norwegian Association of Researchers for a long time had been pressing for a solution of the problem.

As early as 1970, the Rectors' Conference had taken an initiative for organised research training. The Association of Researchers started negotiations with the Ministry of Education, relating structured doctoral education and doctoral programmes to the working conditions of research assistants. Little came out of this at that time. It was only in 1986 that the Ministry of Cultural and Scientific Affairs decided on new regulations concerning doctoral students and research assistants in universities. Doctoral studies were then linked to the junior academic position of *Doctoral Research Fellow*. From now on, the young research fellow was a *doctoral candidate*,

not a student. The objective of a research fellowship should be completion of research training to the level of a doctoral degree within four years of employment.

However, the prospects for a university career were bleak. From the mid-1960s, the Association of Researchers had been arguing for better career possibilities. In the late 1970s, the Council of Universities also engaged itself actively in this field. When finally the Council of Universities gave its recommendation to the Ministry in 1980, a radical change was proposed:

All teaching personnel in permanent positions should equally share responsibilities and privileges in teaching, research and administration. Department heads should be elected among the permanent academic staff. Teaching load and level should be decided on basis of competence and interests in the various specialised fields. The Council pointed out that this should also imply greater flexibility in the traditional system; lecturers were redefined as assistant or associate professors. Highly qualified associate professors should have the possibility for advancement to full professor based on personal qualifications. This was in full agreement with previous requests from the Association of Researchers. Most of the proposed changes were realised in a short time, by the university, by the ministry and by negotiations between the ministry and the Association of Researchers.

### *2.3. An Association of Universities (1990)*

In 1989 the statutes were revised, giving the Norwegian Council of Universities a much more active role as an association of institutions, to contribute to the further development of national policies for higher education and research and to national and international coordination. The association decided to establish its own secretariat and to appoint a full-time secretary general to realise the new mandate.

#### *2.3.1. A personal note*

This is where and when the present author came into the picture: I was appointed Secretary General of the Norwegian Council of Universities in 1990 and the new secretariat was operational in early 1991. Before this, I had been a university professor, a labour unionist, a director general in the ministry and a research council director. I thought I knew the universities from most angles, and I had been involved with the Council of Universities both as a union representative and as a ministry representative.

As President of the Norwegian Association of Researchers in the 1970s, I had been fighting for regulated employment conditions for the research

assistants and for organised research training towards a doctoral degree (see 2.2.). From the same platform I had proposed a procedure for advancement to full professor based on personal qualifications (see 2.2.). As Director General in the Ministry of Cultural and Scientific Affairs in the 1980s, I had signed the regulations for research assistants and other groups of contract personnel and for doctoral research fellows. In the Ministry I had also been responsible for the administration of the Norwegian State Loan Fund for Education and for mobility programmes for Norwegian students abroad and for students from development countries – the social dimension of higher education. As Director with the Royal Norwegian Research Council for Science and Technology, I had negotiated the first Norwegian participation in EC research programmes. I did not know that these experiences should turn out to be very useful when I joined the Norwegian Council of Universities.

In 1991, the EFTA countries joined the EC Erasmus Programme. The Council of Universities was asked by the Ministry of Cultural and Scientific Affairs to be in charge of the Norwegian participation. To handle this, a section for international programmes was established at our new secretariat. We were also asked by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to establish a programme for research co-operation with universities in developing countries. This turned out to be a successful operation and our *Centre for International University Co-operation* grew rapidly, soon having a staff much larger than the secretariat itself. In 2003 it was transformed into a government agency, the *Norwegian Centre for International Cooperation in Education*.<sup>11</sup>

But I should also discover that there were more angles to universities and university co-operation than those I already knew. I did not know the international network of university rectors. However, I got a quick start in this field, with a Nordic University Rectors' meeting in Copenhagen and CRE meetings in Leningrad and Utrecht within a few months.

### 2.3.2. A White Paper on Higher Education

From the start, our focus was on national development and strategies in higher education and research. A government commission, chaired by a university professor and later Minister of Cultural and Scientific Affairs, had given its recommendations to the Government in 1988 (see 1.2.). In 1990, as a minister, he wanted to discuss the realisation of his ideas with the Council of Universities. In the White Paper to Parliament that followed in 1991, there were many challenges to the universities and to their asso-

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<sup>11</sup> <http://siu.no/eng/About-SIU>

ciation. The follow-up of the White Paper became a Council priority for the coming years.

In 1991, the Norwegian Association of Researchers convinced the Parliamentary committee for higher education and research that a procedure for advancement to full professor should be introduced in Norwegian universities. The outcome was that the Council of Universities was mandated by the Ministry of Cultural and Scientific Affairs to establish a national procedure for advancement to full professor based on personal qualifications. Here the final decision would be with the institution where the candidate for advancement was employed. We would advise based on the opinion of a group of experts, a procedure similar to the one institutions used for appointing professors. I was now administrating a scheme that I had myself proposed 30 years previously on behalf of the Association of Researchers.

The Council of Universities took the responsibility of coordinating the organisation of research training in Norway (see 2.2.). In 1993, we presented national regulations pertaining to organised doctoral studies. Since then, such doctoral degree regulations, based on structured courses and certification, have been introduced at all university-level institutions.

In this way, the Norwegian Council of Universities added new functions to the traditional role of a rectors' conference and an association of institutions. The Council of Universities had no decision power over institutions; it was always an advisory function. On the other hand, the Ministry could not *instruct* the Council, it might ask for advice or assistance. The relation between the Ministry and the Council of Universities was based on trust, usually this worked to the satisfaction of both parties. It happened, however, that a minister of education took his own advice against the Council and its appointed experts. On one occasion, when the minister overruled our experts, the Council broke with the minister. The Government fell soon afterwards (for other reasons!) and relations were re-established with the incoming minister, who promised *not* to overrule expert advice in academic matters.

### 2.3.3. More students!

In a comment to the Government's budget proposal for 1993, the Council of Universities pointed out that the number of students in the country had increased from 100 000 to 150 000 over only four years and that university budgets were inadequate to meet this rapid growth.

The following year, 1994, the pressure for higher education was even higher than before and the universities had to limit admittance. There were protests. Deans at the University of Oslo wanted to open the traditional

academic studies in the social sciences, natural sciences and humanities for all qualified applicants. They got a huge media coverage, and the next day the Council of Universities received a letter from the Minister of Cultural and Scientific Affairs, asking how the universities could realise the deans' proposal.

The answer was; it is too late this year (studies had already started), but it can be done next year (1995), provided universities and state colleges were given extra money for new study places. Extra money was provided for 3500 new study places. A national admission service was established, all qualified students were admitted, but not necessarily at the institution they had given first priority. The national admission service has been in operation since 1995. Student numbers reached 200 000 in 2001 and 250 000 in 2014.

#### 2.3.4. Time for change

During the 1990s the binary system was gradually eroded by a sequence of decisions in Parliament, giving colleges the right to develop secondary, research-based degrees, to appoint professors and to take part in the training of researchers, to engage in fundamental as well as applied research, and placing universities and colleges under a common law in 1996. After a change of government in 1997, additional concessions were given to the state colleges, including the right to some to award doctoral degrees in special fields. As the state colleges now were called university colleges and even might be upgraded to universities, little was left of the binary system at the end of the 1990s.

This was not the only challenge. At the end of the 1990s, it was apparent to the Council of Universities that challenges from the private sector had rendered the legal and economic framework for state institutions obsolete, hindering contract activities and co-operation with external institutions.

An assessment of the traditional four-year cand.mag.-degree was made by the Council of Universities in 1997. A proposition to go for a three-year degree was turned down by the academic community, but in 1999, inspired by the Bologna Conference, the Council recommended a 3/5/8 year degree system and a national grading system based on ECTS.

In 1999, a new national commission was appointed to recommend on the further development on higher education in Norway (see above in 1.3.). Most of our proposals mentioned above were followed up by the commission when it presented its report in May 2000. The commission also proposed many other changes – some of them inspired by New Management

theories. (The follow-up by Government and Parliament has been described in the first section of this article (1.4.).)

#### *2.4. An Association of Higher Education Institutions (2000)*

In May 2000 the Council of Universities merged with the Council of State Colleges to form the *Norwegian Association of Higher Education Institutions* (Universitets- og høyskolerådet).<sup>12</sup> Ever since the state colleges came under the same legislation as the universities in 1996, university rectors and university professors had fought against this “watering out” of academia, but to no good. The leadership of the two organizations now agreed that it must be better to stand together on behalf of higher education and research.

Bologna gave a helping hand: We wanted a system of easily readable and comparable degrees, a system based on two main cycles and on top of that, a doctorate degree. We already had a common system of credits for student mobility between our institutions. We very much wanted autonomous institutions. We gave a unison opinion on the Quality Reform (see above in 1.4.).

The Norwegian Association of Higher Education Institutions has been, and still is, a partner in the continuing process. After a new Law on Higher Education, covering both state and private higher education, came into effect in 2005, also private institutions have joined the Association as full members.

### **3. European Conferences of University Rectors**

#### *3.1. Cambridge (1955), Dijon (1959), Göttingen (1964)*

At the initiative of the Western European Union, nearly one hundred university representatives, most of them rectors or vice-chancellors, met in Cambridge in 1955, to discuss common problems and challenges to their institutions.<sup>13</sup> They came from fifteen different countries in Western Europe.

They discussed the need for university autonomy, the selection, training and welfare of the student body and the university’s role in society. The conference adopted recommendations that were still relevant fifty years later:

In all countries universities should have a greater degree of autonomy.

In connection with sponsored research, the university authorities have a responsibility for safeguarding the university autonomy and for ensuring free choice and independent direction of research by its staff.

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<sup>12</sup> [http://www.uhr.no/om\\_uhr/about\\_uhr\\_1](http://www.uhr.no/om_uhr/about_uhr_1)

<sup>13</sup> *Report of Proceedings, Cambridge Conference of European Rectors and Vice-Chancellors*, Western European Union, 1956.

Contracts should not forbid the publication in due course of the results of research carried out in universities.

In all circumstances the freedom of thought of university staffs must be safeguarded; no governmental supervision should be exercised in this sphere.

Any system for selection of students must always avoid discrimination on grounds of race, religion or political creed.

In all countries financial assistance should be made available to students whose capacities are sufficient to pursue their studies with diligence and success.

Universities, conscious of their responsibility for the preparation of leaders of society, should adapt their teaching to comply with the increasing needs of the community.

Students should be encouraged to pursue part of their studies at universities abroad.

International exchanges between staffs of universities should be encouraged and Governments should be requested to ensure that the necessary funds are available.

It was recommended that similar conferences be convened periodically, also to ensure a permanence of relations between the universities. The European Universities Committee was formed under the auspices of the Western European Union, to follow up the Cambridge conference.

The next European conference of rectors and vice-chancellors was held in Dijon in 1959. The heads of universities in twenty-two European countries were invited, together with high government officials, experts, and representatives of international organisations.<sup>14</sup> This Second Conference decided to set up a *Standing Conference of Rectors ad Vice-Chancellors of the European Universities* which should meet at least once every five years and a *Permanent Committee* for the Standing Conference. The intention of the rectors was that the new Permanent Committee should take over the functions of the WEU European Universities Committee.

As the Council of Europe was considering setting up an advisory body on university matters, it was proposed that the Permanent Committee for the Standing Conference should fill this role. As described later (in 5.1.), this was realised in 1960.

At the next Conference in Göttingen in 1964, nearly two hundred Rectors and Vice-Chancellors from all over Europe participated. Invitations had been sent also to universities in Eastern Europe, and representatives from Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Rumania and Yugoslavia attended. The Conference wanted to be open to universities from the whole of Europe; that had been one reason for breaking the relations to the Western European

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<sup>14</sup> *Report of Proceedings, Second Conference of European Rectors and Vice-Chancellors*, Western European Union, 1959.

Union. As a representative for universities in the dialogue with political decision-makers, the Conference wanted a full independence. The new ties to the Council of Europe were therefore not unproblematic, as also the membership of the Council of Europe was restricted to countries in Western Europe.

In Göttingen, a great part of the working sessions were devoted to the discussion of a draft constitution for the Standing Conference. The constitution was formally adopted, setting the rules for the organisation.

But academic subjects were also discussed: The optimum and the maximum size of a university was at the centre of the debate; a size relative to society's expectations, to students' growing presence in higher education, and to the quality of research and service to industry.<sup>15</sup>

### 3.2. CRE – Standing Conference of University Rectors (1964)

*CRE – Conférence Permanente des Recteurs, Présidents et Vice-Chanceliers (Rectors) des Universités européennes*, was established in September 1964. The objective of this Standing Conference was co-operation between rectors, between universities, between academic staff and students. Members of the Standing Conference were the rectors. There was to be a General Assembly meeting every five years, a Permanent Committee with representatives of the national rectors' conferences, a President and a Bureau. It was not until 1994 the constitution was amended so that *the universities* were the members, not the rectors.

