

ATHENA project



University Autonomy in Ukraine: Analysis & Roadmap

Governance, Funding and Public Policy Development Unit

European University Association

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Introduction

The focus of the ATHENA project, supported by the European Union's TEMPUS programme, is to contribute to the modernisation and restructuring of university governance by promoting and supporting greater university autonomy and financial sustainability in Armenia, Moldova and Ukraine.

Higher education stakeholders broadly agree on the considerable benefits and importance of university autonomy. In several declarations, the European University Association (EUA) has reaffirmed the crucial role of institutional autonomy for higher education institutions and society at large. While autonomy is not a goal in itself, it is a vital precondition for the success of Europe's universities.

It is clear that autonomy does not mean the absence of regulations. While acknowledging that there are many different models, EUA has identified the basic principles and conditions which are important for universities if they are to fulfill optimally their missions and tasks. The Autonomy Scorecard methodology was developed by EUA with the input of its collective members, the National Rectors' Conferences of 29 higher education systems in Europe, between 2009 and 2011. It offers a tool to benchmark national higher education frameworks in relation to autonomy, and enables the establishment of correlations between autonomy and other concepts, such as performance, funding, quality, access and retention (see www.university-autonomy.eu).

The scorecard has since been used in several European countries to support their higher education reform process. The scorecard methodology has thus been broadly acknowledged by the various higher education stakeholders in Europe as an adequate tool to use for reform process development. EUA is therefore making use of its unique position and expertise in the field of higher education research in Europe to the benefit of the ATHENA project.

This document is based on the work carried out in the policy analysis phase of the ATHENA process, in which the higher education systems of Armenia, Moldova and Ukraine have been assessed using the scorecard methodology during 2013-2014. It presents the results of this analysis, and as such has informed the development of the corresponding policy action plan, which goes on to identify ways in which the system can be reformed to bring about enhanced university autonomy. The analysis and the policy action plan take into account the legal changes that were introduced with the new higher education law that was adopted in July 2014 and entered into force in September 2014. In order to show the development, the analysis covers both the situation before as well as afterwards. The policy roadmap brings structured input to ongoing and future legislative reform and the related implementation process as well as for further institutional development.

University autonomy and funding

Many governments, the university sector and the European Commission have all recognised that increasing university autonomy represents a crucial step towards modernising higher education in the 21st century. EUA has monitored and analysed the development and impact of autonomy and governance reforms through a wide array of studies as well as through stakeholder debates, conferences and its Institutional Evaluation Programme. With its study, *University Autonomy in Europe II – The Scorecard* (Estermann, Nokkala, Steinel 2011), EUA has provided data on institutional autonomy, which enables university practitioners and policy makers to compare systems more effectively across Europe. It ranks and rates higher education systems according to their degree of autonomy thereby helping to improve higher education systems. Following extensive consultancy in different European Higher Education systems in the last decade, EUA is now implementing the major Tempus project ATHENA¹. This project aims to contribute to the development, reform and modernisation of higher education systems in Armenia, Moldova and Ukraine. As a structural measure, it is designed to support structural reform processes and the development of strategic frameworks at the national level. ATHENA ultimately aims to enhance the quality and relevance of higher education systems in the three partner countries. It fosters the transfer of good practices in order to promote efficient and effective governance and funding reforms and tries to build the capacities of universities in the partner countries to modernise the management of financial and human resources.

Terminology

Perceptions and terminologies of institutional autonomy vary greatly across Europe, and separating the various components of autonomy to ensure that we are looking at like-for-like is a difficult process. There is a vast amount of literature on the topic, which has led to a wide range of definitions and concepts of university autonomy (see for example Clark (1998), Sporn (2001), Salmi (2007), Huisman (2007)).

The rules and conditions under which Europe's universities operate are characterised by a high degree of diversity. This variety reflects the multiple approaches to the ongoing search for a balance between autonomy and accountability in response to the demands of society and the changing understanding of public responsibility for higher education. Indeed, the relationship between the state and higher education institutions can take a variety of forms, and it should be stressed that an "ideal" or "one-size-fits-all" model does not exist. In this Policy Roadmap therefore, "institutional autonomy" refers to the constantly changing relations between the state and universities and the differing degree of control exerted by public authorities, which are dependent on particular national contexts and circumstances.

Why do universities need autonomy?

There is broad agreement between stakeholders that institutional autonomy is important for modern universities. While this notion has been empirically substantiated in various studies, it should also be noted that autonomy alone is rarely enough. Though institutional autonomy is a crucial precondition that enables universities to achieve their missions in the best possible way, other elements are equally necessary to ensure real success.

¹ <http://www.athena-tempus.eu/>

The relationship between university autonomy and performance has been widely discussed. For example, in their contribution “Higher Aspirations: an Agenda for Reforming European Universities”, Aghion et al. analyse the correlation between performance in rankings, the status of autonomy and levels of public funding. They found “that universities in high-performing countries typically enjoy some degree of autonomy, whether in hiring or in wage setting” and that “the level of budgetary autonomy and research are positively correlated” (Aghion et al. 2008: 5).

In addition, autonomy helps to improve quality standards. EUA’s Trends IV study found that “there is clear evidence that success in improving quality within institutions is directly correlated with the degree of institutional autonomy” (Reichert & Tauch 2005: 7). This correlation was confirmed by EUA’s most recent Trends VI study (Sursock & Smidt 2010).

Third, there is a link between autonomy and universities’ capacity to attract additional funding. The 2011 EUA study “Financially Sustainable Universities II: European universities diversifying income streams” found that a university’s ability to generate additional income relates to the degree of institutional autonomy granted by the regulatory framework in which it operates. This link was established for all dimensions of autonomy, including organisational, financial, staffing and academic autonomy. The data revealed that financial autonomy is most closely correlated with universities’ capacity to attract income from additional funding sources. Staffing autonomy, and particularly the freedom to recruit and set salary levels for academic and administrative staff, were also found to be positively linked to the degree of income diversification (Estermann & Bennetot Pruvot 2011). Finally, by mitigating the risks associated with an overdependence on any one particular funder, a diversified income structure may, in turn, contribute to the further enhancement of institutional autonomy.

It should be noted that policy makers tend to regard autonomy reforms as an important driver of university modernisation. And higher education institutions, too, consider the further improvement of university autonomy as a priority. According to EUA’s Trends VI report, 43% of university respondents viewed autonomy reform as one of the most important institutional developments in the past decade (Sursock & Smidt 2010: 18).

