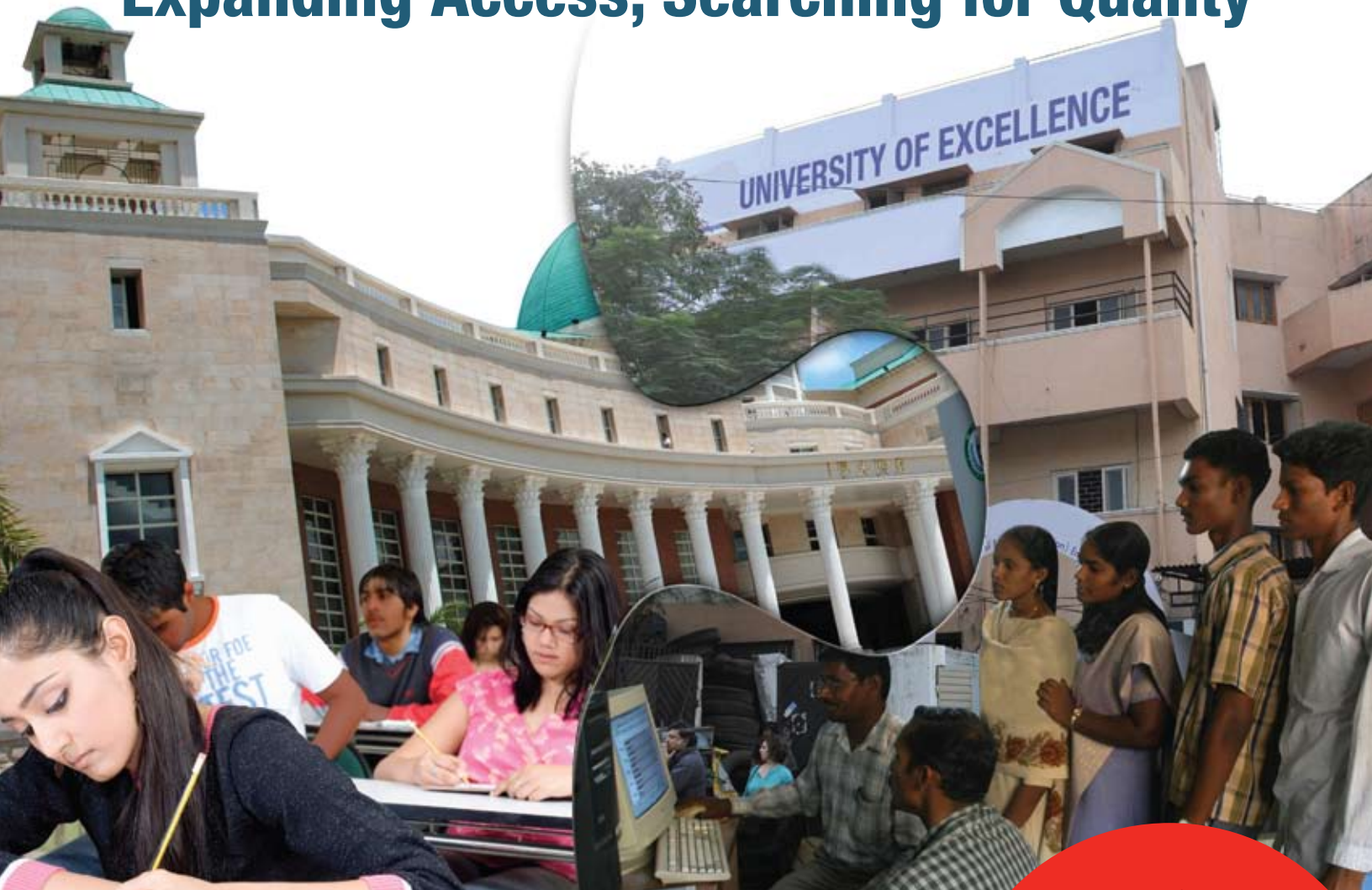


Private Higher Education Across Asia Expanding Access, Searching for Quality





ADB

PRIVATE HIGHER EDUCATION ACROSS ASIA

Expanding Access, Searching for Quality

March 2012

HIGHER EDUCATION IN DYNAMIC ASIA

Asian Development Bank

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Abbreviations

ADB	Asian Development Bank
BAN-PT	National Accreditation Board for Higher Education, Indonesia
DMC	developing member country
GASTPE	Government Assistance to Students and Teachers in Private Education
HEI	higher education institution
IT	information technology
LAN	National Accreditation Board, Malaysia
Lao PDR	Lao People's Democratic Republic
MQA	Malaysian Qualifications Agency
MQF	Malaysian Qualifications Framework
ONESQA	Office for National Education Standards and Quality Assessment, Thailand
POSTECH	Pohang University of Science and Technology
PRC	People's Republic of China
QA	quality assurance
SETARA	MQA's Rating System for Malaysian Higher Education Institutions
SLF	Student Loan Funds
SUCs	state universities and colleges

Foreword

Quality education is essential for creating a sustainable human resource base upon which to build a country's development. Asia is experiencing a growing need for skilled managers and professionals in a variety of fields. Investing in higher education will help developing Asian countries build high-income economies with the innovation, knowledge, and technology needed to thrive in an interconnected, competitive world.

ADB has accumulated significant experience in providing support for improving education systems in its developing member countries. In response to the growing needs of these countries, ADB is boosting its support for higher education. The changing landscape of higher education requires new thinking and updated practices. Questions central to the issue include: What are the strategic and operational priorities for higher education in the region? How should support be targeted to achieve a high, sustainable impact? How can ADB best assist its developing member countries to substantially raise the quality of and expand access to higher education within a reasonable, yet ambitious, time frame?

To provide insights into the kinds of changes demanded in higher education, ADB financed a major regional study drawing on the views of subject experts, higher education leaders, regional stakeholders, and participants of an international conference on higher education in Asia.

Higher Education in Dynamic Asia is the result of this study. I am confident that it will provide valuable input into the process of higher education reform across Asia. It will also provide critical input into ADB's work in assisting the region to develop the full potential of its people.



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Preface

The growth of private higher education in Asia has been much more rapid than in other parts of the world. This growth has helped to expand access to higher education and to reduce the burden on governments to finance higher education through public funds. It also has been increasingly associated with diversification in the missions of private higher education institutions (HEIs) and their scope and role in offering an alternative to public higher education. And while several Asian private universities are highly ranked in global university rankings, Asia is also home to numerous private colleges of poor quality.

The explosion of private higher education in the developing member countries (DMCs) of the Asian Development Bank (ADB) has created policy challenges. DMC governments see it as increasingly important to promote the role of private HEIs. At the same time, in many DMCs de facto privatization of public HEIs is pursued through provision of more autonomy and responsibility to raise revenue through tuition fees and partnerships with the corporate world. The boundary between public and private HEIs has become blurred. Comprehensive policies and regulatory frameworks are needed to adequately support the development of the higher education sector as a whole, and particularly the quality assurance and accreditation of private HEIs. While DMC governments are making some progress in these issues, uncoordinated approaches and mixed results remain.

It is important to help governments in developing Asia in their efforts to formulate and implement policies to support and guide the higher education sector, including private HEIs, in the most efficient ways possible. Improving the quality of and equitable access to private higher education are among the priorities. For this effort, it is necessary to understand the key characteristics of private HEIs and their roles as well as government policies for private higher education. This publication, *Private Higher Education Across Asia: Expanding Access, Searching for Quality*, provides a timely analysis of these issues and presents operational recommendations for development partners, such as ADB, in their support in this field to developing countries in the region.

The publication draws on study material prepared by Prachayani Praphamontriping. Hazel Medrano provided administrative support. Stephen J. Banta provided editorial advice and inputs. Dorothy Geronimo coordinated the typesetting and publication process. Many thanks to all for their contributions.



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Introduction

The expansion of private higher education has become a striking phenomenon worldwide over the last 20 years. The private higher education sector accounts for about 31% of the total global higher education enrollment and about 56% of the total number of higher education institutions (HEIs) (PROPHE 2010). Private higher education plays an important role in helping to shoulder the costs of higher education and to absorb enrollment demand. Private HEIs also play an increasing role in producing workforces for both domestic and international labor markets.

Across Asia, more than 35% of higher education students enroll in the private sector, and almost 60% of the region's HEIs are private. Government promotion of private providers in higher education and the growth of private higher education are much more significant in Asia than in other regions of the world (Levy 2010).

While many developing countries in Asia have succeeded in reaching the goals of increasing access to higher education and off-loading the cost of higher education to the private sector, the rapid expansion and increasing heterogeneity among private HEIs tend to create a critical consequence across the region: dubious quality. Although private HEIs typically tend to be diverse in their missions and functions, the majority of them are still small (e.g., average enrollment of 500–700 students), family owned, and nonselective in their admission criteria. Most private HEIs are self-funded, relying heavily on tuition and fees. Therefore, they often need to deal with trade-offs between providing good instructional quality and ensuring return on investment to their owners and shareholders. This consequence has triggered governments' concern about the quality and efficiency of private HEIs in many developing countries.

This publication analyzes the institutional diversity of private higher education in Asia and key policy issues concerning private HEIs. While particular attention is paid to Southeast Asia, many of the issues and perspectives are relevant as well for other parts of developing Asia. The publication comprises three main chapters: the dimensions of private higher education, key policy issues in private higher education and governments' response, and operational recommendations for improving private higher education in the region.

Dimensions of Private Higher Education

This chapter serves as background for the policy analysis in the succeeding chapters. It starts with a discussion of the distinction and blurriness between the private and public sectors. It gives special attention to two evolving trends: the privatization of public higher education and the promotion of private higher education. The chapter also discusses the magnitude of private higher education in Asia and in the global context, and concludes with an analysis of institutional diversity in private higher education in Asia.

Defining Private Higher Education

Public–Private Distinction

A fundamental distinction between public and private HEIs depends on how they are governed, how they are financed, and how they function (Geiger 1991, Levy 1992). Traditionally, public HEIs are owned, operated, and funded by the government, whereas private HEIs are commonly owned and run by nonstate personnel such as individuals, families, companies or corporations, religious organizations, and foundations. Private HEIs typically receive little or no state funding, and rather rely heavily on tuition and fees.

Moreover, the rationale for the development of public and private HEIs is different. Public HEIs are established largely to serve the economic, social, and political needs of countries and for the public good. Private HEIs are founded to offer *difference* to those who seek alternatives to public higher education. Private higher education in many countries is also allowed in order to help shoulder the government's financial burden for expanding access to higher education and to help absorb demand for higher education, especially when access to public universities is limited.

Public–Private Blurriness

There is an increasing blurring of borders between public and private HEIs in their financing and governance, and in the ways in which they function (Marginson 2005, Levy 2006, Praphamontripong 2010a, Welch 2011). The blurred borders tend to create challenges and opportunities for both public and private HEIs, the higher education marketplace, and governments (Table 1). Competition among HEIs, particularly those that offer similar programs or features, increases. Widening choices in the higher education marketplace provide students and employers with more options. The provision of good quality higher education becomes a key factor to succeed and survive in such a competitive marketplace. The growing blurriness of borders between public and private higher education provides HEIs with more opportunities to benchmark themselves and stimulate innovation in program design in order to differentiate themselves from their

peers. This can strengthen the competition and foster better quality and accountability in the higher education marketplace.