### 3.3. Relations to the Council of Europe

In 1960, the Council of Europe took over responsibility for the work of the former Universities Committee of the WEU and set up in its place a Committee for Higher Education and Research (CHER), composed of university rectors on one hand (the CRE Permanent Committee) and senior civil servants on the other, to advice governments on policies in this field (see 5.1.).

The CRE Permanent Committee was used to prepare university positions before discussing higher education policy with ministerial delegates in CHER. The ministerial delegates in this Council of Europe committee were often the same people whom the representatives of the national rectors' conferences would meet at national level. In this way, discussions on university problems and higher education policy at national level could benefit from discussions both in CRE and in the Council of Europe.

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15 *Protocol, Standing Conference of Rectors and Vice-Chancellors of European Universities, Göttingen 1964.*



The year 1968 became one of much unrest and demonstrations in Europe – both East and West. The Council of Europe at that time represented only the Western part of the continent. To underline the pan-European ambitions of CRE, it was decided by the 1969 CRE General Assembly to formally distance CRE from the Council of Europe. However, after the 1968 Soviet intervention in Czechoslovakia, East-West relations froze. It should take another twenty years to bring universities from the whole of Europe together in CRE.

Presidents of national rectors' conferences in Western Europe continued to co-operate in the CRE Permanent Committee and they also continued as national academic representatives in CHER. After 1989, both CRE and the Council of Europe developed into pan-European organisations, working to bridge former gaps between higher education systems of East and West, co-operating in many projects and programmes.

### *3.4. CRE activities (1969–1983)*

Up to 1969, the activities of CRE had been limited to meetings of the five-yearly General Assembly. Then the Permanent Committee started to organise semi-annual CRE conferences. The conferences were held in different countries, at the invitation of a member university. Among themes discussed during the period up to the General Assembly in 1974, were the following:<sup>16</sup>

- The Role of the University within the Structure of Higher Education;
- Mobility of Students and Collaboration between Institutions;
- The Teaching Role of the University;
- University Staff;
- Research and Higher Education;
- The Expansion of Higher Education;
- Access to Universities;
- University Government.

These semi-annual conferences were in a way “continuing education” for academic leaders, who, after the reforms resulting from the 1968 student troubles, were asked by new regulations to get more and more involved in the management of their enlarged institutions. Those that did not participate at a conference would be informed through the bulletin *CRE Information*.

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<sup>16</sup> *CRE from 1969 to 1974*, Quienquennial Report of the Permanent Committee to the 1974 General Assembly.

In addition to organisational matters, also the CRE General Assemblies discussed academic affairs. The 1974 Assembly treated the following topics:<sup>17</sup>

- The university and the changing needs of society;
- University teaching;
- University research;
- University government;
- The financing of universities.

The 1979 CRE General Assembly discussed *the role of the university in society*. A second topic was *the present conditions of university life*.<sup>18</sup> What dominated the discussion on this second theme, was the staggering growth in the number of students and increase in the number of establishments. But the rectors also noted that the differences existing between universities and other institutions of higher education had largely been ironed out in the course of the years. Academic-type studies had undergone reforms in most countries. University courses had developed towards a better preparation of the student to face working life. Specialised schools had widened their concept of professional training to avoid that candidates would leave with narrow qualifications.

### 3.5. *The association at work (1984–1989)*

In 1983, CRE described itself as an association of executive heads of universities in Europe, with 360 members from 23 different countries. *The Association at work* was the heading of the CRE report for the five-year period 1984–1989.<sup>19</sup> Much was done. New programmes were started; most of them with external partners (see reference 6). However, the semi-annual conferences continued as a core CRE activity. New topics were taken up for discussion:

- The impact of new information technologies;
- Vocational training or general education?
- The pursuit of excellence;
- The university between tradition and progress;
- University contracts with outside partners: a tool for autonomy?
- Academic mobility: present realities and new opportunities;
- University graduates: the quality/quantity dilemma;
- The European university confronted by change;
- Universities and professional training.

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17 *Quinquennial Report of the Permanent Committee to the 1979 General Assembly*.

18 Barblan A. *Higher Education in Europe*. 1979; 4(4): 29–32.

19 *Quinquennial Report of the Permanent Committee 1984–1989*.

### 3.5.1. Magna Charta Universitatum (1988)

In 1988, the University of Bologna celebrated its 900<sup>th</sup> anniversary. It was a great celebration. The Magna Charta Universitatum was signed by 388 rectors present in Bologna:

The university is an autonomous institution at the heart of societies differently organised because of geography and historical heritage; it produces, examines, appraises and hands down culture by research and teaching.

To meet the needs of the world around it, its research and teaching must be morally and intellectually independent of all political authority and intellectually independent of all political authority and economic power.

Teaching and research in universities must be inseparable if their tuition is not to lag behind changing needs, the demands of society, and advances in scientific knowledge.

Freedom in research and training is the fundamental principle of university life, and governments and universities, each as far as in them lies, must ensure respect for this fundamental requirement.

The principles of the Magna Charta later found their way into the Bologna Declaration of European Ministers of Education in 1999, leading to a university- government partnership in the Bologna Process.

### 3.6. *New times (1989–2001). An Association of Universities*

In 1989, the Berlin Wall was falling down. CRE centred much of its development over the next five years on integrating the universities of Central and Eastern Europe into the association.<sup>20</sup> The May 1991 semi-annual conference took place in Leningrad and provided an opportunity to affirm the greater Europe for the academic community. By 1994, the CRE membership included 80 universities from former communist countries.

The high level of activity continued in the 1990s. Some of the topics discussed at the semi-annual conferences were:

- Preparing for employment;
- Institutionalization of quality;
- Human resource management;
- Future missions of the university;
- Academic co-operation networks,
- Improved management of available resources.

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20 *Quinquennial Report on activities, 1989–1994*. See also Barblan A., Reference 4.

The theme for the 1994 General Assembly in Budapest was *A university policy for Europe*. This meant the whole of Europe – East and West. The name of the organisation was formally changed to *CRE – Association of European Universities*. It was no longer a rectors' club.

CRE did much to promote the creation of inter-institutional networks, inviting universities to set up and strengthen joint programmes. This linking activity brought CRE in closer contact with the European Commission, which now was very active in the higher education area, through programmes such as ERASMUS, LINGUA, COMETT and TEMPUS. This also led to closer contact and a concerted policy approach with the *Liaison Committee* (see next chapter), representing universities in EC member states through the national rectors' conferences. As these rectors' conferences were also represented in CRE's Permanent Committee, the need for coordination became apparent.

Following the publication in the autumn of 1991 of the Commission's *Memorandum on Higher Education*, the two organisations joined forces to sound out the opinion of their members and give an input to the Commission. Following this, a number of opinions concerning specific aspects of university life in Europe were formulated in conjunction with the Liaison Committee for the Commission: Internationalisation of teaching and research, development of institutional networks, support polices for Central and Eastern European universities and management training for university executive heads.

#### **4. Confederation of European Union Rectors' Conferences**

The Confederation started its life in 1973 as the *Comité de Liaison des Recteurs des Etats membres de la Communauté européenne*. The *Liaison Committee* had its roots in the WEU European Universities Committee set up in 1955, just as the CRE Permanent Committee. Whereas CRE focused its work on the challenges facing all universities in Europe, the Liaison Committee focused on a stronger collaboration between universities within the European Community, to respond to Community initiatives affecting research and higher education and to be heard by the European Commission.

##### *4.1. The first years as the Liaison Committee (1973–1992)*

The inclusion of research and higher education in Community policies developed slowly at first. However, from the academic year 1976–77, the *Joint Study programmes* and the *Short Study Visits* scheme were in operation. The Liaison Committee followed the development and actively disseminated information. In the field of *Mobility and Co-operation within the Community*,

the LC considered questions such as academic recognition, admission procedures for students from other member countries, mobility of research students and staff.

With the introduction of the Framework Programme for Research and Technology Development in 1984 and the ERASMUS mobility programme for higher education in 1987, universities in Community countries were meeting new challenges. The coordination of university interests through the Liaison Committee became increasingly important.

As already mentioned in the preceding chapter, the Liaison Committee and CRE formulated a joint statement to the European Commission on the Commission's 1991 *Memorandum on Higher Education in the European Community*. Following this, a number of opinions concerning specific aspects of university life in Europe were formulated in conjunction with CRE for the Commission.

The single market was launched in January 1993 and in November the treaty of Maastricht came into force. The new treaty provided, for the first time, a legal framework for EC initiatives in the field of higher education. In December 1993, a White Paper presented by the President of the Commission, Jaques Delors, incorporated education among the areas to secure growth, competitiveness and employment in the years to come.

For the Liaison Committee, the year 1993 marked the change from a loose discussion club of rectors into a professionally managed and effective body representing the interests of the European universities. The LC 1993 Action Programme covered a wide range of activities:

- Organisation of the Academic Year;
- EC Research Policy;
- Memorandum on Higher Education;
- EC Mobility Programmes;
- Quality Assessment;
- Open and Distance Learning;
- Co-operation between University and Industry;
- ECTS.

#### 4.2. From Liaison Committee to Confederation (1995)

At the 57<sup>th</sup> meeting of the Liaison Committee in November 1995, it was decided that the LC should be redefined as *The Confederation of European Union Rectors' Conferences*, with new statutes and mission statement.<sup>21</sup>

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21 *Liaison Committee Annual Report 1996*.

The 1996 Annual Report pointed out that areas of importance were research policies, quality assurance, higher education policies, and reactions to a number of EU policy documents. Research policies concentrated in 1996 on the future Fifth Framework Programme, specifically the need to strengthen the social sciences and the humanities in Community research and to ensure training of young researchers. A paper on *Diversification of higher education* was presented to the annual conference of Directors General of higher education and Presidents of national rectors' conferences.

#### 4.3. The Sorbonne Declaration (1998)

At the Sorbonne in May 1998, Ministers of Education from France, Germany, Italy and the United Kingdom signed a declaration on harmonization of the architecture of the European higher education system:<sup>22</sup>

A system, in which two main cycles, undergraduate and graduate, should be recognized for international comparison and equivalence, seems to emerge.

At both undergraduate and graduate level, students would be encouraged to spend at least one semester in universities outside their own country. More teaching and research staff should be working outside their own country.

A convention, recognizing higher education qualifications within Europe, was agreed on last year in Lisbon<sup>23</sup>. Standing by these conclusions, one can build on them and go further.

Progressive harmonization of the overall framework of our degrees and cycles can be achieved through strengthening of already existing experience, joint diplomas, pilot initiatives, and dialogue with all concerned.

The concept of *harmonization* was not popular with universities. The Confederation President made a statement relating to this in October 1998:<sup>24</sup>

We should concentrate in a concerted action of national governments and Rectors' Conferences – representing the whole range of the universities in the member states of the European Union – on creating a framework for convertibility of credits, intermediate and final exams in undergraduate, graduate, postgraduate and continuing education.

At the end of his statement, the Confederation President proposed – to establish a working group to deal with an agreement on accreditation results open for joining to all universities;

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22 See <http://www.ehea.info/article-details.aspx?ArticleId=80>

23 The Lisbon Recognition Convention, see [www.coe.int/t/dg4/highereducation/Recognition/default\\_en.asp](http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/highereducation/Recognition/default_en.asp)

24 Statement presented by Hans-Uwe Erichsen, Vienna 28/29 October 1998.

- to establish a working group developing a framework for mutual recognition of credits;
- to define a European structure of higher education in a concerted action.

Together with CRE, the Confederation was invited to take part in the preparations for the follow-up conference to be held in Bologna, where such topics would be on the agenda (see chapter 5.1).

## 5. Joining forces: European Association of Universities

The Confederation had since its early beginnings as the Liaison Committee acted as a political lobby for the universities vis-à-vis the authorities of the European Community and later the Union. As the EU programmes in research and higher education not only continued to grow during the 1990s, but also were widening out to include co-operation with non-EU countries in Eastern Europe, not only the Confederation, but also CRE got more and more involved in EU policy and programs. Both organisations were now representing the same European universities. There was an increasing need for coordination of CRE and Confederation activities.

### 5.1 *Bologna 1999*

#### 5.1.1 The Trends Project

On the basis of the 1998 Sorbonne declaration and preparing for the follow-up conference in Bologna, the Confederation and CRE initiated a joint project to outline and overview the learning structures in higher education in EU Member States and associate countries. The Trends Report <sup>25</sup> was presented at the Bologna Conference in June 1999.

