

Max van der Kamp remembered

**Contributions to arts education, lifelong learning and
international development co-operation**

Jacques Zeelen, Corinne van Beilen & Meindert Slagter (Eds.)

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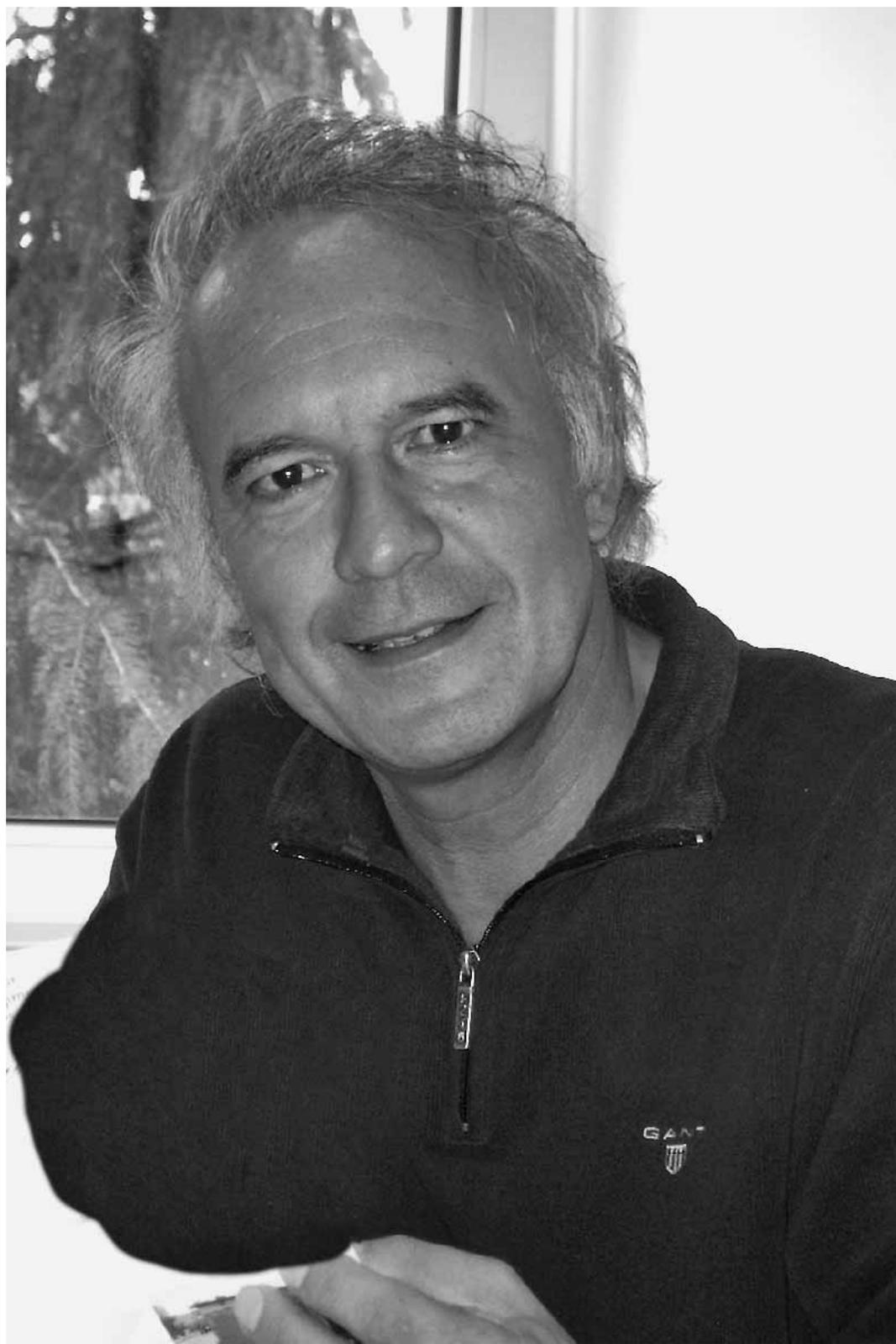
Max van der Kamp remembered. Contributions to arts education, lifelong learning and international development co-operation
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In memoriam Max van der Kamp

Jacques Zeelen, Corinne van Beilen and Meindert Slagter

“What is worthwhile about andragogy is that it has never been accommodated by the Ivory Tower of the Academia, but instead embarks upon undeveloped fields and isn’t above getting involved with the socially excluded, or those who don’t live in harmony with their environment.”

Max van der Kamp used this description of andragogy in 1994 in his contribution to the lustrum publication of the University of Groningen for its 390th anniversary. The quote illustrates his involvement with this field of expertise, which later was continued in the interdisciplinary field of social intervention. His involvement, however, was by no means absolute and also knew certain moderation. Even before it became politically correct, Max van der Kamp was of the opinion that the social sciences, and this includes andragogy, cannot solve social problems. More precisely this meant that some modesty and distance are appropriate: “Without avoiding a normative contribution to the public debate, the task of andragogy is foremost to carry out empirical research in the fields of education, employment and welfare work. Its mission is to clarify the nature on the interventions that contribute to solving social problems, to support processes of design and evaluate interventions on intended and unintended consequences.”

Max van der Kamp was born in 1947 in Manado, Indonesia. He studied psychology at the University of Amsterdam from 1966 to 1973. In 1971, he became a student-assistant at the SCO-Kohnstamm Instituut; later employed there in several positions from researcher to acting-director. In 1982 he received his professorship in andragogy at the University of Groningen. In the 25-year period that followed he played a central role in the teaching and research activities of the Groningen department. He was the (co-)promotor of more than 25 PhD’s, of which some have contributed to this publication. His field of research was concerned with methodological questions (e.g. the ‘learner report,’ evaluation and intervention research), art education, adult education and lifelong learning (e.g. his participation to the international ‘assessment of adult literacy’ research, IALS) and development cooperation in higher education (e.g. academic supervisor to education projects in universities in Mozambique and South Africa). Additionally he was a chairman of SVE, took part in numerous councils and advisory boards in mental health care, at regional educational centres (ROC’s: regionale opleidingscentra) conservatoria, the Dutch National UNESCO Commission, TELEAC, Max Goote Kenniscentrum and many other organizations.

Friday 2 November 2007 a memorial symposium was organized for Max van der Kamp in the Groninger Museum. Present were those who were inspired by him all these years from a variety of educational fields and universities. His brother Leo van der Kamp (emeritus-professor Psychology at Leiden University), Ruud van der Veen (adjunct professor at Teachers College Columbia University in the Adult Learning and Leadership Program), Folkert Haanstra (Professor of Arts Education at the Amsterdam School of the Art and holder of a special chair for Cultural Education and Cultural Participation at the University Utrecht) en Arlindo Siteo (lecturer of Psychology of Learning and Educational Psychology at the Faculty of Education of the Eduardo Mondlane University (UEM) in Mozambique) spoke about Max's work from different perspectives and in different periods. The last three contributions, as well as one of Max's own recent articles, are included in this publication.

What becomes clear in these contributions, as well as from the many reactions that reached our department in Groningen in the period after his unexpected death on 6 July 2007, is that Max van der Kamp made a very important and interesting contribution to the development of adult education and social intervention, both in the Netherlands and internationally. Additionally, many people spoke about his support and advice and how much they appreciated his kind manners and his witty humor. For many, the great loss is still experienced daily. We, as Max' close colleagues for a long period, are inspired and supported to continue clarifying social interventions and possibly contributing to solving social problems.

Content

Max van der Kamp opens with a contribution on the issue of the Accreditation of Prior and Experiential Learning (APEL) in the context of lifelong learning. Although there are big differences between countries, data from most European nations show that a large proportion of adult citizens hardly participate in regular activities. APEL is to be considered to become an important tool to remove obstacles to lifelong learning. After discussing several experiences one of his conclusions is that despite the opportunities APEL brings into the implementation of lifelong learning, the implementation of APEL in the European arena of higher education still has a long and difficult way to go. He also emphasizes the importance of the participation in APEL by disadvantaged groups. Recent studies, discussed by Max van der Kamp in this chapter, show however that disadvantaged groups often lack the confidence to apply for APEL. The main groups identified by researchers as needing support through the APEL process are mature women returning to the workforce and applicants from non-English speaking backgrounds. At the end of his contribution, Max van der Kamp concludes that, although there is a body of knowledge that is gradually accumulating in regard of APEL, this issue deserves a more prominent place on the research agenda of the educational sciences.

Folkert Haanstra presents in his contribution an overview of the research into arts education by Max van der Kamp. He himself was a direct witness right from the beginning. He discusses extensively the background and surrounding discourse of Van der Kamp's PhD dissertation called: What is it that arts education provides to students? Haanstra considers this sound piece of research as one of the main publications in the eighties that cleared the path for a cognitive view on arts education in the Netherlands. However, the introduction of the more cognitive approach was very sensitive due to fundamental disagreements in arts education about policies, rationales and justification. For instance, adherents of the child-centred self expression movement were against examinations in arts education. After discussing several developments in arts education, Haanstra concludes that because arts educators have always been skeptical of research (due to its demands concerning rationality, predictability and quantification), there remains a strong demand for evaluation studies that can prove the claim that arts education has wider academic, social and motivational repercussions. Max van der Kamp has, according to Haanstra, always been aware of this contradictory attitude towards education research. In that context he refers to one of the key statements of Max van der Kamp that the evaluation researcher should play the role of an engaged expert and outsider serving his two masters: science and practice.

In the following chapter Ruud van der Veen reconstructs a quarter century of adult education by discussing the contributions of Max van der Kamp. He starts his journey in 1982 with the decision of the newly appointed Minister of Education to develop a policy of formal education for adults, leading to certificates recognized by the government. One of the first initiatives was the establishment of Regional Educational Centres (ROC's: regionale opleidingscentra). Van der Veen shows that Max van der Kamp was rather critical of these developments. He was especially critical on the lack of flexible trajectories and the lack of attention towards the opening of higher education for adult students. In the eighties, as a professor in Groningen, Max van der Kamp became part of the international andragogy movement. According to Van der Veen this engagement had always a critical element. He did not just endorse the theoretical and sometimes ideological position of andragogy. Max van de Kamp insisted that technical benchmarks were just as important, such as effectiveness of educational programmes and appropriate use of new educational technologies. After discussing the important contribution of Max van der Kamp concerning research into the education of older adults and his stance in the debate about social learning, Van der Veen highlights the important role of Max van der Kamp in adult education. He characterizes Max van der Kamp as not an outspoken political philosopher, but as a highly competent scholar deeply committed to care and responsibility for those individuals who need adult education most.

Another core element of Max van der Kamp's work was his contribution to international development co-operation. Arlindo Siteo discusses in his contribution the current challenges and opportunities to North-South inter-university co-operation, with reference to the vital role of Max van der Kamp in the co-operation with universities in Southern Africa.

Siteo starts with the recent transition of the *concept* of development from a quantitative to a more qualitative approach. With reference to Amartya Sen, he states that development nowadays should not only be focused on economic growth but also on the person, the one who should, ultimately, benefit from all endeavours. Building on this perspective Siteo takes a closer look at the African universities. The core of mission statements of almost all Sub-Sahara African universities contains the institution's responsibility for the training of knowledgeable and skilled manpower to contribute to community and national development. According to Siteo this leads for African universities to the immense challenge of meeting the complex needs of their respective countries, while maintaining their classical status of centres of academic excellence. In the next sections Arlindo Siteo discusses the features and challenges of academic international co-operation and in the last part of the chapter he reflects on the co-operation of the University of Groningen with the Eduardo Mondlane University in Mozambique and the University of the North in South-Africa. He highlights the important role of Max van de Kamp as the long term academic supervisor of the two co-operation projects. Important features of the co-operation were joint preparation of proposals and progress reports, inclusion and focus on capacity building, with a strong and sound staff training component and regular consultative meetings. Siteo emphasizes the wise and charismatic leadership of Max van der Kamp and his view on the central role of a continuous dialogue in North-South co-operation.

