Public Higher Education Institutions in Indonesia: A Paradox of Autonomy?

Master’s Thesis
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When you really want something,
All the universe conspires in helping you to achieve it.

- Paulo Coelho - *The Alchemist*
Abstract
Institutional autonomy without a doubt is one of the most significant attempts to reform the higher education system. In Indonesia, it became a controversial issue as major initiatives in the last two decades have been revolving around increasing institutional autonomy in higher education sector. The purpose of this study is to investigate the real degree of institutional autonomy in Indonesia, concentrating on three models of public higher education institutions: State-Owned Legal Entity (autonomous university), Public Service Institution, and Public Government Institution. An analytical framework is adapted from the European University Association’s dimensions of autonomy. The research method consisted of a wide review of relevant literature on institutional autonomy, coupled with the data collection and analysis of empirical data. The latter is based on a semi-structured interview with selected groups of policy makers, higher education experts and academics. The findings from this study provide the evidence that public higher education in Indonesia still struggling with autonomy. The main conclusion to be drawn from this study is that the real degree of institutional autonomy in Indonesia is generally low. Finally, recommendation for policy makers are provided in the form of strategy plan to help increasing the institutional autonomy in Indonesian higher education.

Keywords: institutional autonomy, organizational autonomy, financial autonomy, staffing autonomy, academic autonomy, public higher education institutions, legal entity, autonomous university, SOLE HEIs, PSIs, PGIs, case study, Indonesia
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Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1. Background

Institutional autonomy, without a doubt, is one of the most significant attempts to reform the higher education system. According to CHEPS report (2008), overall institutional autonomy has changes and grown in almost all countries. The only differences were their starting point and the degree of such changes in each countries. In Indonesia, major changes happened at the system level governance, where the relationship between the state and higher education institution is transformed. The reason behind this reform can be observed from several angles. Firstly, finance-driven. The economic crisis that stroked Indonesia in the 1990s has been causing a serious problems, as government trapped on a huge public debt to meet the increasing financial burden of social benefit (Amaral, Tavares & Santos, 2012). Higher education institutions had to compete with other social sectors, such as: primary education, health, and poverty (Nizam, 2006; UNESCO, 2006). It was difficult for higher education at that time, because government still struggled to achieve the nine years compulsory education goal. As a result, some public universities in Indonesia became resource-starved and were on the brink of collapse (Varghese, 2009). Consequently, higher education institutions were forced to reform in order to be able to manage the resources efficiently.

Secondly, there was a political changes. Thirty two years suppression under the authoritarian regime finally taken its toll at the end of 1990s. It started with a massive chaos and demonstration, where people went to the street and demanded a reformation at public sectors. The political situation was becoming more volatile. It forced the termination of the authoritarian New Order regime and the impetus of public sector reform towards the market economies. The shift from a ‘centrally-planned to a market-based system’ (UNESCO, 2009) changed the overall governance landscape, affecting various sectors, including higher education sector. As a consequence, the ideological shift towards the market led higher education institutions to be able to promote themselves and ‘sell’ their services to various market (De Boer et al., 2007).

Thirdly, external pressure. Governance reforms in Indonesia was strongly encouraged by international agencies. Indeed, Indonesia acquired a substantial financial support from the IMF and World Bank, thus, in need to comply with the prerequisite of structural adjustments from
them (Koning & Maassen, 2012, p. 57). It includes decentralization, privatization of public institutions and transparency of public sector activities to enhance the quality of governance. As a matter of fact, Bjork (as cited in Koning & Maassen, 2012) argues that the pressure in Asian countries to decentralize was so intense that government that did not embrace decentralization risked losing legitimacy in international circles (p.56). Therefore, it was inevitable for Indonesia to avoid the reform in public sectors.

Lastly, the need to improve quality of higher education and to enhance economic competitiveness (Varghese, 2009). As many authors (Brodjonegoro, 2002; UNESCO, 2006) emphasize, higher education play a crucial role for the country’s survival and competitiveness within the world economy. Global competitiveness and local relevance will require an effective and functioning higher education system. However, centralized system and the existence of excessive bureaucracy regulations in the past has weakened the efficiency of higher education institutions (HEIs). Imagine, Indonesia is a huge country with a tremendous numbers of HEIs that scattered around thousands of islands, it is almost impossible to control everything from the central. Consequently, HEIs became unable to adapt to challenges and less responsive to the changes and the needs of various users. Hence, higher education reform is crucial. As Middlehurst & Teixeira (2012) claim, it is necessary for the university governance to have a degree of separation and independence (institutional autonomy) from the central government in order to be more efficient, responsive and adaptive to the current challenges and the society’s needs.

Subsequently, the phrase ‘Less government and more governance’ (Van Vught, 2009; De Boer et al., 2007) has become the forefront and common notion and it changes the way higher education is governed. In Indonesia, the government decrease their role and started to decentralize their decision-making power to ensure the efficiency in higher education, borrowing the new public management (NPM) approach as a ‘model of efficiency’ (Rajiani & Jumbri, 2011; Hood, 1991). The emphasize of this approach is on corporate values and managerial structures of governance (Middlehurst & Teixeira, 2012; Eurydice, 2008), in which HEIs should be managed in a more business-like way (De Boer et al., 2007) by decentralizing the power of governance and providing HEIs more autonomy.
1.2. Research Focus

As De Boer & Jongbloed (2012) acknowledge, one of the most obvious government’s efforts to reform the higher education system is through the enhancement of institutional autonomy. Apparently, it is persistently argued as the most significant governance trend in higher education (CHEPS 2008; Eurydice, 2008; 2000; OECD, 2008).

The trend also occurs in Indonesia and autonomy has becoming the most controversial issue in higher education sectors (ADB, 2012). Obviously, it is difficult to manage the multifaceted system and extensive numbers of HEIs in Indonesia. As Moeliodihardjo & Basaruddin (2013) confirm, there has been an awareness amongst policy makers that Indonesian HE system is too large to be managed in a centralized way. Many people believe that ‘decentralizing authority and providing more autonomy’ to HEIs seems to be the most appropriate approach for managing such complexity (ADB, 2012, p.1). In that, major initiatives in the last two decades have been revolving around increasing institutional autonomy in Indonesian HEIs. Some of the most controversial initiatives were the initiation of legal entity universities, restructuring of public funding mechanisms, academic and personnel regulations (ADB, 2012). Taking into consideration of such trend, the main focus of this study is the institutional autonomy in public higher education institutions in Indonesia.

1.3. Recent studies on institutional autonomy in Indonesian HEIs

Publications about institutional autonomy in Indonesia are scarce. Most studies discuss the topic indirectly, frequently under the governance reform studies or other related topics, such as: legal entity universities, institutional restructuring, funding mechanism, academic freedom, commercialization of higher education, etc. (Kusumadewi & Cahyadi, 2013; Koning & Maassen, 2012; Achwan, 2010; Susanti, 2010; Varghese, 2009; Fahmi, 2007a; 2007b; Sulistiyono, 2007; Wicaksono & Friawan, 2007; Nizam 2006).

As a matter of fact, there is only one study mapping the institutional autonomy trend in Indonesian higher education institutions (HEIs) has been published recently, which is the UNESCO report on Governance Reforms and University Autonomy in Asia (2013). The report, which analysed governance reform and autonomy in 5 countries (China, Vietnam, Cambodia, Japan and Indonesia) concludes that there is a general trend towards an increase in higher education autonomy in both academic and administrative area. In terms of Indonesia, the report
shows that there is a positive trend of the enhancement of institutional autonomy, especially related to the organizational structures and resources. Unfortunately, this positive trend was based only on the case study of the autonomous public legal universities.

Furthermore, as stated in the beginning of this section, there are several other studies that indirectly discuss the institutional autonomy in Indonesia. The reports that have been published recently were: the UNESCO report on Higher Education Reforms (2009) and the Asian Development Bank (ADB) report on Administration and Governance of Higher Education in Asia (2012).

The main trends in the UNESCO report on Higher Education Reforms (2009), which analysed governance reform and changes in 5 countries (Indonesia, Malaysia, Mongolia, Thailand, and Vietnam) are: the reforms initiated by national governments; a move away from government control but maintained the public university status of the institutions; universities became autonomous entities; creation of new structure of university management; the increased decentralization of decision-making within universities; the need for strong leader at the institutional level; and the presence of resistance. Again, this study also shows a positive trend and major changes towards the enhancement of institutional autonomy. Basically, this study analysed the policy context of initiating changes in universities from a macro perspective, as well as examining both their nature and implementation from a micro/institutional perspectives, using Gadjah Mada University (UGM), one of the autonomous university, as a case study.

On the other hand, the ADB report on Administration and Governance of Higher Education in Asia (2012) addresses the massification of higher education sector and its changing role in the sociocultural and economic aspects of development. The report also observe into the adjustment between reforms and laws on institutional practices, as well as the impacts of these reforms on the overall managerial practices of HEIs. In terms of governance, this report also finds that one of the main trend in most countries in Asia is the movement towards institutional autonomy, through establishing a new public HEIs, known as State-Owned Legal Entity (SOLE) University in Indonesia.

Seemingly, even if those two reports do not directly mapping the institutional autonomy in Indonesian HEIs, however, provide a detailed context and description of governance reform in
Indonesia, including: the law and regulations, decentralization process, trends, and practices that can be the basis for the literature review.

1.4. Research Gap
As briefly described in the previous section, there were many important initiatives have taken to increase the institutional autonomy in Indonesian higher education, however, there is a very limited numbers of research seeking to address this issue. The past studies have not been sufficiently mapping the institutional autonomy in higher education institutions (HEIs) in Indonesia. Furthermore, in those limited numbers of research that exist, most of them only concentrates on the positive trend and successfulness of the enhancement of institutional autonomy in Indonesian HEIs, but only use the autonomous legal entity university as a case study. It almost to the point of exaggerating the changes and success. In reality, no one knows the real degree of such autonomy, especially in public HEIs. Thus, this study has been designed, with the aspiration, to fill in this gap, as well as to offer an analysis of certain crucial aspects of institutional autonomy in Indonesia public higher education institutions.

1.5. Overall Research Aim and Individual Research Objectives
The overall aim of this research is to investigate the real degree of certain crucial aspects of institutional autonomy in public higher education institutions in Indonesia. According to that, the main research question is as follows:

*What is the real degree of certain crucial aspects of institutional autonomy in public higher education institutions in Indonesia?*

Specifically, within the context of public higher education institutions in Indonesia, the individual research objectives of this study are to:

1. Explore the institutional autonomy reform
2. Investigate and explore stakeholder views related to the real degree of certain crucial aspects of institutional autonomy
3. Formulate recommendations for policy makers

The first objective will form the core of the literature review. The collection and analysis of empirical data will allow the researcher the opportunity to study, in depth, the real degree of
certain crucial aspects of institutional autonomy in three models of public higher education institutions in Indonesia that will answer the objective 2. Finally, as a result of the literature review findings and an analysis of the case study, recommendation would be formulated for the future.

This study will contribute to the development of the study of institutional autonomy in several ways. First, by providing an overview of institutional autonomy reform in Indonesia (what is driving institutional autonomy, policy initiatives, the resistance and the reform towards it). Second, by obtaining the input and explanation from the stakeholders and experts, mapping a detailed picture of the real degree of certain crucial aspects of institutional autonomy in Indonesian public higher education institutions. Third, offering a recommendations to enhance the institutional autonomy policy initiatives in the future. Last, acting as a reference for further studies on institutional autonomy.

1.6. Outline of the Thesis
Based on Biggam (2012) suggestions, the outline of this study is constructed as follow:

Chapter 1. Introduction
This chapter provides the background information on higher education governance and institutional autonomy reform. Then, it discusses the research focus, recent studies on the topic and the research gap. Further, it also identifies the overall research aim, research question and individual research objectives.

Chapter 2. Theoretical Framework & Literature Review
This chapter defines the New Public Management (NPM) as the theoretical framework of this study. Further, it also defines the term institutional autonomy and the dimensions of institutional autonomy, discuss the institutional autonomy reform in public higher education institutions in Indonesia (including overview of higher education in Indonesia, governance, policy initiatives, and resistances), and explores the institutional autonomy reform from the literature.
Chapter 3. Research Methods
This chapter justifies the research strategy and data collection technique, discuss the framework for data analysis, limitation and potential problems. Moreover, this chapter also details the validity and reliability of the study.

Chapter 4. Findings: Description, Analysis and Synthesis
This chapter organizes the findings based on several dimensions, which are: (a) organizational autonomy; (b) financial autonomy; (c) staffing autonomy; and (d) academic autonomy. Each dimension will be used to explain the real degree of institutional autonomy in three models of public higher education institutions in Indonesia: State-Owned Legal Entity (SOLE) institutions or autonomous universities, Public Service Institutions (PSIs) and Public Government Institutions (PGIs). This chapter is structured as follow. First, a description of the findings, dimension by dimension. On each dimension, the analysis will be based on several specific indicators. Second, a summary and an analysis will now be made to set the study in context.