This survey of existing structures showed an extreme complexity and diversity of curricular and degree structures in European countries. The Sorbonne Declaration had recommended that studies should be organised in an undergraduate and a graduate cycle, but did not provide an indication of their duration. The debate that followed focussed on a possible European model with 3 main levels of qualifications requiring 3, 5 or 8 years of study. This model became one of the building stones in the Bologna Process. Another important contribution was the recommendation of an enhanced European dimension in quality assurance, evaluation and accreditation.

The 1999 Trends Report was to be the first of such reports prepared by EUA for Ministerial Conferences in the Bologna process.<sup>26</sup>

25 Haug G, Kirstein J. *Trends in Learning Structures in Higher Education*, June 1999.

26 <http://www.chea.info/article-details.aspx?ArticleId=87>

### 5.1.2 The Bologna Conference

Representatives of CRE and the Confederation were very active in the preparation for the Ministerial Conference to be held on 18–19 June 1999. The idea was that the first day should be an “academic day”; the second day would have a separate session for the Ministers to finalize their Declaration. Representatives for the university system were invited according to nominations by CRE and the Confederation, among them representatives from all national rectors’ conferences. Thus the university sector was broadly represented in Bologna: of a total of 250 participants, some 150 came from the higher education sector, the ministerial delegations totalled 50.

Presentation of the Trends Report was a central element in the programme for the first day, together with a presentation by the Confederation President on *The Challenges of a European Higher Education Space*.<sup>27</sup> He pointed out that higher education was a responsibility not only of governments, but also of universities. Magna Charta Universitatum confirmed the autonomy and freedom of the university. Also the CRE President had a central role in the programme, reporting on the first day’s discussions to the Ministers, before they sat down to finalize the declaration that started the Bologna Process.<sup>28</sup>

### 5.1.3 The Bologna Declaration

The footprints of university representatives in the Bologna Declaration can easily be seen:

European higher education institutions, for their part, have accepted the challenge and taken up a main role in constructing the European area of higher education, also in the wake of the fundamental principles laid down in the Bologna Magna Charta Universitatum of 1988. This is of the highest importance, given that Universities’ independence and autonomy ensure that higher education and research systems continuously adapt to changing needs, society’s demands and advances in scientific knowledge.

There was full agreement between ministerial and university representatives concerning the objectives of the follow-up:

- Adoption of a system of easily readable and comparable degrees;
- Adoption of a system based on two main cycles, undergraduate and graduate;
- Establishment of a system of credits to promote student mobility;
- Promotion of mobility by overcoming obstacles to free movement;
- Promotion of European co-operation in quality assurance;

<sup>27</sup> Statement presented by Hans-Uwe Erichsen, Bologna Forum, 18 June 1999.

<sup>28</sup> See <http://www.ehea.info/article-details.aspx?ArticleId=80>



- Promotion of the necessary European dimensions in higher education.

There was also an obligation for universities: Ministers expected universities *to respond promptly and positively and to contribute actively to the success of the endeavour*.

When a Follow-Up Group was established for the Bologna Process, the Confederation and CRE were invited to participate. The need to speak with one voice on behalf of the European universities was now absolute, but some time was still needed to straighten out the formalities of a merger.

### 5.2. *Founding the European University Association (2001)*

The merger of CRE and the Confederation was finally realised when the Constitutive Assembly of the European University Association met in Salamanca, 31 March 2001.<sup>29</sup> At the Salamanca Convention the European higher education institutions confirmed their support to the principles of the Bologna Declaration and their commitment to the creation of the European Higher Education Area. *The Salamanca Message*<sup>30</sup> describes the principles and key issues as seen from the university system.

## 6. Working together under the Council of Europe

The Council of Europe was founded in 1949. Culture was a part of its activities from the start. In 1954, the *European Cultural Convention*<sup>31</sup> came into force as a basis for co-operation in the cultural field, including education.

In the field of higher education, several conventions were developed in the early years: *On the Equivalence of Diplomas leading to Admission to Universities* (1953), *On the Equivalence of Periods of University Study* (1956), *On the Academic Recognition of University Qualifications* (1959).<sup>32</sup> This work was of course very relevant, not only for university rectors looking for a partner for their Standing Conference (sections 3.1 and 3.3), but also for Ministers of Education.

### 6.1 *From Western European Union to Council of Europe*

A first European Conference of Ministers of Education had been organised in 1959 under the auspices of the Western European Union, but as the rectors, the ministers saw the possibility for a broader collaboration under

29 *Minutes*, Constitutive General Assembly of the EUA, Salamanca, 31 March 2001.

30 [http://www.eua.be/eua/jsp/en/upload/Salamanca\\_declaration\\_en.1066755820788.pdf](http://www.eua.be/eua/jsp/en/upload/Salamanca_declaration_en.1066755820788.pdf)

31 <http://conventions.coe.int/Treaty/en/Treaties/Html/018.htm>

32 <http://conventions.coe.int/Treaty/Commun/ListeTraites.asp?CM=8&CL=ENG>

the Council of Europe. However, the Ministers of Education did not wish to be formally linked with an intergovernmental organisation steered by the Ministers of Foreign Affairs. Still, they were supported by the Council's secretariat, they could influence on the Council's priorities. Projects might be financed by means of the Council of Europe's Cultural Fund. This was a pragmatic and – at least at first glance – also an efficient solution.

The ministers, having heard from the university rectors meeting in Dijon, had a clear message to the Council of Europe:<sup>33</sup>

The Conference of Ministers, after having examined the conclusions of the Conference of Rectors of the European Universities and of the government officials held in Dijon, recommends the setting up, within the Council of Europe, of a consultative council for university problems.

In 1960, the Council of Europe took over responsibility for the work of the Universities Committee of the WEU and set up in its place a Committee for Higher Education and Research, composed of university rectors and vice-chancellors on one hand (the CRE Permanent Committee) and senior civil servants on the other, to advice governments on policies in this field.

The Ministers of Education continued to meet under the auspices of the Council of Europe, the 22<sup>nd</sup> session was held in 2007.

### *6.2. Committee for Higher Education and Research (1962)*

In 1962, the activities of the Council of Europe in the field of culture and education were reorganised. At the head of the new structure was a *Council for Cultural Co-operation (CCC)*. Under the CCC three permanent committees were established. Cultural affairs were taken care of by the CCC.

By this reorganisation, the Committee for Higher Education and Research (CHER) became a sub-committee reporting to the Council of Cultural Co-operation. The CCC reported to the Committee of Ministers (Ministers of Foreign Affairs). There was no formal link to the Ministers of Education.

After the reorganisation, CHER had its first meeting in April 1962. The link to the CRE Permanent Committee was clear: The elected Chairman was Rector of the University of Karlsruhe, Chairman of the *Westdeutsche Rektorenkonferenz*.

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33 1959 Conference of European Ministers of Education, [https://wayback.archive-it.org/1365/20110530013116/http://www.coe.int/T/E/Cultural\\_Co-operation/education/Standing\\_Conferences/](https://wayback.archive-it.org/1365/20110530013116/http://www.coe.int/T/E/Cultural_Co-operation/education/Standing_Conferences/)

### 6.2.1 What was discussed?

The 1963 CHER programme included the following themes: The founding of new universities, exchange for postgraduate studies and research, the legal position of higher education in member countries, model curricula and equivalence of university qualifications, non-university research centres and their links with universities, structure of university staffs.<sup>34</sup>

In 1968 the Secretary General of the Council of Europe reported to the Council of Ministers that the work programme for CHER had been allocated to the problem of adjusting universities to the new requirements of modern society.<sup>35</sup> Work was going on in the following subjects: Examination systems, courses of study, university staff structure, the role of universities in drawing up courses of study, diversification of post-school education.

The Secretary General referred to the unrest and student demonstrations that in 1968 were taking place at university campuses in many member countries, thinking it would be advisable to convene a special meeting of the CHER. He also mentioned that the CRE President, who attended meetings of the CHER as a member of the Swiss delegation, had expressed his keen interest in holding a special meeting. Apparently the Council of Ministers were not convinced, as no report of such meeting can be found.

The agenda for the 34th CHER meeting in November 1976<sup>36</sup> indicates the type of themes then discussed:

- the current situation and trends in tertiary education;
- the recognition of degrees and diplomas;
- the current situation and trends in university research;
- the teaching of human rights;
- mobility of higher education staff and students;
- the future programme of the Committee.

The 35th meeting of the committee was held in May 1977. The main theme for that meeting was *University research*.<sup>37</sup>

### 6.3. Standing Conference on University Problems (1978)

In 1978 the Council of Cultural Co-operation (CCC) was reorganised in the Council of Europe hierarchy as a steering committee (CDCC) and the Committee on Higher Education and Research came out of this reorgani-

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<sup>34</sup> *Report*, CCC Second Session, May 1962.

<sup>35</sup> *Memorandum 27 May 1968*, Secretary General, Council of Europe.

<sup>36</sup> *Higher Education in Europe* 1976; 1(2): 6–8.

<sup>37</sup> *Higher Education in Europe* 1977; 2(6): 3–4.

sation as an ad hoc committee of experts entitled *Standing Conference on University Problems (CC-PU)*, working under the authority of the CDCC.<sup>38</sup>

The work of the committee (conference) did not change much as a consequence of the new formal setting. The first meeting of CC-PU was held in December 1978.<sup>39</sup> Issues discussed were the promotion of student mobility and the interrelations between employment and training.

Based on the conclusions of an Expert Group on Academic Mobility and Equivalence of Diplomas, publication of a *Handbook for Foreign Students* was proposed. The meeting saw co-operation between the national information centres as important and expressed hope for a European network of information centres. The follow-up of this work was reflected in the Council of Europe Recommendation R 84(13) on the situation of foreign students. Another result of the work of the CC-PU, Recommendation R 85(21), focused on the mobility of academic staff. (See reference 6.)

#### 6.4. Bridging East and West. The LRP programme (1991–2000)

As the Berlin Wall fell in late 1989, new possibilities opened up for broader academic co-operation. The first new democratic states in Eastern Europe – Czechoslovakia, Hungary and Poland – joined the Council of Europe and the CC-PU in March 1990. Following the proposals from a consultative meeting with representatives of the new member countries, the Council of Europe initiated a regional and multilateral project *Legislative Reform for Higher Education in Eastern and Central Europe*, later called the *Legislative Reform Programme (LRP)*.<sup>40</sup>

The primary aim of the LRP was to provide support to the processes of legislative reform in higher education and research, as part of the consolidation of democratic regimes in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe.

Between 1991 and 2000 the LRP carried out over 70 advisory missions to countries in eastern and south-eastern Europe.

After 2000, when the LRP programme formally ended, the Council of Europe continued activities relating to legislative reforms, recognition and access as a contribution to the Bologna Process, assisting countries in South-Eastern Europe that wanted to join Bologna. (See reference 3.)

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38 Conclusions of the 280th meeting of the Ministers' Deputies, Dec. 1977.

39 *Higher Education in Europe*. 1979; 4(2): 32–33.

40 *Legislative Reform Programme in Higher Education and Research 1991–2000, Final Report* (Doc. CC-HER (2000) 40), [http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/highereducation/CompletedActivities/LRP\\_en.asp](http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/highereducation/CompletedActivities/LRP_en.asp)

### 6.5. *Committee for Higher Education and Research (1994)*

In 1994, the Standing Conference on University Problems (CC-PU) regained its status as a specialised committee under the CDCC, once more bearing the name *Committee for Higher Education and Research*, but now labelled (*CC-HER*). The new mandate asked the Committee to focus on:

- the development of European higher education and research on the basis of common democratic principles and of the values of the European university heritage, including the freedoms of learning, teaching and research, and the self-government of academic institutions within a democratic society.

After 1989, university leaders in East and West could easily agree to these principles. However, the economic resources for making the necessary changes were not available in many of the new democracies.

The widely different conditions for students and for academic staff in the different parts of Europe were a challenge to the traditional ideas of academic mobility: Was it now a one-way flow, leaving the poorer countries without the intellectual resources they needed for their own economic and cultural development? It must be a shared responsibility for sending and receiving countries to make it possible to create some balance in the mobility. This was reflected in the Council of Europe Recommendations R (95)7 on the brain drain in higher education and research, R (95)8 on academic mobility, and R (97)1 on recognition and quality assessment.

#### 6.5.1. The Lisbon Recognition Convention (1997)

*The Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region* was developed by the Council of Europe and UNESCO and adopted by national representatives meeting in Lisbon in April 1997. This convention – usually referred to as the Lisbon Convention – has since been ratified by most European countries.<sup>41</sup> As a convention, this document is an agreement in international law, binding for the signatory states.

Among the main points of the Lisbon Convention are the following:

- Holders of qualifications issued in one country shall have adequate access to an assessment of these qualifications in another country.
- No discrimination shall be made in this respect on any ground such as the applicant's gender, race, colour, disability, language, religion, political opinion, national, ethnic or social origin.