Table 1 Challenges and Opportunities due to Public–Private Blurriness in Higher Education

Constituency	Challenges	Opportunities
Higher Education Institutions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Face more competitors that offer similar programs/features • Competition with other HEIs becomes intense. • Risk losing student clienteles and market employers if not maintaining good quality or continuously improving themselves • Sources of funding become limited due to more competitors (e.g., tuition from student enrollment, government research grants, training services to industry and the private sector). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Have more good practices to benchmark themselves against • Become more innovative in designing new programs/features in order to differentiate themselves from peers
Higher Education Marketplace	<p>Small and poorly performing HEIs are unable to succeed in an increasingly competitive marketplace.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide more choices for students and employers (consumers) to choose among HEIs that offer similar features • Strengthen market competition • Stimulate better quality and accountability within the higher education marketplace
Governments	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Higher education systems become isomorphic, conflicting with the fundamental belief that diversification is a key to higher education development. • Emulation of programs and features among HEIs results in limited choices for consumers. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More choices (HEIs) for awarding research grants and loans • May not need strict monitoring of quality and performance of HEIs, since a market competition mechanism is already in place (assuming that private and public HEIs that offer similar programs/features maintain their quality to be able to gain enrollment and survive in the market competition)

Privatization within the Public Sector and Promotion of the Private Higher Education Sector

Two significant changes during the 1990s were the growth of private institutions; and financial diversification in public institutions through introduction of tuition fees, and increased reliance on nongovernment sources of funding (ADB 2008:46).

From the 1990s onwards, the privatization of public HEIs and the promotion of private higher education have become significant changes in many developing countries (Varghese 2004). These changes have arisen largely due to the disparity between governments' capacity and the increasing demand for higher education (ADB 2002; Welch 2007a, 2011). Governments' success in increasing the numbers of high school graduates leads to a demand for more higher education.

Partly due to the recommendations of international development organizations, many governments have responded to such challenges by allowing private providers to establish HEIs, by privatizing public HEIs through the introduction of tuition and fees, by allowing the increase of special and executive programs that charge high fees, and by promoting other revenue-generation activities. Table 2 gives examples of governments' policy initiatives for privatization of public HEIs and the promotion of private higher education in selected developing countries in Asia.

Table 2 Government Policies on Privatization of Public HEIs and Promotion of Private Higher Education in Selected Asian Countries

Country	Privatization of Public Higher Education Institutions	Private Higher Education
Cambodia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Establishment of public administrative institutions (ADB forthcoming) Privatization in higher education by introducing fees in public HEIs in 1996; this was a transformation of public HEIs to become "half public and half private" (Chen et al. 2007: 130; Virak 2009). 	Prior to 1997, private HEIs were not allowed. In 1997, Norton University was established and legalized as the first private university in Cambodia (Chealy 2009).
People's Republic of China	Government encouragement for revenue-generating activities at prestigious public universities, e.g., Tsinghua and Peking universities (Levy 2010)	The Law for the Facilitation of Private Education was enacted in 2002, boosting the expansion of private providers in higher education (Cao 2007). The 1982 Constitution recognized the initial legal status of private education, but private higher education was vaguely defined (Cai and Yan 2011).
Indonesia	"Badan Hukum Milik Negera (BHMN)" or "State-Owned Legal Institution"; government regulation 61/1999, empowering 5 public HEIs to create new patterns of student recruitment and financial support from parents (Nizam 2006, Welch 2007a)	Private universities were founded after independence in 1945 to improve access to higher education (Nizam 2006). Universitas Islam Indonesia, established in 1945, was the first private HEI in the country (Sukamoto 2002).
Lao PDR	Not applicable	Prime Ministerial Decree (1995) legalizing private providers in higher education (Xaysomphou 2008)

continued on next page

Table 2 continued

Country	Privatization of Public Higher Education Institutions	Private Higher Education
Malaysia	The Universities and University Colleges Act of 1971, revised in 1995, amending a framework for all public universities to become corporatized by diversifying their sources of revenue and adopting corporate managerial practices (Lee 2004a)	Private Higher Education Institutions Act of 1996 (amended in 2009) legalizing and regulating private providers in higher education with tight control (Lee 2004b)
Philippines	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Expansion of state universities and colleges (SUCs) in the form of satellite campuses in the early 2000s (LaRocque 2005) Widespread practice of commercialized features in SUCs, e.g., charging minimal tuition fees and offering low-cost programs such as teacher training and commerce (Tan, E.A. 2011) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Manual of Regulations for Private Schools first enacted in 1972, and Manual of Regulations for Private Higher Education of 2008 (CHED Memorandum Order 40) (CHED 2008) Corporation Code of the Philippines covering for-profit private HEIs (<i>Corporation Code of the Philippines</i> 1980)
Thailand	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Autonomous University Acts (Royal Thai Government Gazette 1990, 1992, 1998a, 1998b) Widespread practices of commercialized features in all public universities, e.g., offering part-time/ executive programs and short courses that charge high tuition fees, and consultancy services (Praphamontripong 2010a) 	Private Higher Education Act (1969), revised in 2003 and 2007, legalizing private providers in higher education (Royal Thai Government Gazette 2003, 2007)
Viet Nam	Government's determination in 2005 (Ministry of Justice 2005b) that semipublic (and some public) HEIs should become fully private (Hayden and Khanh 2010); the government allowed 5 universities to fully control their own budgets with only supervision from the government (Dai 2006)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Government's official recognition of the first people-founded university in 1993 as part of the <i>Doi Moi</i>^a policy Decision No. 14/2005/QD-TTg of January 17, 2005 (Ministry of Justice 2005a) legalizing a common set of regulatory controls for fully private universities and colleges (Hayden and Khanh 2010)

HEI = higher education institution, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, SUCs = state universities and colleges.

^a Doi Moi is the Vietnamese government's policy for the economic liberalization that opened up the country to market economy ideology (Hayden and Khanh 2010).

Privatization within Public Higher Education Institutions

Privatization of public HEIs became apparent in the late 1990s to early 2000s. Via privatization, public universities become autonomous and separated from the government bureaucracy, making their management more corporate oriented than that of traditional institutions (Varghese

2004). Specifically, privatization refers to the practice whereby public HEIs apply market strategies (e.g., charging tuition and fees) to their institutional operations or outsource some operational activities to the private sector. However, ownership remains in the public domain. Public HEIs are expected to rely on their own funding as much as possible. For example, Singapore and Taipei, China passed university bills to transform government universities to become independent legal entities. All state universities in Japan have been incorporated (Mok 2007).

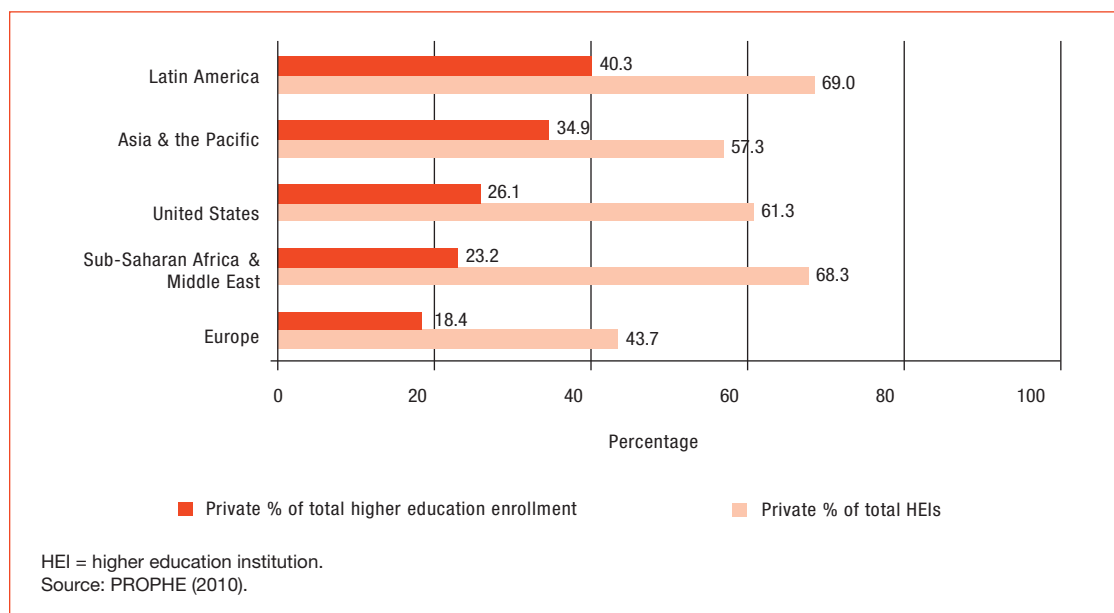
Promotion of Private Higher Education

The promotion of the private higher education sector is another dimension in higher education expansion. As alluded to in Table 2, private HEIs in Indonesia, Philippines, and Thailand officially started in the 1940s to the 1970s, while those in Cambodia, Lao People's Democratic Republic (Lao PDR), Malaysia, and Viet Nam emerged a few decades later. The following sections elaborate on the promotion of the private higher education sector.

Magnitude of Private Higher Education

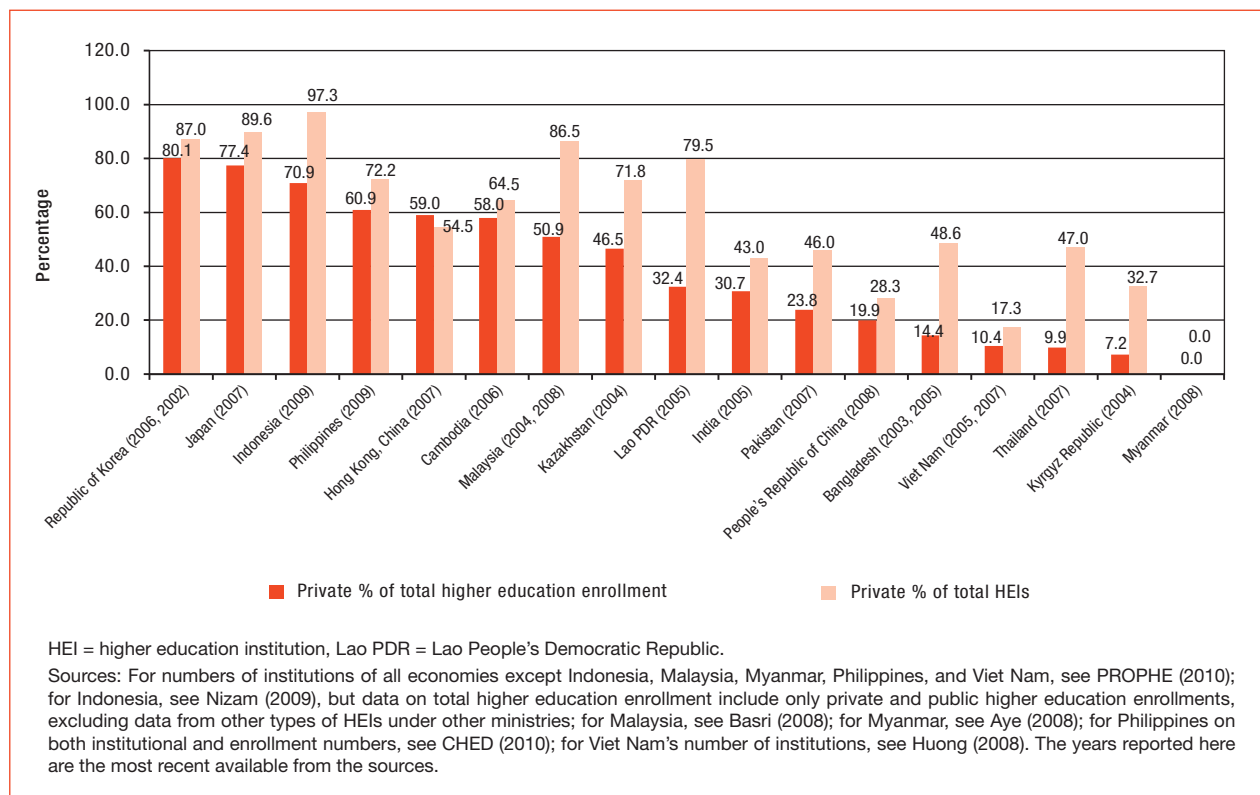
The private higher education sector accounts for 31% of the total higher education enrollment around the world. Figure 1 shows that 35% of students enroll in private HEIs in Asia and the Pacific; the private higher education surge is even clearer in terms of number of institutions. Most regions have more than 50% of HEIs in the private sector. In all regions, the rise of the private higher education sector (student enrollments and numbers of institutions) tends to be much faster than the development of a proper regulatory framework. Although a number of policies and regulations have been promulgated for private HEIs, the governments in many developing countries are facing challenges on how to deal with the quality of private HEIs while ensuring equitable access and affordability for prospective students.

