

Title Page

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Manuscript Title:

Public Health Nursing Education in Ireland and Norway: A Comparative Analysis.

Corresponding Author:

Helen Mulcahy. MSc (Nursing), BSc (Nursing), DN, HDipPHN, RGN, RM, RPHN.

College Lecturer and Coordinator BSc Nursing Studies.

School of Nursing and Midwifery, Brookfield Health Sciences Complex, College Road,

University College Cork (UCC) Ireland, T12 AK54

Email: helen.mulcahy@ucc.ie

Telephone: 00 353 87 9587685

Authors:

Helen Mulcahy. MSc (Nursing), BSc (Nursing), DN, HDipPHN, RGN, RM, RPHN.

College Lecturer and Coordinator BSc Nursing Studies. UCC, Ireland.

Patricia Leahy-Warren. PhD, MSc (research), HDip PHN, BSc, RPHN, RM, RGN.

Professor, Chair Academic Council Graduate Studies, Senior lecturer, Director of Graduate Studies. UCC, Ireland

Hilde Laholt. PhD, Associate professor, MSC (research) PHN, RGN.

University lecturer and program coordinator at the master program in Public health nursing.

UiT, The Arctic University of Norway, Norway.

Lloyd Frank Philpott MPH, PGDip PHN, PGDip EN, PGDip HP, PGC HP, BSc, Dip Nurs,

RGN, RPHN

28 College Lecturer and Programme Coordinator of the Postgraduate Programme in Public
29 Health Nursing. UCC, Ireland

30

31 Lise-Marie Bergvoll, MSc, PHN.

32 University lecturer, Department of Health and Caring science.

33 UiT, The Arctic University of Norway, Harstad, Norway

34

35 Anne Clancy. PhD, Msc (research) PHN, RSCN, RGN.

36 Professor at the master program in Public health nursing.

37 UiT, The Arctic University of Norway, Harstad, Norway.

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40 **Public Health Nursing Education in Ireland and Norway: A Comparative Analysis**

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Abstract

44 **Background:** Public health, primary health care, and nursing are founding principles of
45 public health nursing. Thus, the underpinning curriculum needs to reflect these core
46 principles. Public health nursing educators sought to delve deeper into curricula and training
47 of PHNs in Ireland and Norway. **Objective:** To compare PHNs' educational training in
48 Ireland and Norway through a collaborative process. **Design:** This study used a descriptive
49 comparative design. **Sample:** A panel of expert educators (the authors) compared national
50 Public health nursing education strategies, guidelines, and curricula used to train PHN
51 students. **Results:** Four core categories emerged from the analysis: general characteristics,
52 theoretical and empirical knowledge base for PHNs practice, applying theory to clinical
53 practice, and professional/ethical dimensions for practice. Results revealed more similarities
54 than differences in both countries' educational models. The central difference related to the
55 specialist role in Norway versus the generalist role in Ireland. **Conclusions:** Workforce
56 requirements drive the delivery of Public Health Nursing programs and educational curricula.
57 However, it is imperative that educators evaluate their curricula in terms of fitness and
58 practice, not just purpose.

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Keywords: public health nursing, education, practice, Ireland, Norway

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Background

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Public Health Nursing is founded on the principles of public health, primary health care, and nursing. Thus, the curriculum that guides future practitioners' education should reflect these principles in order to prepare healthcare trainees to promote health and provide primary, secondary, and tertiary care to individuals, families, and communities. As all countries can benefit from gaining knowledge about others' educational practices (Gosse & Duffy, 2020), the present research aims to undertake a comparative analysis of public health nursing education in Ireland and Norway.