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<sup>41</sup> <http://conventions.coe.int> ETS165

- The responsibility to demonstrate that an application does not fulfil the relevant requirements lies with the body undertaking the assessment.
- Each country shall recognise qualifications as similar to the corresponding qualifications in its own system unless it can show that there are substantial differences between its own qualifications and the qualifications for which recognition is sought.
- All countries shall develop procedures to assess whether refugees and displaced persons fulfil the relevant requirements for access to higher education or to employment activities, even in cases in which the qualifications cannot be proven through documentary evidence.

The Lisbon Convention was taken up in the 1998 Sorbonne Declarations:

A convention, recognising higher education qualifications in the academic field within Europe, was agreed on last year in Lisbon. The convention set a number of basic requirements and acknowledged that individual countries could engage in an even more constructive scheme. Standing by these conclusions, one can build on them and go further.

It became the only formally binding document in the Bologna Process:

We note that 36 of the 45 participating countries have now ratified the Lisbon Recognition Convention. We urge those that have not already done so to ratify the Convention without delay.<sup>42</sup>

### 6.5.2. Access to higher education (1998)

One of the central projects for the CC-HER in the years 1996–1998 was *Access to higher education*. This resulted in Recommendation R (98)3:

All who are able and willing to participate successfully in higher education should have fair and equal opportunities to do so.

The higher education population as a whole should increasingly reflect the diversity of a changing society in each member state, while continuing to welcome students from other parts of Europe and the world.

Admissions systems and the learning environment in higher education institutions should give equal opportunities to all individuals and groups in society.

Efforts to maintain and raise the quality of higher education systems should include the criterion of effective access offered to all groups in society.

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<sup>42</sup> [http://www.ehea.info/Uploads/Declarations/Bergen\\_Communique1.pdf](http://www.ehea.info/Uploads/Declarations/Bergen_Communique1.pdf)

Later on, the concept of *access* should become central in relation to the *social dimension* of the Bologna Process.

#### 6.6. *Steering Committee for Higher Education and Research*

In November 2001, it was decided to transform the Council for Cultural Co-operation (CDCC) into four steering committees. One of the four committees was the *Steering Committee for Higher Education and Research* (the abbreviation

*CD-ESR* coming from the French version of the name). For the first time since 1962, the committee for higher education and research reported directly to the Committee of Ministers.

At the first meeting of the CD-ESR in 2002, I reported, as Chair of the Committee, on this transition of the Committee to a Steering Committee and reminded the delegates of the new mandate; to develop higher education in Europe and to contribute to the building of democratic societies. The challenge that the CD-ESR faced, were that even as a steering committee it had very limited steering power. Still, a lot was done in the years of the committee's existence. (It came to an end in 2011).

#### 6.7. *The Bologna Process: Early achievements and challenges*

The Committee had given important contributions to the European co-operation regarding *access* and *recognition*, central elements in the Bologna Declaration and from early 2000, the Chair and the Secretary participated in the meetings of the follow-up groups (chapter 7).

A central point on the agenda for the first plenary session of the CD-ESR in October 2002 was a round table debate on the Bologna Process. In my introduction, as Chair of the Committee, I recalled the contributions that the Council of Europe had made so far and could make to the further process:<sup>43</sup>

- the Council was a bridge between the Bologna countries and the “non-Bologna” countries in East and South-East Europe and had promoted further accession of countries to the process;
- the Council provided a platform for interaction between government representatives and academics through the CD-ESR;
- the Lisbon Recognition Convention was a very important tool in the process as well as documents supplementing the Convention, such as the Code of Good Practice in the provision of Transnational Education.

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43 *CD-ESR Meeting Report*, 1<sup>st</sup> plenary session, 3–4 October 2002.

On the basis of the outcome of the round-table discussion, the CD-ESR asked for further Council of Europe contributions to the Bologna Process, including :

- aspects of university autonomy;
- the role of legislation in the creation of the European Higher Education Area;
- higher education as a public good and a public responsibility.

In the follow-up, these topics were given high priority, together with access, recognition, student participation and the social dimension.

The role of legislation in the creation of the European Higher Education Area was a central element in the Council of Europe's assistance to countries in East and South-East Europe in their preparation for joining the Bologna Process: Albania, Andorra, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Georgia, Moldova, Montenegro, Russia, Serbia and Ukraine; countries joining the Bologna Process in Prague (2001), Berlin (2003) and Bergen (2005).

## **7. Co-operating in the Bologna Process (1999–2005)**

To achieve the objectives set by the Bologna Declaration, a steering group and a larger follow-up group was established in September 1999. After some restructuring by the ministers in Prague (2001) and Berlin (2003), the steering of the Bologna Process was taken care of by the Bologna Follow-up Group (BFUG), composed of the representatives of all members of the Bologna Process and the European Commission, with the Council of Europe, EUA, EURASHE, ESIB and UNESCO/CEPES as consultative members.

In this way, the European universities, through CRE and the Confederation, teamed up with national authorities and the EU Commission for the follow-up of the Bologna Ministerial Conference. Instead of lobbying from the outside as interest groups, they were inside and partners in the steering of the process.

There were probably several reasons why this co-operation worked well:

- In many countries (e.g. Norway) national rectors' conferences had developed a dialogue with national authorities, including the Minister of Education, which over the years had developed mutual understanding and trust.
- During the 1990s, there had been increasing contacts between the Confederation and CRE with the EU Commission, not always without friction, but at least leading to a mutual understanding.



- The regular meetings between the Confederation and national directors general responsible for higher education certainly helped to pave the way, as the latter would later meet as national representatives in the BFUG.
- Many of the national academic representatives in CD-ESR were also active in CRE and the Confederation; the lists of participants would indicate that this could be ten or twelve out of some forty academics meeting in CD-ESR.
- Some of the national representatives in the BFUG, possibly eight to ten out of fifty, would also represent their ministries in CD-ESR.

Another very important factor was that the academic community over time had discussed all the relevant topics in the Bologna Process. In addition to traditional academic debates on research and education in universities, rectors discussed the challenges of rapidly increasing student numbers, the role of the university within the structure of higher education, university governance and university financing. They discussed conditions for staff and students. There was a clear focus on academic freedom and institutional autonomy already in Cambridge in 1955, culminating in Bologna in 1988.

Both nationally and with their European partners; the rectors' conferences, developing into association of universities, studied challenges related to access, recognition, the social dimension, quality assurance, mobility of students and staff, training of young researchers. They were very well prepared for Bologna.

Both nationally and on European level, the associations of universities were engaged in policy discussions relating to higher education and research.

On this basis, the Confederation and CRE influenced a lot already in Bologna. The input from the Trends Report regarding a common degree structure with three main levels of qualifications and a European dimension in quality assurance, evaluation and accreditation, certainly contributed to the outcome of the conference. The reference in the Ministers' Declaration to the 1988 Magna Charta Universitatum also tied the universities to the follow-up: Ministers expected universities *to respond promptly and positively and to contribute actively to the success of the endeavour*.

Also the Council of Europe became an important partner in the Bologna Process. The Lisbon Recognition Convention was the only formally binding obligation for the participating countries. Over the first five years of the Bologna Process the number of ratifications increased from 9 to 36. The CD-ESR followed up the concept of public responsibility for higher education, introduced by the 2001 Ministerial Conference in Prague, also stress-

ing the responsibility for realising the social dimension. The Council of Europe served as a bridge to the Bologna Process for countries that were not yet part of it.

At the 2003 Ministerial Conference in Berlin, the Confederation and CRE -now together in EUA – obtained full support for the inclusion of *doctoral studies* as an added Bologna action line. Based on the *Salzburg Principles*<sup>44</sup>, recommendations from a Bologna Seminar organised by EUA in February 2005, doctoral studies was followed up in the Communiqué from the 2005 Bergen Ministerial Conference<sup>45</sup>:

The core component of doctoral training is the advancement of knowledge through original research. Considering the need for structured doctoral programmes and the need for transparent supervision and assessment, we note that the normal workload of the third cycle in most countries would correspond to 3–4 years full time. We urge universities to ensure that their doctoral programmes promote interdisciplinary training and the development of transferable skills, thus meeting the needs of the wider employment market. --- We consider participants in third cycle programmes both as students and as early stage researchers.

The concept of *doctoral candidate* was introduced in the Salzburg Principles, inspired by the Norwegian decision that doctoral studies should be seen as early stage researchers (see section 2.2). Ministers in Bergen decided to see them *both* as students and as early stage researchers.

Before the 2005 Ministerial Conference in Bergen, several states in South-East Europe wanted to join the Bologna Process. They were told that their applications should contain information on how they would implement the principles and objectives of the declaration. While the Bologna Action Lines were obvious objectives, it was not equally obvious what were the main principles; principles that should be incorporated within the higher education system of each country. On the basis of previous communiqués, the BFUG<sup>46</sup> came up with this list:

- International mobility of students and staff;
- Autonomous universities;
- Student participation in the governance of higher education;
- Public responsibility for higher education;
- The social dimension of the Bologna Process.

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44 [http://www.eua.be/eua/jsp/en/upload/Salzburg\\_Report\\_final.1129817011146.pdf](http://www.eua.be/eua/jsp/en/upload/Salzburg_Report_final.1129817011146.pdf)

45 [http://www.ehea.info/Uploads/Declarations/Bergen\\_Communique1.pdf](http://www.ehea.info/Uploads/Declarations/Bergen_Communique1.pdf)

46 BFUG Board Meeting 14 July 2004.

Applicant states were requested to confirm their respect for these principles in their applications. These were all principles close to the heart of the academic representatives in the BFUG.

These examples illustrate how ideas, principles and objectives discussed by university leaders during fifty years came together with the responsibility of governments to further develop higher education in Europe and in each individual country. European universities gained influence through their national associations, through EUA – the European University Association- and through the concerted actions of the Bologna Process.

## 8. Ten years later

### *8.1. The Bologna Process*

The goal set for the Bologna Process in 1999, was to establish a European Higher Education Area by 2010. In the first years, developments were fast.

At the 2005 Bergen Conference I reported to the Ministers that we, halfway in the Bologna Process towards 2010, could see the contours of the European Higher Education Area, not as a single, unified higher education system, but as a group of more than forty national systems developing according to jointly agreed principles. The Ministers confirmed their commitment to coordinating their policies through the Bologna Process to establish the EHEA by 2010.

However, as new tasks were included, such as the social dimension and a global strategy, the process slowed down, and in 2009 the Leuven Communiqué announced that the process would continue until 2020. The 2015 Yerevan Communiqué<sup>47</sup> tells us that

- Implementation of the structural reforms is uneven and the tools are sometimes used incorrectly or in bureaucratic and superficial ways. Continuing improvement of our higher education systems and greater involvement of academic communities are necessary to achieve the full potential of the EHEA. We are committed to completing the work, and recognize the need to give new impetus to our cooperation.
- EHEA faces serious challenges. It is confronted with a continuing economic and social crisis, dramatic levels of unemployment, increasing marginalization of young people, demographic changes, new migration patterns, and conflicts within and between countries, as well as extremism and radicalization. On the other hand, greater

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47 [http://www.ehea.info/Uploads/SubmittedFiles/5\\_2015/112705.pdf](http://www.ehea.info/Uploads/SubmittedFiles/5_2015/112705.pdf)

mobility of students and staff fosters mutual understanding, while rapid development of knowledge and technology, which impacts on societies and economies, plays an increasingly important role in the transformation of higher education and research.

As of 2015, the Bologna Process clearly has lost momentum. The EU Commission is the strongest driving force in European higher education. The Council of Europe's Committee, CD-ESR, is only history.

One reason for the loss of momentum may be that the European Ministers of Education once more took the easy way out: No binding commitment, no budget, no permanent secretariat. Forty years previously, Ministers of Education counted on assistance from the Council of Europe (section 6.1). In the Bologna Process, they count on assistance from the next hosting country for their conference. Whereas university rectors over time learned that meetings are not enough to change a system – you need your own dedicated organisation – Ministers of Education may never learn.

### 8.2. *Norwegian higher education*

The 2007 evaluation of the Norwegian Quality Reform – the Bologna Process in Norway – was on the whole quite positive (see part 1.4). Since then, developments have been slower. However, a 2014 national student survey indicates that Norwegian students in general are satisfied with their study programme.<sup>48</sup> Bachelor students are more satisfied than master students. Students from new universities are less satisfied than students from traditional universities. Institution size matters; the larger the institution, the less satisfied students are with the overall quality of their programme. Efficiency has increased only slightly, from an overall annual average of 39.1 ECTS credits in 2000 to 41.7 ECTS credits in 2014.<sup>49</sup>

The Quality Reform coupled institutional autonomy with a responsibility for achievement of national objectives (see 1.3): The institutions should be *partners* in the continuing development of the national higher education system.

