UNIVERSITY EDUCATION AND EMPLOYMENT

Oleh: Maria S.W. Sumardjono  
Faculty of Law, Gadjah Mada University

In Indonesia, like in most countries, higher education expansion was a phenomenon in the 60's. The New Order government, while admitting that the production of well-trained university-level manpower was important, gave priority to qualitative improvement and selective expansion of the higher education system, rather than just quantitative expansion.

However, as the result, finding job opportunities for university graduates has become a problem. In general, graduates seek jobs which are well-suited with their aspiration and capacity. When the limited job opportunities do not meet their expectations, graduates have to face a conflict between idealism and reality. The choice then, is either finding a less suitable job, or adding to the number of intellectual unemployment.

Should universities be blamed for graduate unemployment? University education is primarily oriented toward teaching intellectual skills rather than job skills. Universities differ from work organizations in terms of responsibility; the first are responsible to prepare for graduates capable of relating and developing their knowledge with practice and the last are responsible to administer job training, by which people learn knowledge and/or skills for a definite purpose.

In societies where higher education is still regarded as the main channel to social mobility, the problem of graduate unemployment will persist.

This paper focuses on the relationship between education and unemployment; how occupational attitudes can contribute to graduate unemployment, how law students and graduates of Gadjah Mada University perceive the results/purposes of education, what are the basic aims of university education, and what the universities can do to cope with changes in societal needs and other changes without going beyond their primary responsibility.

STUDENT SELECTION AND OCCUPATIONAL ATTITUDE

The modern type of education was first introduced to Indonesia by the Dutch Colonial Administration. Schooling was primarily aimed at serving the educational needs of Dutch children, and later it was open to children of a few well-to-do Chinese families and to the aristocracy.

In the early part of the nineteenth century, a revised educational system was introduced, aiming to fill the needs of the Dutch Administration for lower level employees. But still, the system was mainly opened for educating a small minority of Indonesians, children of Indonesian aristocrats who had proven their loyalty to the Dutch (Veer, 1969:42).

A significant change was apparent at the turn of the twentieth century as a result of the introduction of an "ethical policy". A limited expansion of the educational system was marked with the establishment of colleges of engineering, law and medicine in Indonesia during World War I, at which time the Netherlands could no longer supply engineers, lawyers and medical doctors. In spite of this limited expansion, the basic aim of the educational system remained the same, that is, to serve the colonial interest.

After independence, education was given priority on the basis of a strong desire to modernize the country and the need to fill positions in government agencies left vacant by the Dutch. For any new nation, education plays a very important role in the complex task of nation building.

In the case of Indonesia, it involves the unification of various ethnic groups with different languages, customs and traditions.

While during the period 1945 to 1959 there were only seven universities and one institute of technology in Indonesia, during 1959 to 1965, 31 new state universities were established, consisting of 19 universities, one institute of technology, one institute of agriculture, and 10 teacher training institutes.

The New Order government, realizing that the major obstacle to socioeconomic development was a shortage of well-trained university-level manpower, gave priority to qualitative improvement and selective expansion of the higher education system, rather than just quantitative expansion. At present, through selective expansion, a state university has been established in each province, the major aim being to produce the expertise needed to support the Provincial Governors and the Planning Boards.

In spite of the quantitative change, the basic structure of the educational system, especially at the college level, still attempts to maintain social stability, providing few opportunities for members of the lower social stratum. Since it serves more as a social mechanism for horizontal mobility, its prime objective is said to be to produce bureaucrats and white collar workers.

Max Haider et al., in their comparative analysis of patterns of career mobility and structural posi-
ions, posit that there are three factors related to modes of upward mobility: the specific type of educational system, the mechanism of labor market segmentation, and the role of the state in the economy. In other words, in a less open and competitive system, educational degrees are used as "screening devices" to recruit new members for various positions, and the degree of social closure is apparent through the professionization, which is seen as minimal education and/or qualifications of new entrance to occupations. In countries where the role of the government in the economy is great, the role of the state in the employment of university graduate is also great (Haller, 1985:88-98). From this comparative description of Austria, France and the United States, Indonesia seem to fall within the French category.