An Erasmus Exchange Program for academic public health nurses (PHNs) from Ireland and Norway encouraged the present research. The Erasmus Program, established in 1987, is the European Union's (EU) program to support education, training, youth, and sports in Europe (European Commission, 2021). Previously, authors HM, PLW, and HM conducted a comparative study on public health nursing models in Ireland and Norway (Clancy et al., 2013) and concluded that further comparisons would benefit the wider community. Generally, public health nursing education aims to provide students with the skills necessary to meet the needs of their population (Phelan et al., 2018). As public health nursing education varies across countries (Clancy et al., 2013), a comparative analysis of educational models can draw attention to similarities and differences among the guiding philosophies in the different programs. Given the numerous geographic and demographic similarities between Ireland and Norway, undertaking a comparative analysis of public health nursing education was deemed timely to reorient the Irish Health Service to community care (Government of Ireland, 2017) and add Master's level education for PHNs in Norway (Government of Norway, 2021). Indeed, ongoing examination of postgraduate education is a legitimate endeavor in any country aligned with the Bologna process (Cabrera & Zabalegui,

88 2021), which seeks to bring more coherence to higher education systems across Europe
89 (European Commission, 2021).

90 In Ireland and Norway, PHNs have been identified as key players in the delivery of
91 primary care services, particularly primary prevention and health promotion (Clancy et al.,
92 2013). In Ireland, preventive nursing services were introduced in 1915, mandated by the
93 Notification of Births (Extensions) Act 1915, while the public health nursing role was
94 introduced in 1924 with the School Health Service. However, it was not until 1960 that a
95 separate register for PHNs was established by the regulatory body, the Nursing and
96 Midwifery Board of Ireland (NMBI, 2015), leading to the formalization of public health
97 nursing education and practice in Ireland (DOH, 1966).

98 Norwegian public health nursing, child health clinics, and school health services were
99 founded in the early 1900's (Schiøtz et al., 2003), 1911, and 1918, respectively. The first
100 school of public health nursing opened its doors in 1947. However, it was a Government Act
101 in 1958 that formally established that PHNs should assist local physicians in disease
102 prevention (Schiøtz et al., 2003). During the Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome (AIDS)
103 epidemic in the 1980s (Økland & Glavin, 2005), PHNs began to provide counseling services,
104 which later developed into the establishment of contraceptive and sexual health clinics as
105 well as adolescent health clinics.

106 The development of the public health nursing roles in both countries was similar,
107 emphasizing the need to formalize education. Continued examination of the coherence of
108 postgraduate education is a legitimate endeavor of any country (Cabrera & Zabalegui, 2021).
109 Therefore, the present research, conducted by PHN academics with a history of collaboration,
110 sought to delve deeper into PHNs' education and training in Ireland and Norway.

111 **Study Aim**

112 The current study aimed to compare and contrast PHNs' educational training in
113 Ireland and Norway to (1) delineate the collaborative processes involved in identifying,
114 analyzing, and synthesizing documents relevant to public health nursing education; and (2)
115 critically analyze the curricular structure and content to identify gaps and provide
116 recommendations.

117 **Methods**

118 **Design**

119 This study used a descriptive comparative design. Strategic, syllabi, and operational
120 documents at national (Ireland and Norway) and Higher Education Institution (HEI) levels
121 (University College Cork [UCC], UiT The Arctic University of Norway [UiT]) were
122 examined. Convening a panel of experts in public health nursing education in both countries
123 had obvious advantages owing to their in-depth knowledge of the educational programs
124 (Avella, 2016). A conventional qualitative content analysis (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005)
125 investigated and compared the provision of nursing education for PHN students. In addition,
126 relevant national public health nursing education guidelines and the curricula of educational
127 programs at UCC and UiT were analyzed.

128 **Data Collection**

129 The authors, who comprised the expert panel, held monthly online meetings to discuss
130 all the curricular drivers and dimensions of the identified programs and related documents.
131 Consensus was reached to include the documents that best underpinned public health nursing
132 curricula relevant to both countries (Table 1).

133 All documents were converted to Microsoft Word format for ease of review. The
134 Norwegian documents were translated to English using Online Document Translator (2021)
135 and back translated by the Norwegian members of the team. A template was developed and

136 circulated to all team members ($n = 6$) requesting a minimum of two proposed questions to
137 guide data extraction. A total of 22 questions were returned, which were reviewed, color-
138 coded, and grouped into six categories (i.e., eligibility, ethical content, curricular, clinical
139 placement, practice orientation, and population focus) by a group member (HM). The team
140 reviewed and endorsed these categories.