Chapter 5. Conclusion and Recommendation
This last chapter provides a conclusion and recommendations based on the findings. It starts with a brief conclusion to answer the main research question of this study. It follows by the recommendation strategy for policy makers in Indonesia. Next, it also suggests the recommendation for further study. Last, it expresses the value of this study and provides brief guidance to improve the research in the future.
Chapter 2. Theoretical Framework & Literature Review

2. 1. New Public Management

Simply put, new public management (NPM) is a phenomenon which every actor interprets in a different ways. It has been labelled in numerous ways, may ‘managerialism’ (Amaral et al., 2003), or ‘new managerialism’ (Meek 2003; Reed 2002). Apparently, there is still no clear definition towards NPM (Hood, 1991). Several scholar, however, tried to explain this phenomenon (Marginson, 2009; Ziegele, 2008; Hood, 1991). Bruggemeier (as cited in Ziegele, 2008) defines NPM as an ‘empirically reflected business-management approach to efficiency and effectiveness-oriented design and management of carrying out public duties’ (p.1). According to this definition, NPM is an approach to manage public sector in an effective and efficient way, by imitating the business sector.

Ziegele (2008) further explains that the term ‘management’ itself represents the management at several different levels. In the context of higher education, as an example, it represents both the management from the government over higher education institutions (HEIs), as well as the internal management within a single HEI, such as faculties, study programs or institutes. It highlights the role of several actors in several levels, which includes a complex relation with power that distributed amongst them. It best depicted as ‘multi-level, multi-actor, or multi-vocal governance’ (De Boer et al., 2009, p.10), where coordination increasingly takes place at interconnected levels (Middlehurst & Teixeira, 2012).

Basically, the discussion around the NPM phenomenon has been revolving around the relationship between the government and the institution that need to be resolved. Started with the decrease of public funding, the basic idea has been to reform the public sector in order to be effective and efficient with minimum effort. It was the rationale behind the phrase ‘do more with less’. Moreover, Sporn (2003) argues that NPM has identified problems by the ‘old management model’ (Ziegele, 2008) which includes inefficiency, over-regulation, bureaucratization and inflexibility (p.32), which are the result of a centralized power and authority under the central government. According to Ziegele (2008), the aim of this NPM is to reduce the tension and balance the strained connection between various levels (government and institutions). He claims that, as many decision as possible should be made at decentralized
levels not at the top level, which at the government level. Accordingly, the key point in this phenomenon is ‘less government and more governance’ (Ziegle, 2008; De Boer et al, 2007).

In the context of higher education, the rise of NPM has been changing the notion of governance in the university. According to this principles, HEIs should be managed in a more business-like way (De Boer et al., 2009) and it has been changing the relationship between the government and the universities. The role of the government has shifting from controlling to supervising the HEIs by decentralizing and delegating the decision-making power to the institution. Ziegele (2008) contends that the people at the bottom level, in this case at the university, have more potential to take a flexible, effective and efficient actions, as they acquire more information and accountability of problems at the institution, rather than the government. Hence, it is important to decentralize the power from the government, by giving HEIs more autonomy. Ziegele (2008) further emphasizes the importance of autonomy for the HEIs, in particular related to the financial resources, research and teaching, organization and human resources management (p.3), in order enhance the effectiveness, efficiency, and the quality of higher education.

For the context of this thesis, the mere idea borrowed from the NPM is their approach to manage the public sector, particularly HEIs. The reform that occurred in Indonesia was based on the NPM principles, where the government decentralized their power and university obtains more autonomy. Therefore, it will be used to explore the context and research question of this study. It is just as Amaral, Tavares and Santos (2012) stated that, ‘any specific discussion of higher education management needs to be set in the broader context of NPM’ (p.660).

2.2 Institutional autonomy

Institutional autonomy is a debated concept that has a various meaning depending on its context. As CHEPS (2008) acknowledges, institutional autonomy is “a concept that has different meanings in different contexts and have many different elements” (p. 31). It is nearly impossible to define a single and common definition on it. Nevertheless, CHEPS (2008) defined institutional autonomy in the following simplistic terms: “the managerial flexibility of institutions to construct their own identity, to determine their own profile and to set their own goals and priorities without interference” (p.31). Although this definition provides a clear explanation on what autonomous institutions could do, however, suffers from a lack of
standpoint. This definition only focuses on internal institutions and is too general. For example, it is difficult to think of institutional autonomy without mentioning their surroundings and context, i.e. is it possible to use the term of institutional autonomy for all types of institutions? Are those the only ‘things’ that institutions could do? If so, could it be changed through time? How about the relation to their external stakeholders and environment? It seems like a very narrow definition and implies that institutional autonomy is a constant concept.

Estermann and Nokkala (2009), on the other hand, defined institutional autonomy as “the constantly changing relations between the state and higher education institutions and the degree of control exerted by the state, depending on the national context and circumstance” (p1). According to this definition, the freedom which government gives to higher education institutions would qualify as institutional autonomy. Thus, this definition provides a broader perspective. It implies that institutional autonomy is a dynamic concept. First, it emphasizes the relation between the state and higher education institutions that is always changing. Second, the term ‘degree of control’ accentuates that institutional autonomy is not a fixed notion, yet, there is a stage in a scale or series. Third, it also highlights the important of context and circumstance. To underline this point, Estermann and Nokkala (2009) accentuated that “analysis of autonomy should not be done in isolation and requires that the broader context to be taken into account” (p.8). Therefore, it requires a consideration on when and where the term institutional autonomy is being used. In other words, this definition underlines the dynamic and multidimensional notion of institutional autonomy, while at the same time emphasizes the importance of context to explain them.

As the purposes of this study are to evaluate the institutional autonomy reform and investigate the real degree of certain crucial aspects of institutional autonomy in public higher education institutions in Indonesia, ergo, the definition from Estermann & Nokkala (2009) is appropriate for this study. First, to explore the institutional autonomy reform means there is a need to grasp the context of the reform, which includes the higher education in Indonesia, the rationales behind the reform, and the institutional autonomy reform in Indonesian higher education institutions. Second, to investigate the ‘real degree’ of institutional autonomy means there is an understanding that the concept itself is not a fix notion. There is an awareness of a gap between formal autonomy and the reality. Actually, this is not a surprise, as talking about institutional autonomy is not only about the freedom that university will acquire, but also the
freedom that government willing to give to the university (ADB, 2012). Indeed, the definition is well-suited for this study.

2.3. Dimensions of institutional autonomy

As previously described, institutional autonomy is a complex and multidimensional concept, as it is not a constant idea. In order to recognize its significance, it is important to categorize them (Albornoz, 1991). This way, it helps to understand which aspect of institutional autonomy that university has already obtained. There are various studies on institutional autonomy in higher education, and each of them categorized it to several dimensions differently. Table 1 shows different dimensions of institutional autonomy from various recent studies.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>OECD study 2008</th>
<th>CHEPS report 2008</th>
<th>EUA study 2009</th>
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<td>1. Institutional governance</td>
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Table 1. Dimensions of institutional autonomy in various study

To analyse the real degree of institutional autonomy in Indonesian public higher education institutions, this study will adapt the four dimensions of institutional autonomy from the European University Association (EUA) (Estermann & Nokkala, 2009), which are: organizational, financial, staffing, and academic autonomy. It is clear from the Table 1 above that various studies categorized them differently, which means that there are so many aspects of institutional autonomy to consider. In that, one thing to bear in mind is that these four dimensions do not explained all aspects of autonomy. Nevertheless, it will provide an idea on certain crucial aspects of institutional autonomy that can be used to answer the research question of this study. These four dimensions will be explained further in the next subsection.
2.3.1. Organizational autonomy
Organizational autonomy refers to a university’s ability to determine its internal organization and decision-making process (Estermann & Nokkala, 2009). It includes the governing bodies, external stakeholders, procedure and requirement for the executive body at the university. First indicator is that university has the capacity to decide their own internal governing bodies or structures, which usually consist of a board or council, a senate, or both of them. The inclusion and selection of external members in governing bodies become another important indicators of organizational autonomy. The important matter is whether the university has the capacity to select its member themselves or there is another external party that decide it for them. Moreover, the external representation in the governing bodies could also provide a mechanism for an accountability, which is an important component for institutional autonomy. Another crucial indicators are related to the selection procedures and criteria, dismissal and terms of office of the leaders of the university, which consist of rector and vice-rector.

2.3.2. Financial autonomy
Financial autonomy refers to a university’s capacity to manage its internal financial matters and allocate its budget independently (Jongbloed, 2010; Estermann & Nokkala, 2009). In particular, it related to the type of public funding, and the ability to keep surplus, borrow money, own buildings and generate self-revenues. In terms of type of public funding, there are two types of funding which will be used in this study, which are: block grants and line-item budget. Further, Estermann & Nokkala (2009) defined block grant as “financial grants which cover several categories of expenditure” (p.19). University that receives a block grant funding has the capacity to distribute and manage their internal allocation as they see fit, although some restriction may exists. Whilst, line-item budget defined as “financial grants which are pre-allocated to specific cost items and/or activities” (Estermann & Nokkala, 2009). Usually, the university has to propose and allocate their budget to several specific posts or items, then the government will provide the money according to it. Hence, university is not able to make changes to the decision regarding the allocation of the money, or under some strict regulations.

As a matter of fact, financial is a complex issues in regards to the institutional autonomy, as this dimension has a very strong relation to other dimensions. As an example, university’s ability to decide their staff’s salaries also depends on their capacity to manage their financial matters. In that, as CHEPS (2008) emphasizes, financial autonomy generally perceived as an important characteristic of autonomous universities. Though, not all indicators have the same
degree of importance. Take the ability to charge tuition fees as an example, for some countries like United Kingdom (UK), it is a very crucial element for them. However, this is not the case for the Nordic countries, who subsidize their education and provides free tuition fees. Again, it accentuates the importance of context to analyse the situation.

2.3.3. Staffing autonomy
Staffing autonomy refers to a university’s capacity to recruit and manage its human resources independently (Estermann & Nokkala, 2009). Specifically, the capacity to decide on recruitment procedures, staff salaries, dismissals and promotions. One important element on this dimension is the status of the employees. If the status of the university’s employee is civil servants then it shows that university only has a very limited capacity to manage their human resources. The reason is because the complexity of civil servant status that affiliated with various parties, such as Ministry of Education, Ministry of Finance, and Ministry of Labour and Employment. Most of the time, there are strict regulations and framework regarding civil servants status, thus, leaving a very small room for university to recruit and manage their human resources freely.

2.3.4. Academic autonomy
Academic autonomy refers to a university’s ability to manage its internal academic affairs without interference (Estermann & Nokkala, 2009). It includes the capacity to decide on overall student numbers and student’s selection, introduction and termination of study programs, as well as the design content of degree programs. First indicator is the capacity to decide on overall students numbers without any interference. In fact, this indicator has a relation with other dimensions as well. As an example, the overall numbers of students will have an implications to a university’s finances. Next, the ability to select their own students is another important indicator. According to CHPES (2008), this is another complicated issues, as most of the time, there are exist some policies and procedures regarding the selection of the new students that historically rooted in many countries and it is difficult to change them. Another important indicators are the capacity to open and terminate a study programmes. It is important because it usually related to a university’s specific mission. Whilst the ability to design content of degree programs is the basis of the academic freedom and makes it another substantial indicator of academic autonomy.
According to the explanation of the four dimensions of institutional autonomy, it is obvious that all of them are interrelated in some ways. Moreover, as previously stated, it is important to be aware that not all indicators have the same degree of importance. As this dimensions will be used to analyse the real degree of certain crucial aspects of institutional autonomy in Indonesian public higher education institutions, hence, it is important to take the broader context into account.

2.4. Institutional Autonomy in Indonesia

2.4.1. Overview of Indonesian Higher Education System

Indonesian higher education comprises an extensive and highly complex system. It reflects the diversity of its country, in ethnicities, religious heritage, and languages. Though, it also shows the struggle for national identity. As a consequence, it causes a problematic issues whenever the government tries to initiate or establish a new regulation as there are some many aspects that need to be considered and interest to be accommodated.

Simply put, Indonesian system of education is different to most of the world as it is characterized by two streams. The first stream comprises secular educational institutions under the auspices of Directorate General of Higher Education (DGHE), underneath the Ministry of National Education (public and private). The second stream is composed of Islamic educational institutions under the Ministry of Religious Affairs (public and private). As in another countries, these two stream can be categorized in three levels: basic, secondary, and higher education (Wicaksono and Friawan, 2008). In addition to that, all public higher education institutions (HEIs) are owned and run by the central government, whilst private HEIs are mostly run by a Foundation (ADB, 2012), such as religious organization or corporation.

From a legal perspective, HEIs in Indonesia can be public or private institutions. There are three laws that regulated public HEIs in Indonesia, which are: state treasury law, the education system law and the civil servant law. Meanwhile, private HEIs are regulated under the jurisdiction of their respective Foundation and Education System Law.

In addition to the aforementioned Ministries, there are several other entities that are also responsible for about 82 HEIs in one form or another (OECD/ADB, 2015). It aims to ensure the supply of human resources for the respective Ministries and/or in accordance with the Ministries’ national goal of their corresponding affairs. For example, both the Academy of
Tourism and the College of Tourism are under the supervision of the Ministry of Tourism and Creative Economy. Furthermore, there are HEIs that operate outside the Ministerial control. For example, the Central Bureau of Statistics, the National Nuclear Energy Agency, and the Institute for Public Administration are also important stakeholders in higher education.

To add more confusion, the new government has transferred the Directorate General of Higher Education (DGHE) from the Ministry of National Education (MONE) to the Ministry of Research and Technology and shifted the whole structures of DGHE. Later, the name of the ministry changed to Ministry of Research, Technology and Higher Education. To conclude, the multifaceted education system, and the large number of decision-makers involved, show the complexity of the organization of higher education in Indonesia.