Thanks

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1 The Contribution of APEL to Lifelong Learning¹

Max van der Kamp

1.1 Introduction

Already for a decade, lifelong learning has been in the forefront of the international policy and educational agenda. “Lifelong Learning for All” was the ambitious message of the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) to the industrialised countries (OECD, 1996). “Learning the Treasure Within,” proclaimed the romantic title of a report by the UNESCO committee chaired by Dr. Jacques Delors in 1996 (Delors et al., 1996), accompanied by the European Union declaring 1996 the “European Year of Lifelong Learning.” At least in declarations, lifelong learning appears thus to have secured the attention of policymakers. What about reality?

As for participation in educational activities, it is still a far cry from the aspiration of “Lifelong Learning for All” (Van der Kamp, 1999). Although there are big differences between countries, data from most European nations show that a large proportion of adult citizens hardly participate in regular educational activities. In the Scandinavian countries about half of the citizens are involved on a yearly basis, in most other countries however, the situation is worse. In general the non-participants have a lower level of initial education, tend to be female rather than male, old rather than young, migrants rather than natives, and often hold more vulnerable jobs than the participants. In today’s knowledge and learning societies competence, skills and learning have come to be recognised as fundamental for participation by individuals in modern life. They are also regarded as the hallmark of dynamic economic units and thriving social communities. If more attractive learning pathways are not developed for non-participants, the respective societies will have to face economic as well as social consequences, expressed respectively as under-used human capital, eventually leading to increased welfare expenditure and as alienation and decay of social infrastructure.

The gap between policy and practice was also recognised by the European Commission in the progress report of 2003: *Implementing lifelong learning Strategies in Europe: Progress report on the follow-up to the Council resolution of 2002.*

1 This chapter was originally published in Consuelo Corradi, Norman Evans and Aune Valk (eds.) (2006). *Recognising Experiential Learning, Practices in European Universities*. Tartu: Tartu University Press (Estonia). References to another chapter or chapters in this text by Max van der Kamp are referring to Corradi et al., 2006.

One of the conclusions is the following:

There is still some way to go before one could speak of all countries having a well-developed lifelong learning culture with wide public acceptance and participation. (European Commission, 2003, p. 6)

That may well sound as an understatement, given the next conclusion:

There appears to be little or no legislation specifically on lifelong learning as such. Policy documents and strategies on lifelong learning are more frequent. (European Commission, 2003, p. 6)

The Commission highlights the need to remove obstacles to lifelong learning and to develop multiple pathways to further learning. This is often linked to two issues: formal recognition of competences regardless of how these have been acquired, and guidance and information systems to help the individual negotiate the pathways created. In the report the issue has been framed as follows:

Quite a few countries have begun to establish systems for validation of non-formal and informal learning in the context of removing barriers to further learning. Key components to providing incentives to lifelong learning include flexible qualification structures which not only integrate the different streams and levels of general education and learning, but also those of vocational and technical education and training. Different approaches exist, but common factors critical to promoting lifelong learning include the opportunity for systematic identification of competencies however acquired, their validation in terms of transferability to other situations and the creation of opportunities for certification or for admission to further learning leading to new qualifications. (European Commission, 2003, p. 10)

The importance of lifelong learning was emphasised again within the perspective of the so-called Lisbon Goals of the European Commission. During their meeting in Lisbon in 2000 the member states of the EU formulated an overall, bold and ambitious ten-year goal of making the Union the “most dynamic, competitive, sustainable knowledge-based economy, enjoying full employment and strengthened economic and social cohesion” (European Commission, 2002, p. 2).

The Commission sees a crucial role here for Higher Education, but is also very critical:

The European higher education and research system fails to attract enough people and investment, both from within Europe and worldwide. (European Commission, 2003, p. 23)

By implication, the number of admissions to higher education flowing from lifelong learning trajectories ought to be significantly raised, yet the Commission admits:

Moreover, lifelong learning is, despite progress in some Member States, still not a reality for most people. (European Commission, 2003, p. 23)

The Commission appears to be less realistic in its formulation of (highly ambitious) goals: to raise enrolment in higher education by up to 50% in 2010, and achieve a factual average participation rate of 12% in lifelong learning activities all over Europe.

Be that as it may it is clear that lifelong learning strategies can contribute to widening access to higher education and that APEL can provide a suitable tool to enhance this process. In an attempt to supplement the useful insights emerging from the first two parts of the present volume in regard of various aspects of APEL, this Chapter will focus on the contribution of APEL to lifelong learning.

1.2 Concept, mission and target groups

The concept of APEL has been clearly explained in Chapter 1, yet it must be recognised that for a number of actors in the field of lifelong learning the concept of APEL still remains vague. Many are confused by the different designations employed both by theorists and practitioners. As explained by Corradi (Chapter 4) and used elsewhere in this book, we will stick to the term Accreditation of Prior Experiential Learning (APEL).

As Evans (Chapter 1) points out, the reasons for introducing APEL are diverse (see also Thomas, Van Broekhoven & Frietman, 2000). Unmet demand in the labour market is often cited as an example. There is a growing need for specialists in the knowledge society, pushing the society to discover and develop already present but sometimes 'hidden' or 'tacit' talents. The backgrounds of the talented individuals in questions are also becoming more and more diverse. These new target groups include men and women who want to re-enter the labour market after periods of unemployment or work at home, highly educated migrants or refugees and people who already have jobs but want to raise their level of competence in order to keep their employment or to move to another occupation. Many working people have secured better jobs thanks to the competences they developed during their working career. As a matter of fact, in their working lives many perform their functions on a higher-education level. APEL makes it possible to recognise these competences.

In addition to developments in APEL, other significant trends need to be noted in higher education. For one thing, the primary student population, too,

is diversifying. The implementation of the Bachelor's/Master's study structure in Europe promotes student mobility on the national and international level, yet identical diploma titles do not always guarantee the same quality. APEL can help holders of such qualifications in that it may allow them to design their own tailor-made learning pathways. APEL offers an insight into the students' already existing competences and provides a mechanism for educational institutions to take these into account in individual student advices or as part of the curriculum development process. In this way APEL is closely linked to counselling and guidance.

Last but not least, APEL is not only orientated towards educational institutions but also speaks to the labour market. It offers employees a better understanding of their career opportunities and holds out to employers insights into the employability of their personnel.

The broad mission of APEL makes it clear that many actors or stakeholders are involved in the process of APEL. Policy-makers engaged in education, labour market or lifelong learning issues have to realise that APEL can indeed be a powerful tool in the knowledge society both from an economic point of view and as a preventive measure to avoid exclusion. Policy-makers can promote APEL by financial incentives and by legislation. The contributions forming this book show that the legislation on APEL in Europe differs widely (see also the survey by Singh, 2005).

In an institutional perspective, the administrators of higher education institutions have a special responsibility as far as APEL is concerned. Many have so far only been interested in the regular population of ('bright young') students, directly out of secondary education (Van der Kamp & Slagter, 2003). APEL, however, might open the doors of their institutions to lifelong learners and students from abroad, resulting in more diverse and attractive profile. They also have to realise that APEL has some serious implications such as more flexible curricula, the availability of teachers with special expertise in APEL, the capacity to take care of new groups of students, and the need for competence-based curriculum design. Working according to a more competence-based curriculum will therefore become a widespread requirement for teachers in higher education. There is still much resistance to the concept of competence, and in many cases it is indeed easy to empathise with objections to extensively elaborated and boring lists of competences. It is clear, however, that a deep subject-centred approach is not easily compatible with a favourite attitude towards APEL. In this respect, a special category of stakeholders are APEL assessors who, as we have already seen in Part II of this book should have certain special skills and attitudes. The next and the most important stakeholders, of course, are the students undergoing APEL. The entire assessment procedure has to be transparent and fair to them and ultimately lead to more self-knowledge. A further important stakeholder category often forgotten, but certainly not to be neglected, are the 'regular students' following traditional learning trajectories. For them too what happens in APEL must be transparent in order to avoid accusations of

unfair treatment, as well as envy or stigmatisation of the new groups following their ‘special, easy pathways.’ The last significant category of stakeholders in APEL is that of employers and personnel managers. The success of APEL will finally depend on the recognition from outside the university (civil effects) in respect of which the attitude of employers is decisive. The labour market has an intriguing ‘double role’ in APEL by offering employees the chances to develop competences in learning-rich workplaces and by absorbing the qualifications resulting from APEL. The role of labour market actors in the further development of APEL can hardly be overestimated.

1.3 **Methods and instruments**

In various Chapters, this book discusses a variety of methods used in APEL procedures: interviews with participants about their learning biographies and competences, assignments to be performed in authentic work situations, observation of participants’ behaviour during practical assignments, reflection by learners on their learning histories and competences, as well as portfolio building focussing on relevant competences.

The portfolio in particular is a notion picked up in several Chapters of the book. It can be described as a collection of evidence of achievement, including information on assignments or projects developed or implemented and artefacts made by learners during learning programmes or as part of other life and work experiences; all of these can be submitted for formal assessment and accreditation (Ecclestone, 2005). The relevant formats can differ widely depending on the specific context in which they are used. A special format is to be noted is the digital portfolio, which must be user-friendly and accessible yet provide sufficient guarantees for privacy. An important requirement regarding tests and practical assignments is that they should be subject matter independent. Especially where institutions are not used to competence-based curriculum development and still predominantly pursue a subject matter centred approach, APEL might be too much biased in this respect.

Several contributors to the book at hand touch on the importance of reflection by the learners themselves and the narrative way of interviewing this requires. In fact, many learners need not be good at skills that are called ‘reflexive’ (or biographic) and regarded as pivotal in the modern society by many authors in the field of adult education and lifelong learning. The learner has to be taken seriously, as an expert concerning his own learning. Although some students are better at self-assessment than others, it still seems justified to use learner reports as a form of self-assessment (Van der Kamp, 1984). Studies suggest that these must be considered as a viable component of the wider evaluation format. Shrauger and Osberg (1981) compared the predictive validity of forms of self-assessment and judgments by professionals (psychologists, therapists, etc.) using a variety of tests, observation scales and questionnaires. They inves-

igated this in different situations ranging from study performances, therapeutic settings and rehabilitation assessments to choice of occupation contexts. Their analysis included 43 studies, of which 29 weighed in favour of self-assessment, 10 in favour of professional assessors and 4 were neutral. Their conclusion was to pay more attention to general self-assessment, at least giving it the status of a supplementary method to be used alongside other evaluation forms. As Shrauger and Osberg put it:

Individuals possess an extensive data base from which to draw inferences about themselves, a much larger base than even the most ambitious external evaluator is likely to develop. (Shrauger & Osberg, 1981, p. 322)

Naturally, this does not imply any blind trust in self-assessment as a cure-all. The respondents in their studies were higher-educated and their self-assessments were not influenced by specific interests such as go/no-go decisions, money considerations, etc. In assessment contexts with significant personal implications people will be more inclined to misrepresent their learning.

Hence a combination of different methods is likely to provide a more adequate strategy for finding out ‘the truth’ about a person’s skills and learning. In this respect, the concept of triangulation can be taken as an analogy. Triangulation is often used in analysis and confirmation contexts of (mostly qualitative) research. Just as in court proceedings witnesses of both parties must be called to find out the truth, the investigator will have a more solid foundation for her conclusions if different sources corroborate the findings. Where in an APEL procedure the self-assessment of the learner, the results of a test and the observations from practical assignments converge, the validity of the result appears plausible. If, however, no convergence is observed, there is a good reason to resort to additional assessment instruments and supplementary sources of information (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998).