141 A large working table was constructed with the headings being the six agreed
142 categories under which data were to be extracted from the identified documents (Table 1).
143 Team members were assigned documents mainly from their non-native country, as it was
144 considered that this approach would encourage an immediate focus on similarities and
145 differences.

146 To ensure auditability and transparency, experts then reviewed what had been
147 extracted by the non-native reviewers to confirm accuracy or revise misinterpretations. These
148 phases prompted detailed academic discourse at the monthly team meetings. Data extraction
149 phase outputs were circulated to the team and discussed prior to reaching consensus, thus
150 further enhancing the rigor of the process. Following consensus, four final core categories
151 emerged.

152 **Findings**

153 The findings fell within four core categories: general characteristics, theoretical and
154 empirical knowledge base for PHN practice, applying theory to clinical practice, and
155 professional/ethical dimensions for practice. Table 2 presents the key similarities and
156 differences that emerged from the comparative analysis.

157 **General Characteristics**

158 Tables 1 and 2 present the educational models' general characteristics related to
159 program objectives, entry requirements, recruitment, sponsorship, funding, and registration.
160 The development of the curriculum by the relevant HEIs in both countries is informed by

161 population needs, research evidence, pedagogy, clinical and regulatory stakeholder input, and
162 university regulations. There are similarities and differences in the entry requirements to the
163 PHN education programs in both countries (Table 1). For instance, in Ireland, applicants must
164 be registered as a general nurse and have three years of post-registration clinical experience,
165 whereas in Norway, only one year of experience is needed.

166 Recruitment and sponsorship of students to HEIs for PHN education differs across
167 countries. In Ireland, the Health Service Executive (HSE) determines recruitment and
168 sponsorship; the latter includes payment of fees, student salary, and subsequent employment
169 on successful program completion. In Norway, the HEIs independently recruit their
170 candidates and sponsorship is not part of this process. Unlike Ireland, the Norwegian
171 Department of Education provides universities with the funding necessary for an agreed
172 number of students. The universities prioritize which programs they will support based on
173 societal needs. As Norwegian public universities and colleges do not have tuition fees,
174 candidates can apply to undertake HEI public health nursing education based solely on an
175 interest in pursuing that career; applicants with the highest grades are prioritized for available
176 places.

177 On successful completion of 60 European Credit Transfer System (ECTS), graduates
178 in Ireland predominantly enter clinical practice to comply with their recruitment and
179 sponsorship obligations. Meanwhile, since 2011, graduates in Norway have the option to
180 complete an additional 60 ECTS and obtain a master's degree.

181

182 **Theoretical and Empirical Knowledge Basis for public health nursing practice**

183 The theoretical and empirical knowledge requirements for PHNs have a humanistic
184 and biomedical basis in practice (Table1). This model of care encompasses all the
185 determinants of health and well-being and, as such, syllabi cannot be prescriptive. The

186 philosophy of preventive care and health promotion is the predominant pedagogy driving
187 PHNs' education in Norway. While this contrasts with the preventive/curative mixed
188 approach in Ireland, PHNs' education in Ireland remains focused on health rather than illness.
189 The Framework and Regulations for PHNs and curricular documents in both HEIs reflect the
190 need for each student to practice safely and autonomously while considering ethical issues
191 that reflect current trends and inequalities in society (Table 2). This ensures that PHN are
192 adequately trained as reflective and independent practitioners.

193 In Ireland, the purpose of public health nursing education and training programs is to
194 enable students to acquire the knowledge, skills, and competences to provide nursing care
195 across the lifespan (NMBI, 2015). Inherent within this generalist role is the evidence-based
196 knowledge requirement for the curative remit¹. However, the health lens of public health
197 nursing predominates in the National documents where “health promotion” is paired with
198 “health” and “health education” (NMBI, 2015). On the other hand, the emphasis in the
199 Norwegian curriculum is on health promotion and prevention, reflecting the Norwegian
200 national guidelines (Ministry of Education and Research, 2005) pairing of “health promotion”
201 with “prevention.”