2.4.2. Higher Education Governance

Highly centralized governance is probably the most prominent characteristic of Indonesian higher education (HE) system. As a matter of fact, governance in all public higher education institutions (HEIs) are under the central government, whilst governance in private HEIs are under their respective Foundations.

Prior to 1999, HEIs fell under the full control of the central government. The autonomy that academic communities wanted was almost impossible to attain in the Soeharto’s regime era. Public HEIs needed to conform to the norms and regulations established by the central government. As Susanto & Nizam (2009) argue, Indonesian HEIs are slaves of the government because they have to wait for government’s order to be able to act. The organizational structure and management of HEIs were standardized and they were forced to adopt it.

In general, the government had a strict regulation in the areas of internal university management, financial management, staffing and academic affairs. In the area of human resources, all of the recruitment process and promotion were processed through a rigorous bureaucracy and needed an approval by the central government (Nizam & Nurdin, 2014). Moreover, as government unit, public HEIs are regulated under the state treasury law. Therefore, they had to comply with all government’s regulation related to financial management. Higher education institutions also needed a permission from the DGHE in order to initiate new academic programs. All of the activities initiated by the university were subject to surveillance and censorship. The government controlled what was taught, especially as
regards the interpretation of political history and government policies (Kusumadewi & Cahyadi, 2013).

Unsurprisingly, the centralized system has emerged many problems. In a huge country as Indonesia with a tremendous numbers of HEIs that scattered around thousands of islands, it is almost impossible to control the system from the central. Besides, as previously mentioned, there seems to be an unreasonable bureaucracy with too many restrictions and rules in all aspects. Consequently, lack of autonomy and the existence of bureaucratic regulations weakened the efficiency of the university. As Welch (2007) emphasizes, thirty-two years of centralized educational system has led to ineffectiveness and irrelevance in ‘educational content, dependency on centralized management, and lack of educational innovation’ (p.214). Institutional planning and management capacity of the university were weak, both curriculum and research were frequently irrelevant, staff moonlighting was rampant and university operations were highly inefficient and overstaffed (Moeliodihardjo et al., as cited in Susanto & Nizam, 2009).

Moreover, under the government bureaucracy, the university’s academics and staffs were overburden with tons of administrative work. Moreover, there was not any benefit or performance management system to improve their work as a civil servant. As a result, they became passive and ineffective. No wonder, public HEIs were in a risks of deteriorating quality and relevance (Susanto & Nizam, 2009).

Clearly, the centralized approach was outdated. In fact, there was full awareness of the need for change at the political level and among educational policy makers in Indonesia (OECD/ADB, 2015). In order to stimulate HEIs to enhance their quality and relevance, a greater institutional autonomy was needed. Afterwards, the government launched a long-term development plan called Higher Education Long Term Strategy (HELTS) III 1996-2005 that introduced the five pillars of higher education reforms famously known as ‘new paradigm’ (Beerkens, 2002) that consist of: quality, autonomy, accountability, accreditation, and evaluation (DGHE, 1996; Ngo, 2013). These new paradigms of higher education reform were the principles and beginning of the movement towards institutional autonomy.
2.4.3. Institutional Autonomy Policy Initiatives in Indonesia

Almost all over the world, the enhancement towards institutional autonomy has been the most significant trend of higher education reform (Eurydice, 2008; 2000; OECD, 2008). In Indonesia, it started with the initiation of a pilot policy entitled the ‘University of the Public Legal Entity’ (Nizam & Nurdin, 2014). The initiative started in 1999, creating means for privatization of public higher education institutions (HEIs). Several public HEIs were planned to be autonomous and independent from the governmental bureaucracy under the Government Regulation (GR) No.61/1999 (Kusumadewi & Cahyadi, 2013; Susanto & Nizam, 2009). As a domino effect of this new autonomy, the government decrease the public funding. Therefore, it could no longer intervene in the internal management and governance of the universities.


Legal entity refers to public HEIs’ authority of self-governance (Ngo, 2013). Further, Susanto & Nizam (2009) reveals three important types of benefits for public HEIs under this new legal entity status. Firstly, academic benefit. As Nizam & Nurdin (2014) emphasize, autonomous universities receive more academic freedom, especially for the matters related to opening a new study programs or recruitment of new students. Secondly, organizational benefit that gives university an ability in terms of managerial self-governance. Nizam & Nurdin (2004) contend that this managerial self-governance can be traced to the implementation of organizational restructuring, particularly related to the organizational flexibility and autonomy in internal management. Thirdly, financial benefit. Autonomous universities finally have the ability to manage their own financial matters.

Smith (as cited in Koning & Maassen, 2012) claims that ‘Indonesia is in the middle of what is called the world’s largest political decentralization project’ (p.67). Obviously, a core issue in this reformation process was the decentralization of public HEIs by transforming them into legal entity universities and enhancing their institutional autonomy. The role of the central government has been decreasing and the phrase ‘less government and more governance’ (De
Boer et al., 2007) has becoming the major discussion across HEIs in Indonesia. Evidently, it follows the new public management principles.

2.4.4. Resistance towards institutional autonomy
As previously explained, the government reformed the system by transforming universities into legal entity so that they have more autonomy. Unfortunately, there is a misconception regarding institutional autonomy in Indonesian society. People assume that institutional autonomy equals to ‘commercialization’ (Irianto, 2012). As Kusumadewi & Cahyadi (2013) acknowledge, people presume that institutional autonomy would reduce access to public higher education. Consequently, it provoked public protest and demonstration. There were many movements everywhere that insisted the Constitutional Court to annul the ‘Educational Legal Entity Law’ (Undang-Undang Badan Hukum Pendidikan or UU BHP) that serves as a fundamental base for the autonomous legal entity universities. Eventually, the Court annulled the law in March 2010. Indeed, the annulment were a serious setback for the institutional autonomy enhancement process and aggravated the chaotic situation in Indonesian public higher education institutions.

Aware of public concern, the government established a new status called ‘Public Service Institutions’ (Badan Layanan Umum) under the ‘Higher Education Law’ (Undang-Undang Pendidikan Tinggi). This status has been given to the previous selected universities. However, unlike the previous law, universities under this status only received a limited financial autonomy. As Kusumadewi & Cahyadi (2013) further explain, the universities under this status still need to get an approval by the government, in which the approval would be granted on the basis of the evaluation of the university’s performance. At the end, they only obtain insufficient autonomy and again creates a polemic inside the universities.

Finally, in 2013, the government changed the status of previous selected universities from ‘Public Service Institution’ (PSIs) to ‘State-Owned Legal Entity’ (SOLE). In substance, SOLE is more or less similar to the previous legal entity university status, just in a different name. They will receive the autonomy as much as before and it will be explain in the next section. In this study, state-owned legal entity (SOLE) university is used interchangeably with autonomous university.
2.4.5. Institutional Autonomy Reform

As previously explained, one of the most visible attempts to reform the higher education system is through the enhancement of institutional autonomy. Since autonomous universities are a legal entity and no longer government unit, they need to make a major institutional restructuring in the organizational structure and democratization of the universities (Ngo, 2013; Beerkens, 2002). As autonomous universities was expected to become an independent and self-governing institutions, thus, the government tried to decrease their role and providing university a higher organizational autonomy, particularly to develop their organizational structure and management system. Government Regulation 61/1999 does not provide any guideline, in that, universities are free to develop their internal governance structure that suitable for their needs. Nevertheless, it has to adopt the principles of democracy, participation, transparency, and public accountability (Brodjonegoro, 2002).

Generally, autonomous universities have a governance structure that includes (Moeliodihardjo & Basaruddin, 2013): Board of Trustees as the top of the management structure, Academic Senate as the highest academic normative body and Board of Auditors. In some universities, there is exist Professors’ Council, which is more like an advisory body (Varghese, 2009). One example of the organization structure in Indonesian university is illustrated in Figure 1.

Based on the Government Regulation No. 61/1999, the Board of Trustees at the autonomous universities must represents the internal and external stakeholders. The internal stakeholders are representatives of the academic and non-academic communities, such as staff and student (Ngo, 2013; Nizam & Nurdin, 2004; Beerkens, 2002). Meanwhile, external stakeholders are representatives of the government and broader society, such as (Nizam & Nurdin, 2004): alumni, business people and prominent figures in education.
Board of Trustees as the highest governing bodies has gaining a lot of decision making authority within the university. In particular, related to generating policies and providing approval for all non-academic areas, such as (Ngo, 2013; Nizam & Nurdin, 2004): human resources affairs, selection of the executive head of the university, as well as university’s vision, mission and strategic plans. Indeed, this new governance structure implies that autonomous universities will adapting more corporate management style that enable more decision to be taken more easily.

Financial autonomy in particular has been arguably one of the most discussed topics in the realm of higher education (Kohtamäki, 2012). Understandably, considering its inextricable and symbiotic relationship with other higher education themes, such as quality, governance, funding, and performance, such a high concentration of attention is to be expected (OECD/ADB 2015; Benneworth, et al. 2011). Apparently, the reform have strong implication on/for the financial autonomy of public HEIs. In this regard, the application of block-grant system and the privilege of legal independence are both believed to positively contribute to financial autonomy (Kohtamäki, 2012).

In Indonesia, NPM funding mechanisms (Ziegele et al., 2010; Parker, 2013), such as block grants, performance contracts and performance-based grants, as well as competitive grants, have also been used by the Government with a view to enhancing quality and promoting high
priority goals (OECD/ADB, 2015). Special attention has been paid to competitive funding schemes, which were firstly implemented in 1994 within the framework of the University Research for Graduate Education (URGE) project, aimed at developing research capacity for the units conducting postgraduate programs (Wicaksono & Friawan, 2008). URGE was followed by the introduction of incentive-based funding in 1996 by the World Bank, which run a project called Development of Undergraduate Education (DUE) that covered all disciplines, courses and study programs (Varghese, 2009). World Bank (2005) claimed that these competitive funding schemes had been tested in its earlier projects and proved effective in transforming organizational culture, promoting innovation, and increasing efficiency. Moreover, it also increased the quality of learning process and transparency of public funding. As a result, the Indonesian Government started to introduce performance-based funding mechanisms.

However, in the case of national public funding and particular allocation mechanisms, it is quite clear, which mechanisms are consistent with NPM trends in higher education and make those policies effective, and which are not. Thus, the use of block grants, targeted funding, formula funding, and other performance-based forms of allocation (e.g., performance contracts between governments and institutions, competitive funding schemes, and other instruments of output-based funding) makes HEIs more autonomous and innovative, flexible in reacting to challenges, more profiled and capable of cooperation with other institutions, and better aligned with national developmental goals (Santiago, Tremblay, Basri, & Arnal, 2008).

In Indonesia, NPM funding tools have also been introduced in line with reforms promoting decentralization, accountability, autonomy, quality and competitiveness. In line with that, leading public universities were given the status of legal entities and began to generate income independently. Nowadays, in public universities, significant proportions of revenues come from fees and other self-generated sources. They have the ability to raise their own funds through a number of sources, such as (Brodjonegoro, 2002): student fees, research projects, consulting services, and other campus-based businesses, such as parking, cafeteria, dormitory, and bookstores. Most famous autonomous universities, University of Indonesia (Universitas Indonesia), Bogor Agricultural University (Institut Pertanian Bogor), Bandung Institute of Technology (Institut Teknologi Bandung), and Gadjah Mada University (Universitas Gadjah Mada) have a large share of revenues from other sources. Bandung Institute of Technology, as an example, generated 39% of their income besides student fees (World Bank, 2010).
Moreover, public funding authorities provide HEIs the privilege to keep any surplus from the previous year allocation and also to accumulate reserve of their self-generated revenue (Estermann, 2011; Fahmi, 2007a; Nizam, 2006). This helps to avoid “December fever” - the unnecessary spending of surplus fund, executed in an attempt to avoid possible reduction of funds in the subsequent fiscal cycle. Further, public legal entity HEIs are entitled to borrow money from the financial market, own and manage fixed assets and other properties (Brodjonegoro, 2002).

In terms of academic autonomy, public legal entity HEIs receive a huge academic freedom. As Achwan (2010) states, it easier for autonomous universities to open up new undergraduate, graduate, and post-graduate extension programs. They also receive an autonomy related to the curriculum design, research and academic policy. Staffing autonomy also seems to have an improvements. Nizam (2006) adds that the reformation finally change the status of all staffs (academic, support and administrative) from civil servant status to university’s employees. Therefore, autonomous universities have the privilege to manage their issues related to human resources affairs, such as recruitment and promotions. Further, performance-based funding mechanisms that have been implemented by the government have encourage academic and staffs to be more innovative and flexible to face the challenges (Brodjonegoro, 2002).

In conclusion, the establishment of legal entity universities probably the major reform to enhance the institutional autonomy. However, despite the legislation of 2000 (which advocates the creation of legally independent HEIs), a vast majority of public HEIs in Indonesia have not been transformed into fully autonomous legal entities (OECD/ADB 2015; Kusumadewi & Cahyadi, 2013). Moreover, at the moment, only a few HEIs endowed with higher freedom and benefit from possessing the institutional autonomy. In addition, there were no sufficient research mapping the real degree of institutional autonomy as most of them only based on the autonomous legal entity universities. Therefore, this study attempts to investigate the real degree of certain crucial aspects of institutional autonomy in three models of public HEIs that exist in Indonesia. This study will be explained further in the next chapter.
Chapter 3: Research Methodology

3.1. Introduction
This chapter discusses and justifies the research method used in this study to investigate the certain crucial aspects of institutional autonomy in three models of public higher education institutions in Indonesia. This chapter will provide the details of the research strategy, data collection techniques, framework for data analysis, limitation and potential problems. In addition, this chapter also details the validity and reliability of the study.