1.4 Towards a model of APEL in higher education

It will probably already have been gleaned from other Chapters of this book that there is no uniform model of APEL. APEL has been elaborated in different ways depending on the different contexts it is implemented in. In connection with this it is interesting to note that in spite of the variety a certain set of common characteristics shared by different models can be observed. This set of characteristics common to APEL in higher education in fact resembles a model described by Thomas et al. (2000) and includes the following phases and activities:

- a dissemination of information to target groups about APEL and a meeting with prospective students to discuss the aim of APEL, entry requirements, procedures, etc.;

- b compilation of an inventory or a portfolio of prior formal, non-formal and informal learning activities;
- c selection of an evaluation standard as well as evaluation methods and instruments (interviews, assignments, etc.) for the learning claimed;
- d assessment of acquired learning with the help of evaluation instruments, determination of the competences profile of future student and, depending on the result, decision on recognition (i.e. certificates, dispensations, etc.);
- e design of tailor-made learning trajectory;
- f eventually, a follow-up in study guidance.

Of course this rough model is not a recipe for APEL, but rather a heuristic which has to be explored creatively in different higher education contexts.

1.5 Conditions of APEL

A fruitful application of APEL, furthermore, depends on certain conditions that have to be met at various stages and by various actors of APEL.

Assessment

As this book shows, the issues of reliability and validity cannot be avoided in assessment (see also Ecclestone, 2005). Both are closely linked to standardisation (although one must realise that APEL as a procedure is context-bound and that contexts in European higher education differ). Standardisation in its turn is linked to transparency. Future students have to be informed about the type of assignments, procedural stages, criteria and consequences of APEL.

Educational institutions

APEL will be more convincing if it is embedded in a total system of quality care. The system may encompass either the particular institution or apply across several institutions. Consistent systems act to promote trust in the users and represent a precondition for recognition and civil effects outside the institution. A part of such quality care system is the right of appeal or complaint for the participants in APEL.

Another condition that must be there in educational institutions for APEL to work is a flexible curriculum. APEL should open shortened trajectories and tailor-made pathways of learning; this means that educational institutions have to be able to offer these to the new students, in terms of the content of the curriculum as well as in study planning.

It is advisable to have specific APEL bylaws within the institution, but even better to have national legislation. This book has shown that several countries such as France and Norway already have such legislation. Sometimes, the

presence of a national qualification framework (NQF) is also seen as a stimulating condition. APEL could be linked with such qualification frameworks, which help to make the recognition more transparent and acceptable. This link, however, can also be controversial. Young (2003) criticises excessive pre-occupations with qualification frameworks. In his opinion they expose APEL to the risk that institutions will limit themselves to what can be measured and certificated, disregarding the authenticity of tasks and neglecting hard-to-measure competencies. He pleads for investing in the so-called ‘communities of trust,’ where different stakeholders in recognition and certification meet each other: learners, companies, educational providers, certification institutes and authorities. The aim is to strike a balance between the interests of the different stakeholders and to create ownership for the entire APEL process.

1.6 APEL as a research area

Although there is a body of knowledge that is gradually accumulating in regard of APEL, research in the field is no luxury but deserves a more prominent place on the research agenda of educational sciences. It is the only way to help us deepen our understanding of the many aspects of APEL and to make progress along the road to its implementation.

A more fundamental psychological study should be focused on the nature of informal learning itself, especially on that of the workplace. What are the conditions characterising a learning-rich workplace? Can we relate in this respect the concept of experiential learning (Kolb, 1984) with the concept of ‘tacit knowledge’ (Sternberg & Wagner, 1986)? What is the role of informal networks of professionals or ‘communities of practice’ (Wenger, 1998) in creating environments conducive to informal learning and fostering (tacit) knowledge?

The second cluster of research questions is psychometric by nature. Although psychometrics in general is very advanced, the development of APEL is raising some unanswered questions, as we have seen in this book. APEL takes the learner seriously and tries to take into account various forms of self-assessment. In these contexts, the assessment of competences requires new ways of testing and the development of portfolios. In what way can self-reflection and self-assessment be enhanced? What are the most suitable formats for portfolios, also in relation to issues such as reliability and validity?

A third cluster of research questions can be linked to the impact of APEL on the students who were participating in APEL procedures. At the moment there is a dearth of empirical studies revealing such effects, yet it is critical to know what are their results in the long term, particularly in comparison with ‘regular’ students. Do APEL students develop a more positive attitude towards learning? What about their longer-term self-confidence and self-reflection?

Last but not least, it will be a challenge to investigate the impact of APEL on lifelong learning. Do individuals, especially former non-participants, feel more attracted to educational activities because of APEL? Does APEL serve as a useful vehicle for adults who want to re-enter pathways of learning, do they experience APEL as a springboard to lifelong learning? There are already some promising studies in this respect. Livingstone (2000) reports that Canadian adults were more likely to be interested in educational activities if they could use APEL. Björnavold (2000) confirms this in respect of Norwegian workers, especially the less-educated. A wider cost-benefit analysis of APEL in relation to lifelong learning could provide an insight into the benefits of APEL. Such a study will not be easy, but -in combination with ‘good practices’ as described in this book- it could offer policy-makers, practitioners and employers an understanding of the overall relevance of APEL and underscore the necessity of investing in APEL to make lifelong learning a reality.

1.7 From knowing to doing

Despite the opportunities APEL brings into the implementation of lifelong learning and regardless of the progress that has already been made (and partly revealed in the practices described in this volume), the implementation of APEL in the European arena of higher education still has a long and difficult way to travel. What kind of obstacles and resistance can be expected has been shown in a study by the National Centre for Vocational Education Research (NCVER) in Australia (NCVER, 2003). This study identified and analysed what drives and what creates barriers to effective implementation of recognition of prior learning (RPL), as the authors call it.

National Australian data indicate that the uptake of RPL among equity groups is relatively low. This is partly because many people, including members of recognised equity groups, are more likely to participate in training than seek recognition of their existing skills because they value the learning experience over the benefits to be gained by RPL. Still, training organisations agreed that more could be done to assist applicants from these groups. Several barriers must be overcome here: a lack of awareness and understanding of RPL among potential students and misperceptions of RPL relevance:

How RPL is resourced is a possible barrier, as is its confusing and its differing definitions. (NCVER, 2003, p. 8)

According to the authors of the report, the language and definitional issues hinder effective discussion and recognition of prior learning at the least, and may act as a barrier to its effective implementation.

From a viewpoint of lifelong learning the participation in RPL by disadvantaged groups is important. Yet many assessors interviewed in the study

reported that disadvantaged groups lacked the confidence to apply for RPL. Furthermore, they were much less likely to seek support or even be aware that RPL exists. The main groups identified as needing support through the RPL process were mature women returning to the workforce and applicants from non-English-speaking backgrounds. Age seemed to be an important determinant for taking up RPL. The study showed that RPL was less useful for young learners, obviously because they have less relevant experience.

The study also revealed that public training organisations are more inclined to see the needs of students as a starting point for RPL than their private counterparts and state training authorities, which tend to focus on industry and employers' needs. Some informants from industry suggested that industry must support the evidence-gathering process more actively. However, others pointed out that the benefits of skills recognition were felt by individuals and the whole of society, not just by the industry or specific workplace of current employment. Thus some employers considered they were being asked to support an activity that was only partially or indirectly of benefit to them. Much of industry focused on training rather than on recognition, and in many instances preferred to invest in training activities (which were better understood) rather than assessment (where the complexity, and hence, cost, of the process was not clear to those who were being asked to pay for it):

It was agreed that if the advantages of recognition were better promoted, there would be less reluctance by employers (*ibid.*, p. 30).

Tabel 1.1

Areas for improvement	Possible actions
Promotion of APEL	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conduct targeted marketing. Build links with community-based organisations to disseminate information. Actively 'sell' the advantages to the clients.
Process improvement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Make APEL simpler, less threatening and as user-friendly as possible.
Enhanced communication strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use plain English in written materials. Use oral communication methods to reduce the reliance on written documentation. Offer an online option for remote applicants.

Support for applicants	Provide opportunities for access to pre-interview procedures. Provide access to disability consultants or counsellors. Coach candidates on procedures. Allow mentors or support persons to be involved. Provide more encouragement. Provide specific support e.g. in case of language problems etc
Support for assessors	Provide staff with the skills to facilitate recognition for disadvantaged applicants. Set up teams of assessors and key support people to ease the recognition assessment process. Provide clearer strategies for dealing with overseas experience. Provide resources such as assessment kits.

In addition to the above-given recommendations, the current book comprises plenty of interesting knowledge and examples of good practice about APEL. By sharing this, more universities are encouraged to develop provisions of their own, contributing thus to the lifelong learning Europe.

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2

Research into goals and effects of arts education

Folkert Haanstra

This paper presents an overview of the research into arts education by Max van der Kamp. The evaluation of the shifting goals and effects of arts education and the critical analyses of the different and sometimes fashionable justifications of arts education are common themes in his research. A distinction is made between a cognitive psychological approach in the 1970s, historical studies and an approach from adult education and social interventions later in his career. It is argued that his dissertation paved the way for a cognitive view on arts education in The Netherlands.

2.1

Dissertation project

In 1975 Max van der Kamp started a research project that was meant to lead to his dissertation. Max was trained as a psychologist at the University of Amsterdam and in 1971 he started to work as a researcher at the Kohnstamm Institute for educational research.

The project involved a study into goals and effects of arts education, or to be more precise the goals and effects of the subjects art, crafts and music in secondary education. A few years before an experiment had started in non-university preparatory education (mavo and havo) with the introduction of nation wide final examinations in these subjects. Art examinations in pre-university level (vwo) came later and only after much discussion. For who needs arts when you go to university?

However after about half a year Max's dissertation project was in great danger because an apprentice had written quite frankly that one of the reasons for introducing the nation wide examinations in the art subjects was to strengthen the position of these subjects in the curriculum. The project members were accused of 'impure reasoning' and representatives of arts education organisations threatened to terminate their cooperation. As we know Max was a man of diplomacy and after some talks he could regain the confidence of these people. The project had a happy end after all, because in 1980 he got his PhD with a dissertation called *What is it that arts education provides to students? (Wat neemt de leerling mee van kunstzinnige vorming?)*.

I must confess that the apprentice who almost prematurely ended Max's dissertation project was me and years after he still liked to tease me with this

incident. What the incident also shows is how sensitive the introduction of arts education exams was and how easily feelings were hurt. Those were the years of fundamental disagreements in art education about policies, rationales and justification. Adherents of the child-centred self-expression movement were against the examinations. They rejected written curricula and formal assessments of students' progress. In his influential textbook *Creative and Mental Growth* the American art educator Lowenfeld stated that art "should be the one area in secondary school that youngsters can turn to without the concern for being evaluated [...]" (Lowenfeld & Brittain, 1982, p. 413).

But also art educators inspired by the German *Visuelle Kommunikation* were sceptical about examinations. They promoted critical thinking through art and wanted to teach visual culture instead of high art (e.g. Oostra, 1976). The more discipline-based art educators who based themselves on the legacy of Bauhaus or on phenomenological views on art (e.g. Gerritse, 1974; Ringelestein, 1976), were in favour of the examinations. The differences between these conceptions of arts education were mainly philosophically inspired. The child-centred movement had Jean Jacques Rousseau and Herbert Read, the visual communication had the Frankfurter Schule and the phenomenologists had Heidegger and Merleau-Ponty to build on. What seems to unite these different movements was their aversion to positivist thinking.