202 **Application of Theory to Clinical Practice**

203

204 Clinical placement is an important component of the public health nursing programs
205 in both Ireland and Norway. The number of hours/weeks for clinical practice placement is
206 determined by each country's regulatory body (NMBI, 2015, Ministry of Education and
207 Research, 2005). There are variations between countries in relation to length of placements
208 and within countries in relation to timing and structure (Table 2).

¹ Remit is defined as “the types of activity that a person or organization has responsibility for “
<https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/remit>

209 In both countries, preparation of preceptors is important as they hold a significant
210 responsibility in educating, assessing, and determining successful completion of clinical
211 placements. The guidelines are very specific about the nature and outcome of clinical
212 placement and how it should be supported (Ministry of Education and Research, 2005;
213 NMBI, 2015), but they are left to individual HEIs to coordinate and deliver. In both Ireland
214 and Norway academic staff at the HEIs collaborate with preceptors in planning the placement
215 as well as in clinical assessment of each PHN student. Education of preceptors in terms of
216 pedagogy and in assessing the program’s learning outcomes is undertaken by the HEIs in
217 collaboration with their clinical partners.

218 In the community setting, all health determinants need to be considered and, thus, care
219 delivery is more complex in this context. Norwegian and Irish PHNs in training are supported
220 to learn about these health determinants specific to their placement area and thus conduct a
221 community profile and health needs assessment. This profile is used to determine care needs
222 and interventions to meet the needs of individuals, families, and communities in their
223 respective areas.

224 **Professional/Ethical Dimensions for Practice**

225 The overall purpose of the Norwegian and Irish programs is to educate reflective and
226 independent PHNs with high professional and ethical standards. The analysis revealed that an
227 ethical focus is present in the national guidelines, module descriptors, and course booklets in
228 both countries. Public health nurses in training must integrate accurate and comprehensive
229 knowledge of ethical principles into their clinical practice and this competency is clinically
230 assessed by preceptor PHNs. The UCC course booklet (School of Nursing and Midwifery,
231 2020) refers specifically to students being educated to understand “ethical issues influencing
232 the practice of public health nursing.” The UiT course booklet (UiT, 2020) refers to ethical
233 values related to the practice of public health nursing and research ethics. Findings also show

234 there is less focus on nursing philosophies and professional clinical judgement in the UiT
235 course booklet (2020).

236 **Discussion**

237 **Preparation for Practice**

238 The findings illustrate fundamental differences in terms of recruitment for PHN
239 students between countries. The key role played by respective health services/municipalities
240 in selecting and educating PHNs for practice reduces the HEIs' autonomy in Ireland. In
241 Norway, students have greater autonomy and self-determination for career choice and
242 program priority. A related difference between countries is the option for students in Norway
243 to continue onto a master's degree immediately following completion of their public health
244 nursing education. While this option is available in Ireland, it is not encouraged, as the HSE
245 expects that their graduates will enter the workforce in a full-time capacity. It could be argued
246 that Norwegian students who proceed to master's level education can acquire greater skills in
247 appraising current best evidence because of a longer academic period in which to strengthen
248 their critical thinking, ethical, and research skills (Massimi et al., 2016). However, it is
249 unclear whether this difference in education level between the countries influences PHNs'
250 critical thinking skills necessary to make complex decisions as autonomous practitioners.

251 **Theoretical and Empirical Knowledge Basis for Public Health Nursing Practice**

252

253 National curricular guidelines in Ireland are more recent than those in Norway. They
254 are very broad and encompass preventive, curative, palliative, maternal, and child health care
255 related to the PHNs' generalist role. Public health nursing education and training in Ireland is
256 also underpinned by public health guidelines (Department of Health, 2017; Houses of the
257 Oireachtas, 2017).