3.2. Research strategy
The research strategy that will be used for this research is a case study. There are several reasons why a case study is suitable for this research not the other strategy. Firstly, Yin (2009) defines a case study as, “an empirical inquiry that – investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real world context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident” (p.18). According to this definition, a case study is therefore tempt to explore and examine a certain phenomenon in their real life nature or situation. While it is true that survey can also deal with phenomenon and context, however, Yin (1994) further differentiates that, “survey’s ability to investigate the context is extremely limited” (p.13). In that, a case study meets the researcher’s aim to investigate deeply into a contemporary phenomenon, which is institutional autonomy, within the context of public higher education institutions in Indonesia.

Secondly, as related to the Yin’s second condition at the definition above, this study is concern with an in-depth study of the phenomenon of an institutional autonomy in a contemporary context – higher education institutions’ environment – where the boundaries between the two of them are not obvious. For example, the literature review in the second chapter showed clearly that there is a vagueness over the definition of the term institutional autonomy. Further, it is difficult to classify the institutional autonomy in higher education system law in Indonesia. Moreover, the boundaries, if there is any, between the autonomy given from the government to the university are not clearly evident. As the former Director of Directorate General of Higher Education in Indonesia in the preliminary interview mentioned, “In our country, even though the new system or policies have been decided by law. They (people in the Ministries) still not follow it to the fullest, especially if the rules do not bring any benefit for them. They
will still use the old system” (personal communication, March 14, 2016). That statement implies that there are no clear evidence of the real degree of institutional autonomy in public higher education in Indonesia, as the autonomy that are stated in the law and in the real life context are probably different. Additionally, the relation between the government and university is somewhat blurred. All of these reasons show that this research meets Yin’s second condition for the use of a case study strategy.

As a conclusion, due to the nature of this research - in-depth study of a phenomenon (institutional autonomy), in a complex environment (public higher education institutions in Indonesia) and it based on the interpretative understanding of the situation – case study is a strategy that appropriate and reasonable to be implemented for this research purpose, as it meets the need for the research. Biggam (2012) further explains that case study provides the focus on the phenomenon that is compulsory for the research, emphasized depth of study, and the context in which the phenomena under study in placed is complex, in which support the reason behind the chosen strategy for this research.

In addition, this case study research will be based on a multiple case studies. As explained above, the aim of this study is to investigate the real degree of the contemporary phenomenon, which is institutional autonomy, within the context of public higher education institutions in Indonesia. Nevertheless, there are three models of public higher education institutions (HEIs) in Indonesia: State-Owned Legal Entity (SOLE) institutions or autonomous universities, Public Service Institutions (PSIs) and Public Government Institutions (PGIs). Thus, this research will focus on gaining a deeper understanding of the real degree of institutional autonomy in those three cases of public higher education in Indonesia.

### 3.3. Data collection

The complexity and unclear boundary of the phenomenon lead to the utilization of an interview and the inspections of documents and government policies. The in-depth semi-structure interview with an open-ended questions were used as the primary data for this study. Semi-structured interview is “more structured than the informal conversational interview, but there is quite a bit of flexibility of its composition” (Gall et al., as cited in Turner, 2010, p. 755). Patton (as cited in Biggam, 2012) further supports the usage of semi-structured interview with open-ended questions because they “encourage meaningful responses” (p.146). In this study,
the purpose is to gather an insight and explore the real degree of certain crucial aspects of institutional autonomy in public higher education in Indonesia. To achieve this purpose, the semi-structure interview with open-ended questions seems to provide flexibility for the interviewees to answer based on their diverse background and experiences, thus, elicit a more comprehensive views and perspectives.

The secondary data consist of literature in Indonesian higher education reforms, official policy reports and documents, as well as previous studies on institutional autonomy in Indonesian higher education institutions. All of the secondary data that were used for this study are listed in the bibliography.

3.3.1. Interview process and participants

Purposive sampling approach were used for this study. In purposive sampling, researcher select a several numbers of interviewees according to their expertise of the topic. Creswell (2007) emphasizes the importance of selecting the right participants. As stated in the research design section above, there are a lot of complexity and unclear boundary between the phenomenon and the context, in that, there is a need to choose the people who understand the nature of the phenomenon, not just the preconceptions or assumptions. Further, there is only a few numbers of people in Indonesian higher education sector that have a direct connection with the phenomenon. Therefore, finding and choosing the right people become very crucial for this study, as they will be the one who will help the researcher to understand the real situation and answer the research questions. As Devers and Frankel (2000) claim, “purposive sampling provides the greatest insight into the research question (p.264). For that intention, purposive sampling approach is suitable for this study.

The researcher use a heterogeneous samplings technique, which is “a purposive sampling techniques used to capture a wide range of perspectives relating to the topic” (Laerd, 2012) by selected a group of interviewees from a different background. The aim of this techniques is to gain a greater insight into the phenomenon. In that, a sample of six interviewees that consist of policy makers, higher education experts, and academics were selected. The interviewees were two former Director of Directorate General of Higher Education in Indonesia, two higher education expert, particularly related to institutional autonomy in higher education institutions, one former Rector of State-Owned Legal Entity university, and one Vice Rector of Academic Affairs at public service institution. The two former Director of Directorate General of Higher
Education in Indonesia were selected for their main role as a key player at Indonesian higher education area. One of them was the initiator of the institutional autonomy for higher education and creator of the State-owned legal entity status for public university. Whilst, the other one was responsible for the higher education system law in Indonesia. Interviewing different stakeholders will allow the researcher to do the cross-comparisons of responses. Thus, it provides a different perspective of the same phenomenon, institutional autonomy, to emerge. All of the interview took place from March 17 to 31, 2016 at Jakarta and Bandung, Indonesia. It conducted by a face-to-face interview. All of the interview will be recorded to ensure that the data analysis is based upon an accurate evidence. Then it will be transcribed and translated by the researcher.

3.4. Framework for Data Analysis

Figure 2 illustrates graphically the process that will be adopted to analyse the data. This qualitative data analysis process approach was proposed by Cresswell (2007) in his book *Research Design: qualitative, quantitative and mixed method approaches*. As he emphasizes, research is not a linear activity, thus, one must understand that it requires a constant and repetitive approach to understanding the patterns.

![Figure 2. Qualitative data analysis process (Cresswell, 2007, p. 247).](image-url)
The process consists of six steps for conducting analysis. The first step asserts the importance of organizing and preparing the data. The researcher will begin with compiling the raw data, transcribing all the interviews, re-typing the field notes, and arranging the data in accordance to the source of information.

The second step of the analysis process suggests the researcher to read through all the data and become familiar with it. All the data will be read multiple times and the researcher would try to gathered some general ideas of the information and reflect to them. The researcher will try to seek the meaning behind the interviewees’ words. What general ideas are the interviewees saying? What is their impression of the phenomenon and the real situation? The researcher will use a field notes to write the general thoughts about the data or some ideas that occur during the process.

The third step involved coding the data. Braun and Clarke (2008) explain that codes represent the basic segments of the raw data. It is actually the process of organizing the data into categories and labeling those categories with some terms that represent them. According to Cresswell (2007), there are three categories of codes that usually appear on the interviewees’ answers: codes on topics that are expected to find; codes that are unpredictable at the beginning of the study; and codes that are unique or unusual. The researcher will give a code by hand on the interviewees’ answer sheets.

The fourth step involved organizing all of the answers and codes according to the dimensions. There are about four dimensions on this research study. The dimensions would appear as the major findings on this study and used as a headings in the finding section at Chapter 4. The dimensions would display multiple perspective from the interviewees and supported by diverse quotations and also specific evidence gathered by the researcher.

For the purpose of this study, the researcher will adapt the four dimensions of institutional autonomy that proposed by Estermann & Nokkala (2009) as the four themes for analyzing the data. These dimensions will help the researcher to focus, and serve as an aid to analysis the data. It is important to understand that all of these themes are inter-related with each other. Table 2 reveals the four dimensions of institutional autonomy that serve as a themes, as well as the indicators of each themes for this study.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension (Theme)</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organizational autonomy</td>
<td>1. Capacity to decide on internal governing structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Inclusion and selection of external members in governing bodies (external stakeholder)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Selection procedure for the executive head</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>4. Selection criteria for the executive head</td>
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<td></td>
<td>5. Dismissal of the executive head</td>
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<td></td>
<td>6. Term of office of the executive head</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial autonomy</td>
<td>1. Type of public funding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Ability to keep surplus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Ability to borrow money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Ability to own buildings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Ability to generate self-revenue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staffing autonomy</td>
<td>1. Capacity to decide on recruitment procedure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Capacity to decide on salaries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Capacity to decide on dismissals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Capacity to decide on promotions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic autonomy</td>
<td>1. Capacity to decide on overall student numbers</td>
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<td></td>
<td>2. Capacity to select students</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Capacity to open new study programs</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Capacity to terminate programmes</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Capacity to design content of degree programs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Case study: breakdown of themes and indicators (adapted from Estermann & Nokkala, 2009)

The next step in the analysis process is reviewing dimensions and generating the idea on how it will be presented in the finding section. The researcher will interconnect indicators and dimensions into a narrative passage to convey the findings of the analysis. The dimensions are
analyzed for each individual case. It will include a description and discussion of all of the indicators, as well as multiple perspectives from the interviewees and quotations.

As the last step in the data analysis process, the data will be interpreted to generate findings and results. Subsequently, there will be a cross case analyzes at the discussion part, if it relevant, to provide a big picture of the real degree of institutional autonomy in Indonesian public higher education institutions. At this step, the researcher will do a cross-referencing of data results, and discuss the empirical findings of the research against the literature findings, as so called the synthesis.

3.5. Limitation and Potential Problems

It is important to note several limitation and potential problems of this study. The first potential problem is related to the selection of the participant. It is very difficult to gain access for contacting the right people, especially at the government level. Further, even if the researcher already find the right candidates and try to contact them according to their expertise of the topic, however, there is no guarantee that all of the selected candidates will agree to become the participant of this study.

The second potential problem is the time constrain. The researcher only have around five months in total to complete the research. It is such a limited time to conduct a comprehensive literature review and empirical research. It may affect the data gathering and analysis process.

The limitation of this study is definitely the limited representation of the data. As Yin (1994) emphasizes, “How can you generalize from a single case?” (p.10) is a frequently heard question and a common concern about the case studies. Even so, the researcher still asserts that a case study is the appropriate research strategy as it is best to answer the research question of this study.

3.6. Validity

To address issues of validity, the researcher used the tested and well-known research strategy and data collection technique to be implemented for this study. As Yin (2009) claims that the use of well-known strategies increased the external validity of the research. Moreover, the researcher carefully selected the strategy and techniques that are appropriate and relevant to
achieve the objectives of this research. All of the justification of the selected strategy and techniques have been explained in detail in the previous sections. Biggam (2012) highlights the importance of justifying the research strategy, because a “highly structured and detailed research method reflects the meticulous nature of research work” (p.114). Thus, it will ensure the validity of the research.

In regard to enhancing the internal validity, triangulation of data were used in this study. The researcher used a various sources of data to gather a comprehensive perspectives and complete picture of the phenomenon and the context (Biggam, 2012). Further, the researcher also systematically and regularly check the data during the whole process to ensure the data accuracy.

3.7. Reliability

Yin (2003) claims that the best way to deal with reliability is to, “make as many steps as operational as possible and to conduct the research as if someone were looking over your shoulder” (p.38). In the previous section about interview process and participants, the researcher already described in detail everything related to the interviewees and the data gathering process to ensure the reliability of this research. It includes the time and places of the interview, who and how many interviewees that were selected for this study.

To ensure the reliability of the interview, the researcher applies the eight principles of interview’s preparation stage by McNamara (2009). First, the researcher choose a setting with a little distraction. Almost all of the interview were conducted in a closed room with a minimum distraction and noise. Second, the researcher will explain the purpose of the interview to all of the interviewees. Third, the researcher will address and ensure the confidentiality of the interview. This principal is important to create a comfortable environment, so that, the interviewees will feel at ease and willing to openly share their information. Fourth, the researcher will explain the format of the interview, which is based on the themes that was prepared by the researcher. Fifth, the researcher will inform the interviewees an estimate length of the interview. Each of the interview took around 60-120 minutes. Sixth, the researcher will tell the interviewees how to get in touch with the researcher after the interview process. Seventh, the researcher will ask the interviewees if they wanted to ask something before the interview process. Last, the researcher will use a recorder and field notes to write the answer.
It will help the researcher to focus on the interviewees, and to obtain the accurate data that will serve as an aid at the analysis process.

At last, the researcher also provides an evidence of the interview questions that were used for this interview. Appendix A contains the collection of semi-structured questions to be used for the policy makers and higher education experts; and Appendix B contains the semi-structured questions to be used for the academic staffs.
Chapter 4. Case Study Findings: Description, Analysis and Synthesis

4.1. Introduction

This chapter reveals the result of the study described in Chapter 3 Research Methodology. The research concentrates on four dimensions of Institutional autonomy that are adapted from the Autonomy Scorecard (Estermann & Nokkala, 2009), which are: organizational autonomy, financial autonomy, staffing autonomy, and academic autonomy. Those four dimensions will be the themes for this study. Each of them will be used to explain the different degrees of institutional autonomy at three models of public higher education institutions (HEIs) in Indonesia: State-Owned Legal Entity (SOLE) institutions or autonomous universities, Public Service Institutions (PSIs) and Public Government Institutions (PGIs).