Perhaps institutions got too much autonomy: With their new institutional autonomy, university colleges have given priority to establishing Master and Ph.D.-programmes, aiming for university status. Traditional experience-based education for professions such as nursing, teaching and

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48 <http://www.nokut.no/studiebarometeret/analyser>

49 [http://dbh.nsd.uib.no/dbhvev/student/student\\_studiepoeng\\_rapport.cfm](http://dbh.nsd.uib.no/dbhvev/student/student_studiepoeng_rapport.cfm)

engineering is changing into research-based education in institutions that want to be universities. For teaching, you will now need a Master Degree.

The Bologna Declaration saw it the other way:<sup>50</sup>

The degree awarded after the first cycle shall also be relevant to the European labour market as an appropriate level of qualification.

For those that are not inclined towards an academic career, we now probably need a new type of short, post-secondary non-university education, to open up for new forms for learning relevant to the labour market.

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50 [http://www.chea.info/Uploads/Declarations/BOLOGNA\\_DECLARATION1.pdf](http://www.chea.info/Uploads/Declarations/BOLOGNA_DECLARATION1.pdf)

# Revisjonen av medisinstudiet i Oslo – «Oslo 2014»

*Michael 2016; 13: 50–60.*

*Formålet med denne artikkelen er å gjøre rede for begrunnelsene for og innholdet i den reviderte studieplanen for medisinstudiet ved Universitetet i Oslo. Artikkelen bygger på litteratur, rapporter, dokumenter og forfatternes egne inntrykk og observasjoner. Den nye studieplanen, kalt «Oslo 2014», er inndelt i åtte moduler. Det er skapt rom for valgfrie emner i et omfang på syv uker, og prosjektoppgaven er utvidet i omfang. Det er lagt ned et stort arbeide i å formulere fagspesifikke læringsutbyttebeskrivelser. Studieplanen legger opp til spiral-læring, med økende kompleksitet i studiets siste år. Opplæring i kliniske og praktiske ferdigheter er styrket, og det er lagt økt vekt på praksis i primærhelsetjenesten. Bruk av problembasert læring (PBL) er redusert og er erstattet av andre studentaktiviserende læringsmåter som teambasert læring (TBL). Det er utviklet et nytt format av smågrupper kalt «lærerledet smågruppe i basalfag» (LSB). Strukturen i planen er forenklet og skal gjøre det lettere å ha oversikt, både internt i den enkelte modul og innen de enkelte fag. Organiseringen av studiet må legge til rette for endring. Kontinuerlig monitorering og revisjon av studieplanen vil være viktig for å sikre innholdsmessig relevans og god kvalitet i undervisningen.*

## Introduksjon

14. august 2014 startet de første studentene i en ny og revidert studieplan for medisinstudiet ved Det medisinsk fakultet, Universitetet i Oslo. Litt over to år tidligere, i juni 2012, hadde fakultetet satt ned en arbeidsgruppe for å vurdere om det var behov for en revisjon av den studieplanen man da benyttet (1). 17. september 2013 vedtok fakultetsstyret at en ny studieplan, kalt «Oslo 2014» skulle innføres (2).

Den forrige studieplanen fra 1996 representerte i sin tid en radikal organisatorisk endring, hvor ett mål var å fjerne skillet mellom prekliniske

og kliniske fagområder (3, 4). «Oslo 96» innebar en pedagogisk reform med vektlegging av faglig integrasjon og problembasert læring (PBL), og det var forutsatt og forventet stor og aktiv egeninnsats fra studentene (3, 5). Karakterskalaen ble endret fra den tidligere skalaen med gradering fra 6–12 til en skala med bestått/ikke bestått.

Ti år etter innføringen av «Oslo 96» konkluderte en undersøkelse med at sentrale strukturelle kjennetegn i studieplanen nærmest var uforandret (6), hvilket trolig var et resultat av en tydelig føring fra fakultetsledelsen om at vesentlige endringer i studieplanen ikke skulle gjennomføres. Alt i 2002 pekte Øivind Larsen på spenningen som var oppstått mellom pedagogiske modeller og behovet for faglig fornyelse og endring av studieplanen: «Hvis selv en liten, men faglig velbegrunnet endring i ett fag må føre med seg endringer i en rekke andre fag på grunn av sammenvevingen, er det grunn til bekymring. Da kan det hele bli rigid.» (7).

De siste 20 år har funnet sted en betydelig endring i medisinsk kunnskap, teknologi og praksis. Omorganisering i helsevesenet, økt vekt på samhandling og nye behandlingsforløp, internasjonalisering, nye kompetansebehov og forventninger både hos den enkelte pasient og fra samfunnet, skapte et behov for å gjennomgå innholdet i studiet, dets organisering og pedagogiske virkemidler (8, 9). Kunnskapsdepartementet krevde at kvalifikasjonsrammeverkets bestemmelser for formulering av læringsutbyttebeskrivelser skulle implementeres ved norske universiteter og høyskoler (10). Arbeidsgruppen som ble nedsatt i 2012 av fakultetsledelsen fikk i oppdrag å vurdere og å beskrive:

- problemområder og flaskehalser i medisinstudiet
- alternative læringsområder
- plassering av fag i semestrene
- undervisningssteder
- omfanget av enkeltfag
- nye eller modifiserte eksamensformer

En mulig revisjon skulle i tillegg styrke kvaliteten på undervisningen, sikre relevans i tråd med nye kompetansebehov, og gi en bedre samhandling mellom lærerkrefter og bedre arbeidsdeling mellom fagmiljøene i Oslo universitetssykehus (OUS) og Akershus universitetssykehus (Ahus) (1). Det var også et mål at en revidert studieplan skulle skape mer rom for e-læring og bruk av ferdighetssentra.

## Gjennomgang av «Oslo 96»-planen

Under forarbeidene til revisjonen i 2012 ble det gjort en systematisk gjennomgang av hele den eksisterende studieplanen, helhetlig, semestervis og for undervisningsfagene. Gruppen kunne konstatere at enkelte fag hadde ekspandert uten at man så helheten med hensyn til opprinnelig tildelt tid eller koordinering på tvers av semestrene. Tidspunkter for forelesninger var blitt forskjøvet slik at sammenhengen mellom tema for forelesninger og PBL-undervisningen forsvant, og antall forelesninger var økt. Et flertall av lærerne, særlig i de kliniske semestrene, mente PBL ikke var en hensiktsmessig undervisnings- og læringsform. Enkelte fagområder ble i liten grad undervist, og det var en skjevfordeling i undervisning i grenspesialitetene som inngikk i store kliniske fag som indremedisin og kirurgi.

Både horisontal og vertikal integrasjon var en viktig strategi i «Oslo 96», og planen la opp til en detaljert matriseorganisering av undervisningen (11). Det ble utviklet semestervise læringsmål på tvers av fag, og eksamenene var integrerte. Ved en gjennomgang av studieplanen i 2012 fant vi at det i gjennomsnitt var 10,5 fag representert i hvert semester, med en spredning fra fem til 17 fag. Undervisningslederne i de enkelte fag fikk etter «Oslo 96» en ny rolle, blant annet ved at fagspesifikke eksamener ble erstattet med integrerte eksamener. Studieadministrative ressurser ble overført fra fagene til drift av de integrerte semestrene. Mange fag var spredt ut over studiet og integrert med andre fag. Det var krevende for en del undervisningsledere å holde oversikt over fagets undervisning en rekke ulike semestre. Det er beskrevet i litteraturen at når fag spres og fragmenteres i en integrert plan, kan det være vanskelig for studentene å gripe fagets grunnleggende logikk og teoretiske modeller (12, 13). Faget farmakologi kan tjene som et eksempel i «Oslo 96»-planen; faget ble undervist i åtte ulike semestre, hadde ikke egen eksamen og led under integreringen. Ved en gjennomgang av planen i 2012 observerte vi tydelige tegn på at både lærere og studenter manglet oversikt (1).

Wyller & Brodal har pekt på at en integrert studieplan krever en større innsats fra fakultetets ansatte enn en tradisjonell studieplan, og har stilt et sentralt spørsmål: «Har reformen medført en byråkratisering som svekker lærernes autonomi og dermed deres evne til å begeistre og motivere studentene?» (3). Da vi tok pulsen på lærerkollegiet i Oslo i 2012 og 2013 ble det gitt uttrykk for en viss slitasje og en opplevelse av fremmedgjøring. Mange lærere som tidligere hadde et strekt eierskap til faget sitt, hadde mistet engasjementet for undervisningen.



## Grunnlaget for en ny, revidert studieplan

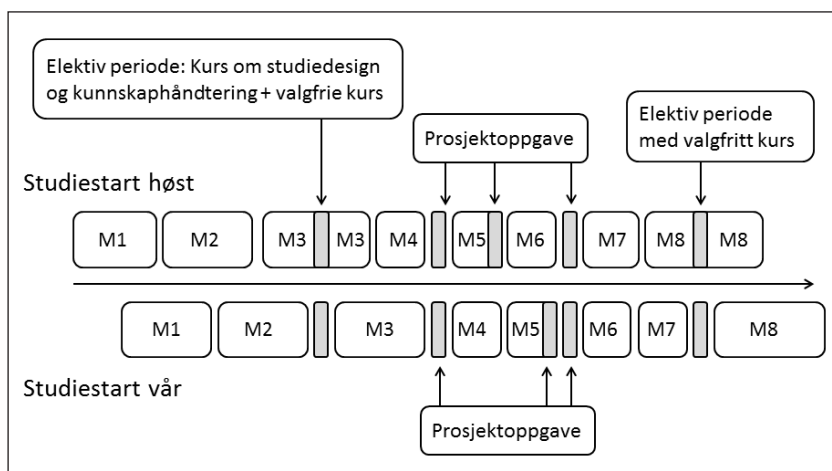
Det ble i 2012 avdekket svakheter i den daværende studieplanen som gjorde at en omfattende revisjon var nødvendig. Forskning fant ingen spesifikk «Oslo 96»-effekt med hensyn til faglig oppdateringspraksis noen år etter at gjennomført studium (14). Selvvurdert kompetanse noen år etter studiet var ikke vesentlig forskjellig fra andre studenter ved andre studiesteder (15). Ytre kompetansekrav og interne organisatoriske, innholdsmessige og pedagogiske utfordringer var drivkrefter for arbeidet som startet i januar 2013 med mål om å utvikle en ny studieplan (1).

Fakultetsstyret vedtok desember 2012 en rekke organisatoriske faglige og pedagogiske føringer for revisjonen, deriblant tydeliggjøring av forventet læringsutbytte, styrking av undervisning og praksis i primærhelsetjenesten og økt vekt på behandlingsforløp, samhandling, brukermedvirkning, forebygging og folkehelsearbeid. Man åpnet for å ta i bruk en større bredde av studentaktiviserende undervisnings- og læringsformer, som for eksempel kasuistikkbasert (KBL) og team-basert læring (TBL) (16, 17). Opplæring i kliniske ferdigheter måtte styrkes siden autorisasjonstidspunktet fra 2013 ble endret til umiddelbart etter slutteksamen. En styrking av organiseringen og ledelsen av studiet, innføring av valgfrie emner, samt økt bruk av digitale læringsressurser, var også blant målsettingene (2).

## Organisatoriske endringer og dimensjonering

Den tidligere semesterstrukturen på 20 uker var problematisk fordi studentene alltid måtte ha eksamen i høstsemesteret tidlig i påfølgende januar. I ny plan var det en målsetting at studentene skulle unngå et slikt eksamens-tidspunkt. Hovedstrukturen i den reviderte studieplanen ble bygget rundt åtte moduler med varighet på enten et halvt år eller ett år, med blokkinn- deling innad i den enkelte modul. Organiseringen var inspirert av en modell fra University of Pennsylvania School of Medicine i USA (18). Figur 1 gir en fremstilling av hvordan planen forløper, og tabell 1 gir en fremstilling av den tematiske organiseringen i hver modul. Det er verd å merke seg at studieforløpet blir noe forskjellig avhengig av om man starter i høst- eller vårsemesteret.

Modulene er enten 18 uker, 36 uker eller 40 uker, noe som fører til at eksamener ikke griper over ferier. Studiet ble organisert på denne måten også for å skape rom for å innføre valgfrie emner. Fra og med det tredje året i studiet ble de fire første ukene over nyttår definert som elektiv periode. Det er fire slike perioder i planen, og valgfrie emner arrangeres for studentene i den første og fjerde perioden, i et omfang på totalt syv uker (figur 1). En fordel med en slik løsning er at man kan gjennomføre valgfrie emner



Figur 1. Studieløpet blir litt ulikt avhengig av om man starter i høst- eller vårsemesteret.

Tabell 1. Oversikt over kjerneplanen i «Oslo 2014».