258 Meanwhile, PHNs' role in Norway is more specialized, providing health promotion
259 and preventive services to children 0-20 years old and their families. Their curriculum
260 emphasizes health promotion and prevention (UiT, 2020), reflecting the association between
261 "health promotion" and "prevention" mentioned in the Norwegian national guidelines
262 (Ministry of Education and Research, 2005), which implies that both approaches have equal
263 status. In a discourse analysis of the guidelines, Dahl et al. (2013) found more emphasis
264 placed on biomedical knowledge than in social-scientific/humanistic knowledge, which is
265 interesting as public health nursing in Norway has moved from a biomedical focus on
266 prevention towards a health promotion approach (Schjøtz et al., 2003). It could be thus
267 assumed that health promotion would dominate the Norwegian narrative. However, the
268 findings reveal that the intention is to educate reflective professionals who can integrate both
269 knowledge forms in their professional practice. In the Irish documents, "health promotion" is
270 paired with "health" and "health education." This implies that the curriculum has a health,
271 salutogenic focus, rather than an illness focus. However, in practice, health supporting
272 services in Ireland are limited to children under five years of age (Clancy et al., 2013).

273 Even though the overall purpose of the Norwegian and Irish programs is to educate
274 reflective and independent PHNs with high professional and ethical standards, there is less
275 focus on nursing philosophies and professional clinical judgement in the three Norwegian
276 documents. This can be the result of a trend in Norway towards trans-professionalism, which
277 is evident in the introduction of common university courses for public health professionals.
278 The intention is to promote collaboration across professionals from different fields and
279 develop mutual and interchangeable skills (Mahler et al., 2014). Unfortunately, this could
280 result in a weakening of the link to core nursing values and less awareness about specific
281 nursing competencies and how they contribute to public health (Laholt et al., 2021).

282 Analysis of the documents has heightened the authors' awareness of what underpins
283 the knowledge basis for PHNs' education in Ireland and Norway. The overall purpose of both
284 programs is to educate reflective and independent PHNs with a high professional ethical
285 standard. However, a broad remit with a broad knowledge base in Ireland can make it
286 difficult to ensure an evidence-based public health nursing practice in all patient/client
287 groups. Furthermore, awareness of specialized nursing competencies can be weakened if a
288 focus on nursing is lacking, as is the case in the Norwegian curriculum.

289 **Application of Theory to Clinical Practice**

290 The findings show that structures are in place in both countries to ensure that rigorous
291 attention is paid to achieving clinical competency. To this end, clinical placements through
292 preceptorship and the application of relevant theory to practice take place. As programs in
293 both countries prepare graduates for "safe and effective practice," the curriculum needs to
294 accommodate the nurses' remit, whether it is generalist or specialist. The learning outcomes
295 in the different modules detail the specific competencies the students *can, shall, and should*
296 have to prepare them for their independent roles as PHNs in Norway and Ireland.

297 Successful completion of the public health nursing programs entitles graduates to be
298 registered as PHNs with the NMBI and the Directorate of Health in Ireland and Norway,
299 respectively. Education for PHNs practice in Ireland and Norway should reflect the current
300 health issues facing the population. The current vision for health (DoH, 2013; Norwegian
301 Directorate of Health, 2017), acknowledges population diversity, health inequalities, and the
302 need for all health services to address current challenges. PHNs' vital role in the prevention
303 of infectious diseases has been evident during the current pandemic, as they have played a
304 pivotal part in COVID-19 immunization and related services in both countries (Norwegian
305 Nurses Organisation, 2020; INMO, 2021). Indeed, PHNs were redeployed into preventive,

306 curative, and even acute care owing to the current COVID-19 pandemic (NRK Broadcasting
307 company, 2020; INMO, 2021).

308 PHNs have also been described as a flexible workforce prepared to meet public health
309 challenges (Clancy & Svensson, 2010). The role of being a standby workforce creates
310 challenges in providing PHNs with a sufficient knowledge base. If practice is constrained, for
311 example, to curative over preventive care or the deployment of staff to meet the ongoing
312 demands of a global pandemic, then the theory-practice gap widens.