In Indonesia, where the educational system is centralized and standardized, higher education is directed under the Directorate General of Higher Education (DGHEE). There are 43 state universities, which are preferred by most students because of the relatively low tuition and educational cost. Moreover, in a bureaucratic state almost everything associated with the government bureaucracy is highly valued in the society. State university graduates enjoy some preferential treatment for access to positions in the bureaucracy. Among these 43 universities, five of them (University of Indonesia, Gadjah Mada University, Atma Jaya University, The Institute of Agriculture in Bogor and The Institute of Technology in Bandung) were regarded as centers of excellence, and most Indonesian elites graduated from one of these universities. They were the first universities to develop a standardized entrance examination known as "SKALU". The examination was first given in the 1978 academic year.

Between 1978 and 1983, the 43 state universities were organized within four groups, called the Pilot Project (PP), based on the type of entrance examinations used.

The PP1 and PP2 entrance tests were a new version of the SKALU test and were administered by the five oldest universities. Test items were developed and administered centrally at the national level. Within the PP2 about 2.0 percent of its students were admitted through talent scouting, with admission criteria being based on students' achievement in high school.

For the PP3, one third of its test items were developed centrally, another third by the regional university, and the remainder by the individual university. The examinations and selection process have been administered by individual universities.

As for the PP4, the entrance examinations were designed and administered at the national level. In the 1984 academic year, a new entrance examination, called "Sipemarau" was introduced and administered nationwide for applicants to all state universities and institutions, but 80.0 percent of the administration was still set aside for the talent scouting program.

Starting in 1989, along the de-centralization line, the student selection is conducted by the Rector and divided into three regions: the "A" or West region consisting of 17 universities and institutes, the "B" region comprising 9 universities, and the "C" or East region consisting of 17 universities.

Competition has been more keen since the introduction of the system. For those who were fortunate to be admitted to a university it means the beginning of a brighter future, as several studies have confirmed that recruitment to higher education is related to and is an excellent predictor of future occupational status.

The proposition seems to be true for Indonesia. Once an individual graduates, one steps up on the employment ladder.

What are the students' attitudes and occupational preferences? There are several studies in evidence which confirm the tendency of students to favor government jobs (Fischer, 1963:52; Smith and Carpenter, 1974; 821; Palmer, 1982:405; Pease and Sumarno, 1982; Sumardjiono, 1988).

Historically, the Indonesian bureaucratic elite is patrimonial, as may be seen from the Javanese traditional public move, where custom dictates that a reigning king (or president) should not be directly challenged, and no potential challenger has become visible (Sandhausen, 1981:835).

Some of the characteristics of the Asian/patrimonial theory of society seem to fit the Indonesian society in that the elite determine and monopolize the right to authority, shape the economy and the division of labor into one whose role is associated with its elite and ones which are not; and by sanction determine what constitutes a legitimate social order and legitimate change (Jacobs, 1971:28-239).

Specifically, in a patrimonial state, the ruler's power has depended on his capacity to win and retain the loyalty of his supporters through the distribution of rewards. The government was to rule in the interest of the elite, and the ruler was able to preserve his authority by maintaining a balance among competing cliques (Cronin, 1977:757).

Dating back to the early twelfth century Dutch period, the aristocrats began occupying the prestigious positions of civil service. By the time of independence (1945), another group emerged. Many of its members attended local universities and their degrees were considered as the equivalent of the aristocratic titles of the past.

Following the suggestion of Benda, Sukanto posits that since in Indonesia elites are not recruited on ascendant basis, especially after independence, this group could be
considered as an intellectual elite rather than a modernizing tradi-
tional elite (Soekanto, 1973:50).