Figure 1 Private Enrollment and Institutional Share in Higher Education by Region, 2000–2009



In Asia, a private higher education surge is occurring in three stages (Geiger 1986) (Figure 2 and Table 3). The first stage is *peripheral private*. This is seen in a country where public HEIs dominate while private higher education plays only the peripheral role. Typically, developing countries that have a history of socialism or are in the early stages of developing a higher education system follow this peripheral private pattern. The majority of developing countries in Asia fall into this category, such as Viet Nam and the Central Asian republics. Second, *parallel public and private higher education sectors* reflect a stage of HEIs having comparable functions and status. Examples include Hong Kong, China; Malaysia; and Thailand.¹ Third, an *extensive private higher education sector* includes both substantially high enrollment in private higher education and a high number of private HEIs. Japan and Republic of Korea are leading private higher education prototypes in East Asia, with consistent enrollment shares higher than 77% and institutional shares approaching 90%. Indonesia and Philippines, likewise, are leading countries in Southeast Asia in both private higher education enrollment share (70.9% and 60.9%, respectively) and institutional number (97.3% and 72.2%, respectively) and institutional number (97.3% and 72.2%, respectively).

Figure 2 Private Enrollment and Institutional Share in Higher Education in Selected Asian Economies, 2002–2009



¹ Private higher education in Cambodia emerged only around 1997. Currently, the bulk of higher education students enroll in private HEIs (Chealy 2006, 2009).

Table 3 Stages of Private Higher Education in Asia

Peripheral Private	Parallel Public and Private Higher Education Sectors	Extensive Private Higher Education Sector
Seen in a country where the public sector dominates the principal tasks of higher education, while the private counterpart plays only a peripheral role	Seen in an economy that has HEIs with comparable functions and status in both private and public sectors	Seen in a country that has a substantially large private sector in both enrollment and institutional number; this pattern fulfills the role in accommodating the bulk of demand for higher education
e.g., a majority of developing countries in Asia, and many countries where private higher education just recently emerged	e.g., Hong Kong, China; Malaysia; and Thailand	e.g., Indonesia, Japan, Republic of Korea, and Philippines

Source: Analysis by P. Praphamontriphong, modified from Geiger (1986).

The three stages are organic and can change during the process of higher education development in a country. For instance, the People's Republic of China (PRC) started with no private higher education allowed but is now moving toward parallel public and private higher education sectors. The country has been catching up fast in less than a decade, with the private higher education enrollment share near 20% and the institutional share almost 30%. Similarly, striking private higher education expansion is seen in Bangladesh, India, and Pakistan, all of which host nearly 50% of their HEIs in the private sector. In the near future, it is likely that these countries will move from parallel public and private higher education sectors to an extensive private higher education sector. However, such growth may reflect only quantitative expansion of higher education and not necessarily efficiency gains, improvement of instructional quality, or better academic recognition (Praphamontriphong 2010a).

Institutional Diversity of Private Higher Education

Private HEIs in Asia exhibit wide diversity. Asia is home to many world-class private universities yet simultaneously caters for a large number of small private colleges of mediocre or low quality. Such diversity becomes a critical challenge for the governments and higher education stakeholders when formulating policy and regulatory frameworks for the private higher education sector with the aim of ensuring institutional efficiency and good quality.

This section dissects the private higher education sector across Asia through a typology (Levy 1986). At least four types of private HEIs have emerged in Asia: (a) religious-affiliated/cultural-oriented, (b) elite/semi-elite, (c) demand-absorbing/non-elite, and (d) serious demand-absorbing. They differ from one another in terms of finance, governance, and function (Levy 2009). They also respond to demands for “different” (religious-affiliated and identity institutions), “better” (elite and semi-elite institutions), and “more” (demand-absorbing institutions and serious demand-absorbing institutions) higher education (Pachuashvili 2006).

Religious-Affiliated/Cultural-Oriented

Religious-affiliated HEIs have much older roots in Asia than other types of private HEIs. Christian universities of varying denominations were founded in Asia partly as a result of colonization and the influence of Western missionaries. Religious-affiliated private HEIs are prominent in many countries such as Indonesia, Philippines, and Thailand (Table 4). Private institutions with Islamic affiliation are apparent in Indonesia, while in the Philippines, Christian affiliation is common. In Thailand, 14% of all private HEIs have a religious affiliation, e.g., Christianity, Buddhism, or Islam.

Christian private HEIs exist even where there are few Christians (Altbach 2005a), as in Japan; Republic of Korea; and Taipei, China.² There are also Buddhist-affiliated private HEIs in these countries. In Cambodia, PRC, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, and Viet Nam, private HEIs with a religious orientation are few or non-existent.

Table 4 Examples of Religious-Affiliated Private Higher Education Institutions in Selected Asian Countries

Country	Religious-Affiliated Private Higher Education Institutions
Indonesia	The Universitas Islam Indonesia, founded in 1945 by leading political figures, was the first private university in the country (Sukamoto 2002, Levy 2010). Many other private HEIs in Indonesia were established by different religious sects (Islam [mainly], Christian, etc.). Some function as seminaries, while others are typical institutions offering common secular programs comparable to public counterparts (Welch 2007a).
Philippines	The University of Santo Tomas, a Catholic private university established in 1611, was the first HEI in the Philippines and in fact in all Asia. The Philippines' sectarian private HEIs are usually nonprofit, duly incorporated, and operated by a religious organization. Many of them are members of an institutional network owned by a religious order, mostly Catholic (LaRocque 2005). Islamic-affiliated private HEIs are found in southern Philippines.
Thailand	Christian involvement in education dates back to 1567, particularly at the basic education level and in the social welfare sector (Matawatsarapak 2001). At the higher education level, Payap University and Assumption University (Christian) are among the oldest private universities, legalized in 1970. Private HEIs with Islamic or Buddhist affiliation are relatively recent in Thailand, having emerged in the southern provinces in the late 1990s. Roughly 14% of all private HEIs across the country have religious affiliations (Levy 2010).

² Examples include Japan's Aoyama Gakuin University and Sophia University; Republic of Korea's Yonsei University and Sogang University; and Taipei, China's Fu Jen Catholic University.

The initial mission of religious-affiliated private HEIs in many countries is to serve the religious community and train its members (Altbach 2005b). Nevertheless, many small religious private colleges in recent years have shaped their missions and widened their fields of study so that they can survive in a competitive higher education marketplace. We are now witnessing the decline in religious identity of private HEIs in many of the non-Muslim countries (Levy 2009).³ Most of their students and professors are secular, and the programs offered are driven by social and labor-market demands. Thus, degree programs in business administration and information technology (IT) have become more common offerings in religious-affiliated private HEIs. While being nonprofit in nature, some religious-affiliated private HEIs demonstrate a strong partnership for networking with their parent international religious organizations and with the business community.

For example, this partnership form is common in religious-affiliated private HEIs in Malaysia.⁴ With this trend of religious private HEIs shifting their initial religious mission toward more market orientation, key policy concerns are whether or not to continue to treat these institutions as nonprofit, with tax incentives, and how to ensure instructional quality.

Overlapping with religion, cultural-oriented private HEIs have been established by different ethnic groups, particularly in Asian countries that have heterogeneous populations. The major thrust of this kind of institution stems largely from the public sector's limited access by minority groups (Altbach and Knight 2006, Hoon 2010, Levy 2010). Examples of this can be seen in ethnic communities in Indonesia and Malaysia, where these communities own private HEIs and provide scholarships to members of their communities.⁵

Elite/Semi-Elite

Elite and semi-elite private universities are usually founded by secular business elites in a country. If not world-class in research or rankings, these institutions are prestigious at a national or regional level. Among the top 200 HEIs ranked in the Times Higher Education World University Rankings 2010–2011, only 6 are private and only 2 are from Asia: Pohang University of Science and Technology (POSTECH) and Yonsei University, both in the Republic of Korea.

Although a majority of private HEIs in Asia are typically of mediocre or low quality, a small portion of private HEIs are elite or semi-elite. They are at the academic apex of the private higher education sector. They may be comparable to leading public counterparts or more recognized than second-tier public institutions in their own countries (Levy 2010). Semi-elite private universities are reputable in multidimensional areas, ranging from academic excellence and research to quality of faculty members, students with high socioeconomic status, well-equipped infrastructure, and cutting-edge campus facilities. They are well-connected to particular labor market niches and industries, and they do well in graduate employment. Most semi-elite private HEIs seek internationalization, rankings, and international recognition and legitimacy as well as partnerships outside their countries (Slantcheva and Levy 2007, Praphamontriphong 2010a). The Republic of Korea's POSTECH is a good reflection of the above-mentioned features (Box 1).

³ As clearly seen in Philippines (LaRocque 2005), Thailand (Praphamontriphong 2008), and the United States (Collier 2008).

⁴ For instance, the Olympia College of Management was founded as a joint venture between the Methodist Church and a business group, and the Perkim-Goon Institute by an Islamic group and a private entrepreneur.

⁵ Examples include the Res Publica University, Ma Chung University, and SF Teacher Institute in Indonesia (Welch 2007a, Hoon 2010).

Box 1 Republic of Korea's POSTECH in Pursuit of International Legitimacy

The Republic of Korea's Pohang University of Science and Technology (POSTECH) shows an especially impressive profile. It has taken a steep jump from number 134 in the Times Higher Education—Quacquarelli Symonds (THE-QS) World University Rankings^a 2009 to number 28 in the latest THE World University Rankings 2010–2011. Founded by the Pohang Iron and Steel Company in 1986, POSTECH features strong university-research-industry linkages, with an endowment more than twice that of Carnegie Mellon University and tougher admission standards than Yonsei University (McNeill 2011). Its ample focus is scientific research and international legitimacy via recruitment of the best science students from abroad. POSTECH has approximately 3,100 students and 355 academic staff on its campus in southeastern Korea.