However the call for a more pragmatic educational theory and empirically based didactics became heard also. In 1973 a report had been published about the position of arts education in The Netherlands (*Werkgroep Organisatie Onderwijskundig Onderzoek*, 1973). The report drew a bleak picture of an educational field that had a marginal position, lacked clear goals, was unsure about its means and did little to evaluate its efforts. According to the authors of the report, arts education had to move toward more pedagogical formalism. They propagated a means-end model, in which the arts were viewed as a subject with content that can be taught on the basis of sequentially organized goals and curricula. In line with this model the (summative) assessment of students' results (and therefore also a final examination) was acceptable. The report ended with a proposal for an extensive research program. Priority was given to research into goals and effects of arts education. This research was meant to raise the quality of arts education, but also meant to meet with the growing demand in governmental policy for accountability in education.

The dissertation project of Max was the first and main answer to this call for research. The approach that Max took in his project was broad. It consisted of four studies: (1) a review of the various conceptions of arts education advanced in literature, (2) interviews with teachers and policy makers to clarify their goals, (3) an empirical study of the learning experiences of former students and (4) lastly an exploratory study, using thinking-aloud protocols, of students' problem solving in art subjects.

2.2

Arts as cognition

Thesis supervisor was the well-known psychologist De Groot and his influence on the study is noticeable. Max's dissertation study fits in the cognitive turn (or cognitive revolution if you like) in social sciences, of which De Groot was a forerunner. In educational theory this revolution meant a change in emphasis from instruction variables (formulation of goals, methods and assessment tools) to learning variables (such as the representation of information and strategies of problem solving and learning) (Boekaerts & Simons, 2007). In Max's dissertation study, problem solving art is one of the topics, but the emphasis is still on assessment of goals and outcomes. In this he followed De Groot's critique of the traditional behavioristic approach to the formulation and assessment of educational objectives and its restricted means-end model. A central notion in the theory of De Groot (1986) is the 'coverage problem,' the question of whether the examination requirements (learning effects as measured) adequately reflect the goals of the program (as intended). An outcome of the interviews with teachers was that although they did not adhere to pure forms of the art ideologies mentioned before, their goals of arts education went beyond basic skills and knowledge in arts and converged towards the broad and somewhat vague concept of personal growth.

According to De Groot complex knowledge and skills to be learned are not 'behavior' but rather programs or dispositions stored in mind to be used freely and consciously by the students. He therefore argues that the coverage problem can be solved by obtaining learner reports of the type: I have learned that (or how to) and also by statements about the self in the form of: 'I have learned that I...'

In Van der Kamp's study students filled out a questionnaire, which included reporting on learning experiences through learner reports. The first time this was done shortly after their final examinations and a follow-up study was done after two and a half years. Most of the learning experiences had to do with art skills and knowledge in stricter sense; a minority was personal experiences regarding the self. The last part of the dissertation was an exploration of a cognitive approach of learning processes in the arts. Activities in art and music can be considered problem-solving activities in visual and musical media. Students were asked to make assignments that were common in their examination subjects, such as the completion of a musical phrase using their instruments, modelling in clay and lastly an art criticisms task: comparing two paintings in different styles. By using thinking-aloud methods the way the students solved the problems were analyzed and the outcomes were related to the goals and methods in art examination subjects.

2.3

International context

Even though the dissertation was an evaluation of a Dutch arts education program and was written in Dutch, it was clearly related to developments in international (especially American) research in art education and in educational evaluation in general. In 1981 the World conference of the International Society for Education through Art was held in Rotterdam. At the research pre-conference Max presented a paper on his dissertation study to an international audience of art educators. Among them was the influential art education researcher Eliot Eisner, who was one of the main opponents of Popham's behavioral objectives. He defended the use of more open-ended expressive objectives as well as more qualitative evaluation methods. He proposed the Connoisseurship Model (Eisner, 1979), based on principles borrowed from art criticism, claiming that the evaluator's background must include the ability to appreciate (perceive and criticize) at an expert's level. And professor of Education Bob Stake (1975) propagated the so-called responsive evaluation that was also inspired by evaluation in art education. His evaluations focus on the claims, concerns, and issues of a variety of potential stakeholders, make use of rich descriptions and emphasize the value of subjective human interpretation of the observations made. Even though Max approved of the mentality of these naturalistic forms of evaluations, in his dissertation and his later evaluation research he preferred more methodological rigor.

Another relationship to international developments was the focus on problem solving in the arts, which also was one of the topics of the influential Harvard Zero Project from Nelson Goodman (1976) and Howard Gardner. In their view each art medium is regarded as a symbol system in which meanings can be shaped and presented, and this approach has provided a systematic research agenda.

2.4

Historical studies

In the late seventies Max founded the research group Arts Education at the Kohnstamm Institute. This was the start of a small, but continuing stream of research on arts education in schools, museums, community centers etc. Max's last contribution in this research group was an extensive search of research into arts, learning and curriculum development (Van der Kamp & Otto, 1982). In 1983 a first review of the results of the research group was published (Van der Kamp, Haanstra & Oostwoud Wijdenes, 1983). At that time Max himself was no longer a member for he had left for Groningen to become professor in adult education. His field of research broadened considerably, but several times in his later career he returned to arts education. Being member of the board of governors of the Groningen School for Handicrafts or being a member of a review committee of conservatoires was part of this involvement, but I will restrict myself to his research efforts. This research was partly historical oriented and

later on more related to the field of adult education with themes such as life-long learning in arts and music, social cohesion and cultural citizenship.

In 1984 he was one of the editors of a historical and policy analysis of art academies in The Netherlands (Van der Kamp, Leijdekkers, Locher & Vierdag, 1984). Together with Vera Asselbergs he wrote the history of the Groningen School of Handicrafts that in 1992 celebrated its 100-year anniversary. The school was founded in 1892 by the industrialist Jan Evert Scholten and its primary purpose was utilitarian: To ensure a supply of skilled artisans. The authors describe how the school stuck to its traditional approach with emphasis on crafts and skills for many years, even though in the post-war period a more child-centered expressive movement in arts education had taken over. At last the school had to change and the post-war period shows a continuing struggle for survival. The history is a well-documented illustration of the shifting views on arts education partly because of developments within arts and within education, but more often because of the external pressure of changing policies.

In different publications Max points out that the continuing need for justification is a milestone around the neck of arts education. Often it has forced art educators to pursue fashionable goals that lack empirical substantiation. The last decade the main instrumental justifications for art education in policy papers have been its possible contribution to economic growth by preparing students for the creative industries and secondly its possible contribution to social cohesion.

2.5 Social cohesion and cultural citizenship

Arts education and social cohesion was the main topic in a study that Max and Dorine Ottevanger conducted in 2003 for *Cultuurnetwerk Nederland*. It involved a conceptual analysis, a survey of the state of the art in arts education and social cohesion and multiple case studies of organizations and projects, such as extended schoolday, community arts projects and an outreach program in a museum. The authors analyze the goals and means of the projects and conclude that there are promising examples but that empirical evidence of the effects on social cohesion still is lacking. Examples show efforts to improve social cohesion on micro level (personal social networks), rather than on meso or macro level. The authors warn not to repeat the mistakes from the naïve 1970s and state that systematic evaluation research is needed.

Social cohesion can be described as a delicate balance between individual and society, freedom and compliance, diversity and assimilation, non-involvement and participation. Social cohesion is strongly related to the concepts of identity and citizenship. Max addressed this topic several times. He noticed that in

policy papers often political, social and economical aspects of citizenship are emphasized, but not the cultural aspects. He quoted Stevenson (2003) that a theory or policy of citizenship that fails to take culture into account is probably worthless. Cultural citizenship is a coherent part of active citizenship and according to Max might be defined as the competence to express one's own cultural identity and to respect and at least partly share the cultural values of others. As far as these cultural values are concerned Max was opposed to universalistic claims of the traditional Western canon, but was also opposed to post-modern relativism. In his view a continuing debate on cultural and artistic values and quality is both possible and necessary.

The question remains what contribution arts and heritage education can make to cultural citizenship and cultural competence and how it should be made. In his presentation at the lifelong learning in music conference in Groningen in March 2007 he formulated some answers.

He stated that music education should engage in lifelong learning strategies by connecting forms of formal, non-formal and informal learning. This means partnerships of conservatories with other cultural and non-cultural institutions, tailor made learning trajectories and adopting new ways of teaching and learning such as social learning and peer group learning. However as Max always sought for balance, he added that adopting new learning does not imply losing attention for knowledge oriented ways of learning.

2.6 Epilogue

The overview of Max van der Kamp's contribution to research in arts education shows that critical evaluation of goals and effects is a common theme. In his evaluations we can distinguish between a cognitive psychological approach, a historical approach and an approach from adult education and social interventions. I think for arts education his cognitive psychological approach in his dissertation has been the most substantial, but I am biased in this, because as stated before I cooperated with him in this project. His dissertation was one of the main publications that cleared the path for a cognitive view on arts education in The Netherlands. In the eighties this cognitive view more or less replaced the traditional arts education ideologies. Problem solving processes in the arts, meta-cognition and reflection became important issues and the cognitive view is mirrored in the formulation of core goals and examinations as well as in the growing use of art portfolios. Moreover in several studies in arts and literature education the learner report has proved to be worthwhile for explorative and heuristic aims and especially gives insight in outcomes concerning personal development in the arts.

The relationship between art education and research has always been somewhat problematic. Max used to quote with pleasure the ironic saying that when

you lack talent to make art you become an art teacher and when you also lack the talent to teach art you will become a researcher of art education. Arts educators have always been sceptical of research, because for them the artistic process remains associated with emotions, unpredictability, and individual quality whereas research stands for rationality, predictability and quantification.

But for reasons of art education advocacy there remains a strong demand for (as well as a sometimes naïve trust in) evaluation studies that can prove the claims that arts education has wider academic, social and motivational repercussions. Max has always been aware of this contradictory attitude towards arts education research. In his article on the role of evaluation research in social interventions (Van der Kamp, 2002) he states that the evaluation researcher should play the role of an engaged expert outsider, serving his two masters: science and practice. I think 'an engaged expert outsider' is exactly the role he played so well in the field of arts education.

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3

A quarter century of adult education 1982-2007 from the perspective of Max van der Kamp

Ruud van der Veen

During the seventies of the last century the Western world witnessed the start of what is often called the post-modern or post-industrial society. Others labeled this new historical epoch as knowledge society, information society and learning society. The latter labels imply the increasing impact of education and particularly lifelong education and the education of adults.

Till that time, that is till the seventies of the last century, the education of adults was dominantly, although not completely exclusive, a non-formal activity. Non-formal means here that this type of education did not lead to any educational certificate. The education of adults till that time consisted mostly of short courses, study circles, and public lectures.

The breaking point in the Netherlands has been in 1982. A newly appointed Minister of Education decided to develop a policy of formal education for adults, leading to certificates recognized by the government. Such formal education of adults should offer a second chance for adults, who had not had an opportunity to complete their formal education when they were still young.

Exactly at that point in history, in 1982, Max van der Kamp was appointed full professor in adult education at the University of Groningen. He became soon involved in the development of the new government policy to create possibilities for adults to participate in formal education.

3.1

Continuing education

In almost all Western countries the policy to create second chance formal education for adults had two overall purposes. On the one hand the purpose was to create opportunities for adults for a second chance in vocational education. On the other hand the purpose was to open the universities for non-traditional adult students who later in life choose to study for a degree in higher education. But in each country the balance between these two purposes, fostering of vocational and higher education, is quite different. Typical for the Netherlands is a great emphasis on the fostering of vocational education for adults.