Scorecard methodology

The data with which the situation of Ukraine is compared was provided by the National Rectors’ Conferences of 26 European countries. The scoring system used by the University Autonomy Scorecard is based on deductions. Each restriction on university autonomy was assigned a deduction value based on how restrictive a particular rule or regulation was seen to be. A score of 100% indicates full institutional autonomy; a score of 0% means that an issue is entirely regulated by an external authority. In many cases, the law grants universities a limited amount of autonomy or prescribes negotiations between universities and the government. For instance, a system in which universities may determine tuition fees under a ceiling set by an external authority receives a score of 60% for that indicator.

The University Autonomy Scorecard uses weighted scores. The weighting factors are based on a survey conducted among EUA’s member National Rectors’ Conferences and thus reflect the views of the university sector in Europe. The results of the survey were translated into a numerical system, which evaluates the relative importance of the indicators within each of the autonomy dimensions.

For further information on the development of the scoring methodology and the weighting system, please refer to the full report: [University Autonomy in Europe II - The Scorecard](#).

Country profile

The Ukrainian higher education system consists 846 'higher education institutions', covering four different 'accreditation levels' (as shown in the tables below). The different accreditation levels include sub-types of institutions offering varying ranges of courses; there are 197 4th accreditation level 'universytet', which may be considered as comprehensive universities offering a wide range of different degree programmes up to doctoral level. Most of these institutions are publicly funded.

It is noted that prior to the adoption of the new higher education law, Taras Shevchenko National University of Kiev (TSNUK) held a specific status regulated in a dedicated legal code, granting it a higher level of autonomy in many respects. The analysis and the Policy Roadmap refer to the legislation applicable to the sector as a whole, rather than to TSNUK specifically. Specific regulations for TSNUK are nevertheless mentioned where relevant.

Key statistics (2011/2012)²

Type of institution	Number of institutions
1 st accreditation level: offer degree programmes up to 'specialist' level	242
2 nd accreditation level: offer degree programmes up to Bachelor's level	238
3 rd accreditation level: offer degree programmes up to Master's level	103
4 th accreditation level: offer all levels of degree programme ('specialist', Bachelor's, Master's, and doctorate)	263

Number of students (at all levels of HE)	Total	
	2,312,000	
Number of HEIs	Public	Private
	661	185

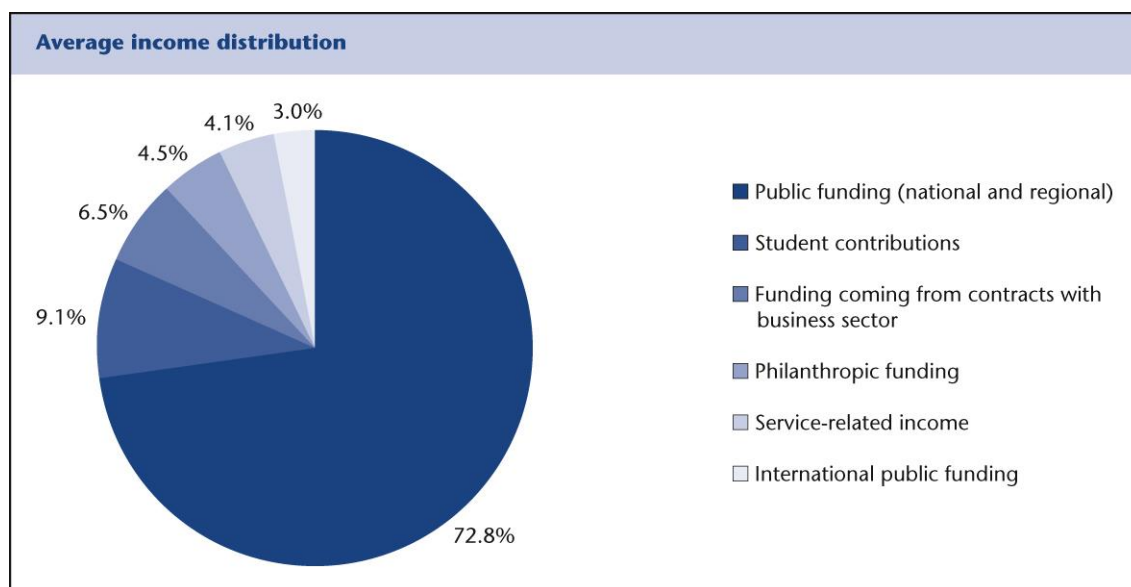
Public funding for Ukrainian universities is delivered in the form of a line-item budget which does not leave much room for manouvre for the university. Universities also levy tuition fees on those who have not obtained government-funded places, which are allocated by the State on the basis of perceived economic need for particular skills. These fees are set by universities. According to World Bank data, only 0.73% of Gross Domestic Product is invested in research and development in Ukraine, more than in the two other ATHENA partner countries, Moldova (0.41%) and Armenia (0.27%), but significantly

² TEMPUS Country Fiche "Higher Education in Ukraine", Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency (EACEA), July 2012

http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/tempus/participating_countries/overview/ukraine_tempus_country_fiche_final.pdf

less than most Western European countries.³ This trend is mirrored when public investment in tertiary education as a whole is considered.

Data from EUA's EUDIS project on income diversification⁴ shows that on average, European universities receive almost three quarters of their funding from public sources, which guarantee a certain stability over the long term. They also tend to receive a greater proportion of their income from a variety of other sources (contractual research with industry and business, philanthropic income, research funding from international sources).



Report structure

In Part 1, the findings of EUA's analysis of the state of autonomy in the Ukrainian higher education system are presented. These are based on the regulatory framework in force in Ukraine until August 2014. The analysis explores each of the four dimensions of autonomy addressed by EUA's Autonomy Scorecard methodology; organisation, financial, staffing and academic autonomy.

Part 2 takes account of the legislative changes based on the new higher education law that entered into force in September 2014. It should nevertheless be borne in mind that potential subsequent regulations consolidating the new legislative framework could not be analysed. The system is indeed in a phase of transition and the way in which the new regulatory framework is implemented in the medium term will determine effectively the level of autonomy that Ukrainian universities can operate with.