^a The Quacquarelli Symonds World University Rankings were formerly published in collaboration with Times Higher Education as the THE-QS World University Rankings until 2010, when THE left to create a new ranking methodology.

In Southeast Asia, Ateneo de Manila University, De La Salle University, and the University of Santo Tomas are among the leading semi-elite private universities in the Philippines (LaRocque 2005). In Thailand, five leading semi-elite private universities—owned mostly by business elites—are among the largest and oldest private HEIs in the country; they are Assumption University, Bangkok University, Dhurakij Pundit University, Rangsit University⁶ and University of the Thai Chamber of Commerce (Praphamontriphong 2010a). While comprehensive in offered fields, they are renowned for business orientation and technology-related programs, which were their initial focus (Chongwibul 2001). Pannasastra University of Cambodia, founded by a former minister of education, is regarded as one of the top private universities in that country, with specialization in humanities and social sciences. Indonesia's Sanata Dharma University is among the largest and richest private universities and is comparable to the best public universities in the country in research and teaching (ADB 1993, Altbach 2005b). As for Viet Nam, Phong Dong University can be seen as semi-elite (Fry 2009, Levy 2010).

The quality of semi-elite private universities is not a concern for the governments, markets, and student clienteles, given their academic excellence and leadership. However, a policy issue often involved with semi-elite private HEIs is the limited and inequitable access to these institutions, which tend to charge expensive tuition and fees and to set high admission criteria. Access to these institutions thus excludes those who cannot afford to pay high fees or do not have sponsorship, and those who are not doing well academically. Therefore, semi-elite private universities usually serve only a small proportion of the total student population.

Demand-Absorbing/Non-Elite

With only a few exceptions, the majority of Asian private HEIs are demand-absorbing, standing at the bottom of the prestige hierarchy (Altbach 2010). The demand-absorbing HEIs form the largest and fastest-growing private higher education subsector (Levy 2009, 2010). This phenomenon, echoed in most of the world, is particularly evident in Asia. Demand-absorbing private HEIs emerge to absorb the demand that other HEIs (public HEIs, in most cases) cannot accommodate.

⁶ Rangsit University was established much later but has demonstrated outstanding performance in medical-related fields, gaining national recognition as one of the top five private HEIs (Praphamontriphong 2010a).

Demand-absorbing private HEIs are often perceived as questionable in academic quality and as having profit-making intentions. They are usually family owned and have limited capital and resources. Therefore, most of them offer fields of study that require minimal upfront investments but yield great profits in return. Such fields of study include business administration, accounting, economics, IT, and law (Levy 2010).

Demand-absorbing private HEIs have emerged in recent decades. They are typically small in size and common in Asian countries with low higher education cohort enrollment such as Bangladesh, Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Pakistan, Philippines, Thailand, and Viet Nam.

Most policy issues involved with demand-absorbing private HEIs concern efficiency and quality. Consider Box 2, for example. Demand-absorbing private HEIs are a majority in both Philippines and Thailand. Some of them enroll only a few hundred students. With such a small intake, they are likely to compromise quality by offering only low-cost programs and by running their institutions in a secondary-school or vocational-school mode (e.g., limited investment in university-setting infrastructure, minimal or no research and development, dependency on part-time faculty). In this way, quality is likely to suffer.

Box 2 Demand-Absorbing Private HEIs in Philippines and Thailand

The bulk of demand-absorbing private HEIs in the Philippines emerged in the late 1900s. They are usually very small in size. About 1,150 private HEIs (73% of total private HEIs) enroll fewer than 1,000 students, 30% of which enroll only 100 students or less (CHED 2011).

In Thailand, most demand-absorbing private HEIs were founded in the 1990s. Except for a few large, comprehensive ones, they usually enroll fewer than 3,000 students each, some only a few hundred. The share of demand-absorbing private HEIs is slightly more than 50% of the total private higher education enrollment, although they comprise about 80% of the total private HEIs in the country (Praphamontripong 2010a, 2010b).

Serious Demand-Absorbing

Serious demand-absorbing institutions are an important segment within the private higher education sector. These institutions are in transition from mediocre- or low-quality demand-absorbing institutions to semi-elite ones. They offer diversity among demand-absorbing private HEIs (Levy 2009, 2010). Serious demand-absorbing private HEIs gain some degree of national reputation but not as high a reputation as the semi-elite. They share features similar to those of semi-elite private HEIs. Such features can include academic excellence, effective management and governance, and pursuit of legitimacy and internationalization. They are well connected, proactive in reacting to emerging market needs, and thus able to determine their niche market, offering, for example, fields of study in management or technology. They are also innovative and tend to target the nontraditional and distance-learning student population (Levy 2009, Praphamontripong 2010a).

Despite performing better than most private HEIs in research citations and in international rankings, the serious demand-absorbing private HEIs still lag behind the oldest and most

prestigious private universities (Sharma 2011). Examples of serious demand-absorbing private HEIs include the Philippines' autonomous and deregulated private HEIs, the PRC's accredited private HEIs, and several Thai private HEIs (Cao 2007, Praphamontripong 2011a).

The serious demand-absorbing private HEIs deserve policy priority for improving quality, because these institutions strive for distinction from typical low-quality demand-absorbing private HEIs and seek to join the semi-elite tier. Therefore, cooperation and compliance with regulations and quality standards set by the government seem more reasonable to expect from these institutions.

Overlapping Features of Private Higher Education Types

A variety of private HEIs are found in Asia. Different private HEIs demonstrate their unique features (Table 5) while simultaneously showing some overlapping characteristics (Figure 3). Hybrid institutions are seen among semi-elite private universities or in religious-affiliated private HEIs that loosen up their religious missions and offer programs that are more in tune with social and market demands. Similarly, while a for-profit feature is common in the demand-absorbing subsector, other private HEIs may as well practice for-profit operations either through government regulatory support or unofficially. Another overlapping feature is partnerships (Levy 2009). With the increasing internationalization, partnerships have become one of the most efficient ways for both private and public HEIs to deliver quality higher education. All types of private HEIs pursue partnerships.

Table 5 Common Types of Private Higher Education Institutions in Asia

Type of Private Higher Education Institution	Features	Asian Examples
Religious-Affiliated/ Cultural-Oriented	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Founded/sponsored by a religious organization, church, or nonprofit foundation • Principally aiming at religious service via religious-related disciplines (other nonreligious fields may appear, but initially religious-related fields are prominent) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Indonesia – Islamic, Christian, Chinese ethnic • Philippines – Christian (majority) • Thailand – Christian (majority), Islamic, Buddhist; Thai architecture & culture, Japanese culture, business & technology
Elite/Semi-Elite	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High socioeconomic status, secular universities • High selectivity & limited access (originally reserved only for elites) • Reputable in various dimensions (nationally or regionally) • Pursuing academic quality and legitimacy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cambodia – Pannasastra University • Indonesia – Sanata Dharma University • Philippines – Ateneo de Manila University, De La Salle University, University of Santo Tomas • Thailand – Assumption University, Bangkok University, Durakij Pundit University, Rangsit University, University of the Thai Chamber of Commerce

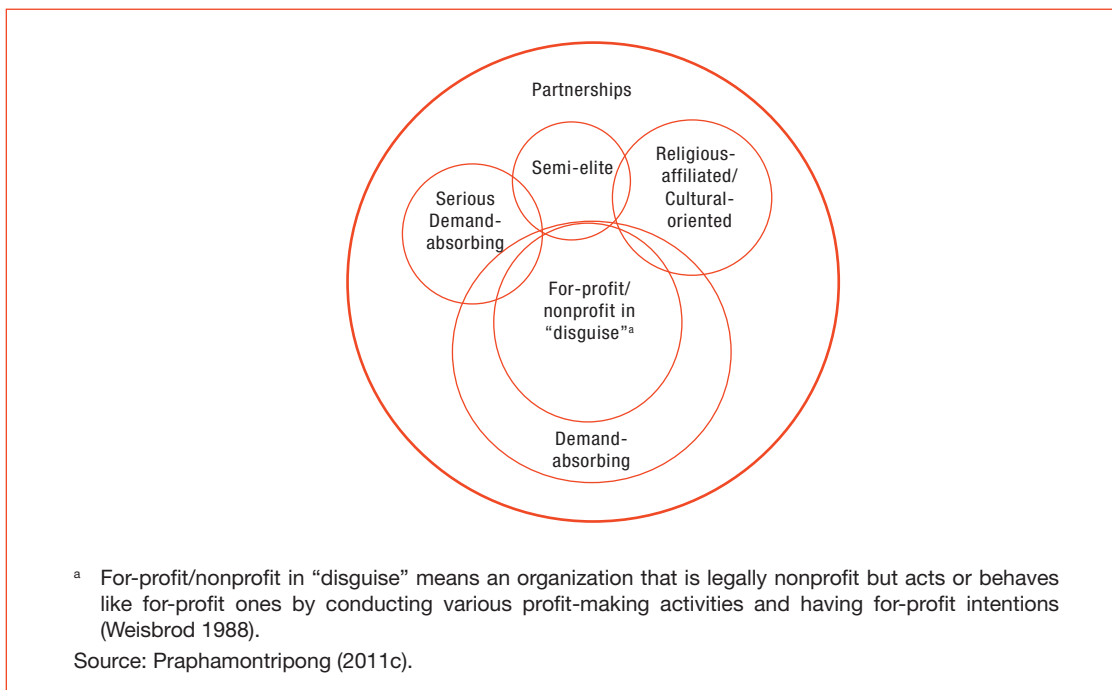
continued on next page

Table 5 continued

Type of Private Higher Education Institution	Features	Asian Examples
Demand-Absorbing/ Non-Elite	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Neither elite nor religious-oriented • Mainly responding to the rising demand for higher education • Concern for volume and quantitative expansion • Providing low-cost programs in a high-demand field 	A majority of private HEIs in almost all countries in Asia in terms of number of institutions and enrollment
Serious Demand-Absorbing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reputable in their specializations, similar or almost equal to semi-elite institutions • Emphasize practical training and have niche focus on specific fields • Emphasize securing employment for graduates via networking and industry partnerships • Pursue quality and legitimacy (in graduate employment and academics) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cambodia – Zaman University • PRC – About 300 private HEIs that have so far been accredited • Philippines – 63 private HEIs that have received autonomous or deregulated status, e.g., Mapua Institute of Technology, University of San Carlos • Thailand – Mahanakorn University of Technology, Dusit Thani College

Source: Modified from Levy (2010).

Figure 3 Overlapping Features of Private Higher Education Types



Key Policy Issues in Private Higher Education and Governments' Response

Key policy issues relate to the variable quality of private HEIs, high tuition and fees, financial support for HEIs, and extending access through private higher education. In each of these areas there are challenges to which governments have responded or intend to do so.

Varying Quality

Challenges

Private HEIs are often questionable in their instructional quality and efficiency. This is critical, particularly among demand-absorbing and non-elite private HEIs. They are second- and third-tier institutions,⁷ ranked at the bottom of the higher education league.