The Dutch policy to promote vocational education is characterized by great designs and high ambitions. The government created a new type of institution, the regional educational centres (ROC's: regionale opleidingscentra), which integrate all sorts of formal education of adults. It also raised the standard; all Dutch adults should have at least two years of secondary vocational education (after four years of primary vocational education). Whether all these radical decisions were right is still a matter of ongoing discussion in the field. In his publications at that time Max van der Kamp (e.g. 1996 and 1997) seems to be loyal to the government plans, although of course he had, as anyone else, his doubts and worries on some crucial elements. Therefore he insisted again and again on more research to find out whether the new system was really effective. Let me give you some examples of his doubts about the new system.

- The newly created Regional Educational Centers integrated two completely different types of education: on the one hand all secondary vocational education, on the other hand all general education for adults, from basic education, for instance literacy programs, up to all forms of secondary general education for adults. Some have argued that this has been an important factor in what has been called the 'vocalization' of adult education in the Netherlands, it is just about preparing for the labor market. Also Max van der Kamp did warn often that we should pay more attention to general education of adults as a preparation for active citizenship.
- Even more important and critical was the integration within these Regional Educational Centers of all secondary vocational education, both for the young and the old. Of course this had immense benefits. A whole infrastructure of teachers, buildings, machines became available for the vocational education of adults. On the other hand a huge formal system for vocational education that may work more or less for the young was also imposed on adults, who often need just much more flexible trajectories combining all sorts of courses relevant for them. A successful way to build such flexible trajectories can be found in the American 'community colleges.' These American community colleges were in fact the initial source of inspiration for the Dutch Regional Educational Centers. But by incorporating the vocational education for the young in the Regional Educational Centers this idea was almost completely lost. In later years Max became more and more disappointed by this loss of flexibility, but typical Max, even then he didn't attack the bureaucratic Regional Educational Centers right-on, but just highlighted in his work alternative much more flexible 'hybrid forms' of vocational education that were more successful indeed (Van der Kamp & Pot, 1999; Van der Kamp, Evers, Ligthart & Toren, 2002).
- Max was rather critical about the government policy to raise the standards for vocational education for adults. Not just primary vocational education

for all, but two extra years also of secondary vocational education. Max van der Kamp characterized this as the Janus-head of the new educational policy. On the one hand the official purpose was to prevent that young adults would leave school without sufficient vocational education for a post-industrial society. On the other hand by raising the standard the government produces in fact more drop-outs at vocational education, because not all participants want and can in fact complete an education on that high level. So the result of the Dutch policy is a rather moralistic, or even hypocritical praxis of high general standards that cannot be reached by many in practice.

- Fourthly and lastly many, among them Max van der Kamp, argued that these Regional Educational Centers failed their mission, because the government hinders the participation of adults over 27. I guess that the Dutch government did this for financial reasons but of course the counter argument is quickly formulated, if you hinder the participation of adults, this is not truly adult education at all. After a decade of teaching in the USA, I am not so convinced anymore of the validity of this counter argument. For instances fees for community colleges in the USA are rather high, but nevertheless many more American adults than adults in the Netherlands do attend these colleges. Most American participants have a full time job and can pay their evening classes from their salary. Moreover there are special funds for the unemployed and the poor who really cannot pay their fee. So it is really flexibility that allows part-time study in the evening and the weekend, not the fee itself.

So far vocational education for adults. While the Netherlands emphasized an increase of opportunities for secondary vocational education for adults, it hardly paid any attention to the opening of higher education for adult students. Max van der Kamp cannot be misunderstood in his negative judgment of the lack of initiatives in the Netherlands to open the doors of higher education for non-traditional adult students (Hake, Van der Kamp & Slagter, 1999; Van der Kamp & Slagter, 2003). Max van der Kamp blamed the colleges and universities for their lack of willingness to adapt their degree programs to the needs of adult students who want to return to education. And Max was completely right; in no other sector of adult education it is more true that the Dutch do not keep up with international developments. Dutch universities are still dominantly learning places for the young. Almost nothing is done at Dutch universities to invite adults to enter degree programs tailored for their needs including e.g. teaching in the evening hours and weekends. Just to compare, where I teach, at the school of education at the Columbia University of New York, the majority of my students is over 30. And they are willing to pay for there study too. Again it is the lack of flexibility of the Dutch educational system and not the amount of money students have to pay that is the main barrier for adults to return to university.

3.2

Andragogy

Max van der Kamp believed in multi-level analysis of the innovations in adult education. That is why he did participate in discussions of the Dutch government policy for adult education, but at the same time he was involved in the development of appropriate new curricula and methods of facilitating adult learning. I sense that he felt more at home with this latter research subject. In the eighties and nineties of the last century he built an impressive network with colleagues that worked for international organizations such as the OECD and UNESCO. His best publications during these years were contributions to international edited books on subjects as barriers for adults to re-enter education, learning styles of adults, use of new technologies and so on (Van der Kamp, 1992, 1996, 1997).

It is also on this 'micro-level' of curriculum and learning theory that his position in favor of andragogy becomes clear. I refer here both to the international and the Dutch tradition of andragogy. Let me explain that. In the USA, in the seventies a movement got momentum that proclaimed that education of children and education of adults were two completely different things. It was announced, by authors such as Knowles (1970) and Brookfield (1986), that we needed instead of pedagogy an adult-oriented 'andra-gogy'. Teaching of adults was seen as a contradiction in termini, you do not tell adults what to learn, but you have to facilitate their autonomous, self-directed learning.

Max van der Kamp became soon part of that international andragogy movement. But his position was also idiosyncratic to the extent that it did not just endorse this theoretical, sometimes even ideological position of andragogy. Max van der Kamp insisted that technical benchmarks were just as important, such as effectiveness of educational programs and appropriate use of new educational technologies. A good example of this position can be found in a chapter called *Effective Adult Learning* in a book he co-edited with Albert Tuijnman in 1992. The chapter combines most of Max's central themes. Firstly curricula in adult education should foster *active* processing of information. Secondly processing of information should be guided by possibilities for direct *application* of such information. Thirdly active and applied forms of learning can and must be supported by *computer-based* training, for instance through pre-programmed learning and simulation programs. Fourthly, computers particularly can support *open learning*, which means that is up to the learner to decide how, when, where and what (s)he wants to learn.

Another important piece of work is Max van der Kamp's research on motivation of adults to re-enter (or not) adult education. You find a brief and good overview of his work on this subject in the second edition of the International Encyclopedia of Adult Education and Training published in 1996. There he makes a crucial distinction between three important approaches to understand

motivation (sociological, psychological, economic) and for each he summarizes the most important theories. This may sound simple, but I can tell you I see more often biased than balanced presentations of adult education theory. Max was a real master in constructing such balanced overviews of research fields.

So far the international andragogy movement. But Max, and many other adult education researchers in the Netherlands stood also in a Dutch tradition of andragogy, which is much broader. I will return to that at the end of this chapter. First I have to spend some time on one of Max van der Kamp's favorite subjects, the education of adults over 45/50.

3.3 Education of older adults

While the innovation of formal education for adults stagnated at the end of the eighties, as sketched above, at the same time another development came to the fore that offered Max van der Kamp an alternative and unexpected opportunity to capitalize on his knowledge of the education and learning of adults. Not immediately recognized by politicians and managers in the world of formal education, in the eighties a dramatic need arose for non-formal education for older adults, that is adults older than 45/50. As said above, non-formal education does not lead to a legally recognized educational certificate. There were all sorts of reasons for this growth of *non*-formal education of older adults; firstly a growing number of older adults. Secondly many of them enjoyed early retirement, still in good health. Thirdly, many of these older adults saw in education a necessary or meaningful leisure activity. Van der Kamp's involvement with the education of adults started with a report of the 'state of the art' (Cramer & Van der Kamp, 1990).

But gradually Max van der Kamp built his own niche in this broader field of non-formal education for older adults. Soon he took some distance from the well-to-do and well-educated older adults, with their interest in education as leisure activity. Max referred to them often with a certain disdain as GRAMPIES: (Growing) Retired Active Monied Persons in an Excellent State (e.g. Van der Kamp, 1997).

Max understood soon that underneath there was a much more important problem, namely that almost half of the older adults lack sufficient basic education and therefore had serious problems to survive in a complex technological world. This hinders many of them to participate fully in society. Max van der Kamp was in a very good position to collect data on this phenomenon. He was for the Netherlands the 'scientific supervisor' for the International Adult Literacy Survey in 1994 (more than 3000 respondents, among them almost 1000 older adults). Moreover with an additional grant Max van der Kamp did 40 follow-up open interviews with Dutch older adults who performed poorly

on the literacy tests. Based on that, he described many *informal* ways of learning that these older adults applied. Informal refers here to learning outside either formal or non-formal education. Informal support took often the form of support of older adults by their acquaintances and family when it came down to understanding for instance manuals for new technology, official government forms, etc. (Van der Kamp & Veendrick, 1998).

Moreover, already in his 1990 book on the education of older adults Max van der Kamp made a strong case for the education of older employees. At that time he was still dependent on the figures from the research of Warmerdam et al. (1988) in six Dutch companies, which proved that employees beyond the age of 40 did participate less than their younger colleagues in all sorts of education and training. The International Adult Literacy Survey in 1994 delivered additional evidence that participation in adult education of employees decreases with age. Max van der Kamp emphasized that this low participation makes older employees vulnerable within their company and at the labor market in general (e.g. Van der Kamp, 2000).

3.4 Social learning

As said above, as a researcher of adult education Max van der Kamp positioned himself within the international paradigm of andragogy, which emphasizes the autonomous self-directed learning of adults. But Max van der Kamp stood also in a Dutch tradition of andragogy, which is much broader. This tradition refers to a broad range of social intervention techniques supporting adults, not just in adult education but also in social work, as well as organization and community development. To understand Max van de Kamp's position in this Dutch discussion of andragogy, I will conclude my contribution with a detailed description of a recent discussion about the Dutch andragogical tradition. It may look a trivial discussion at first glance, but deeper down it demonstrates clearly where Max goes his own path, different from some of his colleagues.

In the history of Dutch andragogy there have been many attempts to build overarching theoretical models for social interventions. In the nineties Danny Wildemeersch, a colleague of Max van der Kamp, undertook a new attempt for such an overarching theoretical model. Wildemeersch (1995) baptized his attempt as 'social learning'.

On the one hand this model of social learning tried to define a new sociological framework for social intervention techniques. Wildemeersch replaced older sociological notions of class struggle by Ulrich Beck's notion of post modern society as a risk society (Beck, 1986). Max van der Kamp (1997, 2003) agreed fully. For Max this meant that social interventions should be targeted on groups-at-risk. These groups-at-risk are not necessarily socially excluded

groups, but such groups have a high percentage of individuals that are as an individual at risk to become excluded. For instance older adults and older employees, as has been studied by Max, are as such not an excluded group, but there is a higher chance that some will become marginalized and excluded. Therefore education is needed.

But from this point on Wildemeersch and Van der Kamp seem to go different paths, at least in this discussion on social learning. Wildemeersch describes social learning as a group process. Social learning is the process in which communities and groups at-risk learn to organize themselves and to participate effectively in the public debate to clarify their risky societal position. The reaction of Max van der Kamp is cautious and subtle. He doesn't attack Wildemeersch's position straight-on. He doesn't say that social learning is not the business of an adult educator or that it is unrealistic or whatever. Max just ignores it. He sort of respects this social-political view of andragogy, but in his own work he sticks to a preference for support of individual learning and individual emancipation of people at-risk. For instance in a research report for the OECD on *Overcoming Exclusion through Adult Learning* (Van der Kamp & Pot, 1999) he focuses on educational projects that facilitate learning of individual people at-risk to find a personal way-out.