Since the mid-sixties the import-
tance of the so-called technocrats in
aiding the President and formulating
the macroeconomic policy has
grown, thus strengthening the posi-
tion of the civilian government
group. Even with the extensive re-
presentation of the military, the po-

tion of the civilian is still strong
because even though the military
has the necessary discipline and
order, it is the civilian who possesses
the necessary expertise.

Smith and Carpenter (1974)
noted that half of the Cabinet
members were university professors
and technocrats and that as the pro-
vincial level, faculty members of
regional universities provide the
provincial governors with technical
expertise. This practice shows a
strong tendency towards increasing
demands and reliance on the expert
individuals with university degrees.

The factors might influence
the students' career aspirations. In
their study of Indonesia university
students, Smith and Carpenter
found an occupational shift from
farming to government position,
from the private to the public sec-

tor, and from nonsalaried to
salaried employment. The study
also revealed that there is a certain
attitude toward civil service careers.

Although the students found that
this career is not highly remunerat-
ive, it provides high social rewards.

Masrun et al.'s study (1986) show
that civil servants scored highest for
autonomy as compared to business-
men, private enterprise employees,
small traders, farmers and fisher-
men. Despite their material rewards,
individuals play important roles in
the community by actively partic-

tipating in major activities. Smith
and Carpenter's study found that
most students have the desire to
enter civil service, despite a morato-
rion on government hiring.

For the business sector, Smith
and Carpenter's study showed that
compared to other sectors, custo-
demer's career was relatively high social and economic
The Indonesians view
career as a source of

dignity. Pye postulates that in Indonesia
a bureaucratic polity means only that
all the dominant power in
society is concentrated in govern-
ment hands. Those who control
events have official positions, and
government employment provides
the highest security in return for the
least effort (Pye, 1985:116). Along
the same line, Darusman called the
public sector the least productive

sector; thus it absorbed the
highest proportion of the educated
(Darusman, 1985:234).

UNIVERSITY EDUCATION AND
EMPLOYMENT

1. The Basic Aim of Higher Educa-
tion

Brubacher and Rudy, in their
discussion of the philosophy of
American higher education, iden-
tified four school of thought in the
history of educational philosophy.

Among those, the humanism, ra-
tionalism and pragmatism will be
discussed in order to relate with the
aim of Indonesian university educa-
tion.

Humanism sees higher educa-
tion as the education of the whole
man in terms of harmonizing man's
rational and emotional natures.
There was little provision for find-
ing the harmony through commit-
ment in social action. Curriculum
reform was especially concerned
with subject matter with little atten-
tion to the behavioral sciences.

Rationalism posits that the

essence of the education was the
cultivation of the intellect. To the
rationalist, the value of education
did not depend on the use to which
they could be put in the real world,
but were rather self-contained. In
other words, for the rationalist, edu-
cation is primarily seen as having
intrinsically value rather than instrumen-
tal or extrinsic ones.

If the rationalists and
humanists treated intelligence as an
end, the pragmatists treated it as a
means. For them, it is important to
keep higher education closely linked
to current affairs, and as a conse-
quence vocational concerns became
a vital part of the pragmatist's cur-
riculum.

What are the basic aims of Indo-
nesian university education? Based
on the decision of the Minister of
Education and Culture Number
0212/1/U/1982 one can find that the
aim of the undergraduate program is the application of knowledge and skills, while the master's program is aimed at improving professional services by the way of research and development. On top of these, the doctoral program is designed to develop new concepts in the respective field of studies through research.

Applying this to the aim of Indonesian legal education, in general the undergraduate program is directed toward the job market and the quality that the graduates possess is the skill to apply their knowledge. As a consequence, accepting the law as is, is the characteristic of the teaching-learning process.

The graduate program, on the other hand, is directed toward the scientific community. The competence of the graduates is theory building and as such they accept the law in a relative and critical way.

Further examination of the above mentioned Decision shows that the basic aim of higher education is primarily teaching intellectual skills without ignoring the importance of relating theory into practice.