State-owned legal entity (SOLE) is the most famous model of all the university. They always become an example and subject in many case-studies about the successful governance reform in Indonesia. This status was originally given to four biggest universities in Indonesia, which are: University of Indonesia (UI), Gadjah Mada University (UGM), Bogor Institute of Agriculture (IPB), and Bandung Institute of Technology (ITB). It was followed by University of North Sumatra (USU), Indonesia University of Education (UPI) and Airlangga University (UNAIR). Last year, four other public HEIs were joining this group: Diponegoro University (UNDIP), Padjadjaran University (UNPAD), Sepuluh Nopember Institute of Technology (ITS), and Hasanuddin University (UNHAS). Additionally, these universities were given a transition period of five years to become fully autonomous universities. One thing to keep in mind is that the last four universities joined in the recent years, so that, they are still in the transition period. Nevertheless, the analysis will be made based on the typical autonomous universities.

The second model is Public Service Institution (PSI) or Badan Layanan Umum (BLU). PSIs is a generally new concept for HEIs and rarely known in public. Nevertheless, this status has been given to 21 public universities. One fact about this model is that PSIs are not a legal entity, in that, PSIs are still part of the Directorate General of Higher Education (DGHE). Even so, they have a certain degree of autonomy. The last model, Public Government Institution (PGI) is basically the rest of HEIs in Indonesia. Majority of public HEIs are still under this category. Similar with the previous model, PGIs are still legally under the DGHE.
This chapter is structured as follow. First, a description is provided of institutional autonomy in three models of public HEIs results, dimension by dimension. On each dimension, the description and analysis will be based on several indicators. The sources of empirical data for this research is based on several interviews, to allow a thorough analysis on the real degree of certain crucial aspects of institutional autonomy in three models of Indonesian public HEIs. Finally, a summary and discussion will be made to set the study in context.

4.2. Organizational autonomy

The findings at this organizational autonomy dimension are analyzed based on five indicators: a) capacity to decide governance structure; b) Inclusion and selection of external members in governing bodies; c) selection procedures of the executive head; d) qualifications of the executive head; and e) term of office of the executive head. These indicators are presented and discussed based on three models of Indonesian public higher education institutions (HEIs), which are: Autonomous universities, Public Service Institutions (PSIs), and Public Government Institutions (PGIs). PSIs and PGIs would be discussed under one section, as there is no difference between the two of them in the area of organizational autonomy.

4.2.1. Autonomous universities (SOLE HEIs)

Most of the interviewees agreed that autonomous universities are special in a way that they have a lot of freedom in terms of organizational autonomy. Capacity to decide governance structure is the first indicator. All of the interviewees acknowledged that autonomous universities already have the autonomy in this indicator. As one interviewee explained,

“Every university (SOLE HEIs) have their own statute. That statute developed by each of the institution, (...) so, what kind of organization they want, what type of leadership, how many vice rector, the executives’ roles, etc. are written by the universities themselves. Government just inaugurate the statute and later each universities have to execute the internal changes in accordance to their statute”.

The excerpt highlights the capacity of autonomous universities to develop and design their own internal management and governance structure that suited their university’s needs.
The second indicator is related to the **inclusion and selection of governing bodies**. All of the interviewees, without exception agreed that autonomous universities in Indonesia use the dual governance model, which include an Academic Senate and Board of Trustees. The Academic Senate have the authority on academic matters. Whilst, Board of Trustees govern everything else and is the highest level on the management structure. As acknowledged by four of the interviewees, autonomous universities have to include external members in their governing bodies. Moreover, autonomous universities only have a partial autonomy in the case of the selection of the external members, as some of them are appointed by an external authorities, as mentioned by one of the interviewee.

The third indicator is **the selection procedure of the executive head**. All of the interviewees agreed that autonomous universities already have the capacity to decide the selection procedures themselves. The selection procedure for the rector is varied in each institutions, however, it always directed and appointed by the Board of Trustees.

The provisions regarding the fourth and fifth indicators, which are: **the qualifications requirements and terms of office for the rector** are stated in the Ministerial decree. The terms of office for the rector is five years, similar as the Board of Trustees, and they can be re-elected for the second term. As for the qualification requirement, in order to be a rector, he/she needs to hold a doctoral degree and hold an academic position. Normally, the one who appointed as the rector is a professor or a well-known academic. Nevertheless, even if there is not explicitly stated in the law, it is hardly possible for a non-academic professional from outside the university to be a rector in an autonomous universities, as revealed by two of the interviewee. In that, based on those regulations, autonomous universities still do not have the authority related to these two indicators.

### 4.2.2. PSIs and PGIs

Despite the term of institutional autonomy has been echoed with the famous case of autonomous universities, however, the autonomy in the organizational dimension of public service institutions (PSIs) and public government institutions (PGIs) are still very much like in the past, as it was considered as part of the ministry. In this regard, there is no difference between PSIs or PGIs. Thus, the government that represented by the Directorate General of Higher Education (DGHE) still acts as the governing body for both PSIs and PGIs.
The first indicator is the **governance structure**, all of the interviewees acknowledged that both PSIs and PGIs still use the unitary governance structure, in which Senate is the only one main decision-making body and responsible for all major decisions inside the university. In the paper, there is Senate as the main decision-making body, however, as one interviewee stated, “*It is more safely to say that Senate may only partially considered as the governing body of the public HEIs*”. Government is actually the real authority to govern the public HEIs. In that, PSIs and PGIs do not have the authority to actually decide their own governance structure. In relation to the second indicator, **inclusion and selection of external members in governing bodies** is not applicable, as there is no external members included for the PSIs and PGIs.

The third indicator is the **selection procedures of the executive head**. All of the interviewees agreed that the selection process is stated in the Ministerial decree and have to be validated by an external authority. The appointment of the executive head have to be confirmed by the government. As one of the interviewee discloses, “*Too many political interest inside of it*”. Most of the time, candidates are based on the personal preference of the central government.

All of the interviewees, without exception, confirmed that the provision regarding the **qualification requirements and terms of office** for the rector are explicitly stated in the decree of the Ministry of Education and Culture (MONE) No.24/2010, which consists of detailed and specific procedures, and requirements list for the rector’s candidates. Similar with the autonomous universities, the minimum qualification for the rector at PSIs and PGIs is a doctoral degree and the terms of office is also 5 years, with the possibility to be re-elected for the second time. Normally, the rector is the one who holds an academic position and similar case with the autonomous universities, it is very unlikely for the outsider of the academic community to be appointed as a rector at public HEIs.

4.2.3. **Discussion**

To summarize, Table 2 mapping the real degree of organizational autonomy in three models of Indonesian public HEIs.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Autonomous Universities (SOLE HEIs)</th>
<th>PSIs</th>
<th>PGIs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Capacity to decide governance structure</td>
<td>⬤</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inclusion and selection of external members in governing bodies</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>Selection procedures of the executive head</td>
<td>⬤</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>Qualifications of the executive head</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<td>☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>Term of office of the executive head</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- ⬤: Full autonomy
- ☐: Autonomy with some restriction (partial autonomy)
- ☐: No autonomy

Table 2. Organizational autonomy in Indonesian public HEIs

Legal entity status refers to university’s right of self-governance (Ngo, 2013), thus, organizational autonomy supposedly become one dimension with the most changes. They are supposed to be independent and free from the government bureaucracy. According to the literature, particularly the UNESCO (2013) report on Governance Reforms and University Autonomy in Asia concludes that universities in Indonesia have the freedom to develop their own management system (p.32). While this statement is true in the case of autonomous universities, however, it is not for the case of PSIs and PGIs. As seen in the Table 2, the PSIs and PGIs are lack of autonomy in all the indicators. To think deeply about it, two decades have passed, however, there are still no changes in the public HEIs under the PGI and PSI status. They are still considered as a government unit, in that, they are part of the government bureaucracy, in which, all aspects of the organizational matters are strictly regulated by the government.

Autonomous universities, on the other hand, have the ability to decide their governance structure. The Government Regulation No.61/1999, which is the fundamental law for this legal status, does not provide any guideline for internal governance. Therefore, it gives autonomous universities the capacity to develop and design their own internal management and governance structure that suited their university’s needs. As the decision making process happen internally, there is no need for them to do the bureaucracy’s work or waiting an order from the government, as in the past. Clearly, there is a big changes in this matter, in which also represents an important aspect of organizational autonomy. However, one must remember that
there are rules and regulation to control the autonomous universities. Moreover, government, as the major stakeholder, still has the highest voice inside the autonomous universities to take a decision. One of the interviewee confessed that “In most cases, government represents more than 30% of the total members of stakeholders”. This excerpt implies that actually government still have a big role on the decision-making process inside of the university.

4.3. Financial autonomy

The findings at this financial autonomy dimension are analyzed based on six indicators: a) type of public funding; b) capacity to do internal allocation; c) ability to keep surplus; d) ability to borrow money; e) ability to own buildings; and f) capacity to generate self-revenues. These indicators are presented and discussed based on three models of Indonesian public higher education institutions (HEIs), which are: Autonomous universities, Public Service Institutions (PSIs), and Public Government Institutions (PGIs).

4.3.1. Autonomous university

The first indicator is the type of public funding. All of the interviewees acknowledged the change on the funding mechanism from a line-item to a block grant budget for the autonomous universities. University that receives a block grant funding has the capacity to distribute and manage their internal allocation independently, although some restriction may exist (Estermann & Nokkala, 2009). In that, this indicator would be related to the second indicator, the capacity to do the internal allocation. All of the interviewees agreed with the previous statement. As one of the interviewee mentioned, “Yes, they can decide on their internal allocation. They have their own system, but only for this state-owned legal entity universities”. Another interviewee added, “Nowadays, they can use the money directly without the need to ask for a permission anymore”. Those statement emphasizing that autonomous universities are special in a way that they are the only model that have the capacity to build their own finance system and separate from the government bureaucracy.

This autonomy also reflected on the new government regulation about budget management of autonomous universities. All of the interviewees concurred that autonomous universities do not need to report anymore their financial statement in a comprehensive manner, as in the past. As one interviewee confirmed,
“They do not need to provide a detailed report to government anymore, because nowadays they (autonomous universities) are responsible to the public. They will be audited by the public auditor and have to disclose everything to the societies as an evidence of accountability”.

On one side, those excerpts highlight the autonomy to manage the internal funding allocation independently, however, autonomous universities also need to be accountable to the public. This finding is actually in line with the conceptual framework, as it states that autonomy and accountability are two things that cannot be separated. If you obtain more autonomy, then you have to be more accountable (Brodjonegoro, 2002).

The third indicator is the ability to keep surplus. All of the interviewees, without exception, agreed that autonomous universities in Indonesia already have the autonomy to keep surplus on their public funding. Nevertheless, this is not the case on their capacity to borrow money, which is the fourth indicator. Autonomous universities are prohibited to borrow money on the financial market, as stated by all of the interviewees. Similar case also happens in regard to the fifth indicator, the ability to own buildings. As one of the interviewee mentioned, “Land and building are still registered as government’s assets”. As buildings are government’s assets, in that, autonomous universities are still unable to own them and still need to comply with the government regulation.

The sixth and last indicator is the capacity to generate self-revenues. In regards to this indicator, autonomous universities are given a certain degree of autonomy. As a matter of fact, they have the privilege to establish a holding company to manage their commercial venture or to use their revenues in a much more flexible way. As an example by one of the interviewee, “Generally for us (one autonomous university), only 30% of revenue come from the government, another 20% come from tuition fees, and another 50% from other self-generating revenues – like research contracts, short courses, intellectual property rights, investment, or consultancies (...) We have the autonomy to use these tuition fees and self-generating revenues without restriction or intervention from the government”. 

The excerpt highlight the capacity of autonomous universities to generate self-revenues. As can be seen from the given example, more than 50% of that university’s revenues do not come from the government, yet from tuition fees and other self-generating revenues. Nevertheless, this is not the case of all autonomous universities. Most of them rely heavily on tuition fees, as
acknowledged by four of the interviewees. In addition, all of the interviewees concurred that the more self-generated revenues of the university, the less government’s involvement to the internal university’s management. In that, most of the autonomous universities try to increase their self-generating revenues.

Nevertheless, there are some restriction that may apply in the area of tuition fees, as stated by one of the interviewee. It is true that autonomous universities can generate money from tuition fees, however, there are certain restriction under the Ministerial decree regarding this, such as: “The government set a ceiling for tuition fees”. Another example is: “One regulation specified that revenue from tuition fees must not contribute to more than one-third of the university’s expenses”. Other than that, autonomous universities have enjoyed the ability to manage their self-generating revenues independently.

4.3.2. PSIs

Financial autonomy is the only dimension where Public Service Institutions (PSIs) have some differences compared to the Public Government Institutions (PGIs). As one of the interviewee stated, “PSIs have more (financial) flexibility, but very limited”. Basically, PSIs only have restricted flexibility in some certain area that will be described in the following paragraphs.