313 Knowledge is not a static entity. Currently there is no plan in either country to
314 monitor how Public Health Nursing registration is maintained. In the absence of regulatory
315 monitoring to maintain competence for practice, health services generally take the lead in
316 continuous professional development.

317 **Professional/Ethical Dimensions for Practice.**

318 The importance of developing ethical awareness is specified as vital when assessing
319 students during their clinical placements. Developing practical moral knowledge and
320 promoting clinical wisdom (Aufderheide & Aristotle, 2020) is a long-standing tradition in
321 ethics (Van der Zande et al., 2013; Baykara et al., 2014; Hilli, 2014). Ethical awareness is
322 important, and a link must exist between theory and practice (Hilli, 2014). Students can be at
323 risk of imposing their own values on individuals and community groups who come from a
324 wide and diverse cultural, religious, and ethnic background (Marcelin et al., 2019).

325 Discussions amongst academics, preceptors, and students can help verbalize tacit ethical
326 dimensions of a clinical situation and stimulate ethical reflection on choices made and actions
327 taken. Ethical reflection cannot be separated from the professional who carries out the action.
328 Thus, it is essential for trainees to develop moral sensitivity to mitigate unconscious bias.
329 Educational systems are not only influenced by professional ethical guidelines, but also by
330 context, historical circumstances, and societal discourses. Cultural and religious ideologies

331 influence institutional practices and can determine which practices are accepted and which
332 are not. Norway has traditionally had more liberal politics related to abortion, contraception,
333 and divorce as compared to Ireland, which has been influenced by a catholic, religious
334 ideology. Recently, however, more liberal legislation has been introduced in Ireland.

335 **Limitations**

336 Although the present research brought together an experienced team of academics
337 from two countries to examine public health nursing curricula, some limitations must be
338 considered. First, documents for review were not readily available in a common language;
339 however, the methodology employed permitted a detailed analysis of national and HEI
340 documents. Second, it can be argued that the countries' national guidelines are not
341 comparable, as the Irish guidelines are from 2015 and the Norwegian guidelines are much
342 older. However, the national guidelines (Ministry of Education and Research, 2005) from
343 Norway have a broad focus and the core elements remain the same in the updated version
344 (Government of Norway, 2021). Moreover, national guidelines, course booklet, and detailed
345 module content were compared; therefore, the authors believe that the data are comparable.
346 Lastly, only two higher education institutions were examined, and while they provided
347 relevant insights into public health nursing education, the findings are not exhaustive. The
348 research can, however, inspire similar studies in other countries.

349 **Conclusion**

350 Public health nursing practice in Ireland and Norway originated in the 19th century,
351 with formal regulation and education dating back to the early 20th century. Despite
352 geographical and demographic similarities, the scope and remit of practice differs. Spanning
353 the decade of academic collaboration between the authors in interrogating the evidence, it
354 was clear that the impact and outcomes of public health nursing practice differed. A rigorous
355 process was used to examine the relevant curricular documents, with findings illustrating

356 more similarities than differences between both countries in terms of underpinning
357 frameworks. In terms of similarities, both curricula were rooted on the principles of public
358 health and public health nursing evidence. The fundamental differences related to PHNs' role
359 and funding. In Ireland, students receive a one-year academic program, whereas in Norway
360 this extends to two years. The latter facilitates advanced critical thinking skills, although the
361 impact of this extended training is unknown in terms of population outcomes.

362 Therefore, it is recommended that this gap is addressed to examine which model best
363 determines fitness for practice and purpose in the longer term. It is imperative for all
364 educators to evaluate their curricula in meeting the vision of their programs.