2. STUDENTS’ PERCEPTIONS OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EDUCATION AND OCCUPATION

Studies show that schooling is insufficient as a means of training work skills. How students perceive of the relationship between education and occupation?

On a survey on "Occupational choice in Indonesia, the Case of the law students of Gadjah Mada University" (Suresadjuno, 1988:179) both students and graduates were asked to state the expectations they hoped to obtain from their education. Their responses, presented in Table 1, indicated that goals such as acquiring wealth, status, power and becoming a good citizen were of less interest to most students as the results expected from their education. For the students, four most often cited purposes of education were: (1) knowledge and the ability to think critically (24.0 percent); (2) contribution to the development of the country (22.6 percent); (3) security, to earn a good living (22.0 percent); and (4) the ability to work well (1.8 percent). The graduates differed from the students in their ordering of the educational purposes, as follows: (1) security, to earn a good living (33.0 percent); (2) contribution to the development of the country (28.0 percent); (3) knowledge and the ability to think critically (15.0 percent); and (4) the ability to work well (10.0 percent).

The graduates were further asked in the questionnaire to state how much they could utilize the knowledge they acquired from their studies as a basis for solving the problems in their work place. Forty percent of the graduates thought the knowledge was sufficient or very sufficient, 32.0 percent thought it was rather sufficient, and 28.0 percent regarded it as less sufficient or not sufficient at all.

Moreover, most students and graduates did not perceive their education as providing training for their occupations as shown in Table 2. More than 80.0 percent of the students and 87.0 percent of the graduates viewed education in academic rather than in instrumental values.

3. GRADUATE UNEMPLOYMENT

The problem of graduate unemployment could be seen as the result of educational expansion with little opportunity to create job market, which in turn is resulted from the belief that university degree is the ultimate thing one should do in order to secure a better job.

In the absence of a strong middle class, there were little demand for these graduates, so that even modest number of graduates were unable to find suitable jobs (Ben-David, 1963).

Statistics shows that by the end of the Fifth Five-Year Development Plan (1995), the number of the labor force with university background will be 1,693,153 or 15.20 percent of the total labor force with formal schooling from elementary school to university (Table 3).

Further examination of the data shows that university graduates (both from state as well as private universities) ranked first in unemployment. The number of labor force will increase to total of 1,120,235, while job opportunities will be available for only 58,000 graduates. For the Diploma Program, the figure is 572,930 as compared to only 84,000 job opportunities available.

The fact that in Indonesia the occupational attitude is still geared towards preferring civil service career adds to the problem of graduate unemployment. Even though the government absorbs the highest proportion of the graduates, at as certain level the supply of the graduates will far exceed the demand and in most instances it is not feasible to create new job market. Several studies show that most graduate are more urban oriented (Gazib and Carpenter, 1974; Sumedjono, 1988: 176-177) which will pose another problem.

Since the main problem is shifting one’s attitude, the government attempt to introduce a program called "Rural Development motivator graduates" (SP.3).

According to the plan, within five year 4,000 graduates (800 graduates per year) will be selected, trained and assigned to work in rural areas where they are mostly needed. They receive a salary sufficient enough to live in rural areas based on a two-year contract.

Compared to the number of the unemployed graduates, some sees
this program in a pessimistic way. But if the objective is shifting one's attitude, even though quantitatively it does not mean much in coping with the problem, qualitatively a positive influence is expected in that the graduates will find that being a civil servant is not the only idealism. There are also another kind of idealism such as helping to develop a society in places where they are needed, or finding new opportunities. For those who are not fortunate to participate in the program, it is expected that they will be motivated to do the same thing.

Shifting occupational preference from public to private sector in another alternative. Most graduates prefer a government career because it has a high status, in terms of prestige, power and influence as well as giving an opportunity to collect material goods.