These institutions have limited funding and often need to consider trade-offs between providing good quality higher education and securing sufficient return on investments. In so doing, they usually look for alternative cost control strategies. Some concentrate on increasing student enrollment. Some offer programs that do not require investment in costly equipment and infrastructure. Some, while registered as HEIs, operate in shopping centers, secondary schools, or even garages. Some hire part-time staff more than full-time professors (Tursunkulova 2005; Welch 2007a, 2007b; Hayden and Khanh 2010; ADB 2011b). Moreover, private HEIs in general do not do well in research, since their mission is geared toward teaching. Only a small portion of faculty members in such private HEIs hold PhD degrees, and the majority of them have never produced any publication (Chen et al. 2007, Chealy 2009). This is especially critical among demand-absorbing private HEIs.

In many developing countries in Asia, typical private HEIs focus on low-cost programs that require minimal investments but yield great financial return. Such programs offered include business administration, accounting, and IT (Table 6). These programs are usually in synergy with student demand and do not need large capital funds for purchasing expensive equipment or establishing laboratories.

⁷ This publication uses the term “tier” for the purpose of differentiating private HEIs within the hierarchical system of higher education. However, there are forms and ways, both vertically and horizontally, of categorizing different types of HEIs. Vertically, an institution may belong to the top tier or second tier based on its academic quality and prestige. Horizontally, the same institution may belong to a professional training category or cutting-edge research category based on its function and mission.

Table 6 Low-Cost Programs Offered in Private Higher Education Institutions in Asia

Country	Programs
Cambodia	The bulk of private HEIs tend to emerge without a clear regulatory framework and accreditation. They offer a narrow range of homogeneous business-related programs with varying quality (Ford 2003). Such offerings are demand absorbing but of questionable quality.
Indonesia	Most private HEIs vary greatly in quality and programs offered (ADB 1993). Two-thirds of total enrollments in the private sector are in education, social science, or business (Welch 2007a).
Malaysia	The less prestigious institutions of the Malaysian higher education system, which are largely profit driven, often offer mostly demand-absorbing programs (Altbach and Knight 2006, Da 2007). Predominant programs are in science and business, e.g., business-related, engineering sciences, IT, and computer programs (Da 2007).
Philippines	Most private HEIs concentrate heavily in business administration, whereas public HEIs focus on teacher education and training (LaRocque 2002). The majority of demand-absorbing nonsectarian private HEIs focus on low-cost programs and are of mediocre quality (Tan, E. A. 2011).
Singapore	Private for-profit commercial institutions and branch campuses offer numerous programs at the diploma, undergraduate, and postgraduate levels. The predominant programs include business administration and IT (Tan, J. 2006).
Thailand	Most demand-absorbing private HEIs emphasize low-cost fields of study such as business administration, accounting, law, and humanities (Praphamontripong 2008).
Viet Nam	Most private HEIs tend to offer programs with low initial investment but providing high profit return such as business-related fields, economics, IT, and foreign languages (Dai 2006, Hayden and Khanh 2010). Major private universities in Viet Nam include Van Lang University, Hong Bong University, Duy Tan University, and Ho Chi Minh City University of Foreign Languages and Information Technology. However, these institutions tend to focus on low-cost and popular fields of study, and some may be profit oriented (Fry 2009).

Governments' Response

Quality assurance and accreditation policy. With the growing expansion and diversification of the private higher education sector and the rising concern about the quality and efficiency of private HEIs, one way for governments to respond is to formulate effective policies and regulations for assessing and ensuring the quality of private HEIs. Taking into account the different context of countries, governments implement different quality assurance (QA) policies and procedures appropriate to their higher education systems, as illustrated in Table 7. Cambodia, Indonesia, Malaysia, and Thailand mandate QA and accreditation policies for all HEIs in both the private and public sectors (see Appendix). Private HEIs in Lao PDR, Philippines, and Singapore are subject to QA and standards different from those of public HEIs. Indeed, accreditation in the Philippines is voluntary for private HEIs. Viet Nam, in contrast, implements an accreditation policy for 10 selected public HEIs, while there seems to be no such comparable initiative for the private sector (Hayden and Khanh 2010, Westerheijden et al. 2010).⁸

⁸ Central Asian countries including Kazakhstan, Kyrgyz Republic, Mongolia, Tajikistan, and Uzbekistan require a quality level of private HEIs in their education laws. Licensing and accreditation of all HEIs (both private and public), stipulated in the education laws, are carried out by state inspection once every 5 years. Assessment criteria include number of qualified full- and part-time faculty members, space provision for students, staff, libraries, curricula, syllabi, and textbooks. However, the ministries of education tend to lack the capacity and funding for assessing and licensing the institutions (Tursunkulova 2005).

Table 7 Quality Assurance and Accreditation Policies Relevant to Private Higher Education in Selected Asian Countries

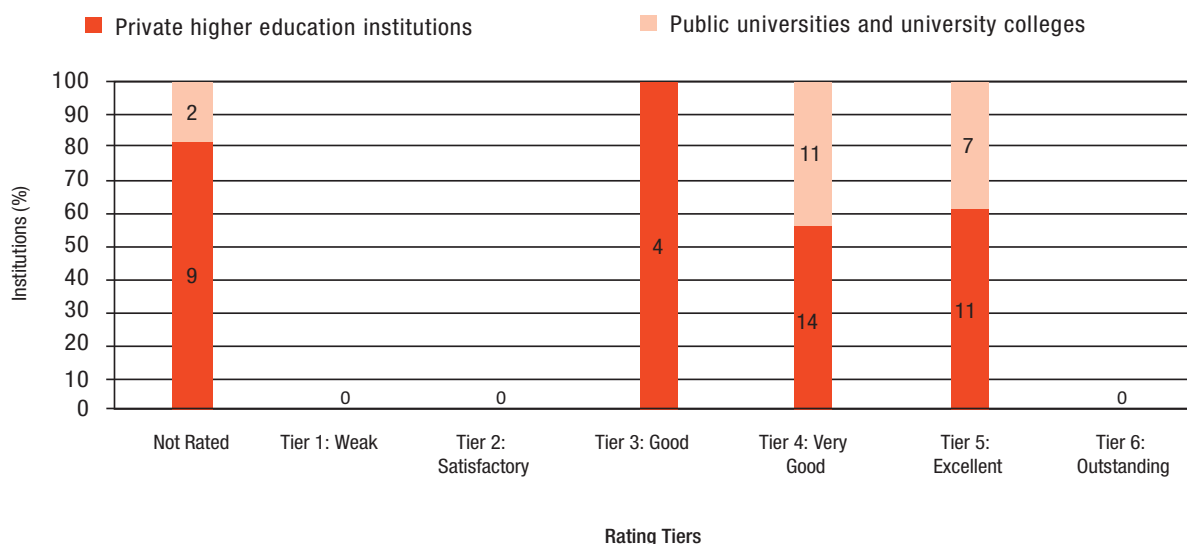
Country	Quality Assurance/Accreditation Framework
Cambodia	Royal Decree No. NS/RKT 03/03/129 (March 2003) promulgating the Accreditation Committee of Cambodia to assess and accredit all HEIs, local and foreign, that operate in Cambodia in order to confer degrees (Chealy 2009)
Indonesia	The National Accreditation Board for Higher Education, established by the government, is responsible for accreditation of academic programs of both private and public HEIs (Nizam 2006).
Lao PDR	Private HEIs' programs are monitored and evaluated for QA by the Department of Private Education (Ogawa 2009).
Malaysia	<p>The National Accreditation Board Act (LAN) (enacted in 1996) approved programs/courses that met its minimum standards and accredited only private HEIs (LAN was terminated in 2007 after enactment of the Malaysian Qualifications Agency).</p> <p>The Malaysia Quality Evaluation System (approved in 2011) rates private and public HEIs according to six tiers – from Tier 6 (excellent) to Tier 1 (very poor).</p> <p>The Malaysian Qualifications Framework is applied to all private and public HEIs (since 2007).</p> <p>The Malaysian quality assurance and accreditation Code of Practice (approved in 2007) has three levels: program accreditation, institutional audit, and self-accreditation (MQA 2007a, 2007b, 2009).</p>
Philippines	<p>Private HEIs demonstrate QA via the Commission on Higher Education's (CHED) recognition of their programs.</p> <p>Private HEIs can apply for and will be granted autonomous or deregulated status from CHED if they pass the requirements.</p> <p>Private HEIs gain accreditation on a voluntary basis via the Federation of Accrediting Agencies of the Philippines (LaRocque 2002, 2005).</p>
Singapore	<p>Mandatory Enhanced Registration Framework (approved in 2009) for all private HEIs</p> <p>EduTrust Certification Scheme (approved in 2009) – voluntary certification scheme to help distinguish high-quality private education providers</p> <p>The Singapore Quality Class for Private Education Organizations (1997–2010) has seven dimensions to assess private HEIs' internal processes: leadership, planning, information, processes, people, customers and results, and use of the Business Excellence Assessment for Continuous Improvement.</p> <p>The CaseTrust for Private Education Organizations, though officially discontinued in July 2010 (Lim 2010)</p>
Thailand	<p>Internal QA by Commission on Higher Education for all HEIs (since 1996)</p> <p>External QA and accreditation by the Office for National Education Standards and Quality Assessment for all HEIs (since 2001) (Praphamontriphong 2011b)</p>
Viet Nam	Provisional Regulations on Accreditation of Higher Education Institutions (since 2004) (Dai 2006) – though only for public HEIs

HEI = higher education institution, QA = quality assurance.

Good practice. To implement QA strategies for private HEIs necessitates consideration of the economic, social, political, and historical contexts of a country. There are good practices in QA approaches. For example, in Malaysia, where the private higher education sector is advanced, the development and internationalization of QA are also more advanced in comparison with other Southeast Asian countries.

Since 2007, private HEIs have been supervised by the Malaysian Qualifications Agency (MQA). This is similar to the process of QA of public HEIs through the MQA Rating System for Malaysian Higher Education Institutions (SETARA). Since 2009, SETARA has included all 20 public universities and 38 private universities and university colleges. While this effort brought both public and private HEIs into the same QA process, not all private HEIs were included. Figure 4 shows that a majority of Malaysian private universities and university colleges included in the SETARA in 2009 were rated excellent and very good. Still, a majority of private HEIs excluded from this SETARA in 2009 were demand-absorbing colleges of poor quality. Starting in 2011, Malaysia plans to include more than 400 private colleges (of almost 550 total private HEIs) in the SETARA.

Figure 4 The 2009 MQA Rating System for Malaysian Higher Education Institutions (SETARA'09)



Note: 38 private HEIs were included in SETARA in 2009. However, only 29 were qualified for rating.

Source: MQA (2009).

Given that the government has a mandate for QA of demand-absorbing private colleges and that the results are widely published, low-quality demand-absorbing private HEIs will have to improve their quality and efficiency. This is essential for them to become more competitive in the marketplace and to become more accountable to their student clientele, employers, and the government.

Further challenges. Continuing challenges facing many developing Asian countries insofar as the demand-absorbing private higher education subsector keeps expanding amid ineffective QA mechanisms. Some governments seem to struggle with problems of limited capacity and limited resources to formulate and effectively implement QA mechanisms for private HEIs (ADB 2011b). Cambodia's main challenge is to establish experienced human resources for QA. Indonesia struggles with the gigantic size of its higher education system, which results in numerous programs to be accredited while the government lacks the human resources and funding necessary for QA. Similar to those in Thailand, small demand-absorbing private HEIs in Malaysia struggle to meet the QA standards and qualification framework. The Philippine government's efforts in QA implementation are unlikely to yield an effective result; only a small portion of the country's private HEIs (semi-elite and serious demand-absorbing) exhibit guaranteed academic quality and capacity for sustainable development as certified by the voluntary accreditation and required by their autonomous/deregulated status. Meanwhile, the bulk of demand-absorbing institutions are not capable of or do not desire to gain accreditation (ADB 2011b). The private higher education sector in Viet Nam is still considered "peripheral" to the overall higher education system. The lack of a regulatory framework and effective accreditation system has resulted in low public confidence in private HEIs in the country (Le and Ashwill 2004).

