Research Initiative on Democratic Reforms in Ukraine (RIDRU)

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compiled by Olenka Bilash

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Introduction

Since the Euromaidan conflict of 2013-2014 Ukraine has struggled to realize a far-reaching slate of reforms. While the nation’s government has indeed introduced measures to revamp local governance, its citizens remain skeptical that post-Soviet-style corruption has legitimately been mitigated. Reforms in governance, education, and healthcare push the country in the direction of Europe, while lethargic political will in national institutions undercuts progress. Further, conflict in the Donbas region with Russian-backed groups continues to intensify already strained Ukraine-Russia relations. After the 2019 parliamentary and presidential elections, Ukrainians are left to navigate a stalled anti-corruption court system, slow economic privatization, shortage of effective legislation, unresolved military conflict with Russia in Donbas, and illegal Russian annexation of Crimea. In this context the following collection of articles, presented at the online conferences of the Research Initiatives of the Democratic Reform of Ukraine (RIDRU) 2015-2018, deals with issues of democratic reform, language, and identity.

We begin with Implementing Ukrainian Law in Higher Education, wherein former Minister of Education and Science for Ukraine Serhiy Kvit provides an examination of Ukraine’s effort to implement the recent law “On Higher Education.” Based in pro-democratic sentiment regarding the governance of universities, the law calls for operational university autonomy. Here we have a compelling account of the formation of the law, measures taken towards its practical implementation, as well as a discussion of the threats and challenges Ukraine faces in higher education going forward.

Building on this understanding of the legal measures, Higher Education Reform Development assesses the degree to which Ukrainian universities have implemented the reforms required by the Bologna Process. Yuliya Zayachuk’s findings are interpreted through the goals of the process and through a survey of the literature on internationalization in higher education. The result is an informative update on the state of higher education in Ukraine. Additionally, part of the paper is based on recent interviews conducted with professors from two other participant European universities—Berlin’s Humboldt University and the University of Turku in Finland. The perspective gleaned from these institutions helps shed light on how the movement towards internationalization is perceived across Europe.

Progress on Ukraine’s Reform on Student Government follows up with an account of grass-root issues faced by student government leaders in Ukraine. Based on a survey with faculty and students and interviews with student leaders, Olenka Bilash provides needed context to legal reforms, and simultaneously makes suggestions as to how student government operations might themselves be fortified.

Fleshing out the notion of reform, Reforming Ukrainian Health Care and Education compares the policymaking activities of two Ukrainian parliamentary committees—the Committee for Health Care and the Committee for Science and Education—as a means of assessing the process of democratic transitions in post-Euromaidan Ukraine. Readers are offered an intriguing glimpse into fledgling democratic machineries at play in Ukraine. Of particular note is the way in which Oleh Orlov discusses the concept of “reform” as it is utilized by members in each committee.
In *The Impact of Geopolitical and Military Parameters on Inclusive Education Reform in Ukraine and Crimea*, Roman Petryshyn reveals how quickly progress on inclusive education in Crimea was reversed, after the Russian Federation illegally annexed Crimea. Using Chong and Graham’s three-level “nested” framework, policies and practices in inclusive education from 2003 to 2014, when Crimea was an autonomous republic within Ukraine, are compared to those of 2014 to 2017, after the annexation Crimea.

The sixth paper, *Dominance of Ukrainian in the Bilingual Setting: Neurocognitive Factors*, shifts focus to the notions of language and identity and considers the complex interactions of Ukrainian and Russian language dominance from a number of angles. It is held that a portion of bilingual Ukrainians speak Russian as their dominant language, and that this creates anxiety on an individual as well as on a societal level. With the fluid socio-political atmosphere of Ukraine, and in consideration of the present tension with Russia, Svitlana Zhabotynska explores the effects of a Russian-dominant bilingualism.

In *The Concept of Language Praising*, the role of language in cultural identity is explored, with specific attention paid to the concept of language praising in the textual record. Holger Küsse explains how diverse languages are valued for varied reasons, but holds that the tendency to value highly one’s nationality through language praise is indeed universal. A wide range of evidence is offered to illuminate the breadth of the issue. Of particular note is the author’s compelling discussion of language equality and language superiority.