Modul	Uker	Blokk	Struktur/overordnet tema
1	40	1	Statistikk, helse, biologi og samfunn
		2	Cellebiologi
		3	Blod/immunologi/mikrobiologi/thorax
2	40	1	Humanbiologi (organblokker)
		2	Propedeutikk
3	36	1	Introduksjon (parakliniske fag)
		2	Hjerte- og lungesykdommer/thorax
		3	Infeksjoner og endokrinologi
		4	Mage-, tarm- og nyresykdommer/hud- og veneriske sykdommer
		5	Bevegelsesapparatet/hud- og veneriske sykdommer
4	18		Nevrologi, øre-nese-halssykdommer, øyesykdommer, genetik
5	14		Psykiatriske fag, rettsmedisin, farmakologi
6	18		Reproduksjon, kvinne-barn, global helse
7	18		Samfunnsmedisin, allmennmedisin, praksisperiode
8	36	1	Kreft, blod- og infeksjonssykdommer
		2	Mage-, tarm- og nyresykdommer og endokrinologi
		3	Bevegelsesapparatet, revmatologi og nevrokirurgi
		4	Hjerte- og lungesykdommer/thorax
		5	Avdelingstjeneste, sykehjem og akuttmedisin

for to kull samtidig, hvilket gjør at kurstilbudet kan økes. Den andre og tredje perioden er, sammen med én periode i modul 5, avsatt til arbeid med en prosjektoppgave. Omfanget av prosjektoppgaven ble utvidet med en uke, slik at den samlet sett teller 13 uker og gir 20 studiepoeng, i tråd med de krav som gjelder for en masteroppgave i et profesjonsstudium.

Normen for en undervisningsuke i «Oslo 2014» ble fastsatt til 20 timer undervisning per uke i gjennomsnitt, hvor inntil åtte timer kan være forelesninger. Med en time regnes undervisning inkludert pause, dvs. 45 minutter undervisning og 15 minutter pause per undervisningstime. Timetallet ble blant annet begrunnet i at det var nødvendig at planen oppfylte de overordnede kravene til medisinstudiet i EU/EØS, hvor det nylig er poengtert at studiet både må ha en varighet av seks år og inneholde minimum 5 500 timer strukturert læringsaktivitet (19).

Begrepet ukeekvivalent (UE) er brukt i forbindelse med dimensjonering av fagene i studieprogrammet som helhet og innen moduler og blokker. Omfanget av en UE er samsvarende med normen for en undervisningsuke. I forbindelse med revisjonen ble alle fag dimensjonert på nytt (2). Hvis et fag eksempelvis disponerer en UE i en modul, vil faget kunne legge inn timeplanfestet undervisning på inntil 20 timer for en gitt student i løpet av modulen. Inntil åtte av de 20 timene kan være forelesninger. To eller flere fag kan gå sammen om timeplanfestede undervisnings- og læringsaktiviteter, og fagene vil da legge sammen tiden.

### **Kompetansebasert utdanning**

I 2012 hadde fakultetet startet arbeidet med å innføre kvalifikasjonsrammeverkets regler for formulering av læringsutbyttebeskrivelser (learning outcomes) (10), og dette arbeidet har fortsatt med full tyngde inn i arbeidet med Oslo 2014. Til forskjell fra «Oslo 96» hvor læringsmål var formulert samlet for alle fag i ett semester, er det nå formulert læringsutbyttebeskrivelser for hvert enkelt fag. Dette er gjort for å tydeliggjøre fagenes bidrag, eierskap og ansvar, og for å sikre kongruens mellom læringsutbytte, undervisning, læring og vurdering (20). Fagene står selv sentralt i å utarbeide forslag til læringsutbyttebeskrivelser som siden blir diskutert i fellesskap i modul- og blokkgrupper. Beskrivelsene har så blitt gjenstand for vurdering og justering av modulleder og prosjektleder, før de oversendes programrådet som har fungert som et kritisk «peer review» organ. Arbeidet har vært svært tid- og ressurskrevende, men nødvendig fordi læringsutbyttebeskrivelser skaper bevissthet i fagmiljøene og eierskap til undervisningen i eget fag – og læringsutbyttebeskrivelsen har vært viktig for studieplanleggingen. Innsikt i andre fags læringsutbytte har skapt grunnlag for horisontal integrasjon.

I tillegg skaper fagspesifikke læringsutbyttebeskrivelser transparens i studiet og oversikt for studentene.

### **Faglige endringer**

Vi vil her peke på enkelte faglige endringer i den reviderte studieplanen. De medisinske basalfagene i hovedsak samlet til de to første studieårene (modul 1 og modul 2) (tabell 1). Modul 1 starter med en introduksjon til medisinen med blokken «Statistikk, helse, biologi og samfunn». Undervisningen i anatomi, fysiologi, medisinsk biokjemi og ernæring er søkt integrert horisontalt gjennom en blokkstruktur i modulene knyttet til ulike organ-systemer. Studentene er utplassert enkelte dager i allmennpraksis i løpet av de to første årene. Studentene får i løpet av de to første årene kjennskap til hele det friske mennesket, før de møter vanlige sykdommer og kliniske problemstillinger, og deretter mer spesialisert klinikk og mulighet for for-dypning.

Klinisk undersøkelsesteknikk læres fra modul 2, og det er en egen eksamen i propedeutikk mot slutten av studiets andre år. Medisinske atferdsfag og undervisning i kommunikasjon mellom lege og pasient var viktig i «Oslo 96», og har fått styrket sitt faginnhold og ikke minst nye læringsformer. KLoK (kunnskapsbasert praksis, ledelse og kvalitetsforbedring) er gjennomgående i flere semestre. Dette ble etablert for ca. 10 år siden og videreføres med utvidet bruk av e-læringsressurser og simulering med tverr-profesjonelt samarbeid ved akuttmedisinske hendelser i siste semester (21).

I år tre kommer den første integrerte kliniske modul (modul 3) med hovedvekt på indremedisin, hud og kirurgi, før de kliniske «småfagene» undervises. Praksisperioder i primærhelsetjenesten, allmennmedisin og på sykehus er videreført. Det siste året kommer den andre integrerte, kliniske modulen (modul 8). «Oslo 2014»-planen vil i større grad enn den forrige planen forsøke å realisere ambisjonen om spirallæring, hvor man i studiets siste år, modul 8, møter økende kompleksitet.

Undervisningen i farmakologi er blitt mer konsentrert og derved styrket, med egen eksamen mot slutten av modul 5. Smågrupper i medisinsk genetik er også kommet inn i studiet. Fagområder som rusmedisin og global helse er styrket. Det planlegges praksis i sykehjem og i enheter for kommunale akutte døgnplasser. Det er etablert et prosjekt for styrking av undervisning i ultralyd som får gjennom hele studiet fra basalfag til kliniske semestre. En nasjonal oversikt over kliniske praktiske ferdigheter implementeres i studiet (22). De valgfrie kursene vil arrangeres første gang i januar 2017 (23).

Et engelskspråklige internasjonalt semester med vekt på barnesykdommer, gynekologi og obstetrikk ble etablert for 13 år siden og har siden gjennomgått få endringer. Basalfagene er flyttet til studiets andre år. Omfanget av undervisning i global helse i den nye modulen er utvidet.

### **Pedagogiske endringer**

Bruk av PBL er redusert og til dels erstattet av andre studentaktiviserende læringsmåter i modul 1 og modul 2. I de senere moduler brukes ikke PBL. Det er åpnet for større frihet i bruken av pedagogiske metoder, slik at metoder tilpasses stoffet det er snakk om. Flere fag har gjennomført og lagt opp til å gjennomføre TBL. Det er blitt utviklet et nytt format av smågrupper kalt «lærerledet smågruppe i basalfag» (LSB), hvor studentene diskuterer en kasuistikk og går igjennom relevante basalmedisinske spørsmålstillinger. Det forventes at studenter forbereder seg både til TBL og LSB, og det er avsatt tid i studentenes timeplan for dette.

Studentenes timeplan er lagt opp slik at hospitering på kliniske avdelingene er mulig, noe som spesielt gjelder modul 3, 4, 8. Pasienter er utplassert i klinisk arbeid under veiledning i psykiatri (tre uker), allmennpraksis (seks uker) og ved lokalsykehus (seks uker). Den siste elektive perioden vil kunne brukes til klinisk praksis ved ulike avdelinger. Sykehusene har endret profil med flere polikliniske konsultasjoner og mer dagbehandling, og dette påvirker studentenes læringsarenaer.

Tverrprofesjonelt samarbeid møter legen første dag etter studiet, men også i kliniske visitter i sykehusavdelinger. Det arbeides med mulighet for organisert tverrprofesjonell læring mot slutten av studiet i nye læringsarenaer i sykehjem, kommunal akutt døgnavt eller i legevakt. Pilotering er gjennomført både i sykehjem og i kommunal akutt døgnavt i det siste semesteret i studiet. Det er gode tilbakemeldinger og læringsutbyttet er stort for studentene.

### **Diskusjon**

Den reviderte studieplanen for medisinstudiet i Oslo, «Oslo 2014», har resultert i organisatoriske, faglige og pedagogiske endringer. Det er en kjent problemstilling at integrerte og problembaserte studieplaner krever sterk ledelse og har en tendens til å forvitne over tid (24). I Oslo er undervisningsmiljøene spredt geografisk og det er opptak av studenter to ganger i året. Det er viktig å erkjenne at en komplisert, integrert studieplan i tillegg skaper utfordringer når det gjelder koordinering av undervisnings- og eksamensaktiviteter. Håpet er at en forenkling av organiseringen skal gjøre det lettere å ha oversikt, både internt i den enkelte modul og de enkelte fag.

Flere hundre lærere, studieadministrative personer og studentrepresentanter har vært engasjert i krevende modulararbeid – som regel utenom ordinær arbeidstid. I tillegg har fagspesifikke grupper av lærere jobbet sammen med leveranser inn til representanter i modulgruppen. Arbeidet med revisjonen har vært et stort løft for fakultetet, men har også resultert i engasjement og eierskap til studiet og undervisningen. Studieplanen har bred forankring i fakultetet gjennom programrådet for medisin, styringsgruppen for «Oslo 2014» og fakultetsstyret. Det er opprettet egne stillinger som utdanningsleder i de tre instituttene. Det er blitt arrangert en rekke allmøter og studieplanseminarer som har skapt arenaer for refleksjon, innspill og diskusjon.

I «Oslo 2014» har det vært et mål å redusere den vertikale integrasjonen, og å styrke den horisontale integrasjonen. Det har også vært et ønske å konsentrere undervisningen i enkelte fag og å innføre enkelte fagspesifikke eksamener. Ambisjonen var også å styrke primærhelseorienteringen, opprette valgfrie emner og systematisere opplæringen i kliniske ferdigheter.

Peter F. Hjort (1924–2011) reflekterte over medisinstudiet etter at første kull hadde gjennomført programmet i Tromsø: «studieplanen er viktig, men bare på en indirekte måte. Det avgjørende er at unge mennesker oppdras i et miljø som er preget av optimisme, engasjement, entusiasme, innsatsvilje og selvtillit. Da finner de gode rolle-modeller blandt lærerne, og da går resten av seg selv. Enhver studieplan som bidrar til å skape et slikt miljø er god – uten hensyn til om stoffet er delt inn på langs eller tvers. Det viktigste er at miljøet tror på studieplanen» (25).

Studieplanen er viktig blant annet for å sikre en god koordinering av undervisningen og at innholdet er avstemt med samfunnets behov og forventninger. Men det er også helt avgjørende å sikre at lærere har et sterkt eierskap til planen. En medisinsk studieplan må være dynamisk, og organiseringen må legge til rette for endring. Kontinuerlig monitorering og revisjon av studieplanen vil være viktig for å sikre innholdsmessig relevans og god kvalitet i undervisningen.

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# Studentenes manglende stemme i medisinstudiet

*Michael 2016; 13: 61–6.*

*Medisinstudiet er først og fremst et profesjonsstudium der ulike aktører bidrar til å definere legerollen og legeryrket ovenfor studentene. Imidlertid gjør studentenes overfylte studiehverdag og læringsmål formidlet gjennom «det skjulte pensum» at studentene prioriterer en ensidig biomedisinsk og oppgavefokusert forståelse av legerollen. Flere fag i studiet – som allmennmedisin, samfunnsmedisin, psykiatri, klinisk kommunikasjon og etikk – kan bidra til å utfordre dette perspektivet, primært ved at de lærer studentene andre «språk» å praktisere og forstå legeprofesjonen ut ifra, enn det biomedisinske. En hovedutfordring blir derfor å tilpasse undervisning som i utgangspunktet kanskje ikke får plass i en presset studiehverdag, undervisning som krever modning, fordypning og refleksjon, inn i en allerede sammenpakket studieplan der studenten er fokusert på den praktiske yrkeshverdagen.*

## **En legerolle i endring**

Medisinstudiet er et profesjonsstudium som har som hovedformål å utdanne leger som kan fungere i en rekke forhåndsdefinerte yrker med behov for medisinsk kompetanse. En naturlig retning for legeutdannelsens innhold og struktur er derfor å underlegge seg samfunnets nåværende og fremtidige behov. Dagens leger har dessuten en sterk påvirkning på studentenes utdanning, både gjennom å være premissleverandører for hva som er god fagutøvelse og gjennom rådgivende organer som f.eks. Legeforeningen. I løpet av den senere tid har to konsepter i økende grad markert seg i moderne medisin – overgangen fra en legesentrert til en pasientsentrert legepraksis (1) og fra en biomedisinsk til en biopsykososial forståelse av pasienten (2).