There is a need to develop better and more effective alternatives to assess and ensure the quality and efficiency of private HEIs (ADB 2011b). An effective QA mechanism can help differentiate institutions that are doing well from those that are problematic. This is a priority for many developing countries in Asia, where demand-absorbing private HEIs are the majority.

High Tuition and Fees

Challenges

Increasingly linking the quality aspects with access in private higher education is a financing issue. Asian private HEIs follow the global trend, wherein the demand-absorbing private HEIs depend heavily on tuition and fees. Indeed, more than 90% of operating costs of private HEIs in Southeast and East Asia are covered by tuition (Levy 2010). Since private HEIs generally do not receive any direct subsidies from the government, tuition and fees become their lifeline. This is vital for small demand-absorbing institutions, because they do not typically get large endowments, research grants, or church support as do semi-elite and religious-affiliated institutions.

In Cambodia, for instance, private HEIs do not receive any government funding but rely heavily on tuition and fees. Yet, recently they have had to lower the tuition and fees in order to compete and survive in the market (Chen et al. 2007). All private HEIs in the Philippines rely mostly on tuition and fees, as they do not receive any government funding. Thus, they are allowed to set their own tuition and fees, which vary greatly across regions and academic programs

(LaRocque 2005). More than 90% of the total income of demand-absorbing private HEIs in Thailand comes from tuition and fees (Praphamontripong 2010b). Likewise, student tuition and fees account for 82% of the revenue of all private HEIs in Viet Nam (Hayden and Khanh 2010).

Within the private higher education sector, tuition and fees in semi-elite universities are much higher than those in demand-absorbing or religious-affiliated ones. On average, private HEIs charge tuition and fees three to four times higher than public HEIs do (Levy 2010). The charges have risen in both the private and public sectors (more drastically so in the public one), largely due to the shift toward privatization of public universities (Welch 2011).

Table 8 shows the discrepancy of tuition and fees charged between private and public HEIs. In Indonesia and Republic of Korea, private HEIs charge tuition and fees higher than \$10,000, while public universities charge slightly more than half (in Republic of Korea) or one-tenth (in Indonesia) of that. Leading semi-elite private universities charge the highest tuition and fees. India's semi-elite private universities charge tuition and fees almost 10 times higher than those of leading public universities. In some countries, tuition and fees charged at top public universities and semi-elite private universities are at about same level. Examples include PRC and Thailand. Some countries such as Republic of Korea, Malaysia, and Singapore charge special "one-time" or "upfront" fees in both private and public HEIs, yet the charges vary.

Table 8 Comparison of Tuition and Fees Charged for First Degree Programs in Private and Public Higher Education Institutions in Selected Asian Economies

Location	Academic Year	Tuition and Fees Charged per Academic Year	
		Private Higher Education Institutions	Public Higher Education Institutions
People's Republic of China	2009/10	\$1,449 – \$2,899	\$724 – \$2,899
Hong Kong, China	2009/10	\$8,611 (plus \$42 one-time fee)	\$240 (plus \$42 one-time fee)
India	2010/11	\$900 – \$2,250	\$135 – \$270
Indonesia	2009/10	\$10,168	\$116 – \$1,160
Republic of Korea	2009/10	\$9,405 – \$12,675 (plus \$1,140 one-time fee)	\$3,549 – \$7,605 (plus \$1,617 – \$3,402 one-time fee)
Malaysia	2007/08	\$5,496 – \$8,765 (plus \$427 – \$542 one-time fee)	\$404 – \$635 (plus \$113 one-time fee)
Philippines	2008/09	\$2,068 – \$5,080 (plus \$365 one-time fee)	\$1,655 (plus \$122 one-time fee)
Thailand	2008/09	\$3,766 – \$8,788	\$1,883 – \$8,788

Sources: All data except India are from ICHEFAP (2011). For information on India see Mishra (2011).

With high tuition and fees, there can be a risk that access to high-quality private HEIs is limited to wealthy students and those who have a sponsorship or subsidy (World Bank 2009). This is often the case in semi-elite private universities. Even so, the high tuition and fees charged at

these upper-end institutions may be justified, inasmuch as they place their graduates into upper levels in the labor market (Levy 2010).

Nonselective demand-absorbing private HEIs, on the contrary, have lower academic selectivity and operate on a low-cost basis. They are likely to charge minimal tuition and fees and are therefore potentially more accessible to poor students. Nevertheless, their tuition rates are still often more expensive than those of public counterparts, where tuition and fees are already charged at a subsidized rate (Weesakul et al. 2004). Consequently, how to expand equitable access in private HEIs while ensuring their financial survival becomes a challenge for governments.

Governments' Response

Student loan schemes and financial aid. With tuition hikes in both private and public HEIs, the governments in many developing Asian countries ensure extended access to higher education by providing subsidies to students. In most cases, such financial aid is given directly to students in the form of scholarships and student loans (Table 9). Thus, students from low-income families are able to afford high tuition and fees at private institutions.

Table 9 Government Policies on Student Financial Aid Relevant to Private Higher Education in Selected Asian Countries

Country	Government's Student Financial Aid
Indonesia	Higher education scholarships to high school graduates provided in both private and public HEIs (World Bank 2010)
Malaysia	The National Higher Education Fund (late 1990s), providing loans to poor students (Lee 2004a)
Philippines	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Republic Act 6728 (passed in 1989): Government Assistance to Students and Teachers in Private Education and Republic Act 8545 (passed in 1998): Expanded Government Assistance to Students and Teachers in Private Education (Congress of the Philippines 1989, 1998) • Private Education Student Financial Assistance Program (Congress of the Philippines 1998) • Study Now Pay Later scheme (LaRocque 2005)
Thailand	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Student Loan Funds Act (1998), available for needy students in both the private and public higher education sectors • Income-contingent loans (2004), available to students in targeted fields of study corresponding to the country's development needs (Praphamontripong 2011b)
Viet Nam	Student loan programs (1994), providing loans to poor students (Dai 2006)

The Malaysian government established the National Higher Education Fund in the late 1990s to provide loans to needy students. Students in private HEIs have access to these loans as long as they are studying in an accredited program (Lee 2004a). Likewise, the Philippines' Government Assistance to Students and Teachers in Private Education (GASTPE) law specifies that govern-

ment financial assistance is available to student grantees enrolling in private HEIs that have accredited programs or are applying for accreditation. Forms of assistance to students include tuition fee supplements, transportation, book allowances, expansion of the voucher system of the Private Education Student Financial Assistance Program, and the Education Loan Fund (Congress of the Philippines 1989, 1998). Students in both private and public HEIs can also apply for a loan to cover their tuition and fees via the Study Now Pay Later scheme. Thailand also implemented two financial mechanisms to support students in both public and private HEIs: The Student Loan Funds (SLF) Act benefits primarily low-income, needy students. Based on demand-side budgeting, income-contingent loans were implemented to increase students' cost sharing in higher education and to stimulate graduate enrollment in fields appropriate to the country's economic and social demands (Praphamontriping 2011b).

Further challenges. Usually, loan schemes intended for needy students to promote their access to higher education are highly subsidized by governments. It is essential that the governments ensure that the loans are successfully targeted to reach students from lower income families who have the potential for higher education. Otherwise, the central objective of the schemes becomes compromised, and the heavy subsidies become unjustified (Ziderman 2009). Despite various student loan schemes currently in place in many countries, there are further challenges to the effective implementation of such schemes.

Examples are from United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization Asian case studies, wherein PRC, Republic of Korea, and Thailand showed massive leakage of loan approvals to nonpoor students. Indeed, the Thai SLF scheme appeared to set too high an income threshold to be effective in increasing higher education opportunity (Tangkitvanich and Manasboonphempool 2010). In contrast, Hong Kong, China and Philippines tend to be more successful in extending loans to poor students (Ziderman 2004, 2009). The Philippines' GASTPE law stipulates that preference for government assistance must be given to students with annual income below the poverty threshold income, and that private HEIs participating in the GASTPE scholarship fund program must set a quota for poor but deserving students (Congress of the Philippines 1989, 1998). Even so, the Philippines has encountered a critical problem at the loan collection stage. Countries that have an efficient tax collection system can utilize it for successful collection of student loans. Once the students graduate and start earning income, loan payments can be deducted from their salaries the way income tax is.

How and to What Extent to Financially Support Private Higher Education

Challenges

In addition to the issue of high tuition and fees charged by private HEIs, how and to what extent governments should give financial support to private HEIs is becoming another important policy issue. The private higher education sector keeps expanding (particularly the legal for-profit demand-absorbing institutions) and the governments in many Asian developing countries seem unsure about how to effectively handle such growth.

Governments' Response

Generally, most private HEIs in Asia do not receive *direct* government's subsidies for their operations. Nevertheless, *indirect* financial support tends to be available for private HEIs. Providing tax incentives, affording flexibility for enrollment and tuition charges, and giving research grants and other grants are among the common practices of governments (Table 10).

Table 10 Government Research Grants and Other Financial Support to Private Higher Education Institutions in Selected Asian Economies

Economy	Financial Support
Indonesia	The Indonesian government, with the support of the World Bank, implemented the Quality for Undergraduate Education Project during 1998–2004 as an open bidding process for both private and public HEIs to submit proposals for a 5-year institutional development program (Nizam 2006). This competitive funding scheme is one of the most important reforms in Indonesian higher education finance. It has been followed by various funding schemes targeted to achieve different government objectives. Based on the Higher Education Long-term Strategy, the Indonesian government has introduced these competitive grants, available to both public and private HEIs that show improved academic quality or increased employment of their graduates (World Bank 2010).
Lao PDR	To boost the private higher education sector's investment, private HEIs are allowed to receive financial aid from international organizations through the Lao Ministry of Education (Phou 2006).
Maldives	The government encourages the private sector to expand its services in higher education with financial assistance from international development organizations. The government's support for the establishment of new private HEIs includes land grants, subsidies for building and facility construction, and other financial aid (ADB 2011b).
Singapore	The government provides substantial funding to several private HEIs such as the Singapore Management University (modeled after the Wharton School of the University of Pennsylvania), the Singapore Institute of Management (established by a group of senior management executives), the Nanyang Academy of Fine Arts, and the LaSalle Singapore Airlines College of the Arts (Tan, J. 2006).
Taipei, China	Since 1999, the government has implemented a new funding policy by cutting about 20%–25% of the financial resources initially distributed to public universities in order to offer financial support to private HEIs. As a means to increase institutional performance, this financial incentive is based on meritocracy and competition so that private universities may compete with public universities on similar ground. Loosening the tuition and fees restrictions, the government also adopted the "user-pays" principle in order to allow HEIs to earn additional revenues to finance their programs and research activities (Mok and Chan 2008).
Thailand	The Thai government provides competitive research grants for both public and private HEIs. Even so, private HEI leaders often feel that their public counterparts receive priority in the selection process. Thai private HEIs can also access government "in-kind" soft loans for purchasing laboratory equipment, for infrastructure, and for faculty development (Praphamontripong 2010a).