Finally, Part 3 of this document highlights the priority challenges to be faced by the sector and the public authorities to further improve the regulatory framework. This action plan has been built by the ATHENA Ukrainian taskforce (comprising both university leaders and Ministry representatives) on the basis of the Autonomy Scorecard and its different analytical components of autonomy. This methodology allows the taskforce to identify possible actions to tackle these priority challenges. This

³ <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/GB.XPD.RSDV.GD.ZS>

⁴ <http://www.eua.be/activities-services/projects/past-projects/governance-autonomy-and-funding/eudis.aspx>

is complemented by EUA's recommendations on how to conduct and further pursue the reform process.

Part One: ATHENA Autonomy Analysis 2013/2014

Organisational autonomy

Analysis

There are significant limitations on universities' organisational autonomy in Ukraine. Taras Shevchenko National University of Kiev (TSNUK) is regulated by a separate legal code giving in some areas greater freedom than for other Ukrainian universities. One should point out as well the general issue of inconsistency in the legal framework governing university operations, with sometimes conflicting provisions in the different regulatory acts that apply (Law on Higher Education, Budget Code).

Some regulations apply to the selection, dismissal and term of office of the rector. For instance, the law states that the rector must be a citizen of Ukraine, speak the official language fluently, hold the title of a professor as well as a doctoral degree and have at least ten years of teaching experience.

The candidate for the rector's position is elected by secret ballot and simple majority of the staff conference. Each sub-entity (branch) of the university can nominate its candidate. Once the candidates are nominated, the staff conference consisting of delegates from all branches of the university is called and votes by secret ballot. A counting commission mandated by the staff conference announces the results. The elected rector needs to be approved by the Ministry of Education and Sciences, by whom he or she is officially appointed upon signature of a contract with the Ministry. The Ministry has the right to decide whom to approve among the candidates which got at least 30% of the votes. Apart from this the Ministry controls the timeframe of the elections and decides when to announce the outcome.

The Ministry can dismiss the rector, although in practice this rarely happens. The most likely option would be that the Ministry does not prolong the contract with the rector (after the first term).

The term of office of the rector varies among the institutions. Usually one term is four to five years long; in TSNUK and all National Universities it is seven years (the maximum length of a term prescribed by law). Although the maximum length of a term is prescribed by law, there is no indication on the number of terms and therefore many rectors stay in their position for longer if the Ministry approves it. Another example of such variation is the capacity to establish legal entities; while TSNUK is free to do this, other universities are not.

Universities typically have a senate-type governing body, called the Academic Board, which is chaired by the rector and consists of the vice-rectors, the deans, the chief accountant, the chairs of the self-governing bodies (meaning the staff conference, faculty councils and students' parliament), elected representatives (teachers, professors and academic chairs) and student representatives. The Academic Board approves the budget and the financial report, submits the statutes and amendments to the

statutes to the self-governing bodies for approval, approves curricula, and adopts research plans and votes on the appointment of chairs, professors and other staff. Universities may set their own academic structures, but only in accordance with guidelines set down in the law.

Universities are free to include external members to their governing bodies. However the percentage of external members is rather low as it is not an obligation to include them. External members can for instance be well-known politicians, personalities from the spheres of culture and science. Often they are also government representatives. However it has to be noted that the inclusion of government officials as external members in university governing bodies goes against the idea of institutional autonomy as it increases the influence of the state in institutional matters.

European comparison

Rank	System	Score
1	UK	100%
2	Denmark	94%
3	Finland	93%
4	Estonia	87%
5	North Rhine-Westphalia	84%
6	Ireland	81%
7	Portugal	80%
8	Austria	78%
	Hesse	78%
	Norway	78%
11	Flanders	76%
12	Lithuania	75%
13	Netherlands	69%
14	Poland	67%
15	Latvia	61%
16	Brandenburg	60%
17	France	59%
	Hungary	59%
19	Italy	56%
20	Sweden	55%
	Spain	55%
	Switzerland	55%
23	Czech Republic	54%
24	Cyprus	50%
25	Iceland	49%
26	Slovakia	45%
27	UKRAINE	44%
28	Greece	43%
29	Turkey	33%
30	Luxembourg	31%

For organisational autonomy, Ukraine ranks near the bottom of the ‘medium low’ cluster of systems, in the 41% to 60% range. This represents the fact that there are a number of areas in which organisation autonomy is limited, such as the fact that the process for the selection of rectors is dictated by law and the candidate requires government approval. There is also a lack of external input on university’s governing bodies. In general it is observed that all universities should be given the same level of autonomy as currently given to TSNUK, for example by giving all universities the right to establish their own legal entities and removing guidelines on academic structures.

Moreover, in some respects there seems to be a difference between the law and the actual practice when it comes to the involvement of the Ministry. For instance, although formally the term of office of a rector is regulated by law, the Ministry seems to be able to unilaterally override this.

European trends in organisational autonomy

Although higher education institutions in Europe almost invariably operate in the context of an external regulatory framework, the extent and detail of these regulations vary significantly where universities’ organisational autonomy is concerned. In the majority of countries, institutions are relatively free to decide on their administrative structures. Their capacity to shape their internal academic structures within this legal framework is more restricted.

In addition, there is a trend towards the inclusion of external members in the institutional decision-making processes, especially where universities have dual governance structures. While this is seen as an important accountability measure, it also clearly serves other, more strategic, purposes. Indeed, external members in university governing bodies are frequently selected to foster links with industry and other sectors.

As far as leadership is concerned, the shift towards more corporate, CEO-type rectors in a number of Western European countries goes hand in hand with greater autonomy in management and the capacity for universities to design their own organisational structures. On the other hand, more traditional models still exist, in particular in Southern and Eastern Europe, in which the rector is a “primus inter pares” who is selected by and comes from the internal academic community.

Finally, dual governance structures – with some type of division of power between bodies, and usually comprising a board or council and a senate – as opposed to unitary structures, are on the rise.

Comparison with ATHENA partner countries

Organisational autonomy	
Armenia	47%
Ukraine	44%
Moldova	42%

Higher education systems in Armenia, Moldova and Ukraine are characterised by a low degree of organisational autonomy, as demonstrated in the table above. In all three systems, universities are subject to high levels of government control over their governing body and the setting of organisational processes. Indeed, there still remains a lot to be done in order to meet the level of organisational autonomy present in most European higher education systems, such removing government involvement in the selection of rectors, enabling universities to establish their own legal entities and

removing legal requirements for academic structures. The current reform process needs to address these changes and improve the state of organisational autonomy.

Financial Autonomy

Analysis

Financial autonomy is limited for universities in Ukraine, albeit again with the exception of TSNUK who operate with more freedom.