The first indicator is the type of public funding. Technically, the funding mechanism for the PSIs is still a line-item budget system. As one of the interviewee emphasized, “it is a rigid line-item budget system”. Line item budget system is a financial grants which are pre-allocated to specific cost items and/or activities (Estermann & Nokkala, 2009). As a matter of fact, all budgets for the PSIs are pre-allocated, in that, any reallocation between budget components is prohibited. There are some standard procedures related to planning and budgeting the public university’s internal funding, and it was uniformly imposed to all public institutions, with the exemption of autonomous universities.

As a matter of fact, PSIs do not have the autonomy in terms of the second, third, fourth, and fifth indicators, which are: the capacity to do internal allocation, ability to keep surplus, ability to borrow money, and ability to own buildings. As acknowledged by all of the interviewees, they cannot manage their assets independently, because their assets are categorized as State’s assets. In that, their money, buildings, and land are belong to the
government. They are also not allowed to keep their surplus or unspent budget. Furthermore, PSIs are prohibited to borrow money from the third parties.

The only exception is on the sixth indicator, **capacity to generate self-revenues**. As one of the interviewee confirmed, “Yes, they are allowed to set their tuition fees and do other activities to generate money, but there are some regulations applied”. The restriction regarding the tuition fees is similar with the autonomos universities, which is related to the ceiling set of the tuition fees for the students, as mentioned by other interviewee. Actually, this is the only area where PSIs have acquired some flexibility.

Basically, the main autonomy that PSIs enjoyed is related to the management of self-generating revenues. According to the Law No.17/2003, all self-generated revenues at public institutions, including public higher education institutions, is categorized as a non-tax State’s revenues and need to be inserted to the State’s treasury. Nevertheless, PSIs are exempted from this regulation and they are given a certain flexibility to manage their self-generating revenue. As one of the interviewee explained,

> “In the past, they supposed to report and deposit their self-generating revenues, such as from tuition fees or consulting, to the State treasury, but now, PSIs are given an autonomy to use the money directly. No need to deposit the money first, then make proposal, etc. etc. (...) so it reduces the bureaucracy. They only need to make a report at the end of the year about how much money they receive and how much money they use and for what purposes”.

As acknowledged by other interviewee, “PSIs do not need to report the sources of their revenues nor deposit their money to the government anymore”. Those excerpts by the interviewees themselves highlight the partial autonomy that PSIs obtain in regards to the internal allocation of their financial matter. They may not allowed to use the money independently from the government but at least they are given some flexibility to manage their self-generating revenues.

One interesting finding related to the PSIs was the reason why government established this status. One interviewee mentioned that government tried to make PSIs model as an intermediary step between the State-Owned Legal Entity (SOLE) and Public Government Institutions (PGIs). The aim is to increase the financial flexibility of PGIs and to prepare them to be the SOLE
institutions in the future, as he added again. Shockingly, another interviewee denounced this point of view. He confessed that,

“Sorry to say, but PSIs are sissy. It was imposed since the first time (Directorate General of Higher Education) try to establish the legal entity status and demanded a financial autonomy. People at the (Ministry of) finance did not want to give the block-grant funding and tried to defend, by created this PSIs. What autonomy this PSIs’ have? Nothing! They (PSIs) still even need an approval of their budget from the Minister of Finance. It is useless! So I said, what the heck these PSIs are for? (...) so yeah, people at the Ministries pretend to be supportive but actually they are not willing to release their power (over money) and created this intermediary status thing-y. But, try to think. Don’t you think it is nonsense? What’s the difference between changing the PGIs to autonomous universities and PGIs to PSIs? It needs the same excessive bureaucracy anyway. Now, it is twice the work and the autonomy will not be much different, right?”

Apparently, that excerpt sharply highlights the reality of PSIs model. As a matter of fact, PSIs do not have that much autonomy, only some flexibility in terms of internal allocation of self-generating revenues.

4.3.3. PGIs
As acknowledged by all of the interviewees, universities under the status of public government institutions (PGIs) are still controlled by the government. Similar as in the past, PGIs have no autonomy in all indicators of the financial dimension. The budget system of PGIs are attached to the government budget, in that, there are strict regulations regarding the planning and budgeting of their internal funding. All of the interviewees confirmed the absence of financial flexibility at the PGIs.

All of the interviewees again mentioned that the funding mechanism for the PGIs is still a line-item budget system. All of the PGIs budget needs to be approved by the central government, in particular Ministry of National Education (MONE) and Ministry of Finance (MOF). As part of the government bureaucracy, PGIs do not have the autonomy in almost all indicators of financial dimension, with some exception at the last indicator. As one of the interviewee confessed,

“What can I say? They do not have the freedom to allocate the public funding internally. They also have to give back the unspent budget to the state treasury at
the end of fiscal year, and they are prohibited to borrow money from third parties. Basically they are not allowed to do anything by themselves, like babies”.

Those statement above are acknowledged by all of the interviewees. As a matter a fact, PGIs do not have any privilege to manage, retain and spend the budget autonomously. PGIs also need to report their financial statement in such a detailed and specific manner every year. Furthermore, similar to PSIs, all of their assets are the State’s assets, in that, they do not have any authority to manage their assets independently. This is also the case of the sixth indicator, the capacity to generate self-revenues. They able to generate funding from other sources, such as from a consultancy or collaboration with the industry, however, all of the money are still considered as State’s incomes. In other words, PGIs have to comply with all of the regulations on public finance management. As denounced by one of the interviewee,

“According to the law, every money generated by them (PGIs) must first enter the state treasury, then the university need to make a proposal. It is an excessive bureaucracy. No one knows when the money will come, maybe next year, or another year, maybe never come”.

The statement highlights the excessive bureaucracy that happen in the PSIs, which is the model with the most number of HEIs in Indonesia. It implies that majority of all of public HEIs still under a strict regulation, similar as in the past.

4.3.4. Discussion

Some of the findings at the financial dimension are aligned with the literature review findings. Nizam & Nurdin (2014) previously mentioned that autonomous universities have the ability to establish a holding company that manage their academic-related and auxiliary ventures (p.95). Several other authors (Ngo, 2013; Fahmi, 2007a; Nizam, 2006) also emphasize autonomous university’s capacity in terms of self-generating revenues. Nevertheless, it only provides the half picture of financial autonomy in public HEIs. Table 3 actually exposed a lack of financial autonomy in Indonesian public HEIs. Even at autonomous universities, some restrictions may apply in almost all indicators. The only exceptions are the type of public funding and ability to keep surplus. Furthermore, in terms of PSIs and PGIs, both models only have a certain capacity to generate self-revenues, however, only PSIs have some limited flexibility to allocate and manage them.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of public funding</th>
<th>Autonomous Universities (SOLE HEIs)</th>
<th>PSIs</th>
<th>PGIs</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Internal allocation</td>
<td>Block grant</td>
<td>Line-item</td>
<td>Line-item</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to keep surplus</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>Ø</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ability to borrow money</td>
<td>Ø</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ability to own buildings</td>
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<tr>
<td>Capacity to generate self-revenues</td>
<td>Ø</td>
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</table>

• : Full autonomy  
( : Autonomy with some restriction (partial autonomy)  
Ø : No autonomy

Table 3. Financial Autonomy in Indonesian public HEIs

These findings embody the distressing situation in regards to the university’s finance. As stated by Wicaksono & Friawan (2007), government decrease the public funding to all of public HEIs in Indonesia, in that, the capacity to generate self-revenues become very important. The figure above shows that there are some restrictions in all models of public HEIs. Looking through the findings, public HEIs receive insufficient amount of money from the government so that they rely heavily on other revenues. Unfortunately, in Indonesia, it is not common for HEIs to provide services and collaborate with the business sector. Only a couple of autonomous universities have those ability. Thus, it is difficult for the other HEIs to generate money from investment, research or consultancies. Most of them rely so much on the tuition fees. However, there are restrictions on generating self-revenues, especially from the tuition fees. To think clearly, how do they obtain money to operate then? It is no wonder that public HEIs become resource-starved.

Furthermore, as explained in the theoretical background, financial autonomy is crucial as it is mostly connected with other dimensions of autonomy. The limitation on financial autonomy will restrain university’s ability to make a decision and manage their resources, such as staffs and facilities. Then, the next question would be, how could they compete and become the ‘world class universities’, as promoted by the government.
4.4. Staffing autonomy

The findings at the staffing autonomy dimension are analyzed based on four indicators: a) capacity to decide on recruitment process; b) capacity to decide on salaries; c) capacity to decide on dismissals; and d) capacity to decide on promotions. These indicators are presented and discussed based on three models of Indonesian public higher education institutions (HEIs), which are: Autonomous universities, Public Service Institutions (PSIs), and Public Government Institutions (PGIs). PSIs and PGIs would be discussed under one section, as there is no difference between the two of them in the area of staffing autonomy.

4.4.1. Autonomous university

All of the interviewees, without exception, agreed that staffing autonomy is difficult to change and improve, even for the autonomous universities. One of the interviewee confessed that “staff status is a sensitive issue”. Actually, government initiated to change the status from civil servant to university’s employees, however, there were so many resistance regarding the staff status. One interviewee concurred with this statement and added that, the government finally established a dual track personnel system for autonomous universities as a result of the resistances from the academics and staffs, which are: government officials and university employees.

Under the civil servant personnel track, autonomous university do not have the authority in basically any of the indicators of staffing autonomy: recruitment process; salaries; dismissals; and promotions. As their staffs are still government officials, they are subject to strict regulations by the government regarding this issues. The appointment of staff, salaries, promotions and dismissals, especially for senior academic and administrative staff are tightly regulated by law and must be confirmed by the central government through the State Civil Service Agency (SCSA).

Similar condition as in the past, government has strict guidelines regarding the selection procedure of the civil servant that are specified in the law. It usually starts with a national entrance examination that conducted every year by the State Civil Service Agency (SCSA). Successful candidates will go through maximum two year probation as a civil servant staffs at the autonomous university. Finally, their probation will shift to a lifetime employment after
they acquire a tenureship from the university, as explained by one of the interviewee. The salaries are based on the civil servant rank.

In regards to the promotion of the staff, it predominantly is an automatic system based on the fulfilment of administrative requirements and length of service as the civil servant. Surprisingly, appointment for the key role, as a rector or vice rector, is mostly based on seniority not merit system, as stated by one of the interviewee. Whilst, regarding the third indicator, termination is “unlikely or almost impossible to happen”, said another interviewee. According to these findings, it shows that autonomous university is actually in the same state as public HEIs in the past.

In contrast, there is a whole different system for the university employee personnel track. The autonomous universities have the authority in all indicators of staffing autonomy, which in the area of: recruitment process; salaries; dismissals; and promotions. As one of the interviewee acknowledged, “They have full autonomy to manage their staff under this track”. The structure of university’s employee track is based on the university’s demand, which means each of the autonomous university has their own system and regulations to manage all issues related to the staffing matters.

4.4.2. PSIs and PGIs
Similar situation as in the civil servant personnel track at the autonomous university, autonomy in the staffing dimension of public service institutions (PSIs) and public government institutions (PGIs) are still very much like in the past, as they are still a government officials. However, unlike the autonomous university, both PSIs and PGIs are forbidden to have a dual personnel track system. In this matter, all academic and administrative staffs of both PSIs and PGIs are considered as civil servants. Thus, there is no difference between PSIs and PGIs in terms of staffing autonomy.

All of the interviewees acknowledged that there is basically no freedom at all indicators in related to staffing autonomy dimension for both PSIs and PGIs, which include the capacity to decide on: recruitment process; salaries; dismissals; and promotions. As one interviewee emphasized, “basically, no changes at all”, in which all of the interviewees agreed. They are bound by the rules and regulations from the central government. There are a strict guidelines
for recruitment procedures, salaries, promotions and termination of staffs. All of them are specified and regulated in the law.

4.4.3. Discussion

To summarize, Table 4 illustrated the staffing autonomy in three models of Indonesian public HEIs in Indonesia.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Autonomous Universities (SOLE HEIs)</th>
<th>PSIs</th>
<th>PGIs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Capacity to decide on recruitment process</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capacity to decide on salaries (senior academic/senior administrative staff)</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capacity to decide on dismissals (senior academic/senior administrative staff)</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capacity to decide on promotions (senior academic/senior administrative staff)</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Staffing autonomy in Indonesian public HEIs

As seen from the Table 4, there is an inadequacy of staffing autonomy in all models of public HEIs. Both of PSIs and PGIs do not have autonomy at all to manage its human resources. Whilst at the autonomous universities, there is a dual track personnel system. They do not have the authority to manage the staffs under the civil servant track, but, they have the autonomy to manage their staff under the university’s employee track. In that, autonomous universities only have a partial autonomy related to the staffing matters.

Basically, there are differences between the literature review and empirical findings. In the literature, Achwan (2010) claims that autonomous universities already have the autonomy in terms of salary levels and issues related to hiring and firing staff. Apparently, this is not the case in the reality. Moreover, Nizam (2006) states that the transformation finally change the status of all staff to university employees. Again, it does not really correspond to the empirical
findings. It seems that staffing autonomy is the dimension with the lowest autonomy compared to the other dimensions.

The staffing autonomy is still a problematic issue related to the institutional autonomy in Indonesian public HEIs. The biggest obstacle is the resistance from all the staffs who oppose the transformation from civil servants status to university employee status. As a matter of fact, this preference is not difficult to guess. All of the benefits, stability and security are guaranteed as a civil servants. Most of the key positions and benefits at the autonomous university are usually given to the staffs under the civil servant track, not university’s employee track and it creates discrimination between the two tracks, as stated by one of the interviewee. Consequently, the majority of people refuse to be in the university’s employee track. However, as all aspects of the civil servants management are strictly regulated, government’s orders are becoming the ultimate drivers and staff performance is becoming less important. As one of the interviewee asserted, “You can do nothing, yet still get salary”. As a consequence, people are becoming less motivated and not driven to be active and innovative. Therefore, it could endanger the aim of such autonomy (Middlehurst & Teixeira, 2012), in which to create an environment that enabling HEIs to improve their quality and relevance.