HEI = higher education institution, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.

Despite a certain level of government indirect financial support to private HEIs, many private HEIs (especially small, family-owned, demand-absorbing colleges) continue to face challenges in revenue generation and cost containment. Although tuition and fees are their prime sources of income, other alternative sources of income would help private HEIs keep their costs under control without compromising the quality of instruction and institutional efficiency. For this reason, governments in developing Asian countries seek better alternatives to facilitate the financial sustainability of private HEIs and the overall growth of the private higher education sector.

Tax incentives. Governments in many developing Asian countries provide tax incentives to encourage the private sector to establish HEIs. In the Lao PDR, for instance, private HEIs are exempt from income tax, business tax, land-use tax, as well as customs duties when importing instructional materials (Phou 2006). The Vietnamese government is committed to support not-for-profit private HEIs with generous tax exemptions and land grants (Hayden and Khanh 2010). Similarly in Singapore, the government provides financial aid, buildings, and land to private ethnic organizations to support the establishment of private HEIs (Tan, J. 2006). Tax exemption in Thailand constitutes major support from the government; private HEIs are exempt from the import tax for educational equipment and from income tax, business tax, and stamp duty for donations of nonmovable property and land transfers (Praphamontripong 2010a). Private HEIs in Malaysia get very attractive tax incentives, e.g., an investment tax allowance of 100% for 5–10 years; tax exemption on income; an industrial building allowance; an accelerated capital allowance; and exemption from import duties, sales taxes, and excise duties on educational and multimedia equipment (Private Higher Education Management Sector 2010). Among Asian countries, Malaysia is one of the most proactive in providing various incentives for private higher education.

Minimal regulations on profits and returns. Another form of government support directly to private HEIs is to set minimal regulations on profits and returns. While the notion of profit can still be seen as contradictory to the nature of education, there is an increasing trend for government to deregulate profit-making private HEIs. For example, the Vietnamese government approved a new classification scheme for private HEIs that accommodates both not-for-profit and for-profit private HEIs (Hayden and Khanh 2010). Viet Nam allows owners of private HEIs to retain income once they have settled financial liabilities, including payment of taxes and replenishment of the institution's investment fund, as stipulated in the Education Law of 2005 (Hayden and Khanh 2010). This legal foundation supporting profit making reflects Viet Nam's intention to reconcile socialism with the market economy. In Thailand, owners of private HEIs can keep up to 30% of the total net profits (Praphamontripong 2010a).

Research and other grants. While government research grants have been more common for public HEIs, there is a shifting trend among Asian governments to broaden the incentives to cover private HEIs. In any case, research grants and other grants are still miniscule for private HEIs in comparison with their income from tuition and fees. Semi-elite private universities tend to benefit most from research grants and other grants, given their capacity for conducting research and innovation. Demand-absorbing private institutions need further government support should they aspire to improve their academic quality. They may not need to do cutting-edge quantitative research; instead, they may focus on qualitative action research on pedagogy and teaching strategies that can be supported with government research grants (ADB 2011a).

Extending Access through Private Higher Education

Challenges

Expanding *quantitative* access (increasing student enrollment in higher education) and improving *equitable* access (ensuring higher education admission seats for disadvantaged and specific minority students) have been top priorities for higher education development in many Asian countries. Notwithstanding an increased expansion in enrollments for women, nonurban students, and minority groups, equitable access to and participation in higher education remain critical in the majority of Asian countries (Dunrong 2007). One major channel for governments to increase access to higher education is therefore via the private higher education sector.

Private HEIs contribute, to some extent, to increased access to the overall higher education system (Levy 2009, 2010). In Asia, the private higher education sector is heterogeneous. Different kinds of private HEIs offer different access channels to different student clienteles (Pachuashvili 2006, Levy 2010). Semi-elite and serious demand-absorbing private HEIs tend to offer access to better quality higher education. Religious-affiliated/cultural-oriented private HEIs aim at offering alternative channels for higher education. The majority of private HEIs that are demand-absorbing typically play a role in quantitative expansion of the higher education system. They are particularly thought of as the caterers for increasing market and social demands for higher education. Beyond the traditional high school graduate cohorts, demand-absorbing private HEIs serve a variety of nontraditional student populations, including

- working adults with a degree who seek further graduate education,
- working adults without a degree who want one, and
- high school graduates or young school dropouts who could not gain admission into public universities or highly competitive semi-elite private universities (Tan, J. 2006).

In any case, the lack of efficient affirmative systems continues to be a challenge (ADB 2010b). Even when the private higher education sector helps to fulfill the government's priority in extending access to higher education, differentiated access channels (via different types of private HEIs) may lead to inequitable access to higher education.

Governments' Response

Within the Asian region, policies and practices to promote equitable access via private higher education vary. Different policy mechanisms are implemented to increase access for poor students, for students from rural and remote areas, and for ethnic minority students (World Bank 2009). Popular policy mechanisms to increase access to higher education are quota systems of higher education admissions and special admissions criteria.

Quota systems of higher education admission are common in most countries: The number of admission places is designated for students based on equity factors, e.g., ethnicity, gender, socioeconomic status, geographic area of residence (World Bank 2009). Quota policies on higher education admissions and special admissions criteria are controversial among policymakers and scholars due to different social beliefs: Quotas can be utilized to promote more equal opportunities in higher education by giving priority to underrepresented groups; however, they can be perceived as extreme access policy instruments that cause inequality due to favoritism toward a specific group.

The Cambodian government aims to ensure the support of the Pro-Poor Policy for higher education access via strong public–private partnerships (MEYS 2004). In Thailand, HEIs can set up different quota policies for their student admissions corresponding to the institutions’ needs. This is perhaps most possible for semi-elite and even serious demand-absorbing private HEIs, since they have some existing credentials and funding to give scholarships based on their admission policies. Small demand-absorbing private institutions may be limited in doing so due to their scarce financial resources (Praphamontriphong 2010a). Viet Nam is another example where the government is increasing access to private higher education. Students from poor regional areas who attend private HEIs are eligible for official student loan programs (Dai 2006) (Table 11).

Table 11 Examples of Policies and Practices to Promote Equitable Access Through Private Higher Education in Selected Asian Countries

Country	Policies and Practices
Cambodia	Strong intention to promote public–private partnerships to support pro-poor policy and to increase equitable access in higher education (MEYS 2004)
Indonesia	A series of education laws transformed an elite system to an expanded system that provides better access to both private and public universities (Susanti 2011).
Malaysia	The policy in favor of providing access for ethnic Malays and indigenous people to public HEIs resulted in expansion of private HEIs to provide access to non-Malays (Lee 2004b).
Singapore	The government provides financial and infrastructural aid to private ethnic organizations to encourage them to establish HEIs (Tan, J. 2006).
Thailand	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The government allows direct admission policies in both private and public universities (e.g., athletes, medicine, education, low income). • The government provides student loans for poor students enrolling in both private and public universities (Praphamontriphong 2010a).
Viet Nam	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The government provides financial aid to students from poor regions to attend private HEIs. • Special admission criteria exist for various underrepresented groups (Dai 2006).

HEI = higher education institution.

The mainstream access policies seem to concern the poor as the most salient targeted group. Quotas on ethnicity and students from remote areas often prevail in public universities, while special access criteria for nontraditional higher education students like working adults may be more present in demand-absorbing private HEIs. While private HEIs overall contribute to “increased” access to higher education, the next step for the governments may be better focus on “equitable” access. The role that different types of private HEIs can play to help promote equitable access further challenges the governments in many Asian developing countries.

Recommendations

The growth of private higher education across Asia has, in part, contributed to the success in expanding overall higher education provision and cutting governments' costs in this field. However, the explosion and diversification of private higher education in developing Asia have created key policy challenges for the governments. Asia hosts several world-class private universities, yet also accommodates numerous poor-quality demand-absorbing private colleges. An important challenge is how to improve the efficiency and academic quality in private higher education.

More comprehensive policies and regulatory frameworks are needed to adequately support the development of the private higher education sector as a whole, and particularly in terms of improving the QA and accreditation of private HEIs. While governments' are making some progress in these issues, there are still uncoordinated approaches and mixed results. This chapter offers operational recommendations for support for strengthening the private higher education sector and its quality in Asia.

Recommendation 1: Support the development of national policies and regulations regarding the effective operation of private higher education institutions

Rationale. The growth and diversification of private higher education across Asia have yielded a variety of private universities that differ in mission and function. However, a large number of these institutions are relatively small, for-profit, and often of low quality. Given the importance of these colleges and universities in absorbing demand for access to higher education while also reducing the cost to government for higher education, it is important that they be successful. A key to this success is raising the instructional quality and relevance of the education offered in private colleges and universities.

Recommended action. Assist the development of private higher education through actions to improve educational quality.

Recommended support through project operations. The action can be accomplished, at least in part, in project operations by sponsoring in-country, subregional, and regional workshops focused on *practical strategies for raising quality*. Relevant activities can include workshops on professional development of instructional staff, strategies for fund-raising, marketing, and the conduct of tracer studies of graduates to gain data needed to improve curricular relevance.

Recommendation 2: Support universities and national higher education systems in their efforts to strengthen quality assurance and accreditation procedures for private higher education institutions

Rationale. The rapid growth of private higher education in many countries has often led to downward pressure on instructional quality. Many countries across the region face problems of limited capacity and limited resources to regulate, monitor, and ensure the quality of private colleges and universities. Similarly, some countries still need to clarify and differentiate what indicators of quality should be used for different types of HEIs.

Recommended actions. Assist governments and universities in identifying and evaluating strategies for quality enhancement. Particularly, develop a resource center and database on effective practices in QA and accreditation that explicitly address the needs of private HEIs in the region.

Recommended support through project operations. Support will need to recognize that (a) governments' and institutions' approaches to QA are affected by political as well as by technical considerations, and (b) a number of regional organizations already offer assistance to governments and universities concerning issues of QA. Projects should be designed to *work with these organizations* to define a role that is supportive rather than duplicative and that expands opportunities for sharing of cross-border experience and perspectives.

The contents of the resource center could be developed through regional workshops designed around case studies of effective practices in the region, reviews of the wider international literature, and a roster of experts well qualified to provide assistance to colleges and universities seeking such help. This information can be disseminated through a series of *regional and subregional workshops*. For example, one set of workshops might examine the value of differentiated quality standards, rather than using a one-size-fits-all approach to quality. While it may be appropriate to use research productivity as an indicator of quality for top-tier universities, such indicators may not be appropriate for private teaching-oriented institutions. For those institutions, job placement of graduates and graduates' subsequent success in their work might be more suitable.

Recommendation 3: Assist governments and private higher education institutions in exploring alternative funding models for private higher education

Rationale. Private higher education faces issues of revenue generation and cost containment that, while similar, also differ somewhat from the issues facing public universities. For example, private university leaders are often caught between the need to invest in quality improvement versus ensuring a return on investment to owners and shareholders.

Recommended action. Assist government and institution-level leaders in exploring the options available to private colleges and universities for financing, expenditure tracking, and cost control.