Ukrainian universities receive public funding through a one-year line-item budget. They are not allowed to keep a surplus and do not have the possibility to borrow money on the financial market, with the exception of TSNUK which can borrow money from specific banks upon approval by the Ministry. Buildings are given to the universities in form of a long-term lease, whereby refurbishments and constructions have to be approved by the state. Consequently universities are not allowed to sell the buildings they occupy. These restrictions are a challenge, as they give universities almost no room for manoeuvre in defining their own investment priorities and developing strategic financial management. In addition, universities are unable to rent out their property without the permission of the Ministry, which hampers additional income generation.

Universities are free to charge tuition fees and to establish the amount they want to charge. However this only applies to the study places that are not state-funded. As the Ministry prescribes the number of state-funded places for each institution, universities can in addition fix the number of study places for fee-paying students depending on the institutional capacity. Generally there are more state-funded students than fee-paying students, although the ratio varies according to subject areas. Universities may not charge different fees for foreign students, who are considered under the same regime as Ukrainian fee-paying students.

European comparison

Rank	System	Score
1	Luxembourg	91%
2	Estonia	90%
3	UK	89%
4	Latvia	80%
5	Netherlands	77%
6	Hungary	71%
7	Flanders	70%
	Italy	70%
	Portugal	70%
	Slovakia	70%
11	Denmark	69%
12	Ireland	66%
13	Switzerland	65%
14	Austria	59%
15	North Rhine-Westphalia	58%
16	Finland	56%
	Sweden	56%
18	Spain	55%
19	Poland	54%
20	Lithuania	51%
21	Norway	48%
22	Czech Republic	46%
	UKRAINE	46%
24	France	45%
	Turkey	45%
26	Brandenburg	44%
27	Iceland	43%
28	Greece	36%
29	Hesse	35%
30	Cyprus	23%

The Ukrainian system falls into the 'medium low' cluster for financial autonomy. Universities have a low level of autonomy in this dimension and this should be addressed. Line-item budgets should be removed and replaced with block grants which can be freely allocated internally by universities. Moreover, all institutions should be permitted to keep a surplus and borrow money on the financial markets.

European trends in financial autonomy

While universities in most systems are allowed to borrow money, laws specify certain restrictions, especially in Northern Europe: they may prescribe the maximum available amount, or require the authorisation by an external authority.

Only in half of the surveyed European countries are universities able to own their buildings. Even those who do own their facilities are not automatically able to decide on investing their real estate, nor are they necessarily free to sell their assets. Restrictions range from requiring the approval of an external authority to complete inability to sell.

In many European systems, universities can collect tuition fees or administrative charges from at least a part of the student population. Nevertheless, this does not mean that these fees reflect a significant contribution to the costs of education or an important form of income. In most cases, additional limitations are placed on the ability of universities to set fees as a means of generating income. In particular in Northern European systems where universities have less freedom to collect fees, levels of public funding are very high.

When all aspects of financial autonomy are taken together, Western European countries seem to benefit from greater freedom than their Eastern European counterparts. In general, universities in Western Europe are more autonomous in how they use the public funding they receive, but less so with regards to raising tuition fees. Eastern European countries tend to be less autonomous in the use of their public budgets, but are often able to decide on privately-funded study places and use the fees the latter generate.

Comparison with ATHENA partner countries

Financial autonomy	
Armenia	66%
Moldova	49%
Ukraine	46%

Ukraine ranks below Moldova and Ukraine with respect to financial autonomy, given the restrictions that are in place across the board. Significant reform is required to improve this ranking and bring it close to Western European systems. Future legislative reforms offer an opportunity to achieve this, by giving universities the ability to borrow money on the financial markets, keep a surplus and by modernising public funding modalities. However, as in Moldova and Armenia, the overall level of public investment in higher education (1.2% of Gross Domestic Product), and in particular in research and development (0.73% of gross domestic product), is low in comparison to the European average. There, both public and authorities and universities should go even further by exploring innovative ways of diversifying and increasing university funding streams.

Staffing Autonomy

Analysis

Compared with the other dimensions of autonomy, staffing is one area in which the legislation gives Ukrainian universities a higher degree of formal autonomy. However, in practice this is limited by the informal involvement of public authorities in staffing decisions, as well as through government influence over university governing bodies. In addition, the relatively low level of funding for higher education (about 2% of Gross Domestic Product from public and private sources, TEMPUS country sheet 2012), makes it difficult for universities to fully benefit from the freedom that they have through legislation.

Staff at Ukrainian universities are employed by the institutions themselves and thus they do not have civil servant status, giving universities relative freedom over their recruitment. However, the staff appointment scheme limits the number and type of posts to be filled, and some appointments must be confirmed by the Ministry. Moreover, the salary bands are stated in primary law, and in general payment of staff is highly regulated.

For professors the selection is based on a competition and their appointment has to be approved by the academic senate of the university.

There is no real professional senior management outside of the highest academic positions. Senior administrative staff is therefore understood as vice-rectors, deans and heads of department. Vice-rectors are nominated by the Rector and formally approved by the Ministry. Heads of sub-entities are nominated by the staff conference of the sub-entity and then sign a contract with the Rector.

Finances are the responsibility of one Vice-Rector, who is supported by the chief book-keeper, the only administrative function in this area, responsible for budget execution. The chief book-keeper approves payments together with the Rector. While the selection for this position is done at the level of the Rector, in practice the Ministry may sometimes ask to be consulted.

Other restrictions concern the recruitment of staff from foreign countries which seems to be extremely difficult for Ukrainian universities due to the complexity of procedures that have to be followed.

European comparison

Rank	System	Score
1	Estonia	100%
2	UK	96%
3	Czech Republic	95%
	Sweden	95%
	Switzerland	95%
6	Finland	92%
	Latvia	92%
8	Luxembourg	87%
9	Denmark	86%
10	Lithuania	83%
11	Ireland	82%
12	Poland	80%
	UKRAINE	80%
14	Austria	73%
	Netherlands	73%
16	Iceland	68%
17	Norway	67%
18	Hungary	66%
19	Portugal	62%
20	Hesse	61%
	North Rhine-Westphalia	61%
22	Turkey	60%
23	Flanders	59%
24	Brandenburg	55%
25	Slovakia	54%
26	Italy	49%
27	Cyprus	48%
	Spain	48%
29	France	43%
30	Greece	14%

When staffing autonomy is considered, Ukraine falls into the ‘medium high’ category of higher education systems. This represents the current legislation, which permits universities to directly employ their own staff (i.e. university staff are not civil servants) and set salaries within a certain range. Some limitations over the number of posts that can be recruited and the requirement of Ministry approval for certain positions should be removed. Moreover, legislation hampering the hiring of foreign academics should be amended or repealed. On a university level, it has been observed that universities often lack a coherent staffing strategy, principally because there is no comprehensive human resources function.