## En nødvendig paternalisme

En endring i medisinsk praksis medfører også en endring i maktforholdet mellom lege og pasient (3). Et lege-pasientforhold preget av en paternalistisk legerolle forlates til fordel for en økende grad av pasientautonomi. Likevel vil en viss grad av paternalisme alltid være en del av et omsorgsforhold. Et grunnlag for paternalisme er nettopp at legene må være overbevist om at makten som legges i deres hender – pasientens overgivelse av selvbestemmelse over egen kropp – er til gode for pasienten.

En slik form for paternalisme vil også legestudenten møte hos sine undervisere. Studenten må gi underviserne tillatelse til å definere hva som må læres og hvordan dette læres på best mulig måte. Imidlertid krever en slik paternalisme at underviserne er klar over hvor studenten befinner seg, slik en behandler må forstå hvor pasienten befinner seg for å kunne utøve det Kierkegaard kaller «hjelpkunst» (4).

## En krevende studiehverdag

Ingrid Neteland beskrev i Tidsskrift for Den norske legeforening sin erfaring fra medisinstudiet som «studiet for dårlig selvtilit» (5). Hva er det som karakteriserer medisinstudiet? Det skiller seg på mange måter fra andre studier ved sin kompleksitet og lengde, noe som gir opphav til svært mange ulike undervisningsformer. Undervisningen jeg ble kjent med gjennom medisinstudiet i Oslo innebar vanlige forelesninger, men også seminarer med ulike temaer, kurs, tradisjonell «klinikkundervisning» med framlegg av pasienthistorier, ulike former for ledet smågruppeundervisning ute i klinikken eller foran tavle, samt praksis der man ble utplassert på sykehusavdeling, sykehjemsavdeling og fastlegekontor. Det var oppgaveskriving alene og det var oppgaveskriving i grupper. Mye var obligatorisk. Ofte måtte man ha med seg et lite hefte hvor man samlet underskrifter fra undervisere, og det meste endte i en eksamen på slutten av semesteret der man enten bestod eller strøk.

I tillegg til en travel studiehverdag måtte jeg og andre studenter forholde oss til en rekke prioriteringer; og det trangeste nåløyet er nå å få turnusplass. På grunn av søknadsbasert turnusplassering og for å lette prosessen for dem som vil dra utenlands etter studiet, har Universitetet i Oslo besluttet å forlate den gamle eksamensordningen med bestått/ikke-bestått til fordel for karakterer. Slik tvinges nå studentene til å prioritere mellom studier, relevant jobberfaring, og eventuelt bedre betalte jobber under studiet. I tillegg etterspør og verdsetter sykehusene også annen kompetanse som annen relevant faglig bakgrunn, forskningskompetanse, relevant organisasjonserfaring og til og med hobbyer som idrett og friluftsliv.

## Det skjulte pensum

I et slikt landskap befinner altså legestudenter seg, legestudenter som er faglig flinke, setter høye krav til seg selv og til andre og er mer pliktoppfyllende enn den gjennomsnittlige universitetsstudent. Og parallelt med alt dette foregår en kontinuerlig sosialiseringssprosess inn i et studiemiljø, inn i et yrkesmiljø, inn i et sykehusmiljø som vi vet gir studentene mange andre beskjeder om hva som er viktig og hva som skal prioriteres.

Det såkalte skjulte pensum – kjent i litteraturen som «the hidden» eller «informal» curriculum – er også med på å påvirke studenter ved at de formidles beskjeder som at leger er ufeilbarlige, at det alltid er ett riktig svar, at pasientens sosiale og personlige problemer ikke er et hovedanliggende for medisinen og at usikkerhet og kompleksitet skal unngås (6). En studie av legestudenter ved Universitetet i Oslo viser blant annet at studenters empati påvirkes av forestillinger om profesjonalitet som en dyrking av et biomedisinsk fokus og at kynisme oppstår som en mestringsstrategi i møte med pasienter i klinisk praksis (7). I flere land er det blitt dokumentert en reduksjon av studenters empati gjennom medisinstudiet – spesielt i møte med klinikken – der flere har pekt på det skjulte pensum som en viktig pådriver (8).

## Et biomedisinsk fokus

Et slikt bilde av medisinnutdannelsen kjenner også jeg igjen fra studiet. Det blir ikke tid til refleksjon og diskusjon, i stedet prioriteres og fremmes et fokus på hva som må kunnes og hva som ikke er viktig. Fra egen erfaring er et generelt inntrykk at undervisningen som er mer teorirettet, trumfes av undervisning som er mer praksisrettet.

Spesielt siste året i studiet opplevdes som en eneste stor forberedelse til legerollen. Det var svært tilspisset mot en praktisk yrkeshverdag som turnuskandidat. Resultatet ble at noe av undervisningen ble ansett som viktig og noe som mindre viktig. Noe av undervisningen var selvfølgelig obligatorisk og kunne ikke prioriteres bort. Annen undervisning ble «rangert» etter flere kriterier, blant annet etter rykte fra tidligere studenter, relevans for eksamen og relevans for praksis. Dersom studentene opplever at undervisningen ikke er relevant er det deres fulle rett å si ifra – og det er i utgangspunktet et godt tegn at studentene viser initiativ og rolleforståelse ved at de tar saken i egne hender. Et sterkt fokus på å drille det praktiske gjorde at jeg i det minste følte meg noenlunde trygg på det medisinske der under legefrakken alene som turnuslegevikar på nattevakt. Et annet spørsmål jeg har reflektert over og følt mye på i ettertid, er om jeg skulle stått der alene i det hele tatt.

Dag Albums studier av sykdoms- og spesialitetshierarkier i medisinen bidrar til å nyansere bildet av det skjulte pensum (9). Mens fag der legen kan redde liv med hjelp av teknologiske intervensjoner ender som høystatusfag, vil fag som jobber med kronisk syke, som psykiatri, allmennmedisin eller sykehjemsmedisin havne lengre bak i køen. Her finnes ikke enkle intervensjoner eller løsninger i like stor grad. Selv om hovedsiktemålet også her er en biomedisinsk forståelse av mennesket – evnen til å tolke pasientens symptomer og lidelse ved hjelp av et medisinsk språk – og selv om dette biomedisinske fokuset er legens viktigste verktøy, vil det likevel komme til kort i enkelte tilfeller (10). I stedet kreves refleksjon, en større forståelse av legens rolle og spillerom i det større samfunnet, og individualiserte vurderinger av pasientens ønsker og behov.

### **En nødvendig motvekt**

Her mener jeg at fagene som legger vekt på å lære studentene andre språk enn det biomedisinske har sitt trumfkort, men også sin største utfordring – som motvekt til et ensidig biomedisinsk, oppgaverettet syn på hva legerket består av. Slik kan for eksempel Institutt for helse og samfunn ved Universitetet i Oslo bidra til å skape, utfordre, utforske og videreutvikle medisinstudenters syn på legerollen ved hjelp av en faglig profil bestående av allmennmedisin, sykehjemsmedisin, samfunnsmedisin og økonomi, internasjonal helse, etikk og tverrfaglighet.

Her ligger også hovedutfordringen; å tilpasse undervisning som i utgangspunktet kanskje ikke får plass i en presset studiehverdag, undervisning som krever modning, fordypning og refleksjon, inn i en allerede sammenpakket studieplan der man er konsentrert om det praktiske. Jeg vil hevde at undervisningsmodeller som fremmer utvikling av studentens egen stemme – gjennom kritisk refleksjon og oppsyn – er spesielt egnet til dette. Per Brodal peker på at et godt studiemiljø blant annet kjennetegnes av tillit mellom studenter og undervisere og at dette krever at student-underviserkontakten er av en viss varighet (11). Dette kan også jeg skrive under på fra min erfaring fra studiet. Min opplevelse var at alle de gode sidene ved det tradisjonelle «mester-svenn» forholdet fikk utfolde seg i lengre praksisopphold i f.eks. psykiatri, allmennmedisin eller sykehjemsmedisin. Under kontinuerlig veiledning opplevde jeg noe som ikke bare er viktig for pasienter, men også for studenter – nemlig å bli sett, bli fulgt opp, se at andre også har svakheter og bli tvunget til å eksponere sine egne, diskutere seg fram til løsninger i stedet for å bli fortalt, og å få tilbakemeldinger som ikke bare er generelle tilbakemeldinger som gis til alle studenter. Det var først under

slike forhold at jeg ble kjent med personene bak legefrakken, og slik også fikk mine første virkelige rollemodeller.

### Studentenes stemme

Samfunnets behov og profesjonen selv bør ikke alene få definere hva en god utdanning av leger består av. Utdannelsen må kontinuerlig fornyes og tilpasses studentenes virkelighet. En mer studentsentrert undervisningsmodell der man også tar hensyn til studentens behov og begrensninger i et raskt endrende og komplekst studiemiljø behøves. En mulig løsning basert på studentenes hverdag ved Universitet i Oslo kan ligge i å ofre litt av oppmerksomheten om hva som trengs *etter* studiet, og heller bruke mer tid på hva studentene trenger *under* studiet. Selv om det alltid vil være et paternalistisk maktforhold mellom en studieinstitusjon og studentene, er mitt inntrykk at legestudentene – etter innføring av søknadsbasert turnus, karakterer og ny studiemodell ved Universitetet i Oslo mot flertallet av studentenes vilje – føler seg tilsidesatt. Dersom det er en målsetting at studentene skal utøve pasientsentrert medisin, er det viktig at de også opplever at eget ståsted, egne meninger og egne refleksjoner har en plass i undervisningen, slik pasientens ståsted, meninger og refleksjoner har en plass i pasientsentrert medisin (12).

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## Per Nyborg: På tide med en faghøyskole?

*Michael 2016; 13: 67–72.*

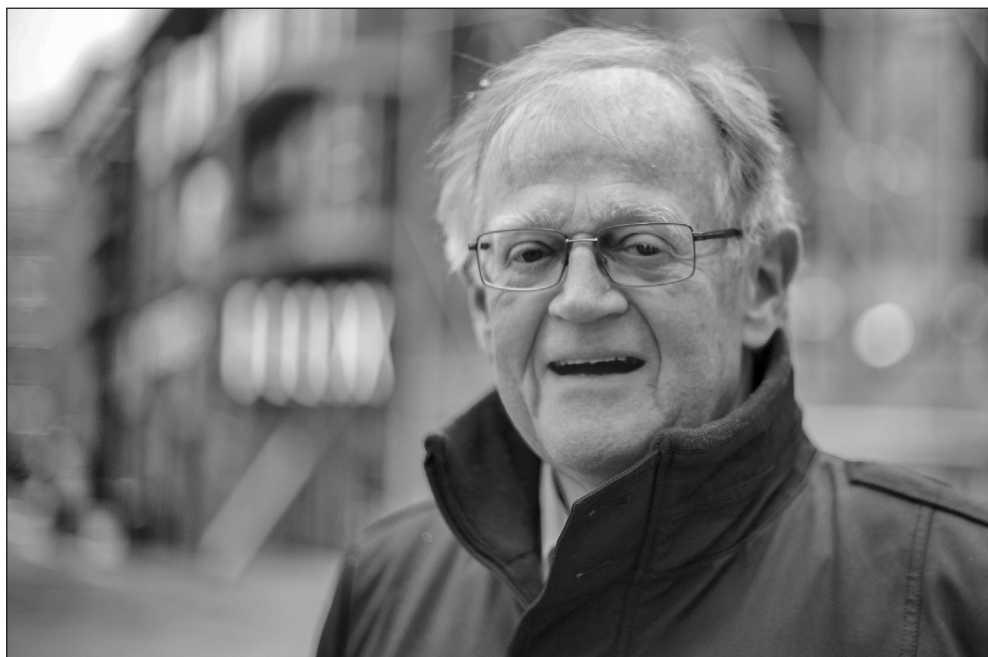
Michael intervjuer Per Nyborg vedrørende forslaget om en ny faghøyskole. Dette er en sak i emning der det er tunge krefter bak. Nyborg drøfter noen av tankene som er kommet fram.