Lastly, *Swinging between Christian Forgiveness and Military Pathos in the Ukrainian Mass Poetical Discourse Since 2013* takes a discerning look at the extant anxieties in the relationship between Ukrainians and Russians. “Mass poetic discourse,” or rather, classical and popular online poetry alike, is shown to reflect these uncertain and embattled linkages. Marianna Novoslova explores representations of the brotherly pathos and military aggression imbedded in Russia-Ukraine relations through their depictions in post-Maidan works, contributing a novel perspective on the state of the Ukrainian identity and its perception of the conflict with Russia.

Together, these articles offer information on the current state of democratic reformations in Ukraine, insight into the role of language in shaping identities in bilingual regions, and perspective on the ambivalence underpinning the Russia-Ukraine conflict. A careful reading offers reason for both encouragement and despair, yet the way forward becomes only clearer.
Chapter 2 — Higher Education Development: Integration of the Ukrainian Higher Education System into the European and World Educational Space

By Yuliya Zayachuk
(Ivan Franko National University of Lviv)

Abstract

This paper discusses the latest European higher education reforms in the context of how they are being implemented in Ukraine. The main successes achieved by Ukraine within the framework of the Bologna reforms, as well as the reforms in educational management and governance, are analyzed. The new 2014 Law of Ukraine, “On Higher Education” and resulting opportunities for systemic modernization of higher education in Ukraine are explored. It emphasizes that Ukraine faces many challenges in achieving its reform objectives; however, it has no alternative but to integrate into European higher education spaces.

Keywords: Higher education, Reforms, Bologna, Educational management, Ukrainian higher education system

Like any social institution, the university is in a state of ongoing dynamic change and reform. During any historical period, these changes have a wide spectrum of national, mental, ethnic, and cultural features. Simultaneously, general global trends determining the trajectory of educational development have always existed, currently exist, and will exist in the future.

To survive and thrive under new conditions, universities have had to both compete and cooperate, overcoming obstacles and responding to social challenges and demands through joint efforts. Among other consequences, these changing conditions prompted universities to seek out reciprocal international ties.

This study focuses on the analysis of trends in the European higher education reforms, which act as instruments of integration, internationalization, and globalization. It also focuses on local Ukrainian adaptations of these trends, new dynamics of higher education in Ukraine, and the integration of the Ukrainian system of higher education into European and world educational spaces.

This paper was revised and submitted in 2018.
According to researchers in higher education, the world’s higher education landscape changed significantly between the middle of 20th Century to the present (Altbach, 2013; Altbach & Knight, 2007; Knight, 2004; Schuetze, 2012; Clark, 1998; Teichler, 2003 & 2004; Mendivil, 2002). Schuetze (2012) points out that the older ideal of the university as liberal, enlightening, accessible, and embodying the public interest is barely recognizable in the contemporary “reformed” institution. According to Schuetze (2012), higher education reforms are not isolated issues, and modern changes in higher education are determined by two groups of factors: 1. External forces and factors of change; 2. University-specific changes.

According to Mendivil (2002), the important aspects of modern changes in higher education systems include the following: internationalization of the public and private sectors of higher education; strategic alliances between universities, corporations, and the public sector; growth in enrollment at all levels and in all models of the system; the development of distance learning; the emergence of virtual universities; curricular flexibility; change in the structures and management bodies of university governance; accreditation and certification of programs and institutions; and the emergence of new tools to ensure academic quality. Mendivil (2002) points out that, within the context of the changes underway in systems of higher education, there has formed a market for higher education services in which traditional providers (i.e., public and private institutions of higher education) compete or coexist with so-called “new providers.”

These new commercial providers are mainly occupied with teaching, training, or providing services and do not focus on research per se. Because many of the new providers focus on delivering education across borders, they must be included as actors on the internationalization scene. So, the university has become only one of the actors in today’s new “knowledge business.” The emergence of the new actors and “providers” is of great interest in understanding the direction of higher education in the immediate future.

Altbach (2013) emphasizes that we are currently in an era of global competition in higher education and he poses this two-part question: how do we deal with it, and what is the role of the European Union and Bologna in this trend? Determining the answers is challenging, but this is also a time of significant global opportunities (Altbach, 2013).