European trends in staffing autonomy

In many European countries, universities have a greater flexibility in dealing with staffing issues, as staff are being paid and/or employed directly by the university rather than by the government. However, the decisions on individual salaries are often regulated. In almost half of the European countries studied, all or a majority of staff has civil servant status. The analysis also shows that there are significant differences in the recruitment of staff, ranging from a considerable degree of freedom to formalised procedures that entail an external approval, sometimes by the country's highest authorities. Some Mediterranean countries have very little freedom with regards to staffing matters, as they are unable to determine the number of staff they recruit and hence lack control over overall salary costs. Even individual salary levels are determined by national authorities. In a number of European countries, in particular Northern and Western Europe universities have very transparent recruitment procedures in place and developed competitive career policies.

Comparison with ATHENA partner countries

Staffing autonomy	
Armenia	93%
Ukraine	80%
Moldova	59%

The three ATHENA partner countries rank more highly in staffing autonomy than in the other three dimensions, though Ukraine ranks between Armenia and Moldova. This is principally down to the fact that Ukrainian university staff do not have civil servant status and thus they are free to apply their own human resources practices. However, there are still numerous ways in which the level of staffing autonomy could be improved, namely by removing the requirement for government approval of appointments from all posts and facilitating the recruitment of foreign academics. Moreover, it should be noted that, like all ATHENA partner countries, the relatively low level of organisational autonomy also has an impact on the level of staffing autonomy, because the governing bodies who take recruitment decisions are themselves influenced by public authorities. Likewise, in all three systems there is a high level of informal involvement by public authorities in staffing decisions, reducing the actual level of autonomy and increasing the gap between "legal" and "practical" autonomy.

Academic Autonomy

Analysis

Ukrainian universities hold a moderate level of academic autonomy. While there are some examples of freedom in academic affairs, there remains a high level of government interference in these matters, in particular in the field of accreditation and course content.

The admission of Bachelor students is co-regulated by the Ministry of Education and Science and the universities. First, the Ministry of Education and Science develops a general admission policy and on the basis of this universities develop their own rules for admission, which are submitted to the Ministry for approval. To enter a bachelor's programme students have to pass the central admission tests organised by a Ministry agency. Students can apply to five universities and specific entrance exams at universities are allowed for some categories of applicants. For master's courses, universities set the entry criteria and students have to pass two exams (foreign language and main specialisation).

In order to offer higher education in Ukraine, institutions have to undergo a complex procedure of licensing and accreditation (including programme and institutional accreditation). Before a higher education institution in Ukraine can start operating, it has to obtain a license. This license is valid for ten years and is issued by the Ministry of Education, Science, Youth and Sports. In order to obtain the license, higher education institutions have to meet specific standards set by the Ministry in relation to infrastructure, resources, staff and programmes. Furthermore all new degree programmes (at bachelor's and master's level) have to be submitted for prior accreditation. Once at least two-thirds of all its programmes have been accredited, the university receives institutional accreditation. Although universities are free to terminate programmes independently, this rarely happens.

There is no independent internal quality assurance agency and external quality assurance is controlled by the Ministry of Education, Science, Youth and Sports. Consequently universities cannot select external quality assurance mechanisms themselves. If they choose to use the services of a foreign quality assurance agency, this cannot replace quality assurance procedures at national level.

One of the major restrictions to academic autonomy is the inclusion of compulsory modules that must be part of all study programmes, in particular in the field of political theory.

More positively, universities are free to choose the language of instruction for degree programmes. However, they do not receive public funding for programmes taught in a foreign language, thus disincentivising universities from offering such courses.

European comparison

Rank	System	Score
1	Ireland	100%
2	Norway	97%
3	UK	94%
4	Estonia	92%
5	Finland	90%
6	Iceland	89%
7	Cyprus	77%
8	Luxembourg	74%
9	Austria	72%
	Switzerland	72%
11	Hesse	69%
	North Rhine-Westphalia	69%
13	Brandenburg	67%
14	Sweden	66%
15	Poland	63%
16	Italy	57%
	Spain	57%
18	Denmark	56%
	Slovakia	56%
20	Latvia	55%
21	Portugal	54%
22	Czech Republic	52%
23	UKRAINE	51%
24	Netherlands	48%
25	Hungary	47%
26	Turkey	46%
27	Lithuania	42%
28	Flanders	40%
	Greece	40%
30	France	37%

With respect to academic autonomy, Ukraine's score puts it in the 'medium low' cluster of higher education systems because of the strict limitations which are placed on universities by the government and ministry when it comes to selecting students, introducing new programmes, planning course content and quality assurance. In Ukraine, the influence of government and public authorities is high in this dimension of autonomy, and so wide-ranging reform is required to improve its score.

European trends in academic autonomy

In a majority of European countries, universities are essentially free to develop their academic profile, although restrictions remain in other areas of academic autonomy. The introduction of new programmes usually requires some form of approval by the relevant ministry or by another public authority and is often tied to budget negotiations, which demonstrates the interdependence of different dimensions of autonomy. Universities are generally free to close programmes independently; only in a small number of systems does this matter have to be negotiated with the pertinent ministry.

In most countries, admission to higher education institutions tends to be unrestricted for all students that meet the basic entry-level requirements (usually a secondary education qualification and/or a national matriculation exam). On the other hand only in a minority of countries are universities free to decide on the overall number of students. In most cases, overall numbers are either determined by the relevant public authorities or decided jointly by the public authority and the university. This restriction on the other hand reflects in most systems the high percentage of public funding in the overall funding. In a third of the countries analysed, universities can freely decide on the number of study places per discipline. However, the allocation in some fields may be subject to negotiations with an external authority, or set within the accreditation procedure.

Comparison with ATHENA partner countries

Academic autonomy	
Moldova	51%
Ukraine	51%
Armenia	38%

While Ukraine's ranking for academic autonomy is on a level with Moldova and marginally above Armenia, it is noted that all three perform poorly in this dimension and a great deal remains to be done in all systems to make improvements. All three systems must contend with excessive government involvement in the setting of course content and the organisation of academic affairs, which needs to be addressed. The lack of an independent quality assurance body in Ukraine is a specific issue in Ukraine that demands attention, as is the fact that courses given in foreign languages may not be publicly funded.