In another context, a discussion of the International Adult Literacy Survey mentioned above, Wildemeersch with others described Max van der Kamp's approach as 'neo-liberal'. Of course Max van der Kamp (Van Damme, Van der Kamp & Verhasselt, 2000) rejected in an answer this characterization of his work as neo-liberalism, and so do I. Instead I would characterize Max van der Kamp's position as closer to pedagogical-andragogical 'personalism' or as others call it 'humanism'. Personalism or humanism is a scientific paradigm in pedagogy-andragogy, that grounds its mission not in social-political visions, but in a personal ethics of caring for individuals at-risk (Levinas, 1985; Jarvis, 1997). Max was surely not a naïve supporter of personalism, but at the end that seems the mission that motivated him. To say it bluntly, he wasn't an outspoken political philosopher, but he was deeply committed to care and responsibility for those individuals who need adult education most.

3.5

Conclusion

This leads to a final conclusion. Max was not only in his research and his publications driven by personal ethics. The same dominant motivation was characteristic for his daily work, in his role as a colleague and a teacher. Max van der Kamp was a competent builder of networks of colleagues and an excellent team worker too. He enjoyed to work with others. There was literally always an open door for discussions on new research initiatives. Many of his publications also were co-productions with colleagues and students.

Max will live forth through both his publications and his relations with colleagues and students. For a broader circle of colleagues his publications probably will be the most important thing, but for those who knew him personally, he is, I guess, in the first place a model how to sustain effective and friendly working relations in a university context that is often so competitive and hostile. More than anything else he showed us how to be a good teacher and a loyal researcher.

Thank you Max, we will miss you, we will remember you, we will continue your mission.

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From left to right: Arlindo Siteo, Orleando Quilambo (vice-rector at the Eduardo Mondlane University, Maputo, Mozambique) and Max van der Kamp.

Foto: Michel de Groot, *Broerstraat 5*, nr. 1, april 2007.

4

International co-operation: Current challenges and opportunities to North-South inter-university co-operation

Arlindo A. Siteo

Knowledge driven development is an established fact. Competitive advantages are held by those societies with a sound 'knowledge industry.' As development appears to become a human rights issue, international solidarity has been called to increase attention and support to education at all levels, towards creating capacity and, thenceforth, empower less advantaged countries to take a share in the 'knowledge society.' The assumption has been that if integral development is to be promoted worldwide, thence knowledge production and knowledge sharing has to take place worldwide. To that end, it is imperative to strengthen and smooth North-South academic solidarity.

This article reviews the main economic development paradigms and argues for the relevance of education in development. It also addresses the role and the dilemmas of African universities, as well as the helpfulness of inter-university North-South co-operation. Current challenges and opportunities to North-South inter-university co-operation are addressed and the collaborative programmes between the University of Groningen (RuG), in The Netherlands, and two universities in Southern Africa, namely the University of Limpopo, in South Africa, and the Eduardo Mondlane University, in Mozambique are reviewed as 'good practice' in North-South inter-university co-operation

The article is a humble homage to the late Professor Max van der Kamp, who spent many years of his intense and multifaceted academic career at the forefront of North/South inter-university cooperation, specifically linking the Institute of Adult Education and Social Intervention of the University of Groningen to poor and unprivileged universities in Southern Africa. Thus, the article closes by suggesting a way forward that ought to stem from the already existing strengths and synergies. As far as the Eduardo Mondlane University (Mozambique) and the University of Limpopo (South Africa) are concerned, part of their strengths synergies are a parcel of Professor Max van der Kamp's legacy.

4.1

On international co-operation and development

'International co-operation' and 'development' share a resonance of being relatively recent terms in mankind's vocabulary. In particular, for us, in the South, these terms appear to encapsulate two interesting and important realities that would be unthinkable in Sub-Saharan Africa by the middle of last century. Firstly, these terms embed an established universal acknowledgment of the fact that what was once labelled as 'the overseas lands' of this or that colonial

power are, at last, sovereign nations with their own status within the international community. Their respective people have come to be recognised as having their own identity, and not as amorphous ‘indigenous inhabitants’, inadvertently ‘discovered’ some centuries ago in the course of the colonial discoveries. Secondly, those terms testify the recognition of the fact that the world has remained unfairly and regrettably unequal. This state of the arts seems to have elicited moral awareness to the need to promote and sustain basic welfare to the dwellers of the unprivileged part of the world. Due, perhaps, to this later aspect, talking about international co-operation and development is quite often (mis)understood as just implying channelling financial support and technical assistance from the industrialised countries to the so-called developing ones. In the forthcoming section two approaches to development are reviewed, as to set the tone of my main argument, which is about the features and challenges of international co-operation and, more specifically, of North-South inter-university co-operation for the 21st century.

4.2 On approaches to development

By the 80’s of last century *development* was mostly perceived in quantitative terms. Under this approach, a country’s development is centred on economic growth, measured in terms of Gross National Product (GNP) and per capita income. Furthermore, development tends to be associated to ‘modernisation’, manifest through the provision of infrastructures and utilities. This view of development has been under criticism since it became apparent that GNP and per capita income growth do not necessarily bring about poverty alleviation; neither a decline of illiteracy and unemployment rates, nor a reduction of inequalities between social strata in a given society (Seers, cited in UNDP, 2000, p. 8). As a result of the ‘anti-Growth’ critique, a new approach to national development has emerged. Without neglecting the importance of economic growth, the new approach to development - also known as ‘qualitative’ is rather wide. According to Amartya Sen, one of the key representatives of this approach, development is, above all, freedom, as it implies reducing deprivation and broadening choices. The use of the term deprivation is predicated on the belief that it characterises better the multidimensional nature of poverty, which encompasses poor housing, endemic illnesses and poor health, shortage of food, illiteracy, powerlessness, voicelessness and social exclusion (Sen, cited in Nafziger, 2005, p. 1). Noticeably, Sen’s approach to development is concerned with the person, the one who should, ultimately, benefit from all development endeavours. One eminent African scholar, Professor Souleymane Niang, once subscribed to this approach in the following terms:

“Indeed, for us Negro Africans, the issue is development. In other words, an improved quality of life in a physical and cultural environment in full bloom and connected to democratic areas congenial to freedom and soli-

parity and, again, where man retains a central position.” (Niang, 1998, p. 2)

Along the same line of argument, Indabawa and Mpofu (2006) stress that the qualitative approach to development presupposes empowering people so that they can promote improvements and change. That is, “equipping them with the skills, knowledge and attitudes necessary to conceive, plan, design and implement their own self-development” (Indabawa & Mpofu, op. cit., p. 8). These African scholars add that such a (qualitative) conception of development subsumes internal transformation through changes in personal and societal consciousness, as posited by Julius Nyerere and Paulo Freire (Indabawa and Mpofu, op. cit., p. 9). The underlying argument is that education is a critical factor, not only for economic development but also, and above all, for the building and rising of the sense of self-responsibility and ownership, as well as for the enhancement of a critical attitude towards that development.

The paradigm shift from the quantitative to the qualitative approach to development is not yet a completely settled matter, as some conceptual issues around the meaning of development appear to remain open. Nevertheless, it seems that there has been a consensus on that a nation’s development cannot be reduced to economic growth. A corollary of this line of reasoning is the adoption of the nowadays widely echoed concept of *Human Development*. The opening statement of the first Global Human Development Report, issued in 1990, could not be much telling. It asserts that “the true wealth of a nation is its people ... the objective of development is the creation of an environment which allows people to benefit from a long, healthy and creative life” (UNDP, 1990, p. 1). Development is there defined as ‘the process of enlarging people’s choices.’ In view of the fact that people’s choices are dynamic and rather unconstrained, the choices regarded as the key indicators of human development are those subsumed in the notion of humanness. These are: decent housing, food, freedom, education and long and healthy lives. In sum, these are the choices to which all human beings aspire. Thenceforth, they are deemed the basic ones. Without them other choices equally important, such as self-esteem, social and cultural affiliation, and opportunities for being creative and productive cannot be pursued. On this regard it is noteworthy that life expectancy and educational attainment have been added to real income to form the key components of the Human Development Index, the instrument used to measure human development worldwide.

The foregoing discussion is meant to highlight that a more encompassing and meaningful view of national development is the one that takes education into account, for, at least, two fundamental reasons. One of the reasons has been spelt out by Mário and Nandja in the following terms:

“Education, combined with sound macroeconomic policies, is considered a key factor in promoting social well-being and in poverty reduction because it can have a positive impact on national productivity and, hence, shape life styles and the ability of nations to compete in the global economy [...] Education is one of the pillars of national development and global poverty will not decline unless everyone everywhere can enjoy the benefits of quality basic education.” (Mário & Nandja, 2005, p. 6)

Another reason is intrinsic to the realm of true and meaningful education. In point of fact, education prepares and facilitates people to make their own choices, conscientiously. Taking into account that the actual context of most ‘developing’ countries is characterised by high illiteracy rates, low basic education enrolment indexes, scarcity of qualified manpower and feeble democratization, it becomes understandable that, in those countries, the educational component embedded in the concept of development should strongly consider literacy and adult education. Astoundingly, despite that state of the arts, adult literacy seems to have been excluded from the UN ‘Millennium Development Goals’ (MDG). Perhaps as a consequence of that, even countries with high illiteracy rates, as it is the case of Mozambique¹, appear not to have included adult literacy in their ‘MDG Action Plans’ (Mário & Nandja, op. cit, p. 4).

4.3 On the mission of African universities

I feel rather uneasy with the title of this section. It brings to my mind the always disconcerting question: “What makes a university in Africa African?” It appears that an acceptable and clear-cut answer to that question remains to be found. To illustrate the foregoing, let me share with you the following provocative statement once made by Prof. Donald Ekong, then Secretary General of the Association for African Universities, when addressing participants to an International Conference entitled ‘New Approaches in University Staff Development’, held in German in December 1987:

“[...] There is no such thing as an African university; instead, it would be accurate to speak of universities in Africa. Through their history universities in Africa share the same heritage with European universities [...] Universities in Africa are built on the same model and subscribe to the same academic tradition as their European examples. They are centres of learning and research guided by the intrinsic wisdom of the sciences and arts.” (Ekong, cited in Rottenburg, 1987, pp. 66-67)

1 In 2005 the illiteracy rate in Mozambique was 53.6% (INE, 2004, cited in Mário & Nandja, 2005).

In 1972, fifteen years before Ekong's statement, representatives of most African universities had assembled in a workshop titled 'Creating the African University'.² Organised by the umbrella organization - the Association of African Universities, the workshop was to address the 'identity crisis' of the African universities. Reportedly, no consensus was achieved regarding the concept of an 'African university'. However, consensual guidelines were issued regarding the role that an African university (or an university in Africa?!) should play. Those guidelines are:

- a *the pursuit and dissemination of knowledge* which must be locally motivated and oriented;
- b *research*, fundamental and applied, priority being given to local problems to ameliorate the life of the ordinary person and especially the rural population;
- c *provision of intellectual leadership* to the population as well as to governments, industry and commerce especially in preparing and executing plans for economic and social development;
- d *manpower development* shifting its emphasis from academic to the professional and practical and participating in the planning, organization curriculum development and superintendence of institutions for training middle level manpower;
- e *promoting social and economic modernization* through extension services to the small-scale entrepreneur, artisan and farmer, and itself setting an example in social cohesion and establishment and operation of democratic institutions;
- f *promoting inter-continental unity and international understanding*, especially through its research and dissemination of knowledge contributing to the emancipation of the African continent from ignorance, and to the breakdown of barriers of artificial isolation imposed by colonialism as well as the natural barriers of language and cultural separation; also identifying with and promoting the ideals of the Organization of African Unity for continental rapprochement and international understanding. (Ekong, cited in Rottenburg, 1987, pp. 54-55).