The European Union’s influence in higher education is closely associated with academic internationalization, which is a part of the move toward economic and political integration. According to Knight (2004), who studied the problem in detail, “internationalization” means a series of international activities, such as academic mobility for students and teachers, international linkages, partnerships and projects, international academic programs, and research initiatives. It also means the delivery of education to other countries and the inclusion of an international, intercultural, and/or global dimension into the curriculum and teaching and learning process (Knight, 2004).

The EU promoted and lavishly funded programs such as ERASMUS that provided large numbers of university students of EU and developing countries with academic experiences outside their home countries. An important part of this process is the Bologna process.
At present, European higher education reform strategies take several directions: structural reform (Bologna); reform of educational management and governance; and reforms in higher education funding.

These strategies were the focus of my research in the framework of the Erasmus Program at Humboldt University in Berlin, Germany (2011-2012), and at the University of Turku, Finland (2017). To begin, let us examine the first direction of higher education reform—structural reform (Bologna).

Teichler (2004) reports that there were various types of European higher education reforms over the past 20 years, and the Bologna Process was only part of them. Based on semi-structured interviews with four experienced professors in Germany and Finland, their comments reveal diverse understandings of the Bologna process:

“The Bologna Process itself is not an ideology; rather, it is a kind of policy implementing certain values and ideologies.” (J)

“The Bologna Process is not an educational reform but a reform for the labor market.” (R)

“The Bologna Process is nothing more than an economic philosophy of how to differentiate a population for the market.” (B)

“The Bologna Process is a system for better cooperation within European countries. By and large, ‘Bologna’ comes at the right time, since we need more international orientation, mobility, and cooperation in higher education as well as to improve the competitiveness of our graduates.” (L)

Core objectives of the process are mobility, employability, and appeal. Instruments of the convergence process include the following:

- Bachelor’s/master’s study system.
- Credit accumulation and transfer system.
- Easily readable and comparable degrees (usage of qualifications frameworks).
- Quality assurance and quality development (Hung & Tauch, 2001).
- Issuing Diploma Supplements.
- International mobility in higher education.
- A curricular reform oriented toward learning outcomes that improve the quality of teaching.
- Teaching strategies that focus on addressing and challenging students as independent, autonomous learners.
- Internationalization of study programmes (e.g., joint degrees).
- Changes in doctoral education; freedom of knowledge transfer; multilingualism; lifelong learning.
- Knowledge triangles (close communications between education, research and technological innovation).
- The principle of teaching freedom and learning freedom.
It is necessary to emphasize the fact that various European countries are adopting the aims of Bologna reforms at different rates depending on their national and cultural traditions as well as their historic educational backgrounds. For example, continental European countries that have very strong cultural heritages, and their educational systems do not readily adapt to external influences. A classic example of this is Germany. On the other hand, countries that have a short history of national independence more quickly adopt the direction of external influences. A classic example of this is Finland and its higher education system.

Ukraine has an extremely short history of national independence and faces many challenges. The Ukrainian university system, like those in Germany and Finland, is currently in the process of sometimes radical reforms in the interests of joining the European Higher Education Area. In Ukraine, we have many challenges in achieving the objectives of the Bologna reforms. We are aware that we must expend great effort to realize its positive goals, but we accept that Ukraine has no alternative but to be integrated into the European higher education space.

Historically, Ukrainian lands were divided between foreign powers. As a result, different systems of education existed in different regions, established by corresponding governments. After World War II, Ukrainian lands were united within a single administrative unit as part of the USSR. Education was strictly controlled by central Soviet authorities, and independent development was impossible. Only after achieving national independence in 1991 could an independent Ukrainian system of education begin development.

Changes in higher education in 1990’s Ukraine—within the context of global higher education trends and social challenges—include the following: establishment of governing bodies in education for the new state; curricular revision; introduction of a multi-level system of higher education; development of a network of higher education institutions; expansion of fees in higher education institutions; and “massification” of higher education (Shandruk & Shatrova, 2015).

The establishment of the national higher education system is based on a new legislative mandate. It provides for an entirely new level of training quality, an increase in academic and professional mobility of graduates, greater openness, democratic principles of teaching, and the accession of Ukraine’s higher education system into the world’s higher education spaces.