Recommended support through project operations. Of particular value would be projects that help finance and implement workshops that offer opportunity for cross-border *sharing of strategies, policies, and procedures* that private colleges and universities have found to be effective in revenue generation and cost containment while ensuring quality. In addition, project operations can assist in strengthening private higher education by establishing a *repository of*

information on policies, procedures, and experience related to financing and cost management in private higher education. Initially, projects could support a series of analytic papers and case studies aimed at capturing ideas and practices in individual developing countries in the region that could then be shared through a series of regional workshops. These workshops would have the dual purpose of disseminating the information from these analytic studies and creating a network of relationships among those involved in the operation of private higher education across the region. Project operations can further support the network to evolve to partnership models (as an initial stage for Recommendation 4).

Recommendation 4: Help create a system that brokers international partnership opportunities for private colleges and universities

Rationale. Cross-border collaboration in higher education is one way to infuse new ideas and introduce models of effective practices. As the majority of private HEIs are small and local in their reach, they often lack the knowledge base, networks, or experience necessary to form cross-border partnerships.

Recommended actions. Assist in identifying appropriate partners and helping institutions develop relevant partnership models and programs of collaboration.

Recommended support through project operations. Provide support to the development of a *repository of information* on institutions interested in entering into university twinning (or other types of) partnerships, the financial implications of the various partnership models, ways of designing partnership activities, and strategies for assessing the value of existing university partnerships. These can be disseminated through a paper series, by online webinars, and as a component of regional workshops sponsored by projects.

Appendix

Examples of Quality Assurance Policies for Higher Education in Cambodia, Indonesia, Malaysia, and Thailand

Country	Quality Assurance Policy	Quality Assurance Standards/Criteria	Challenges
Cambodia	QA has been claimed as a major push from the government since the March 2003 enactment of Royal Decree No. NS/RKT 03/03/129 on Accreditation in Higher Education. Prior to that, private HEIs had been officially recognized without a clearly defined process, due partly to corruption (Ford 2003). The 2003 Act is mandatory for all Cambodian private and public HEIs.	The 9 minimum quality standards comprise <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • mission; • governing structure, planning, and management; • academic program; • teaching staff; • students and student services; • learning resources; • physical facilities; • financial management and planning; and • dissemination of information (Accreditation Committee of Cambodia 2010). 	The accreditation movement is recent and struggling. The process faces a seniority problem. Assessors are young and inexperienced, while HEI professors are senior. It is difficult for senior professors to accept the evaluation from young auditors. None of the institutions were accredited before 2007 (Chealy 2009).

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Country	Quality Assurance Policy	Quality Assurance Standards/Criteria	Challenges
Indonesia	<p>Enacted in 1994 by the Indonesian government as the only accreditation body, the National Accreditation Board for Higher Education (BAN-PT) first conducted accreditation of academic programs offered by both public and private HEIs in 1996. Initially, the accreditation results for undergraduate and diploma programs were given ratings ranging from A (satisfactory) to D (unsatisfactory). The results indicated that the majority of undergraduate programs were in the B and C categories, and that public HEIs performed significantly better than private HEIs.</p> <p>Beyond the academic program level, BAN-PT started accreditation at an institutional level in 2007. The accreditation process has been modified subsequently. Still, the latest results showed that the majority of programs offered in both private and public HEIs fell between level B (good) and level C (adequate) (Nizam 2009).</p> <p>Both private and public HEIs are also subjected to another external quality evaluation system by the Director General of Higher Education as a form of vertical accountability based on 8 standards as well as a mandatory internal quality assurance system.</p>	<p>The current evaluation model comprises 7 standards:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • vision, mission, and strategy; • governance and management; • students and graduates; • academic and supporting staff members; • curriculum and learning process; • infrastructure; and • research and community service. 	<p>The scale and size of programs and institutions are gigantic, resulting in a huge burden on human and financial resources for BAN-PT.</p> <p>A mismatch of data requested from BAN-PT and the national higher education database caused delay in verifying the data's reliability and accuracy.</p> <p>Two sets of standards are burdensome for HEIs to follow.</p> <p>Newer and smaller HEIs have difficulty in establishing an international QA system, reflecting disparity and capacity among different private higher education institutional types (Nizam 2009).</p>

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Country	Quality Assurance Policy	Quality Assurance Standards/ Criteria	Challenges
Malaysia	<p>Malaysia's National Accreditation Board (LAN) (approved in 1996) was responsible for 2 major functions: (a) institutional licensing, and (b) program accreditation. In the former, LAN approved various programs offered by private HEIs that met its minimum standards. In the latter, LAN awarded certificates of accreditation to private HEIs (Lee 2004a).</p> <p>In 2007, LAN was replaced by the Malaysian Qualifications Agency (MQA) according to the government's aspiration for Malaysia to become a regional educational hub. MQA's new QA processes comprise program accreditation, provisional accreditation, institutional audit, self-accreditation, and qualification register. MQA also developed the Malaysian Qualifications Framework (MQF). Under this MQF, private and public HEIs are benchmarked at a similar level (MQA 2007a, 2007b).</p> <p>Beginning in 2011, Malaysian private HEIs have been rated under the Malaysian Quality Evaluation System, while polytechnics are under a system called Polyrate (BERNAMA [Malaysian National News Agency] 2011).</p>	<p>The Quality Assurance Code of Practice covers</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • vision, mission, and learning outcomes; • curriculum design and delivery; • student selection and support services; • assessment of students; • academic staff; • educational resources; • program monitoring and review; • leadership, governance, and administration; and • continual quality improvement. 	<p>Small private HEIs with less government funding and support seemed struggling to follow QA standards, while certain other private HEIs tended to adapt well (Lim 2010).</p> <p>Certain standards are high and tough to obtain, e.g., faculty qualifications. As private HEIs in Malaysia are geared mostly toward the diploma level, the majority of faculty members hold a bachelor's degree and perhaps a master's degree. Fewer than 10% hold a doctorate degree (Da 2007).</p>

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Country	Quality Assurance Policy	Quality Assurance Standards/ Criteria	Challenges
Thailand	<p>Thailand employs two QA approaches for all Thai HEIs: (a) internal QA audited by the Commission on Higher Education, and (b) external QA and accreditation assessed by the Office for National Education Standards and Quality Assessment (ONESQA). Since 1996, all HEIs must submit an annual self-study report to the Commission on Higher Education, while an external assessment by ONESQA is undertaken every 5 years starting from 2001.</p> <p>The Thai case exemplifies an attempt to tailor a QA policy to fit the institutional missions and functions of different HEIs. Although there is only one set of performance indicators for all HEIs, each institution can choose the indicators' weights depending on how they position themselves by institutional missions (Bureau of Standards and Evaluation 2008).</p> <p>Expectedly, results of the first evaluation cycle echoed experiences in other countries in that private HEIs do well in graduate employment (94% of private HEIs fell into the "good" and "medium" levels) while not so well in research (67% were in the "need improvement" level) (ONESQA 2007).</p>	<p>External QA standards for the second cycle evaluation are</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • quality of graduates, • research and innovation, • academic services, • cultural preservation, • institutional and staff development, • curriculum and instruction, and • QA system (ONESQA 2006). 	<p>The present results reveal some challenges, especially to the demand-absorbing private subsector. The QA standards are too high, particularly those relevant to research and innovation, and thus make it difficult for a number of small demand-absorbing private HEIs to fulfill (Praphamontripong 2010a). Indeed, demand-absorbing private HEIs tend to favor internal QA standards over the external ones.</p>

HEI = higher education institution, QA = quality assurance.

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Higher Education in Dynamic Asia: Study Reports

The reports from the Asian Development Bank's regional study on Higher Education in Dynamic Asia provide an analysis of the issues facing higher education across Asia; suggest priorities among these issues; and offer detailed recommendations for the role that governments, higher education leaders, and other stakeholders and partners such as ADB could play in strengthening higher education systems and institutions in the region. Other titles include the following:

Higher Education Across Asia: An Overview of Issues and Strategies (2011)

This publication summarizes findings and recommendations of a major regional study on Higher Education in Dynamic Asia, financed by ADB. It provides an overview of the critical issues challenging higher education across Asia. It summarizes suggested priorities and solutions among those key issues and offers recommendations to help countries and higher education institutions implement the solutions.

Improving Instructional Quality: Focus on Faculty Development (2011)

This publication provides an analysis of key factors that can help strengthen the internal efficiency of higher education institutions in Asia. It focuses on differentiating institutional missions, improving the quality of teaching, creating a more positive institutional culture, and strengthening university-based research.

Counting the Cost: Financing Asian Higher Education for Inclusive Growth (2012)

The publication focuses on critical issues of financing higher education in Asia, including alternative funding sources; privatization of public higher education institutions, and financial consequences of the rise of private higher education; student loans; and lower cost strategies for delivering instruction. It provides evidence that a key priority to strengthen higher education finance is via effective implementation of quality assurance.

Access Without Equity? Finding a Better Balance in Higher Education in Asia (2012)

Although expanded access is the major accomplishment of higher education systems in Asia, equitable provision of higher education is a challenge. The publication focuses on improving access to higher education for students from marginalized groups, and on mainstreaming access and equity in national and institutional policies and strategies. In addition, it analyzes the expansion of higher education access and equity via the growth of private higher education and effective technology-based instruction.

Regional Cooperation and Cross-Border Collaboration in Higher Education in Asia: Ensuring that Everyone Wins (2012)

An increasing number of countries across Asia are participating in regional cooperation and cross-border collaborations as a strategy for strengthening their higher education systems. Often collaboration works to the advantage of each partner, but not always. The publication analyzes the popularity of these collaborations and the range of purposes and activities. As the collaboration mechanisms have expanded, so too have the complexities. Shifting economic circumstances converge to raise new issues for higher education leaders seeking to reap the benefits of regional cooperation and cross-border partnerships.

Improving Transitions: From School to University to Workplace (2012)

The publication explores the critical issues of alignment and relevance among schools, universities, and the labor market in Asia. It argues that incoming university students must be prepared, and thus school curricula need to align with university entrance examinations. Meanwhile, university curricula ought to correspond with market demands to increase the employability of graduates with the right skill sets for the workplace.

Administration and Governance of Higher Education in Asia: Patterns and Implications (2012)

The publication discusses the types and functions of various administration and governance systems of higher education in Asia. It particularly focuses on issues of institutional autonomy, and implications for financing, quality assurance, and personnel management.

Private Higher Education Across Asia Expanding Access, Searching for Quality

Private higher education (HE) growth in Asia has been much more rapid than in other parts of the world. This has led to a reduction in the burden on governments to finance HE with public funds; and diversification of the mission, scope, and role of private HE institutions in offering an alternative to public HE. While several Asian universities are highly ranked globally, Asia is also home to numerous private colleges of poor quality. This publication provides a timely analysis of policies governing private HE and presents operational recommendations for development partners in their support to this field in developing countries of Asia and the Pacific.

About the Asian Development Bank

ADB's vision is an Asia and Pacific region free of poverty. Its mission is to help its developing member countries reduce poverty and improve the quality of life of their people. Despite the region's many successes, it remains home to two-thirds of the world's poor: 1.8 billion people who live on less than \$2 a day, with 903 million struggling on less than \$1.25 a day. ADB is committed to reducing poverty through inclusive economic growth, environmentally sustainable growth, and regional integration.

Based in Manila, ADB is owned by 67 members, including 48 from the region. Its main instruments for helping its developing member countries are policy dialogue, loans, equity investments, guarantees, grants, and technical assistance.

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