4.5. Academic autonomy

The findings at the academic autonomy dimension are analyzed based on five indicators: a) capacity to decide on overall student numbers; b) capacity to select students; c) capacity to introduce programs; d) capacity to terminate programs; and e) capacity to design content of degree programs. These indicators are presented and discussed based on three models of Indonesian public higher education institutions (HEIs), which are: Autonomous universities, Public Service Institutions (PSIs), and Public Government Institutions (PGIs). PSIs and PGIs would be discussed under one section, as there is no difference between the two of them in the area of academic autonomy.

4.5.1. Autonomous university

All of the interviewees agreed that autonomous universities already have a lot of capacity in regards to the academic matters. As one of the interviewee mentioned, “Clearly, academic is 100% autonomous. We can decide by our own, even though we still have to see some regulations”. It is interesting to see interviewee’s perception on autonomy. He/she stated that
autonomous universities already have 100% autonomy, ironically, he/she also mentioned the existence of regulation that need to be followed by them. It basically implies that autonomous universities not really autonomous.

Regarding the first indicator of academic autonomy, autonomous universities already have a **capacity to decide on their overall student numbers**. All of the interviewees concurred that there are no regulations in the matter of the overall numbers of student intake. Each of the autonomous universities can freely decide on their enrolment size as well as the distribution of students per disciplines. Surprisingly, the government will try to negotiate with the university to increase their total numbers of student intake every year, in order to expand the access to higher education, as one of the interviewee acknowledged. It is interesting to note that the government is the one that try to negotiate in this matter, not the other way around.

The second indicator is the **capacity to select students**. In the student selection mechanism of autonomous university, a numerous of regulations are stated in the law. In order to enter public higher education institutions, candidates need to hold a secondary qualification certificate and passed the national entrance examination. All of the basic requirements criteria are specified in the national law. It is best to say that admission criteria for autonomous universities are being co-regulated between the national government and the university, especially for bachelor level. The law stated that 50% of the new students intake must be taken from the national admission scheme and 20% reserved for students from underprivileged background. The autonomous universities freely select the remaining 30% of the new students. Furthermore, as stated by one of the interviewee, autonomous universities also have the autonomy to decide the admission for the vocational, graduate and special programs.

The third and fourth indicators are: **capacity to introduce and to terminate programs**. All of the interviewees adduced that autonomous universities have a freedom to open and terminate a new degree programs. Nonetheless, one of the interviewee clarified that several universities that just received this new state-owned legal entity (SOLE) status in the last recent years still not have the ability to open a new study programs. Meanwhile the others have more freedom and flexibility. They do not need any approval from the central government, only need to report for the record purposes, as mentioned by two of the interviewees. Even so, there may also be some limitation to consider before introducing a new study program. Three of the interviewees revealed that there are some national set standards that need to be followed, such as: minimum
numbers of lecturer for a new study program and lecturer-student ratio. In related to the termination of study program, there is no specific rule other than to report it to the Directorate General of Higher Education (DGHE).

In relation to the fifth indicator, autonomous universities already have the capacity to design content of their degree programs. One of the interviewee explained, “Academic senate is the one who is taking charge in this matter (...) and they only need to get an approval by the Board of Trustees”. Most of the interviewees agreed that they can decide on the matter of subject, methods of instruction, management and procedure of the new study program and curriculum development. Basically, they have the autonomy to design everything and enjoy a high degree in this area.

4.5.2. PSIs and PGIs
All of the interviewees agreed that there is no difference between academic autonomy in the public service institutions (PSIs) and public government institutions (PGIs), as both of them are still under the government bureaucracy. Actually, there are two laws that regulate the academic autonomy in both of PSIs and PGIs, which are the Education System law and Higher Education law. As one of the interviewee confirmed, “They (PSIs and PGIs) have to strictly follow all of the regulations under those two laws”. As all of the interviewees asserted, there is a limited autonomy in regards to the academic dimension. Technically, those two laws regulate everything related to students and degree programs.

As mentioned by all of the interviewees, both PSIs and PGIs are free to decide the overall student numbers. This is not the case for the selection of the student. Both PSIs and PGIs need to follow certain rules and regulation regarding the admission mechanism of public universities. Similar with the autonomous universities, both PSIs and PGIs need to follow the National Admission Scheme for admitting new undergraduate students. According to the law, the minimum of 50% student intake must be taken from the candidate who passed at the National Admission Scheme and at least another 20% of students who come from an a low socio-economic groups. However, unlike autonomous universities, the

The third and fourth indicators are: capacity to introduce and to terminate programs. Government through Directorate General of Higher education has all the control concerning an introduction and termination of a degree programs. The regulations explicitly provide a long
list of guidelines for opening or closing a study program, program duration, final degree and learning outcomes for each level of degrees that need to be followed, as stated by one of the interviewee. Another interviewee confirmed that, “They can’t never open or terminate a study program without government’s approval. It is just impossible”. Those two excerpts highlight the absence of autonomy in these two indicators. An application request for opening a new study program must through a long and complex bureaucracy. It requires a long list of administrative documents that will take years to be processed.

The **capacity to design content of degree program** probably the only indicator that both PSIs and PGIs enjoy. As mentioned by all of the interviewees, curriculum content is given to the hand of the institution and government’s role is minimum in this area. According to the Higher Education Law, only four mandatory courses need to be included in all degree programs, which are: Indonesian language, religious study, Pancasila as State’s ideology, and civic education. Nevertheless, as one of the interviewee mentioned, the institution needs to develop the curriculum with the professional organization of the each concerned subject.

4.5.3. Discussion

Table 5 illustrated the academic autonomy in three models of Indonesian public HEIs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Autonomous Universities (SOLE HEIs)</th>
<th>PSIs</th>
<th>PGIs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Capacity to decide on overall student numbers</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capacity to select students</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capacity to introduce programs</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capacity to terminate programs</td>
<td></td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capacity to design content of degree programs</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

● : Full autonomy  
● : Autonomy with some restriction (partial autonomy)  
O : No autonomy

Table 5. Academic autonomy in Indonesian public HEIs

Surprisingly, academic autonomy is probably the dimension with the highest level of autonomy, compared to the other three dimensions. As seen in the Table 5, autonomous
universities almost have the autonomy in all of the indicators, with only some restrictions related to the student selection and introduction of a study programs. Meanwhile, even if it is limited, both PSIs and PGIs at least have some autonomy in terms of overall students’ numbers, student’s selection and design content of degree programs. It actually aligned with the literature review findings. Both Achwan (2010) and UNESCO reports (2013) mentioned that autonomous universities already obtain a huge academic freedoms and it is easier for them to open and close a degree program. Unfortunately, there is no information related to the academic autonomy in both PSIs and PGIs from the literature. Nevertheless, it is safe to say that the academic autonomy has been implemented at the autonomous universities reasonably well.

Looking back to the context, it is understandable that government set some regulations in term of students’ selection. Primarily, one must understand that the capacity to decide on overall student numbers and select students are related to financial dimension. The numbers of overall student and types of students will determine how much money university will retrieve. This can cause a lot of problems. Originally, the government give full autonomy to the autonomous universities to select students, as a result, they started the practice of *jalur khusus* (special passage) that prioritize and allocate some percentage of entrance seats to students from high socio-economic background over low income families who may have a better academic premise (Susanti, 2010, p.214). Adang Suraman, vice rector of Bandung Institute of Technology (ITB), one of the famous autonomous university, stated that (Detiknews, 2004 April 23) ITB will set the minimum price of 45 million rupiah for students who want to enter through this special passage. Similar situation also happens in other autonomous universities, such as in Sepuluh Nopember Institute of Technology (ITS) that set a price range for this special passage for about 35-45 million rupiah (MI, 2008). In contrast, the average monthly wage of Indonesian people are only 3.67 million rupiah. One can imagine how ‘big’ those numbers are, to Indonesian society. Obviously, it lead to a big demonstration by students and societies. Then, the government revoked this autonomy from the universities.
Chapter 5. Conclusion and Recommendation

5.1. Introduction
This section will looking back at the research objective and offers conclusion based on the Chapter 4. Case Study Findings: Description, Analysis and Synthesis. Moreover, recommendation for the future studies on related topic will be discussed. Mainly, this chapter will also provide the implications of this research to the development of institutional autonomy in Indonesia. Finally, there will be a reflecting section on the study process and the guidance will be offered on how to develop and advance this research.

5.2. Conclusion
Looking back at the four dimensions of institutional autonomy by Estermann and Nokkala (2009), the real degree of certain crucial aspects of institutional autonomy in public higher education institutions in Indonesia as follow:

- Levels of organizational autonomy is very low.
  Out of five indicators, autonomous universities only have full autonomy in two of them: capacity to decide governance structure and selection procedure of the executive head. Whereas, they still do not have autonomy in another two indicators. Meanwhile, both PSIs and PGIs are still considered as part of the Ministry. In that, they do not have any autonomy related to the organizational matters.

- Levels of financial autonomy is low.
  There are restrictions and limitation in almost all indicators of financial autonomy in three models of public HEIs. Despite receiving a block grant budget, autonomous universities only have a full autonomy in 1 out of 4 other indicators (not include the type of funding), which is the capacity to keep surplus. Whereas, they still have no ability to own buildings. Further, both PSIs and PGIs have limited autonomy to generate self-revenues, however, only PSIs have some restricted ability to manage them.

- Levels of staffing autonomy is very low.
  Staffing autonomy is the dimension with the lowest autonomy. There is an inadequacy of autonomy in three models of public HEIs. Both PSIs and PGIs do not have any autonomy related to the staffing matters. Whilst, autonomous universities only have a partial autonomy. They only have the capacity to manage their staff under the university
employee track, but no authority at all to manage their staffs under the civil servant track. Unfortunately, most of their staffs are under the civil servant track.

- Levels of academic autonomy is **medium**.

Academic autonomy, on the other hand, is the dimension with the highest autonomy compare to the other dimensions. Autonomous universities have full autonomy in 3 out 5 indicators, with only some restriction in other two indicators. Meanwhile, both PSIs and PGIIs already have autonomy in at least three of the indicators, although some restriction may exist.

### 5.3. Recommendation

The recommendations that are proposed in this section have been develop from the study in the hope to increase the institutional autonomy of higher education institutions in Indonesia. All of the six interviewees agreed that it should be improved and escalated for the future, in order for higher education to be effective and efficient. Nevertheless, it is important to note that this study only looking at a certain crucial aspects of institutional autonomy at the public universities, in that, it probably will not satisfy all the actors or suitable for all circumstances. Further, the main audience for these recommendations is the policy makers. In any case, it also relevant for the university leaders, academics, and societies to be aware of institutional autonomy. Finally, Table 6 at the end of this section illustrated the recommended strategy.

**Recommendation 1: Construct an Institutional Characteristic**

![Institutional Characteristic](image)

Figure 3. Institutional Characteristic (Adapted from Stokes, as cited in Moeliodihardjo et al., 2013)
In order to focus and fully contribute to the successfultness of the institutional autonomy reform, this study propose an institutional characteristic framework which adapted from Stokes (as cited in Moeliodihardjo et al., 2013). This institutional characteristic framework distinguishes four types of institutions (see Figure 3): basic research institutions, relevant research institutions, teaching focused institutions and practically oriented institutions (p.3). Quadrant I is the basic research universities. It is basically a category where university with a well-developed research belong. Indeed, many autonomous universities in public HEIs belong to this group, such as Gadjah Mada University (UGM) or Indonesian University (UI). Principally, they are concentrates on the fundamental science. Quadrant II is a relevant research universities, whereas they are unravels fundamental principles but inspired by application and relevance to society (Moeliodihardjo et al., 2013). Bandung Institute of Technology (ITB) in Indonesia may be one of the example that belong to this group. Usually, universities under this category have a high connection with the business sector and society.

Quadrant III is a teaching-focused institutions. Most of the higher education institutions in developing countries, such as in Indonesia, are under this category. The main aim of the universities in this group is teaching on a broad curricula, particularly on generic skills rather than vocational or practical. Quadrant IV is a professionally oriented institutions. The aim of the institutions in this groups is to provide knowledge and practical skills. In that, they have a high connection with industries or companies. It is mostly known as polytechnic in Indonesia.

Rationale: It might be a little bit perplexing to use this framework as a recommendation for institutional characteristic without understanding the reason behind it. Simply put, institutional characteristic is very important to keep the universities to be focus. Following the changes to be autonomous universities, many of them started to implement unsuitable policies. As an example, some universities that belong in the quadrant I and their goal is to be ‘world-class universities’ started to open lots of diploma programs or vocational classes that are more appropriate for other categories. On the other hand, many teaching-focused institutions expect to be research based institutions or ‘center of excellence’, which is unrealistic. As a matter of fact, they use their freedom to do something that irrelevant from the purpose of institutional autonomy. Consequently, it creates a polemic and public assume that universities are immature to be given such an autonomy. It was often the case that government officials use this as a
reason to restrain the autonomy from them. In that, it is crucial for the universities to first understand their characteristic and mission.