The Constitution of Ukraine (1996), the Law on Education (1996), the Law on Higher Education (2002), and the new Law on Higher Education (2014) constitute the legal framework for Ukrainian higher education. The Ukrainian legislation regulating higher education also includes decrees of and regulations established by the President and the Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine.

Higher education is perceived by Ukrainians as a way to achieve professional distinction, economic independence, and freedom. Current Ukrainian high school graduates frequently choose a university with a competitive field of study, affordable international outreach programs, quality international credentials, and strong international partnerships.
After signing the Bologna Declaration in 2005, Ukraine became part of the renewal process. This took place on June 19–20, 2005 at the Fourth Summit of the Bologna Process in Bergen, Norway. Joining the Bologna Declaration unquestionably represented a positive step toward integrating Ukrainian education into the European Higher Education Area. The education system is assumed to contribute significantly to the integration of Ukraine into the European Union.

The integration movement of Ukraine into the European Union is the strategic direction of Ukraine’s development. The process of European integration is accompanied by the formation of joint educational and scientific spaces and by the development of joint criteria and standards shared throughout Europe. Participation of Ukrainian higher education in the integration processes of the European Higher Education Area and in the Bologna transformations are aimed at acquiring qualitative changes in its educational structure and university curricula.

Integration into the European educational space for Ukraine means: (i) participation of Ukrainian universities in European educational programs; (ii) the raising of Ukrainian higher education to the standards of the European Higher Education Area, the European qualifications framework, and the European Research Area; (iii) adaptation of the main principles of European education to Ukrainian national values; and (iv) creation of an innovative environment in the new social and economic order based on educational and scientific support.

Discussing the goals of the Bologna Process within the framework of the Erasmus Program, one interview participant stated: “There are two main purposes of the Bologna reforms: 1. the restructuring of higher education to include a different composition of competences; and 2. the internationalization of higher education and mobility.” (T)

Restructuring of higher education first involves implementing the Bachelor’s/Master’s degree system. The adaptation of academic courses to the Bachelor’s and Master’s degree programs of study in European universities is the most significant result of the Bologna reforms today. The changes resulted in better structured curricula as well as the emergence of new learning opportunities and quick initiation of professional activities. However, currently in Ukraine, there is a lack of societal recognition of the “Bachelor’s” academic qualification level as revealed by the absence of a labor market for its graduates.

Regarding internationalization of higher education and mobility, it is important to keep in mind that these are two inseparable components of a single process. Ukrainian universities consider internationalization as a major tool to drive much needed internal change and improve access to knowledge, research, and funding across borders. Ukraine is attempting to find its own niche internationally.

When Ukrainians mention “internationalization” of higher education, they usually mean “Europeanization.” Faculties define internationalization in regional European terms and highlight the importance of sustaining a future-oriented process of enculturating their students in the spirit of a United Europe. In 2005 in Bergen, Ukraine joined a Bologna declaration to participate in the
harmonization of a European higher education architecture via compatibility and comparability of regional education systems (Kushnarenko & Knutson, 2014).

As Knight (2004) declares, internationalization more particularly means international academic mobility for students and teachers. There are two separate aspects of student and faculty mobility: intra-European mobility and intercontinental mobility. “Within the framework of intra-European mobility there have been few effects.” (H) An increase in such mobility has not been as successful as expected under the Bologna reforms; the recognition of study activities completed abroad remains quite problematic. The idea of mobility can be complicated; as a result, students often minimize their risks by not studying abroad.

In the framework of intercontinental mobility, the introduction of the Bachelor’s and Master’s degree system was an instrument for attracting students from outside Europe. “Between 1999 and 2007 the number of students from other parts of the world doubled. So, introduction of the Bachelor’s and Master’s degree system was an instrument for increasing the number of students from outside Europe. In particular, progress has been made in mobility partnerships between the European Union and Ukraine, and indeed Ukrainian students appear to increasingly benefit from this.” (T)

The EU promotes mobility programs that provide large numbers of university students and teachers from the EU and other countries with academic experiences outside their home countries. Among them, the Tempus and Erasmus Programs are the most important for Ukraine. Tempus in Ukraine has been operating since 1993, and Erasmus Mundus since 2004. Since 2014, Ukrainian universities have been involved in Erasmus+ KA1 and KA2. Further, an important step toward integration into European and global research was Ukraine formally becoming an associate member of the Horizon 2020 Program in March 2015. Joining the Bologna process was an unquestionable motivator for Ukraine, given the steps that have already been taken.