In all, what emerges from the above listed guidelines is the view that a university in Africa is perceived as a privileged agent of national development, once it is the place where knowledge and skills badly needed for development are elaborated, transmitted and developed. Consequently, universities in Africa have always been heavily pressurised to be development-oriented institutions. On those grounds, at the core of mission statements of almost all Sub-Sahara African universities, one finds explicitly ascribed the institution's responsibility in the training of knowledgeable and skilled manpower that will purportedly contribute to community and national development. That poses to African

2 This workshop was held in Accra, Ghana, in 1972.

universities the recurrent awkward challenge of meeting the complex and overwhelming needs of their respective countries, while maintaining their classic status of centres of academic excellence.

4.4 On inter-university for co-operation for development

Inter-university co-operation is a specific facet of international co-operation, through which the key players, e.g. the universities, exchange knowledge, scholars and students, as well as experiences on essential university matters, such as curricula, research and extension, teaching and staff development, and university governance and management.

Inter-university co-operation in the 'North', that is, academic co-operation amongst universities in industrialised countries, has been a well established fact for centuries. Thanks to strong and sustained scientific networks, 'North-North' co-operation has been continually strengthened through knowledge production and its application in leading technologies. The revolution in the sharing of knowledge and the subsequent 'knowledge explosion' have turned universities and other research institutes into what Professor Husén had anticipated as the 'knowledge industry'. In its turn, this 'industry' has stimulated the emergence of the so-called 'the learning society' (Husén, 1974).

Conversely, inter-university co-operation in the 'South,' that is, South-South inter-university co-operation on academic matters has remained rather tenuous. The still weak academic leadership and the scarcity of facilities, mainly finances, to support that interaction have been voiced as the main reasons behind the feeble South-South co-operation. Nevertheless, it should be admitted that, in some cases, South-South co-operation is also hampered just because of the lack of vision and clear determination to search for and make use of the locally existing academic capacity and synergies. Due to that prevailing situation, universities in Africa have remained, to a great extent, intellectually, technologically and financially dependent on the 'North', just as their respective countries' economies. Consequently, real inter-university co-operation in the South has almost remained at the rhetoric level. North-South inter-university co-operation is still the dominant stream of academic solidarity, as far as African universities are concerned.

Paradigm shift in inter-university co-operation

At the outset of this paper I did address the paradigm shift, from a quantitative to a qualitative approach that has taken place regarding the concept of development. The repercussions of that approach shift in the conception and implementation of 'North-South' co-operation for economic development were also reviewed. Likewise, in scientific co-operation, more specifically in inter-university co-operation, there has been a shift from a mere 'donor-recipient flow' approach to a 'capacity building' approach. By the 80's, support from industrialised countries to African universities would mostly come in the form

of 'technical assistance' (deployment of staff to teach in African universities), and/or in influx of earmarked funds for a specific topical purpose (e.g. purchase of equipment and consumables for the running of research projects), or even in terms of scholarships for post-degree training in universities in the 'North.' It is never overstated to note that, not seldom, expatriate personnel lecturing in African universities under the 'technical assistance' component of co-operation have no formal links with a university in their home countries. Furthermore, it should be added that under this approach, donors (governments or specialised funding agencies - until recently known as 'Donors to African Education'/DAE) are the key role players in that kind of co-operation. On the recipient side, the governments (finance ministries) are the opposite counterparts.

On the grounds that the rates of social returns of investment in basic education were far higher than those in higher education, donors disinvested quite dramatically from the higher education sector in Africa as from the 80's to early 90's of last century. The consequence was the near collapse of higher education systems in many Sub-Saharan African countries (Matos, 1998, p. 36).

Following that period of crisis, support to higher education has been mostly provided under a new approach, whereby capacity development (or capacity building) is the focus and the major concern. Such approach calls for a more institutionalised co-operation, where the co-operating universities are the relevant role players, allowing them to, jointly, perform needs analyses, prepare their collaborative projects, and approach funding agencies. Reawakened to the need to, once again, pay the necessary attention to higher education in Africa, the formerly known as 'Donors to African Education' have come under an Association known as 'Association for the Development of Education in Africa' (ADEA) and, ultimately, are part of the 'Working Group on Higher Education in Africa' (WGHE). This is one of the ADEA working groups and it has been defined as an "informal network to strengthen collaboration among African governments, development partners and tertiary education institutions to improve the effectiveness of development assistance and more broadly, to support the revitalization of African universities, polytechnics and teacher training colleges."³

By and large, apart from acknowledging the weight and impact of capacity development, the new approach in North-South inter-university co-operation has allowed the sharing of experiences as well as some consensus among participating universities, development agencies, and governments on important aspects, such as priorities and modalities for funding. The voice of the participant universities in the 'South' - the ultimate beneficiaries of that co-operation,

3 Background information on the Working Group on Higher Education in Africa. In Home page of the Association of African Universities (<http://www.aau.org/wghe/index.htm>). Retrieved 26.10.07

are made heard in that forum. Government policies on both sides are important, of course, but, under this approach, those policies are supposed to support and facilitate partner institutions involved in inter-university co-operation achieve their goals. Specifically on funding, major donor agencies have shifted from topical to programme funding in their support to higher education in Africa. Thus, programme grants are subdivided into three main parts: grants for the participating institution(s) (universities) in the 'North'; grants for the participating university (or universities) in the 'South', and individual grants (e.g. scholarships or research-training grants).

4.5 Features and challenges of academic international co-operation

Features

What is to be underscored from the foregoing discussion is that the most important feature of the capacity building approach to 'North-South' inter-university co-operation is that of striving to establish and consolidate factors of sustainability within the 'recipient' university. Three main factors of sustainability can be identified, namely (i) qualified academic staff; (ii) research and teaching facilities, and (iii) management skills. Qualified academic staff, the key and foremost factor of sustainability is, to a large extent, dependent upon the other two factors, since qualified academic staff is attainable through post-degree training, appropriate and stimulating academic environment (through the provision of basic teaching and research equipment), and through acquiring sound academic management skills. In all, that capacity building endeavour is pursued through specific programmes. The key players of that co-operation are the academic partner institutions themselves rather than the governments of funding agencies.

Speaking at a Seminar entitled 'Towards strong universities in Africa', held at the University of Groningen in 1998, Professor Narciso Matos, former Rector of the Eduardo Mondlane University and, at the time, Secretary General of the Association of African Universities, observed that each co-operating partnership between universities is unique on its origins, goals and objectives. In so saying, he acknowledged that it is impossible to establish universally applicable rules when it comes to inter-university co-operation. Nevertheless, based on the outcomes of shared experiences on inter-university collaboration, he pointed at what he called the main 'ingredients' that appear to have been found helpful in guiding cooperating universities achieve good results. According to Professor Matos (Matos, 2000, pp. 34-36), those 'ingredients' are:

- 1 *joint preparation of co-operation project proposals*, as to ensure relevance of the projects, as well as mutual responsibility and mutual sense of ownership;

- 2 *inclusion and focus on capacity building*, to guarantee sustainability;
- 3 *income supplementation*, to ensure commitment of those involved;
- 4 *improved channels of communication*, to easy and speed-up contacts, and
- 5 *regular meetings*, to assess progress and plan future activities.

Challenges

In the hope that I am not over-interpreting Professor Matos, I shall build on the above ‘ingredients,’ purportedly necessary for a fruitful inter-university co-operation, to discuss some challenges to academic international co-operation for the 21st century. For obvious reasons, my point of reference will be the North-South inter-university co-operation.

Challenges to joint preparation of co-operation proposals

Rather than topical projects, programme-based proposals have proved to be more appropriate in inter-university collaboration concerned with promoting sustainability within institutions in the ‘South’. Experience shows that coherent and relevant programmes are those preceded by sound needs analysis. The first challenge here is to involve the collaborating universities right from the needs analysis stage, then to the phase of drafting and submitting the actual co-operation proposals and, finally, in the implementation stage, as to ensure a comprehensive understanding of the collaborative programmes under consideration. In turn, that procedure is more likely to ensure more responsibility, accountability and ownership of the programmes on both sides. The second and perhaps more sensitive challenge to joint preparation (and running) of North-South co-operation programme proposals has to do with handling cultural differences. Individual actors in North-South come from different cultural backgrounds, as different are the organisational cultures of the collaborating institutions. Therefore, a mutual knowledge of the values, beliefs and norms of the parts involved (individuals as well as institutions) is fundamental for the success of North-South collaborative programmes. As someone has put it with a gracious sense of humour, “before the start of an international collaborative project, management staff with different cultural backgrounds should participate jointly in ‘cultural therapy sessions’” (Kouwenhoven, 2003: Stellingen behorende bij het proefschrift Nr 6/Thesis defence statement No. 6).

Challenges to capacity building

Capacity building should be the ultimate end of North-South collaborative projects. Therefore, the foundational challenge to capacity building is to be traced to the stage of programme design. That is to say that one has to ensure that collaborative programmes are built on and around the concern of developing academic capacity in the ‘recipient’ institution. Then, along programme implementation, one has to monitor and make sure that the necessary and planned activities towards capacity building are actually being undertaken. The second major challenge to capacity building has to do with the expertise and human qualities of the expatriate academic staff involved in collaborative

programmes. This challenge is even greater when it comes to send staff for long-term contracts in the 'South.' For various reasons, quite often, universities in the 'North' find it difficult to release their senior scholars to long-term missions elsewhere. The recourse has been to send junior lecturers or research assistants, sometimes without proper backstopping or supervision. Sometimes the way out has been to co-opt and deploy to the 'South' candidates from outside the rankings of the institution in the 'North', with obvious consequences in terms of responsibility and accountability.

Capacity building in terms of human resources implies a strong training component. This can only be made possible if the recipient institution in the 'South' assigns prepared and motivated staff to work with and learn from their counterparts from the 'North', or to embark on formal post-graduate training, preferably on a 'sandwich' basis. Parallel to that challenge is that of retaining within the institution (in the 'South') the local staff, after they have completed their training. As a matter of fact, staff turnover and/or staff involvement in additional paid jobs elsewhere have become major issues within universities in the 'South', due to contextual problems, mainly low salaries and the lack of other incentives (e.g. clear and attractive academic careers, housing schemes).

Challenges to income supplementation

On the one hand, for reasons attached to their economies, local governments are constrained to increase salaries in public institutions, including public universities. On the other hand, for policy reasons, donor agencies have remained reluctant to call to themselves the responsibility of topping-up incomes of the local staff involved in collaborative programmes with partner institutions in the 'North'. To find a way out of this dilemma, African universities have been challenged to become a sort of entrepreneurs, that is, to make an institutional use of their potential in order to generate income, which could then be used to top-up salaries. Most institutions do not find themselves prepared for that, as they find themselves still in need of building and strengthening their capacity. The vicious circle seems to go unbroken and the low salaries issue remains a cumbersome challenge to universities' stability and capacity building in Sub-Saharan African universities. Perhaps this is a kind of issue to be recurrently endorsed for the agenda of the WGHE meetings.

Challenges to improved channels of communication and to regular meetings

This challenge has much to do with the improvement of the organisational culture on both sides than with the availability of technical means (ICT) that facilitate and speed up communication. In other words, the challenge is levelled towards a less rigid (and less vertical) organization, vis-a-vis flexible bureaucratic procedures, specifically on matters pertaining collaborative programmes. Thus, in the designing of collaborative programme, clear and flexible channels of communication at the various levels should be considered. More formal meetings should also be scheduled and their purposes made clear beforehand.