Institutional characteristic will help the universities to be focus to excel in their own area and to be ‘the best they can be’ according to their mission and university’s purposes. With this understanding, higher education institutions (HEIs) could use their autonomy effectively to achieve the aim of such reform, improve quality and relevance of HEIs.

Recommended actions:
- Provide coaching and training
- Develop pilot program to increase competition between the universities under the same categories

Recommended support:
Foster dialogue about different institutional characteristic. It is important for the institutions to understand their strengths before they are given an autonomy. In that, this understanding is important as the basis for institutional autonomy.

**Recommendation 2: Accelerate the development of autonomous universities**

It is important for the government to show commitment to the development of autonomous universities by accelerating the process, so that public higher education institutions (HEIs) in Indonesia will have a sufficient autonomy to manage their internal affairs in the short to medium term.

Recommended actions:
- Abolish the Public Service Institution (PSI) or *Badan Layanan Umum* as an intermediary step
- Reducing the excessive bureaucracy and requirements to be the legal entity university (autonomous university)
- Simplify and accelerate the approval process

Recommended support:
It is also very important for the government officials to have a clear and common understanding about institutional autonomy on public higher education institutions, and act consistently to facing through that direction, especially in a critical times, such as: when setting up the regulatory frameworks and university’s transition phase to be autonomous university.

**Recommendation 3: Develop the enabling factors**

Enabling factors refer to factors that help to make change and reform easier (or possible). In the context of institutional autonomy in HEIs, it includes law, amendment, government supports, resources and conditions. Looking through the Higher Education Law No.12/2012, it is obvious that there is a need to have a follow-ups government regulations that will support the institutional autonomy process. Essentially, such regulations should be written in a consistent manner and not contradictory to each other. Moreover, it has to support the aim of the reform, which is providing a greater autonomy for HEIs.

Recommended actions:

- Formulate a variety of law and legislation tools which support institutional autonomy (particularly from staffs, budget system, accountability and institutional development)
- Improve and accede the bill on Civil Service (*RUU Aparatur Sipil Negara*), which is a contractual based government employees for the staff under the civil servant track that will provide more autonomy for the university to manage their staffing matters
- Develop a new funding mechanism that allows more flexible and simple fund channeling to all HEIs

Recommended support:

It is crucial to have a better coordination and consistency, particularly amongst all relevant Ministries and actors, to implement institutional autonomy at HEIs.

**Recommendation 4: Establish a national databases**

National databases refer to any type of communication systems and media for timely dissemination of information, particularly for the development of institutional autonomy in Indonesian HEIs. It will play a major role in enabling the accessibility of knowledge and information between the decision makers, academia, and society and establishing the link among the aforementioned actors. Strong national databases hold equal significance in
collecting the most recent data for the improvement of current Indonesian higher education issues such as details on types and model of HEIs; fundamental law and regulations, steps to be taken to be autonomous universities, guidelines for the institutions; risks and benefits; lesson learned from the reforms and charges; as well as information on stakeholders and relevant studies on national and international level in the related fields (such as funding mechanism and legal amendments). Moreover, it is important to make all the information and material easy to understand and to be accessed, especially for practitioners.

Recommended actions:

- Establish a national databases
- Build and strengthen the data collection infrastructure
- Provide sufficient funding for better access to international journals and international higher education conferences

Recommended support:

In that regard, for the information to be forwarded to the right channels, and built to have a broad impact, data collection infrastructure should be strengthened and taking into consideration.

**Recommendation 5: Develop a platform for ‘Sharing and Assisting’**

Institutional autonomy reform is a complicated process and involving multiple actors. Most of the time, it creates major problems and conflicts, especially between the actors. The actors as experts, academician and policy makers might have different approaches in identifying issues, best practices and applying solutions but this should be acknowledged as inevitable. Conflicting interests should be reduced to minimum in order to make policy making manageable. These communities should learn from each other, despite the existence of tensions, and gaps between policy and practice.

Recommended actions:

- Brainstorming workshop
- Training
- Coaching
Recommended support:
More engagement could be ensured through various interlinked activities. Researchers, policy makers, practitioners, and administrators could gather for the stimulating sessions of brainstorming workshops, to find the core problems and possible solutions. Training and coaching would be a better recommendation to help the actors to familiarize with the reform process and some other possible solutions.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Time frame</th>
<th>Probability of Failure</th>
<th>Impact</th>
<th>Risk</th>
<th>Possible Action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1 | Construct an Institutional Characteristic | Short | Medium | Medium | Medium | (1) Coaching and Training  
(2) Develop pilot program to increase competition between the universities under the same categories |
| 2 | Accelerate the development of autonomous universities | Medium | Medium | High | medium | (1) Abolish the Public Service Institution (PSI) or Badan Layanan Umum as an intermediary step  
(2) Reducing the excessive bureaucracy and requirements to be the legal entity university (autonomous university)  
(3) Simplify and accelerate the approval process |
| 3 | Develop the enabling factors | Long | High | High | High | (1) Formulate a variety of law and legislation tools which support institutional autonomy (particularly from staffs, budget system, accountability and institutional development)  
(2) Improve and accede the bill on Civil Service  
(3) Develop a new funding mechanism that allows more flexible and simple fund channeling to all HEIs |
| 4 | Establish a national databases | Medium | Low | Medium | Low | (1) Establish a national databases  
(2) Build and strengthen the data collection infrastructure  
(3) Provide sufficient funding for better access to international journals and international higher education conferences |
| 5 | Develop a platform for ‘Sharing and Assisting’ | Short | Low | Medium | Low | (1) Brainstorming workshop  
(2) Training  
(3) Coaching |

Table 6. Recommended Strategy Plan
5.4. Recommendation for Further Study

In regards to the limited availability of studies on institutional autonomy in Indonesia. This topic should be more researched to obtain a more in-depth knowledge related to it. As previously mentioned, this study only focused on certain crucial aspects of institutional autonomy, in that, future studies should expand in other directions or examine from different angles. Several feasible opportunities to advance this study are from the angles of the institutions, particularly a case study from the Public Service Institutions (PSIs) and Public Government Institutions (PGIs) that are basically non-exist at the moment; the barriers of institutional autonomy from both government and institutions perspectives; institutional autonomy at the private institutions that unfortunately are also insufficient; and the use of a more broad quantitative research could also be employed to quantify the changes of institutional autonomy across HEIs, nationally and internationally.

5.5. Reflection

The concept of institutional autonomy in Indonesian higher education institutions (HEIs) is more often being exaggerated that the practice itself. Hardly to say, the study has identified a generally low level of autonomy in Indonesian public HEIs. There is no intention of this study to accuse or degrade of such reforms and changes, but in the hope, it will bring the topic to light and stimulate discussion on this topic. The contribution of this study is to create a dialogue and debate on autonomy reform on the policy level. Particularly about institutional autonomy in practice – ‘Where are we now?’

Furthermore, based on self-reflection, the first piece of advice for another researcher is to carefully planning the case study, especially related to the data gathering and analysis. One must be prepared to face some challenges. As an example from this study, one of the interviewee received a wrong questions that belong to the other group and this had gone unnoticed until the day of the interview. In this case, one has to apologize for the mistake and always prepared a hard copy questions anytime.

The second advice is to always choose the topic that really interest you, as it really helps during the process. As the researcher’s academic interest has been in the higher education governance
and institutional reform, in that, this topic really raise her curiosity to work towards it. When you really passionate about the topic, you will be prepared to face any challenges, more focus on the work, and willing to give more efforts. In the end, you will gain a deeper meaning on your work and give you more satisfaction.
Bibliography


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### Appendix A. Sample of Interview questions for policy makers and experts (Translated from Bahasa Indonesia)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Follow-up item/ reminder</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organizational</td>
<td>1. What do you think about public universities’ ability to decide their own governance system? (SOLE, PSI, PGI)</td>
<td>• SOLE, PSI, PGI (for each items)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. How are the governing bodies inside the HEIs formed?</td>
<td>• Regulations / limitation (each indicators)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Who choose the members of governing bodies? What are the reasons?</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Tell me about the procedures for electing the executive head of the university</td>
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<td></td>
<td>5. What are the criteria to be the executive head? Is there any unwritten criteria exists (and example)?</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. What are the procedures of dismissal of the executive head? Who decides on that?</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. How long is the term of office for the executive head? Who decide the on that?</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8. Based on what we talked so far, tell me about your impression on their autonomy, particularly on internal management and decision-making ability (organizational autonomy). Why is that?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial</td>
<td>1. What type of public funding that is implemented in public HEIs?</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Tell me more about the internal allocation of public and private funds</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Are they free to decide how they spend their public operational grant?</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. What do you think about their ability to keep surplus and/or carry over unspent financial resources from one year to the next?</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. What do you think about their ability to borrow money, e.g. in the capital market?</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. What do you think about their ability to own buildings/lands?</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. Tell me more about their ability to generate self-revenues</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8. What kinds of self-generating revenues? Do you know the general percentages of their revenues come from this?</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9. Tell me about your impression on their financial autonomy. Why is that?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10. Any interesting ‘insider’ story you want to share related to finance/financial autonomy?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Staffing

1. What do you think about staff’s status on Indonesian public HEIs?
2. Do you think the reform to change the civil servant status to university’s employee was successful? Why? (If not, what do you think of the challenges?)
3. Tell me about the recruitment procedures for the academic/administrative staff. Who decide on this procedures?
4. What do you think about their ability to decide on their staff’s salaries?
5. What do you think about their ability to dismiss their staffs?
6. Tell me about the promotion procedures for the academic/administrative staff. Who decide on this procedures?
7. Do you think government still have some influences on this staffing matters? Why?
8. Tell me about your impression on their autonomy, particularly related on human resources affairs. Why is that?

### Academic

1. What do you think about their ability to decide on overall student numbers?
2. Are they free to select their new students? Why is that?
3. Tell me about the procedures for opening a new study programs
4. What are the procedure to terminate programs?
5. What do you think about their ability to design content of degree programs?
6. If yes, in what area of degree content that they are free to decide?
7. Tell me more about your impression on their academic autonomy. Why is that?

- **SOLE, PSI, PGI** (for each items)
- **Regulations / limitation (each indicators)**

Table 7. Sample of Interview Questions for (policy makers and experts)
### Appendix B. Sample of Interview questions for academics/executive leaders
(Translated from Bahasa Indonesia)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Follow-up item/ reminder</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organizational</td>
<td>1. What do you think about your universities’ ability to decide governance system?</td>
<td>• Asking about other model of HEIs (if relevant)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. How are the governing bodies inside your universities formed?</td>
<td>• Regulations / limitation (each indicators)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Who choose the members of governing bodies? Are there any criteria?</td>
<td>• Rector/ vice-rectors</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Tell me more about the procedures for electing the executive head of your university</td>
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<td></td>
<td>5. What are the criteria to be the executive head? Is there any unwritten criteria exists (and example)?</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. What is your role as the executive leader of the university?</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. What are the procedures of dismissal of the executive head? Who decides on that?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>8. How long is the term of office for the executive head? Who decide the on that?</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9. Based on what we talked so far, tell me about your impression your university’s autonomy, particularly on internal management and decision-making ability (organizational autonomy). Why is that?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial</td>
<td>1. What type of public mechanism that exist for your university?</td>
<td>• Other model of HEIs (if relevant)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Tell me more about the internal allocation of public and private funds of your university.</td>
<td>• Regulations / limitation (each indicators)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Are your university free to decide how to spend your public operational grant?</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. What do you think about your university’s ability to keep surplus and/or carry over unspent financial resources from one year to the next?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>5. Are your university have the ability to borrow money, e.g. in the capital market?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>6. Are your university have the capacity to own buildings/lands? Why is that?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>7. Are your university able to generate self-revenues?</td>
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<td>8. What kinds of self-generating revenues? Do you know the percentages of your revenues come from this stream?</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9. Tell me about your impression on the financial autonomy of your university. Why is that?</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10. Any interesting ‘insider’ story you want to share related to finance/financial autonomy?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Staffing          | 1. What do you think about staff’s status on Indonesian public HEIs in general?  
|                  | 2. Are your university’s staffs still civil servant or already change to university’s employee?  
|                  | 3. What do you think as problems or challenges related to this?  
|                  | 4. Do you think the reform to change the civil servant status to university’s employee was successful? Why? (If not, what do you think of the challenges?)  
|                  | 5. Tell me about the recruitment procedures for your academic/administrative staff. Who decide on this procedures?  
|                  | 6. What do you think about your university’s ability to decide on staff’s salaries?  
|                  | 7. Tell me about the procedure to dismiss your university’s staffs? Who decide on this procedures?  
|                  | 8. Tell me about the promotion procedures for the academic/administrative staff. Who decide on this procedures?  
|                  | 9. Do you think government have some influences on this staffing matters? Why?  
|                  | 10. Tell me about your impression on your autonomy, particularly related to human resources affairs. Why is that?  
| Academic         | 1. Are your university free to decide overall student numbers? Why is that?  
|                  | 2. Are your university free to select the new students?  
|                  | 3. Tell me about the procedure of selecting new students  
|                  | 4. Tell me about the procedures for opening a new study programs  
|                  | 5. What are the procedure to terminate programs?  
|                  | 6. Are your universities have the ability to design content of degree programs?  
|                  | 7. If yes, in what area of degree content that you are free to decide?  
|                  | 8. Tell me more about your impression on the academic autonomy. Why is that?  

Table 8. Sample of Interview Questions for (academic / executive leader)