Under the Bologna Declaration in 2005, Ukraine committed to significant changes. The most striking result of Bologna has been the adaptation of study courses to the two-cycle Bachelor’s/Master’s degree study system, the introduction of Bachelor’s and Master’s level courses as standard degree courses at universities, and the introduction of a PhD degree program at Ukrainian universities. All of these moves have significantly increased the global mobility of Ukrainian scholars whose home status as “candidates of sciences” was never well understood abroad. In 2006/2007, students of Ukrainian universities were integrated into a two-cycle graduate study system that corresponds to Bologna principles. Later in 2014, within the framework of the new Law on Higher Education, two variants of the Master’s Program were created: the Master of Academic and Master of Professional specializations. Within the framework of the new Law on Higher Education, the young specialist degree has been removed and a new bachelor’s degree has been introduced as accelerated ways to get an undergraduate degree. The Bologna reform in Ukraine during 2006/2007 also led to the introduction of the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS). Assessment points (credits) are now awarded according to ECTS. The introduction of the European Credit Transfer System significantly improved the flexibility and transparency of the learning process. Simultaneously, the Diploma
Supplement of the European Standard was implemented. In 2014, the framework of the new Law on Higher Education decreased a university credit hour from 36 hours to 30 hours.

These changes significantly improved the flexibility and transparency of the learning process and, accordingly, achieved greater international academic mobility for students. The changes enabled Ukrainian students to study abroad without suffering academically (Knutson and Kushnarenko, 2015). International students were also encouraged to study at Ukrainian universities. An important indicator of international academic mobility is the number of foreign students in Ukraine and Ukrainian students abroad. This includes short-term study, full time study, research work, probation periods, and enrollment in language courses. Some statistics on the number of Ukrainian international students studying abroad and the number of international students in Ukraine are presented in Figures 1 and 2, and reveal that the new Law on Higher Education of 2014 resulted in favorable conditions for increasing student mobility.

![Graph showing the number of Ukrainian International Students studying abroad](image)

*Figure 1: The number of Ukrainian International Students studying abroad (Ukrainian International Students, 2016)*
A problematic point, however, that bears mentioning here is the mutual recognition of qualifications from different countries and equivalence in educational levels. According to one study participant, “such mutual recognitions and equivalencies from diverse countries are highly significant for today’s students.” (B)

In order to increase external academic faculty mobility, Ukrainian universities began: (i) signing bilateral agreements on staff exchanges; (ii) creating joint training programs for specialists with leading European universities; and (iii) carrying out joint scientific programs with leading European universities.

Another important component of international academic mobility is partnerships that create opportunities for joint research; these allow Ukrainian universities to respond to the new context of competition on a global scale, boosting employability of graduates and attracting both research partners and external funding. Therefore, higher education reforms relate to deep fundamentals of Ukrainian education and science, as well as to increasing the integration of national science and education with European and other global higher education spaces.

On the other hand, the internationalization of higher education in Ukraine continues to be vulnerable to the political context of Ukraine and tensions of the region’s geopolitics. The Revolution of Dignity during 2013–2014 and the ongoing military conflict in Eastern Ukraine provide new avenues for the renewal process due to the evolving public approaches to social issues and challenges along the path of national advancement.
Despite these dramatic developments, however, on July 1st, 2014, Ukrainian President Petro Poroshenko signed the new Law on Higher Education (Закон України “Про вищу освіту,” 2014), which set the stage for Ukrainian higher education to better respond to international opportunities. The new Law on Higher Education 2014: (i) aligns with the requirements of Bologna for the country to integrate into the European Higher Education Area; (ii) enables universities to act with greater autonomy; (iii) promotes decentralized decision-making and responsibility for reputation; (iv) establishes anti-plagiarism norms and liabilities for academic dishonesty; and (v) established the National Quality Assurance Agency.