Summary: ATHENA country comparison

Organisational autonomy		Financial autonomy	
Armenia	47%	Armenia	66%
Ukraine	44%	Moldova	49%
Moldova	42%	Ukraine	46%
Staffing autonomy		Academic autonomy	
Armenia	93%	Moldova	51%
Ukraine	80%	Ukraine	51%
Moldova	59%	Armenia	38%

When the comparisons between the ATHENA countries are taken together, Ukraine performance is mixed. However, this should not mask the facts that, firstly, in organisational, financial and academic autonomy all three systems receive low scores, and secondly, the adverse funding conditions mean that in reality, universities cannot benefit in practice from the degree of autonomy that they have in theory.

For **organisational autonomy**, Ukraine ranks near the bottom of the ‘medium low’ cluster of systems, in the 41% to 60% range. This represents the fact that there are a number of areas in which organisation autonomy is limited, such as the fact that the process for the selection of rectors is dictated by law and the candidate requires government approval. There is also lack of external input on university’s governing bodies. In general it is observed that all universities should be given the same level of autonomy as currently given to TSNUK, for example by giving all universities the right to establish their own legal entities and removing guidelines on academic structures. Moreover, in some respects there seems to be a difference between the law and the actual practice when it comes to the involvement of the Ministry. For instance, although formally the term of office of a rector is regulated by law, the Ministry seems to be able to unilaterally override this.

Ukraine ranks below Moldova and Ukraine with respect to **financial autonomy**, given the restrictions that are in place across the board. Significant reform is required to improve this ranking. The draft law offers an opportunity to achieve this, by giving universities the ability to borrow money on the financial markets, keep a surplus and by modernising public funding modalities. However, as in Moldova and Armenia, the overall level of public investment in higher education, is low in comparison to the European average. There, both public and authorities and universities should go even further by exploring innovative ways of diversifying and increasing university funding streams.

The three ATHENA partner countries rank more highly in **staffing autonomy** than in the other three dimensions, with Ukraine ranking between Armenia and Moldova. This is principally down to the fact that Ukrainian university staff does not have civil servant status and thus they are free to apply their own human resources practices. However, there are still numerous ways in which the level of staffing autonomy could be improved, namely by removing the requirement for government approval of appointments from all posts and facilitating the recruitment of foreign academics. Moreover, it should be noted that, like all ATHENA partner countries, the relatively low level of organisational autonomy also has an impact on the level of staffing autonomy, because the governing bodies who take recruitment decisions are themselves influenced by public authorities.

While Ukraine's ranking for **academic autonomy** is on a level with Moldova and marginally above Armenia, it is noted that all three perform poorly in this dimension and a great deal remains to be done in all systems to make improvements. All three systems must contend with excessive government involvement in the setting of course content and the organisation of academic affairs, which needs to be addressed. The lack of an independent quality assurance body in Ukraine is a specific issue in Ukraine that demands attention, as is the fact that courses given in foreign languages may not be publicly funded.

Part Two: Legislative changes

The Ukrainian higher education legislative framework underwent significant reforms in 2014, which had some impact on university autonomy. Having previously commented on an unofficial translation of the draft law, EUA was able to review the official translation of the final law provided by the Ministry in early 2015. What follows in this section is an analysis of how the final version of the law has changed the state of university autonomy in Ukraine most notably in relation to the elements that can be measured by the autonomy scorecard methodology with a view to establish new scores where relevant. Furthermore general observations on the new law are included which have a potential impact on university autonomy, but might not be measurable with the scorecard methodology. They thus do not influence the scoring, but are still considered very relevant. In this regard it is also important to note that at present many elements of the new law are yet to be implemented and the below standing analysis is just based on the pure legal changes. For the effective autonomy of Ukrainian universities the implementation is however of major importance.

Organisational autonomy

Overall, the new law continues to include a high level of detail, notably with regard to organisational matters (e.g. details about selection procedure and criteria for rector and heads of departments, type, exact tasks and election procedures for Academic Council). Certain elements could be laid out in the university statutes instead of in primary law. In absolute terms this limits universities margin for maneuver. However, it appears to be a rather typical feature for systems in transition, notably those with a previously very centrally steered higher education sector, as a way to ensure the establishment of transparent procedures and create a level playing field for all actors.

The new law introduces a fixed term of office for the rector (art. 42) and also prescribes the maximum number of terms, while previously only the maximum length was prescribed. According to the new law a rector is elected for 5 years and can stay in office for maximum two terms. Based on the scorecard methodology this represents a further restriction of organisational autonomy which negatively impacts the score. However, in the specific context of the Ukrainian system, this might be an appropriate transition measure to ensure transparency and equal opportunities for rectors' candidates. The new rector enters in a contract with the Ministry, which cannot refuse the outcomes of the election.

The provisions on the newly established Supervisory Board leave it up to the universities to define the procedure for its set-up, competences, term of office and working procedures in their own statutes which is a positive development.

Furthermore it appears that now all higher education institutions have the right to create legal entities, both non-for profit and for profit as well as the possibility to participate in the establishment of other structures such as science parks. This was a right that previously was only granted to TSNUK, but has now been streamlined for the whole sector which is a very positive change increasing organizational autonomy and opening up new opportunities for universities.

New scoring

From the above mentioned legal changes only the provisions with regard to the approval of the rector and his/her term of office as well as the ability to create legal entities can be measured by the Autonomy Scorecard and have a direct impact on the scoring. While it is positive that the Ministry cannot interfere in the rector's elections anymore and that universities obtained the right to create legal entities, the impact of the prescribed term of office of the rector on the score is slightly negative. Overall the score increases from 44% to 68% lifting Ukraine up from the medium-low to the medium-high cluster.

Financial autonomy

The new law offers some additional margin for manoeuvre for universities to generate and manage income raised from third parties; otherwise there seems to be little evolution from the current legislation.

EUA previously understood that universities were free to set tuition fees for non-state-funded students. Under the new law, the involvement of the government (through a central agency) focuses on defining the cost components of the formula, but the decision on the fee level rests with the universities. There are also strict rules regarding the type of other paid-for services universities can charge to their students and the amount institutions may charge for them.

Although this is a restriction of institutional autonomy in international comparison, it can be perceived as a necessary transitional step to fight corruption and make the system more transparent, while still preserving the autonomy of institutions to determine the actual fee level.