– Per Nyborg, du har blant dine mange akademiske meritter vært ekspedisjonssjef i Kultur- og vitenskapsdepartementet og du har vært generalsekretær i Universitets- og høyskolerådet. Du var dessuten en sentral person på øverste nivå da den såkalte Bologna-prosessen ble gjennomført for å harmonisere og modernisere høyere utdanning i Europa. Du har blant annet skrevet om dette i boka *Den sosiale dimensjonen i høyere utdanning*<sup>1</sup> fra 2013. Men du har også skrevet en artikkel om dette som er rykende fersk<sup>2</sup>, der leseren sperrer øynene opp når man kommer til dine refleksjoner i ettertid – har Bologna-ideene kommet på avveie? Nettopp fordi det er du – med din bakgrunn – som sier dette, er det nødvendig for oss å få deg til å utdype dine synspunkter.

– Tiden har gått siden Bologna anno 1999. Mye har forandret seg. I vårt land har harmoniseringsprosessen f. eks. tatt opp i seg de yrkesrettede høyskolenes ambisjoner om å bli universiteter. Politisk har det vært spilt på en idé om at det er akademisk kunnskap som er inngangsbilletten til svært mange yrker, også slike der det er høy erfaringsbasert kunnskap som gir yrkesutøvelsen prestisje og befestiger dens rolle. Et fungerende samfunn har et stort antall yrker, der man må ha tilgang til god utdanning på riktig nivå og med riktig vinkling. Det har skjedd en glidning mot å undervise teoretisk kunnskap, også der dette ikke er det vesentligste. En slik utvikling er

1 Nyborg P. Den sosiale dimensjonen i høyere utdanning. *Michael* 2013: Supplement 14.

2 Nyborg P. University development and co-operation in Norway and Europe. *Michael* 2016; 13: 13-49.



*Per Nyborg. (Foto: Øivind Larsen 2016)*

uheldig både for fagutdanning og akademisk utdanning. Det er viktig å få de rette personene i de rette rollene.

*– Har du fått kalde føtter når det gjelder å gi ungdom mulighet for å få bachelor-, master-, og doktorgrader?*

– Nei, det har jeg aldeles ikke. Et overordnet prinsipp i den norske utdanningspolitikken er å gi flest mulig tilgang til den utdanningen de ønsker og er kvalifisert for. Men slik det er blitt i norsk, videregående skole, svikter dette. *For mye* teori og *for lite* tilgang på lærlingeplasser begrenser mulighetene i yrkesopplæringen. Jeg synes det svikter også på høyere utdanningsnivå, hvor all utdanning nå skal være forskningsbasert.

*– Hvordan står det egentlig til med yrkesbasert kunnskap i høyere utdanning?*

– I tidsskriftet *Forskningspolitikk* nr. 3/2014 stilte forskerne Svein Kyvik og André Vågan spørsmålet om det nå legges for mye vekt på forskning i profesjonsutdanningen. Jeg husker selv at sykepleie i 1970-årene var en erfaringsbasert etatsutdanning. Et annet eksempel: Ingeniørutdanning fikk



man i annet og tredje år av teknisk skole. Også den bygde i stor grad på erfaringskunnskap. Folkeskolelærerne mine var utdannet på toårig lærerskole. Nå er det like før det trengs mastergrad for å bli lærer. Jeg tviler ikke på at dagens profesjonsutdanninger er bedre enn fortidens, men jeg tror vi også i fremtiden vil trenge ett- og to-årige erfaringsbaserte utdanninger, også for nye yrker og profesjoner. Erfaringsbasert undervisning på høyt nivå, men ut fra yrkenes egne premisser.

– *Var ikke dette høyskolenes oppgave å sørge for?*

– Jeg synes høyskolene har sviaktet det tradisjonelle *høyskoleoppdraget*. Når høyskolene nå vil bli universiteter, vil vi trenge en ny *faghøyskole* som kan tilby høyere yrkesutdanning basert på erfaringskunnskap og faglig utviklingsarbeid. Vi har allerede en fagskole som bygger på videregående opplæring, den nye *faghøyskolen må ta opp i seg dagens fagskole*. Den offentlige utredningen om fagskolen som kom i 2014<sup>3</sup> tok sikte på å gjøre fagskolen til en yrkesrettet utdanning som sammen med universitets- og høyskoleutdanningen kunne inngå i en overordnet utdanningspolitikk. Utredningen vil være et grunnlag for den stortingsmeldingen som skal komme, men tar ikke klart standpunkt til noen viktige forhold som henger tett sammen: Målsettingen, dimensjoneringen og opptakskravene.

– *Når norske barn er i ungdomsskolealderen, ofte med hodene fylt av alt annet enn fremtiden og de lange perspektivene, tvinges de i dag til å foreta linjevalg som faktisk kan være avgjørende for livet videre. Skal yrkesutdanningen fortsatt forbeholdes dem som valgte yrkesfaglig opplæring i 15-årsalderen, eller skal den åpnes for en bredere gruppe kompetente søkere?*

– Tilgangen på fagarbeidere bremses av muligheten for lærlingeplass. Og hvor mange 15-åringer ser fagskolen som et attraktivt fremtidig utdanningsvalg? Derimot kan det være ganske mange 19-åringer som etter fullført studieforberedende skole ønsker seg et alternativ til videre teoretiske studier. For dem kan en erfaringsbasert faghøyskole bli et godt alternativ.

– *Hva vil kjennetegne den faghøyskolen som du foreslår?*

– Målsettingen for en ny faghøyskole må være at den skal gi høyere yrkesrettet utdanning basert på erfaringskunnskap, faglig kompetanse og praktisk

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3 NOU 2014:14.

utviklingsarbeid. Utdanningen må kunne møte skiftende behov i næringsliv og tjenesteyting.

– *Hvilket omfang tenker du at et slikt nytt faghøyskolesystem skal ha?*

– La oss starte med fagskolen. NOU 2014:14 gir ingen tall, men utredningsutvalget tenker seg åpenbart videreført en fagskole som ikke er mye større enn dagens. Det skyldes nok at utvalget ikke har våget å foreslå et bredt opptaksgrunnlag for fagskolen. Hvis fagskolen fortsatt skal ha videreutdanning av fagarbeidere som sitt hovedformål, trengs neppe særlig kapasitetsøkning. I dag er det ca. 16 000 studenter i fagskolen, mens det er ca. 250 000 studenter i universitets- og høyskolesektoren. Fagskolen utdanner årlig ca. 5 000 kandidater, universitets- og høyskolesektoren ca. 45 000.

– *Dette kan da ikke passe med yrkesprofilen i den norske befolkningen?*

– Nei, en overordnet utdanningspolitikk må vurdere behovet for en kortere, yrkesorientert utdanning som balanserer universitets- og høyskolestudiene. All fornuft sier at det i dag er et misforhold mellom de to utdanningsformene. Fortsetter dette, vil de fleste nordmenn være akademikere om 30 år – ikke egentlig fordi det var dette de hadde tenkt seg, eller fordi det var slik opplæring som var mest egnet for norsk arbeidsliv. Mange yrker krever målrettet og solid erfaringsbasert utdanning. Nettstedet *utdanning.no* gir yrkesbeskrivelser for flere hundre yrker, herav ca. 250 som ikke krever universitets- eller høyskoleutdanning. Dagens fagskole dekker bare et mindretall av disse. Med f.eks. 100 000 studieplasser i den nye faghøyskolen kunne vi kanskje klare oss med 200 000 i universitets- og høyskolesektoren. Tallet 100 000 har jeg grepet ut av luften, men det samme tallet ble brukt for femti år siden da distriktshøyskolene ble planlagt. Nå har vi ca. 110 000 høyskolestudenter i Norge. En del av dem går på ett- eller toårige kurs, som kanskje like gjerne kunne bli overført til faghøyskolen med en mer arbeidsmarkedsrettet profil.

– *Hva skal til for å bli tatt opp ved de foreslåtte faghøyskolene?*

– En ny faghøyskole må ha et mye bredere opptaksgrunnlag enn dagens fagskole. Generell studiekompetanse eller fem års relevant arbeidserfaring bør holde for studieretninger som ikke bygger direkte på fagbrev. For søkere med fagbrev må faghøyskolen være åpen for alle som ønsker videre utdanning.

– *Ser du styringsproblemer for en slik ny faghøgskole?*

– I dag er fagskolen et fylkeskommunalt ansvar. Høyere utdanning er statens ansvar. En fylkeskommunal fagskole blir neppe noen interessant partner for universitets- og høyskolesektoren. For å få det til, trengs en langt strammere og tydeligere styring av struktur, dimensjonering og arbeidsdeling med universitets- og høyskolesektoren. Det er en av årsakene til at NOU-en foreslår statlig eierskap for alle offentlige fagskoler. Utredningsutvalget foreslår at fagskolene organiseres som et mindre antall statlige forvaltningsorganer med særskilte fullmakter og overføres til Kunnskapsdepartementet, som da vil ha ansvar for fagskoleloven, finansieringsordningen og all øvrig statlig oppfølging av sektoren. Det er slik *faghøgskolene* må organiseres. Dette er helt nødvendig hvis faghøgskolen skal kunne bli et interessant alternativ til en generell, høyere utdanning. De enkelte skolestedene skal være kunnskapsbaserte og utviklingsorienterte institusjoner med et klart samfunnsmandat til å tilby yrkesfaglige utdanninger innenfor fagområder av betydning for lokalt, regionalt og nasjonalt arbeidsliv. Framtidens faghøgskoler må være robuste institusjoner som kan svare raskt på omskiftende kompetansebehov. Faghøgskolen må være en pådriver for fagutvikling og innovasjon innenfor sine fagområder, men ikke underlegges krav om forskning og forskningsbasert utdanning, slik som universitets- og høyskolesektoren.

– *Hva med samordning med annen høyere utdanning?*

– Det ligger store gevinster i å se faghøgskolen og universitets- og høyskolesektoren som to sidestilte deler av det samme utdanningsnivået med overgangsmuligheter begge veier. Hensiktsmessig arbeidsdeling og samarbeid mellom de to sektorene bør være det bærende prinsipp for videreutvikling, ikke konkurranse mellom dem.

– *Hvordan reagerer norsk arbeidsliv på de tankene som nå rører seg?*

– Arbeidslivets organisasjoner vil styrke fagskolen. LO og NHO går likevel langt i retning av en bredere faghøgskole. LO og NHO utarbeidet i august 2015 et felles politikkdokument for fag- og yrkesopplæringen.<sup>4</sup> Dokumentet sier ingenting om dimensjonering, men ellers finner vi her de sentrale elementene som trengs for å bygge en ny faghøgskole.

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<sup>4</sup> LO, NHO. *Felles politikkdokument for fag- og yrkesopplæringen*. Arendal: 13. august 2015.

NHO og LO mener at fagskoleutdanningene skal bygge på alle slutt-kompetansene fra videregående skole og realkompetanseopptak. Det innebærer opptak med fag- eller svennebrev, yrkeskompetanse eller studiekompetanse, samt tilsvarende realkompetanse. NHO og LO mener videre at utdanningen skal ligge på nivå *over* videregående utdanning. Til dette er min kommentar at da vil vel *faghøgskole* være en riktig betegnelse?

NHO og LO mener at all slik utdanning må ligge på samme forvaltningsnivå, og at forvaltningsansvar og finansiering må overføres fra fylkeskommunen til staten.

NHO og LO ønsker et gjennomgående kvalifikasjonsrammeverk som rommer både yrkesfaglige og akademiske kvalifikasjoner på alle nivåer. Min kommentar er at det har vi allerede!

De vil også at fagskoleutdanningen skal omfangberegnes ved å bruke studiepoeng og ECTS (European Credit Transfer System), både for akademiske og yrkesfaglige kvalifikasjoner. Når standarden for å angi hva et studium fører fram til av kunnskaper, ferdigheter og generell kompetanse beskrives i form av læringsutbytte, kan dette skje uten akademisering av fag(høy)skoleutdanningene og uten å endre vilkårene for akademiske kvalifikasjoner. Dette vil passe veldig bra med faghøgskole-idéen.

– Det høres ut som om dette er en sak som inneholder mye fornuft og mye sprengstoff. Når arbeidslivets tunge aktører på begge sider åpenbart stiller seg bak en videreutvikling av fagskolen, er det all grunn til å tro at dette er noe vi kommer til å høre mer om. Hva er ditt råd til dem som skal ta saken videre?

– At vi skal ta skrittet fullt ut og satse på en ny faghøgskole! Regjeringen bør i den kommende stortingsmeldingen utforme en helhetlig utdanningspolitikk, hvor faghøgskole gis et langt tydeligere definert politisk mandat enn dagens fagskole. Yrkesrettet utdanning må få en styrket posisjon i det norske utdanningssystemet.

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# *Michael*

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