The new higher education Law of Ukraine, in providing an opportunity for systemic modernization of higher education in Ukraine, is viewed as “one of the first systemic reforms that in fact draws Ukraine closer to integration with Europe” (Shandruk & Shatrova, 2015). One point upon which everyone agrees is that the law sends a very important political message to the public and officials in higher education.

Ukrainian policy makers and education authorities outlined three phases of the higher education law’s implementation: September 2014 (major provisions), September 2015 (national agency for ensuring quality higher education), and January 1, 2016 (additional financing for the law’s provisions). There is evidence of understanding that changes in the policy discourse are vital for the reforms to work (Shandruk & Shatrova, 2015).

Also, under the new law, Ukrainian universities are expected to intensify research capacity and production. As global rankings remain an important component of the public face of a university, the quality of research and number of publications by faculty members in reputable, peer-reviewed journals is increasingly important to the viability of an institution.

Also, it is important to emphasize that, upon fully realizing the importance of higher education, Ukraine introduced a new student assessment system over the past decade. Since 2008, all high school graduates wishing to enter university have had to take the External Independent Test. This was a fundamental shift from the Soviet legacy of corrupt university admission exams; they have now been replaced with an objective testing procedure. The main aims of the External Independent Test were to combat corruption, increase equal opportunity, provide equal access to tertiary education, and create a national assessment system to monitor educational quality (Klein, 2014).

Under the new Law on Higher Education 2014, the higher education structure of Ukraine has been transformed. Today, Ukrainian higher education institutions provide the following levels of higher education: Junior Bachelor, Bachelor’s, Master’s, Doctor of Philosophy (first level research degree), and Doctor of Sciences (second level research degree). The Ukrainian higher education structure according to the new Law on Higher Education 2014 is shown in Table 1.
The second direction of the European higher education reform strategy is in educational management and governance. According to Wolter (2004), the reform in education management and governance—along with the Bologna reform providing new structure—is important for further development of the higher education system in Europe. It may be considered a “silent” revolution in the higher education system. Today, management and governance are the major factors influencing the development of higher education.

The framework for the transformation of management and governance structures may be defined by the following three aspects (Wolter, 2004):

1. **Criteria for recognition of academic achievements:**

   Traditionally, criteria comprised academic reputation and outstanding publications. Today, new criteria include the amount of research grants and other monies obtained, the number of scientific articles published, the number of successful students produced, and the number of the doctoral students supervised.

2. **New internal governance models:**

   A new type of governance within institutions has been introduced between top university management, faculty-level management, and individual professors. This new concept of a managerial university includes an agreement between the University and professor, which defines levels of targets, a new "type" of State–University relationship, and the emergence of

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**Table 1: Ukrainian higher education structure according to the new Law on Higher Education 2014 (ENIC UKRAINE, 2014)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Higher education levels</th>
<th>Higher education degrees, educational documents</th>
<th>Entrance requirements</th>
<th>Study period and load (ESTC credits)</th>
<th>Access to further education</th>
<th>National qualification framework</th>
<th>EHEA Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academic level (2nd academic degree)</td>
<td>Doctor (Doctor diploma)</td>
<td>PhD diploma</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>9 level</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science and research level (1st academic degree)</td>
<td>PhD (PhD diploma)</td>
<td>Master diploma</td>
<td>4 years 30-60 credits</td>
<td>Access to the 2nd academic degree</td>
<td>8 level</td>
<td>III cycle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master level</td>
<td>Master (Master diploma)</td>
<td>Bachelor diploma</td>
<td>Professional educational program, 90-120 credits</td>
<td>Access to the 1st academic degree</td>
<td>7 level</td>
<td>II cycle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Master of Medicine</td>
<td>Secondary school leaving certificate (Attestat)</td>
<td>300-360 credits</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>III cycle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor level</td>
<td>Bachelor (Bachelor diploma)</td>
<td>Secondary school leaving certificate (Attestat)</td>
<td>180-240 credits</td>
<td>Access to Master programs</td>
<td>6 level</td>
<td>I cycle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Junior Bachelor diploma</td>
<td></td>
<td>HEI may transfer credits and shorten the program</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short cycle level</td>
<td>Junior Bachelor (Junior Bachelor diploma)</td>
<td>Secondary school leaving certificate (Attestat)</td>
<td>90-120 credits</td>
<td>Access to Bachelor programs</td>
<td>5 level</td>
<td>Short cycle</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
a contract between the State and the institution which includes provisions for the development of a plan, budget, and structure of institutions.