The law makes one positive step by 'transfer[ring] operational management or grant ownership' of infrastructure to universities (art. 70). However, it should be noted that the latter option of granting ownership is preferable to the former, which does not seem to differ greatly from the status ex ante. Moreover, universities are still prevented from selling property that they own.

New scoring

Although the procedure for setting tuition fees changes with the new law, the restriction remains similar as now the universities can fix the level, but the central agency prescribes the components. Therefore the scoring as such does not change as this type of development cannot be measured with the scorecard methodology.

Staffing autonomy

While recruitment and dismissal of university employees is clearly a responsibility of the university leadership, the law continues to include various related provisions for the top executives at the different levels of the institutions. A positive evolution would be for these elements to be incorporated in the university statutes, removing the high level of detail regarding internal staffing structures out of primary legislation (notably arts. 55-58). It also appears that promotion possibilities are still heavily constrained. Similarly, the law contains many details regarding the pay increments (art. 59). However this is nothing that can be measured with the scorecard and therefore the new provisions with regard to staffing do not have any impact on the previous scoring.

Academic autonomy

There still seems to be a high level of state involvement in the selection of students, with the detailed modalities for the selection process provided in the law (art. 44).

Also with regard to the setting of student numbers EUA understands that the Ministry continues to decide on state-funded places, but the law offers a number of minimal guarantees to institutions as the minimum and distribution modalities of these state-funded places. The license that an institution needs to have to operate also includes the maximum number of students allowed per level and specialty (valid for 10 years).

One of the main evolutions in the field of academic autonomy appears to be the setting up of an independent National Agency for Higher Education Quality Assurance which once established will be in charge of accreditation and external quality assurance previously undertaken by the Ministry. As the existence of an independent QA agency is not captured through the scorecard methodology, this does not affect the scoring, but should be considered a very positive step towards less state involvement. Universities wishing to deliver state-diploma will have to be accredited by this agency, meaning they cannot freely choose the external quality assurance agency and thus this does not affect the scoring.

There were also changes with regard to the language of instruction. Previously universities were free to offer courses in foreign languages, but would not receive public funding for this. The new law adds to this the obligation for institutions to ensure that the students taking such courses also know the course content in Ukrainian (art. 48, 2.) and that foreign students learn Ukrainian which seems more restrictive than previously and has a slight negative impact on the previous scoring.

A very positive development is the removal of obligatory course content. The new law provides universities with greater freedom to design their curricula. This change positively impacts on the previous scoring.

New scoring:

Overall the scoring moves up from 51% to 57%, but Ukraine remains in the medium-low cluster with regard to academic autonomy.

This short analysis of the recent legal changes shows that many things are still to be clarified and several challenges still remain as the way the new provisions are implemented is crucial. The emphasis should therefore be on putting many of the new positive elements into practice (e.g. establishment of an independent QA agency).

Overview of changes from old to new law

Dimension	Previous law (2013 analysis)	New law (in force as of 9/2014)
Organisational autonomy	44%	68%
Financial autonomy	46%	46%
Staffing autonomy	80%	80%
Academic autonomy	51%	57%

Part Three: ATHENA Policy Action Plan

Priority challenges and actions

In addition to the individual challenges facing Ukraine under each dimension of university autonomy, there are overarching challenges that need to be confronted that have been identified by the national policy taskforce.

A main cross-cutting issue identified by all partners in the context of the new regulatory framework is that of implementation. The university sector faces uncertainty, notably in the interpretation of the new legal documents; it is crucial that the new legislative framework is translated into practice in a way that gives universities more autonomy, rather than remaining autonomy in principle. The sector also faces a cultural change in addition to an overall reform of higher education, which it needs time and resources to adapt to. In this context, the ATHENA project work, and notably the present Policy Roadmap and associated toolkits on governance, financial management and human resources management, provide guidance for the development of the secondary legislation needed to ensure the implementation of the new framework.

Alongside the challenge of implementation of the regulatory framework, which the national policy taskforce agreed EUA strongly recommends to focus on the question of human resources development should be also taken up in priority. The ATHENA project shows that strategic people management is essential to organisational success, in particular in a context of enhanced autonomy, and that therefore it is necessary to invest in support structures and processes.

Methodology

In the following tables, the challenges identified by EUA and by the different members of the National Policy Taskforce (“NPT” – all ATHENA partner institutions including the National Rectors’ Conference) are presented under the headings of each dimension of university autonomy, complemented by cross-cutting challenges. Wherever possible **the challenges have been prioritised on a scale of a 1 (top priority) to 3 (lower priority) on the basis of feedback from Ukrainian university partners**. Partners were also asked to assess the feasibility and timescale required for the suggested actions. Due to the rapid changes and the politically very challenging situation in the country the partners found it very difficult to establish a concrete timeline as well as to agree on priority and feasibility levels for all actions. Wherever a consolidated view could not be established, the fields are left blank or a range is indicated (e.g. 1-2) and where available the partners’. In addition the Ministry’s view is indicated in a separate column where available.

This roadmap proposes in its last section a list of priorities and plan for the next steps to be taken in the reform process from the point of view of EUA.

Organisational autonomy

Action plan

Organisational autonomy							
Challenge	Priority level	System-level			Institution-level		
		Action proposed	Feasibility level	Timeframe	Action proposed	Feasibility level	Timeframe
<i>Structure of governing bodies</i>	1-2	Facilitate and encourage wide range of external participants in governing bodies, including more representatives of civil society and business	2-3	2017	Change practices surrounding selection of external senate members to identify best candidates		
		Give external members voting rights on governing bodies	1	2017	Make relevant changes in the statutes to implement this		
					Implement an appropriate induction of external members to their tasks and specificities of university environment		
		<i>Other suggested actions</i>					
<i>Inability to establish own legal entities</i>	1	Give universities the freedom to establish and manage their own legal entities	1	Done in new law 2014	Explore commercial and research possibilities for expanding activities	1	Short term
		<i>Other suggested actions</i>					