To the above discussed challenges, build upon the ‘ingredients’ for a fruitful North-South inter-university co-operation put forth by Matos (op. cit., pp. 34-36), I wish to add three challenging areas that seem to be equally relevant. These are: democratisation and good governance, strategic planning and intervention.

Challenges for democratisation and good governance

Collaborative programmes are complex and sensitive matters, as they involve people from different institutions and traditions. Furthermore, they involve the handling of funds. Transparency, accountability and inclusion are vital assets, from stakeholders and from all individuals involved, in view of creating a climate of shared responsibility and mutual trust. Discussing openly these issues should not be seen as a taboo within the framework of North-South inter-university co-operation.

Challenges towards strategic planning

A strategic plan can be defined as:

“[...] a continuous and systematic process, by which decisions are made about what one wants the future to be, how to achieve it, and how to evaluate its success. The process does not end with the decisions, but includes operational plans. It is a global plan, not limited to highlighting a few functional units. It defines the relationships between the institution and its external environment. This process necessarily requires the involvement of the whole university community.” (UEM, 1998, p. 9)

Strategic planning becomes even more important to universities in Sub-Saharan Africa when one takes into account that these institutions are normally overwhelmed by all kinds of pressure to become development agents. In order to accommodate that pressure and yet not overlook their missions as centres of academic excellence, African universities have been strongly advised to consider strategic planning as an essential step in the shaping of their future. Considering the vital role of North-South inter-university co-operation for the universities in Sub-Saharan Africa, whenever possible and feasible, partner institutions in the ‘North’ should be invited into consultative meetings towards the designing of strategic plans. Furthermore, collaborative inter-university programmes inspired on institutions’ strategic plans are more likely to be easily assumed both internally (within the institution and the country) and externally (by the collaborating academic partners and by the funding agencies).

Challenge for interventions

Development is inextricably related to intervention. Thus, the assumption that universities in Sub-Saharan Africa are to take active part on their respective countries’ economic development implies that the outputs of those universities - including those resulting from collaborative programmes with the ‘North’,

are to be put into operation in the real context, whenever possible. This is to say that inter-university collaborative programmes are challenged to turn into interventions programmes, so to be useful beyond the academic environment.

4.6 **Hands-On cooperating for development: Lessons learned from RuG co-operation with universities in Southern Africa**

Speaking at the international seminar *Lifelong Learning in Southern Africa: research, policies and co-operation*, held in Groningen in December 2001, Professor Max van der Kamp made the following simple, yet thoughtful observation: “*Nothing beyond Groningen!*” is the slogan used by policymakers and tourist agencies in the city of Groningen. This slogan, however, is not valid for students and teachers of the Universities of Groningen (Van der Kamp, 2004, p. 8).

Professor Max’s statement is blunt as to the fact that, while “working at the frontiers of knowledge,” the University of Groningen does share its knowledge and expertise beyond the frontiers of Groningen. The question then would arise as to know how far the University of Groningen has taken its knowledge and expertise in order to share it with others. A good answer would be: “RUG has worked in ‘intriguing countries’ and even in ‘the middle of nowhere!’”

“Intriguing country” is how one of Max’s Master students typified the country named Mozambique, after spending six months there collecting data for her dissertation and also helping in the needs analysis that was underway at that time, towards the development of a Master’s programme in Adult Education at the Faculty of Education.

“The middle of nowhere” is an ironic and concise description of the place - Turfloop, where the University of Limpopo (formerly University of the North) in South Africa is located. This description was given by another student of Professor Max van der Kamp, after spending some months in Turfloop, with similar purpose of the other student that had paid a study visit to Mozambique. Briefly, I will now characterise and give a background of both the Eduardo Mondlane University (Mozambique) and the University of Limpopo (South Africa), so that the quotes above can be properly contextualised and understood.

When RUG-UEM co-operation started in the late 80’s, Mozambique was immersed in a cruel ‘civil’ war of destabilization backed-up by the apartheid regime in South Africa. As a result of the devastated economy, Mozambique was ranked at the bottom of the 10 poorest countries in the world. The UEM was in a desperate endeavour of providing pedagogical training to its lecturers, the majority of whom were relatively young in age and at the beginning of their academic careers. As part of the renown experience of Dutch universities in

creating Centres for Educational Research and Development, started from the late sixties (Van Hout, cited in Rottenburg, 1987, p. 24), the University of Groningen became the UEM partner in that endeavour. Thus, in 1989, STADEP (Staff Development Programme) was launched at the UEM. As a successful long term collaborative programme, STADEP evolved into an Academic Development Centre, which is currently a Department within the Faculty of Education. It should also be mentioned and emphasised that for the reopening of that Faculty, in 2001, RUG provided a vital input and support, specifically regarding the development and running of a Masters programme in Adult Education.

In the framework of its 'separate development' policy, the Apartheid regime of South Africa had established the University of the North "to cater for the products of Bantu Education from three homelands: Lebowa, Venda and Gazankulu" (Rampedi, 2003, p. 3). Those three homelands were merged after the end of Apartheid into the now Limpopo Province, which is the poorest one in South Africa. It has the lowest per capita income and the highest illiteracy rate (36%) (Rampedi, op. cit., p. 9). That gloomy background, instead of frightening, it seems to have stimulated the interest of the University of Groningen, in particular of Professor Max van der Kamp and its colleagues, to help that historically disadvantaged university establish and run an Adult Education unit. Currently, that is a well established and reasonably resourced unity and it is under the leadership of a former PhD student of Professor Max van der Kamp, which testifies to the successfulness of RUG's intervention "in the middle of nowhere."

The above quoted views about Mozambique ("intriguing country") and about South Africa, more specifically the region where the University of Limpopo is located ("the middle of nowhere") by Dutch students, bear out that Professor van der Kamp was daring and determined enough to share his expertise (and that of his colleagues) where that expertise was mostly needed, and not just in comfortable meeting rooms of UNESCO or OECD, where he was a renown consultant. Joint preparation of co-operation programme proposals and progress reports, inclusion and focus on capacity building, with a strong and sound staff training component, and regular consultative meetings were the hallmark 'ingredients' of the collaborative programmes undertaken in South Africa and in Mozambique under the academic guidance of Professor Max van der Kamp. Having said all that, one should not jump into deducing that the running of those programmes was without hiccups. As a matter of fact, some of the challenges discussed earlier had to be faced and overcome in order to take inter-university co-operation to a good end. Overcoming those challenges become possible on account of the understanding that "the co-operation is a mutual learning process in itself," and that "North-South co-operation is a continuous dialogue" (Van der Kamp, 2004, p. 16). These two aspects represent, in my view, the gist of the legacy of Professor Max van der Kamp's wise

and charismatic leadership of RUG collaborative programmes with the ‘South’, specifically with South Africa and Mozambique.

4.7 The way forward

I sustain that the way forward towards a more fruitful and sustainable academic international co-operation in the 21st century is twofold. On the one path, certainly and unavoidably, the way forward is about undertaking appropriate actions to tackle and overcome the above discussed challenges. That implies a continued and strengthened understanding and trust within inter-university collaborative programmes. However, while there are many challenges, there are also strengths that, definitely, need to be identified and properly exploited. That represents the other path of our twofold way forward.

As a result of the ongoing North-South inter-university collaboration and capacity building initiatives, in general, there is a growing ‘critical mass’ (scholars) in Sub-Saharan Africa universities. These represent one of the major strengths of those institutions. Apart from salaries and other incentives, these scholars need a kind of intellectual challenge. That can be done in different ways, such as involving them in local co-supervision of collaborative projects; their backed-up integration in scientific networks (including involvement in lecturers exchange programmes) both regionally and internationally. The foregoing is of paramount relevance taking into account the advent of regional integration in Africa. Another strength to be included in that second path of our twofold way forward is the use of the expertise and synergies made available as a result of the involvement of different universities from the ‘North’ in collaborative programmes with their peers in the ‘South.’ Specifically, it should be made possible to create consortiums of universities in the ‘North’ working with the same counterpart or a consortium of counterparts in the ‘South.’

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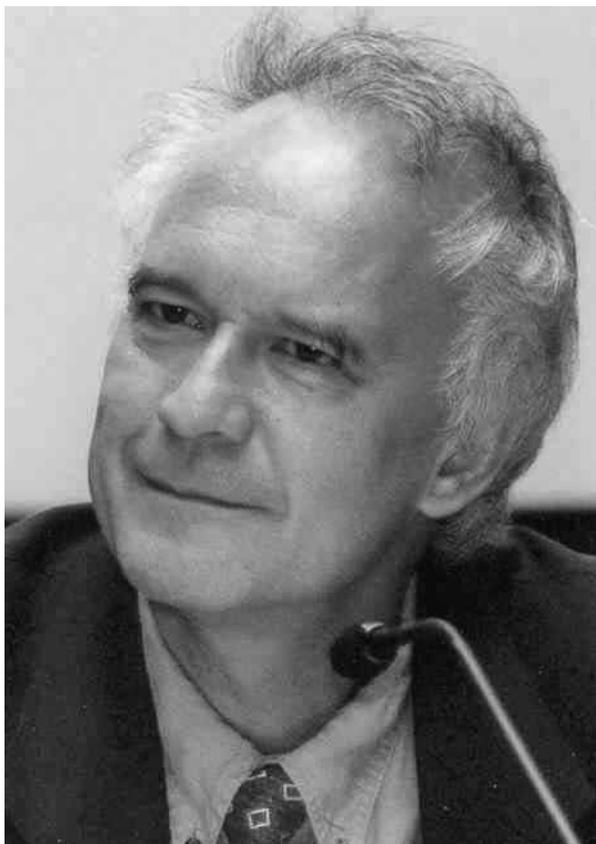
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List of abbreviations used

ADEA	Association for the Development of Education in Africa
APEL	Accreditation of Prior and Experiential Learning
CDS	Centre for Development Studies
CEDEFOP	European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training
COVAM	Centraal Orgaan voor Audiovisuele Media
DAE	Donors to African Education
EC	European Commission
EULLearN	European University Lifelong Learning Network
EVC	Eerder verworven comptenties
GION	Gronings Instituut voor Onderzoek van Onderwijs
GNP	Gross National Product (bruto nationaal product)
GRAMPIES	(Growing) Retired Active Monied Persons in an Excellent State
Havo	Hoger algemeen voortgezet onderwijs (Non-university Preparatory Education)
IALS	International Adult Literacy Survey
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IIEP	Centre for Training and Research, specialised in educational planning and management
ISO	Interdepartementale Stuurgroep Oudereneducatie (Inter- departemental Steering Committee Education for Older Adults)
Mavo	Middelbaar algemeen voortgezet onderwijs (Non-university Preparatory Education)
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MGK bve	Max Goote Kenniscentrum voor beroepsonderwijs en vol- wasseneneducatie (Max Goote Expertisecentre for Vocational Education and Adult Education)
NCVER	National Centre for Vocational Education Research in Australia
NIACE	National Institute of Adult Continuing Education
NQF	National Qualification Framework
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OGGZ	Openbare Geestelijke Gezondheidszorg
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
ROC	Regionaal opleidingscentrum (Regional Educational Centre)
RPL	Recognition of Prior Learning
RUG	Rijksuniversiteit Groningen (University of Groningen)
SVO	Instituut voor Onderzoek van het Onderwijs
STADEP	Staff Development Programme
TELEAC	Educatieve Omroep (Educational Broadcasting Corporation)
UEM	Eduardo Mondlane University
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

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USA	United States of America
Vwo	Vorbereidend wetenschappelijk onderwijs (Pre-university Level Education)
WGHE	Working Group on Higher Education in Africa