3. New assessment and accreditation institutions (Agencies):

Changes in assessment and accreditation of new courses, with new Bachelor’s and Master’s programs providing external quality control and management.

The new steering model for educational management and governance embraces six key strategies: deregulation of state control in favour of greater autonomy; re-distribution of influence from academic oligarchy to university management; transformation of a uniform system into a more differentiated, competition-, and market-oriented system; strengthening the specific missions of institutions and improving program quality and flexibility in the provision and organization of studies according to the needs of a body of diverse students; improving the outcomes of higher education; and raising international competitiveness and the reputation of higher education.

The following is an examination of what has already been accomplished in Ukraine within the framework of reforms in educational management and governance. According to the new Law on Higher Education in Ukraine, within the framework of development of academic and financial autonomy of higher education institutions, Ukraine has worked out new mechanisms for rectors’ elections. The duration of service for rectors, deans, and department heads is now a maximum of two terms (5+5 years; 7+7 years for National Universities). Also, universities have been granted the right to manage their own revenues from education, research, and academic activities. Further, according to the new Law on Higher Education in Ukraine, within the framework of developing the National Quality Assurance system for higher education and in compliance with the European Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance, Ukraine has established a separate governmental unit called the National Quality Assurance Agency. Within this framework of further development of the mechanism for equal access to higher education, Ukraine worked out a new mechanism of electronic admission for universities and automatic placement according to state directives.

Also under the new Law on Higher Education, Heads of HEIs will manage all aspects of the HEI: this includes their financial and business operations, structure and staffing, performance, the healthy lifestyle of students, and ensuring open and effective public monitoring of the HEI. HEI Heads will be accountable for their institution’s education, research, and innovation activities, as well as financial and business performance.

The National Quality Assurance Agency is an authority established by the Ukrainian government to ensure quality higher education across the country. It is a permanent collegial body authorized to implement state educational policies. The Agency will be responsible for the following: development of regulations on accreditation of educational programs; license confirmation; and establishing criteria for adherence to standards and guidelines of the European Higher Education
Area. The Ukrainian National Quality Assurance Agency aims to become eligible for membership in the European Quality Assurance Register for Higher Education.

Concerning automatic placement of state orders, the major new development concerns the distribution of state orders for Bachelor-level education. The previous system was characterized by distribution of state orders between higher education institutions by the Ministry of Education. In the new system the state distributes funds to students rather than institutions in what is termed a “funds follow the student” scheme.

Many challenges exist in Ukraine in achieving the objectives of higher education reform. However, it is important to emphasize that Ukraine has no alternative but to be integrated into Bologna process and the European higher education space. Reforms are taking a long time to have any effect. There is a great deal to do in order to make the positive goals of the Bologna reforms a reality. Ukrainian universities are only minimally represented on the leading international ranking lists. This situation serves as evidence of the low competitiveness of Ukrainian higher education institutions (Shandruk & Shatrova, 2015).

Other challenges include the following: low performance and publication rates of Ukrainian scientists; lack of societal recognition of the Bachelor’s degree as a qualification level; complexity of the Ukrainian system of scientific degrees compared to the system in Europe; difficulties in implementing the results of research into higher education processes; problems with establishing contacts between Ukrainian and European universities and, in this context, the issue of implementation of Joint Programmes and Joint Degrees; modernization of the system of quality control; and the gap between education and the labor market.

Conclusions

Reforming education has been an ongoing process since Ukraine gained independence in 1991. Currently, Ukrainian higher education is in a state of radical change and is in search of its place within the European and world educational space. Significant efforts toward that goal are being made at all levels—national, institutional, and individual. Great expectations have been placed on the new Law on Higher Education of 2014 to promote integration of the Ukrainian higher education system into European and world higher education spaces. The Ukrainian system of higher education must, on one hand, consider global integration processes and, on the other hand, react to significant socio-economic transformation within Ukrainian society. Great attention is being given to the deepening of international scientific and educational cooperation at all levels. The central task for all is to make changes in Ukrainian higher education system rapid, effective, and irreversible.

References