As stated previously, it appeared that in general the business group never gained a strong position in the national economy during colonial times, as well as after independence, under both the Old Order and the New Order governments (Kroef, 1956; Panglaykim, 1981; Muhaimin, 1984). The growth of the business sector depends on the macroeconomic factor of the state, such as the rate of growth, the rate of inflation, monetary stability, and the like. Monetary stability, for instance, enable the government to provide opportunities for the business sector to borrow foreign capital for help in promoting growth. Especially in Indonesia, the opportunity for the business sector to grow depends on special relations between the private and the public sector.

A very special characteristic in the Indonesian economy is the dependence of any kind of business on the development in the public sector, as manifested by, among others, ever-changing rules and regulations. Time needed to obtain a license, existence of state enterprises, and budget realization. At times when the public sector has a solid source of funds (which happened during the oil boom), the role of government as prime mover in the economic process is seen as natural. But when the situation become worse and the government still assumes its existing role by means of regulating almost everything, the business sector will have less opportunity to grow in a responsible manner (Sastromihardjo, 1985: 85-87). Even in a difficult external situation, the private sector will have a good chance to grow, provided that the economic policy is clear and the implementation is consistent. Not until the private sector is viewed as a partner of the government, and is given a chance to participate in shaping the national economy, can this sector be considered as having prestige and power, and only then will this sector become more attractive to students.

Recent development shows that the government started giving more chance for the private sector to grow by means of "de-bureaucratization", and "de-regulation". It is expected that this will result in a gradual shift from government to private career.

University education is primarily aimed at teaching intellectual skills, and as such it is inefficient as a means of training work skills. Rather than going beyond its primary responsibility, what universities can do to cope with change in societal needs and other changes is developing courses and workshops to look for new opportunities as well as making a continuous effort for the improvement of the curriculum by using feedback from employers and graduates.

CONCLUSIONS

The problem of graduate unemployment will persist as long as university degree is seen as the key to upward mobility in a situation where job market is relatively limited. Universities cannot be blamed for producing graduates with little work skills, since the philosophy of higher education is primarily teaching intellectual skills.

Realizing that universities cannot ignore societal needs, a cooperation between universities and work organizations should be encouraged in such a way that universities could be more responsive to the changes.

REFERENCES


Jacobs, Norman, Max Weber, the theory of Asian society and the study of Thailand. The Sociological Quarterly. Autumn 1971,
LEGAL PROBLEMS AROUND ALTERNATIVE MEDICINE *

As a follow-up to my lecture about new legislation for medical practice, I will now say something more in particular about the problems involved in the application of alternative medicine. The focus will be, first, on the position of alternative medicine in the present legislation and in the proposed new law, and second, on the present and future legal position of the persons who practise alternative medicine.

When we speak of alternative medicine, we think primarily of homoeopathy, anthroposophic medicine, acupuncture and paranormal medicine. Physicians also practise some of those treatments, even though their university education has not prepared them for it. Whether alternative medicine is practised by physicians or by non-physicians, is important from a legal point of view. The term 'alternative', recently become popular, represents something of a climax in terminology. At the time when such matters were still spoken of in less subtle terms, quackery was the common word. Later expressions were "not scientifically justified", "non-admissible" and "informal", terms which still held a shade of disapproval. That disappeared when such terms as "orthodox" and "the peripheries of medicine" came into use. The latest word "alternative" seems proof of recognition, at least in everyday language. But does the law also recognise alternative medicine? Let us first consider the current legislation in the Netherlands.

Existing legislation

The 1865 Practice of Medicine Act, still in force, gives the right to practise medicine only to persons who have been qualified by law. As I pointed out in my previous lecture, the first category are the physicians, who are qualified for the entire domain of medicine, including alternative cures. Then comes the category of dentists, who are qualified for the entire range of dentistry, again including alternative treatments. Midwives and accoucheurs, and paramedical practitioners, are the remaining qualified groups. All others who practise medicine as their profession without necessity, are punishable. The concepts "medicine", "profession" and "without necessity" call for some comments.

The concept of "medicine" is