365

366 **Data availability statement**

367 Data sharing not applicable to this article as no datasets were generated or analysed during
368 the current study.

Abbreviations

DoH: Department of Health

DPHN: Directors of Public Health Nursing

ECTS: European Credit Transfer System

EQF: European Qualifications Framework

EU: European Union

HEI: Higher Education Institutes

HSE: Health Service Executives

INMO: Irish Nurses and Midwives Organization

IRE: Ireland

NMBI: Nursing and Midwifery Board of Ireland

NNO: National Nursing Organizations

NOR: Norway

PGDPHN: Postgraduate Diploma in Public Health Nursing

PHN: Public Health Nurse

RGN: Registered General Nurse

RNID: Registered Intellectual Disability Nurse

RPN: Registered Psychiatric Nurse

UCC: University College Cork

UiT: UiT The Arctic University of Norway

UNESCO: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

WHO: World Health Organization

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Table 1*Overview of the documents included for analysis*

Documents analyzed	Irish	Norwegian
	Nursing and Midwifery Board of Ireland (2015) Public Health Nursing Education Programme – Requirements and Standards.	Ministry of Education and Research (2005) Framework and Regulations for Public Health Nursing (Rammeplan translated)
Higher Education Institution	University College Cork (2020) Postgraduate Calendar with links to Book of Modules <u>UCC College Calendar 2020/2021</u>	UiT, The Arctic University of Norway (2020) Official detailed content of modules (UIT, 2020)
	School of Nursing and Midwifery (2020) Postgraduate Diploma in Public Health Nursing Course Booklet	UiT, The Arctic University of Norway (2020) Official detailed content of modules (UIT, 2020)

Table 2*Overview of similarities and differences in Ireland (IRE) and Norway (NOR)*

Key areas	Similarities (at national and HEI level) *	Differences (at national and HEI level) **
General Characteristics of PHN Education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Post registration specialist course • The European Qualifications Framework (EQF) level 9 • Applicants must be registered general nurses 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National guidelines due for update 2022 (NOR) • Eligibility in terms of longer pre-course experience (Ire) • National recruitment and sponsorship process (IRE) • HEIs involved in national recruitment (IRE) • Masters' level (NOR), postgraduate Diploma (IRE) • Funding source differs (IRE and NOR) and municipalities can offer grants (NOR) • Generalist practice, preventive and curative lifespan approach (IRE)

Key areas	Similarities (at national and HEI level) *	Differences (at national and HEI level) **
Theoretical and Empirical Knowledge Base for PHN Practice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Humanistic and biomedical knowledge base for practice in both national curricula • Reflects need for advanced knowledge related to individuals, groups, and communities • All modules underpinned by learning outcomes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Specialist practice, children and young adult population, health promotion, and prevention focus (NOR) • Difference in emphasis regarding health promotion - theoretical underpinnings and integration • Nursing competencies more prominent in Irish documents • Knowledge for lifespan practice (IRE) • Common courses with other professionals comprise 50% of the PHN postgraduate course and 30% of the total PHN Master program at UiT (NOR)

Key areas	Similarities (at national and HEI level) *	Differences (at national and HEI level) **
Applying Theory to Practice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students supported in application of theory to practice by PHN preceptors. (IRE, NOR) • Close relationships fostered between HEIs and preceptors (IRE, NOR) • Community profiling and health needs assessment are key skills (UiT, UCC) • Preceptorship guidelines and preparation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Minimum timeframe of clinical placement – 12 weeks UiT compared with 18 weeks in UCC. • Variations in credit weighting of clinical placement modules (5 credits (UCC) v. 20 credits (UiT))
Professional/ Ethical Dimensions for Practice.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expectation to practice in accordance with professional/ ethical guidelines • Ethical focus in documents in both Ireland and Norway related to aspects of 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus on ethical values (NOR) • Focus on ethical issues that influence practice (IRE) • In depth knowledge of research ethics and ethical theories related

Key areas	Similarities (at national and HEI level) *	Differences (at national and HEI level) **
	equality, diversity, and inclusion.	to health and illness (NOR).

* *bullet points*

** *bullet points with either NOR or IRE; UCC or UiT; depending on whether local or national after each point*