Organisational autonomy								
Challenge	Priority level	System-level			Institution-level			Ministry comments
		Action proposed	Feasibility level	Timeframe	Action proposed	Feasibility level	Timeframe	
<i>Excessive influence of state in selection of rector</i>	2-3	Transfer authority over selection process and criteria to universities	1	Short term	Develop a transparent selection process and criteria for the selection of rectors in the university statutes	1-2	Short to medium term	Could be feasible for selection criteria in the long term
		Remove requirement for government approval of successful candidate from the law	2-3	Long term				Maximum length should remain in the law
		Remove mandatory term of office from the law	2-3	Long term				
		<u>Other suggested actions</u>						
<i>Lack of institutional equality</i>	1-2	Give universities the same level of autonomy in primary legislation			Develop strategic planning to maximize the possible benefit from equal status	1	Short term	
		<u>Other suggested actions</u>						
<u>Other suggested challenges</u>								

Financial Autonomy

Action plan

Financial autonomy								
Challenge	Priority level	System-level			Institution-level			Ministry comments
		Action proposed	Feasibility level	Timeframe	Action proposed	Feasibility level	Timeframe	
Inadequate funding modalities	1	Replace line-item budgets with block grants	2-3	Short term	Develop financial planning and budgeting strategy to accommodate this additional freedom, as well as principles, formulae and sums available for internal allocation	1-2	Short to medium term (2-3 years)	Not possible in short term due to a lack of quality monitoring system (output criteria) and problems with data collection
		Incorporate a small number of output-related criteria into the calculation of the block grant to incentivise performance	2-3	2016-2018	Get engaged in a dialogue on the selection of criteria to ensure fitness for purpose			
		<i>Other suggested actions</i>						
Setting tuition fees	1-2	Give universities more autonomy to set tuition fees, in particular for international students	1-2	Short term (1-2 years)	Undertake related financial planning		Short term (1-2 years)	
		<i>Other suggested actions</i>						

Unbalanced income sources for universities and low level of income from other sources	2	Introduce tax incentives to encourage business investment			Draft guidelines for diversifying university income streams			
		Provide incentives to institutions to attract income from other sources (for example indicator in block grant)	2-3	2016-2018	Recruit or train staff to develop capacities for this	1	Short term (1-2 years)	
		Support staff development to increase capacity for fundraising	1	Short term (1-2 years)				
		<i>Other suggested actions</i>						
Lack of comprehensive financial management services at universities	1-2	Allocate targeted funding to develop more sophisticated financial management functions		Short term (1-2 years)	Develop transition plan to establish this function with funding		Short term (1-2 years)	
		<i>Other suggested actions</i>						
<i>Restricted ability of universities to manage their own assets and financial affairs</i>	2	Transfer ownership of all property	2-3	Long term	Recruit or train staff to develop capacities for this	1-2	Short term (1-2 years)	Difficult due to corruption problems
		Give universities full control over renting and selling property and let universities	2-3	Long term				

	keep income they get from renting							
	Provide funding for staff development in facility management	2-3	Long term					High risk of corruption; feasibility mainly depends on transparency within HEIs and powers of HEI supervisory body
	<i>Other suggested actions</i>							
<i>Other challenges</i>								

Staffing Autonomy

Action plan

Staffing autonomy							
Challenge	Priority level	System-level			Institution-level		
		Action proposed	Feasibility level	Timeframe	Action proposed	Feasibility level	Timeframe
Difficulty in attracting high quality foreign academics	1-2	Remove barriers to recruiting foreign academics in legislation		Done in new law in 2014 and legislative base in 2015	Extend search for talented academics beyond national borders		
		<i>Other suggested actions</i>					
Modernise Human Resources practices		Allocate targeted funding to develop Human Resources skills across university sector			Develop clear career development paths for university staff		
					Draft tailored salary and promotion processes to incentivize staff development		
		<i>Other suggested actions</i>					

Efficient and forward-thinking Human Resources practices restricted by legislation	1-2	Remove stipulations over bonuses and salary adjustments from the law	2	2015	Draft internal guidelines for calculation of bonuses and salary adjustments		2015	Stipulations could be limited to minimum salary
		Remove excessive detail relating to HR structures from primary law	2	2015	Develop own internal Human Resources structures and processes	1-2	2015	Not feasible in the short term due to high number of labor rights' violations
		<i>Other suggested actions</i>						
Government involvement in recruitment		Remove the requirement for government approval of any post	2-3	Long term	Develop authorization processes to replace government approval	1	2015-2016	
		<i>Other suggested actions</i>						
<i>Other challenges</i>								

Academic Autonomy

Action plan

Academic autonomy								
Challenge	Priority level	System-level			Institution-level			Ministry comments
		Action proposed	Feasibility level	Timeframe	Action proposed	Feasibility level	Timeframe	
Excessive government influence and control over academic affairs	1-2	Remove the obligation to include certain mandatory study content in curricula and pass complete control to universities	1	Done with new law in 2014	Plan for transfer of increased responsibility over academic course planning	1-2	2015-2016	
		Give universities full control over student selection			Plan autonomous student selection processes			Not feasible
		Remove restrictions on introducing new study programmes			Plan study programmes independently			
		<i>Other suggested actions</i>						
<i>Other challenges</i>								

Cross-cutting challenges

Action plan

Cross-cutting							
Challenge	Priority level	System-level			Institution-level		
		Action proposed	Feasibility level	Timeframe	Action proposed	Feasibility level	Timeframe
Critically low level of public funding for higher education	1	Develop a long term plan for investment in higher education			Engage in diversification activities		
		<i>Other suggested actions</i>					
Lack of sufficient funding for research for universities	1	Set up specific funding schemes to develop research activities at universities	2-3	2017-2018	Further develop research capacity and demonstrate value		
		<i>Other suggested actions</i>					
Significant disparity between legislative autonomy and autonomy in practice	1	Set up evaluation of reform processes with independent international participation			Reform internal regulations and processes that hinder the use of autonomy in practice		
		<i>Other suggested actions</i>					

Lack of long term strategic planning both at system and institutional level	1	Develop and engage in a dialogue with the stakeholders on a long term strategy for the development of the Higher Education system		Done in 2014-2015	Engage in a dialogue with the ministry on a long term strategy for the development of the Higher Education system		
		Implement ATHENA project recommendations			Implement ATHENA project recommendations		
		<i>Other suggested actions</i>					
Weak position of Ukrainian National Rectors' Conference as a stakeholder in the higher education sector	2	Include NRC status and areas of activities in law			Involve all members in activities and engage into visible activities		
		<i>Other suggested actions</i>					
Lack of structured dialogue between the Ministry and the wider HE sector	2	Open wide-reaching policy discussions with representatives from across the HE sector, including the NRC			Play an active role in dialogue with the Ministry		
<i>Other challenges</i>							

Recommendations for the reform process

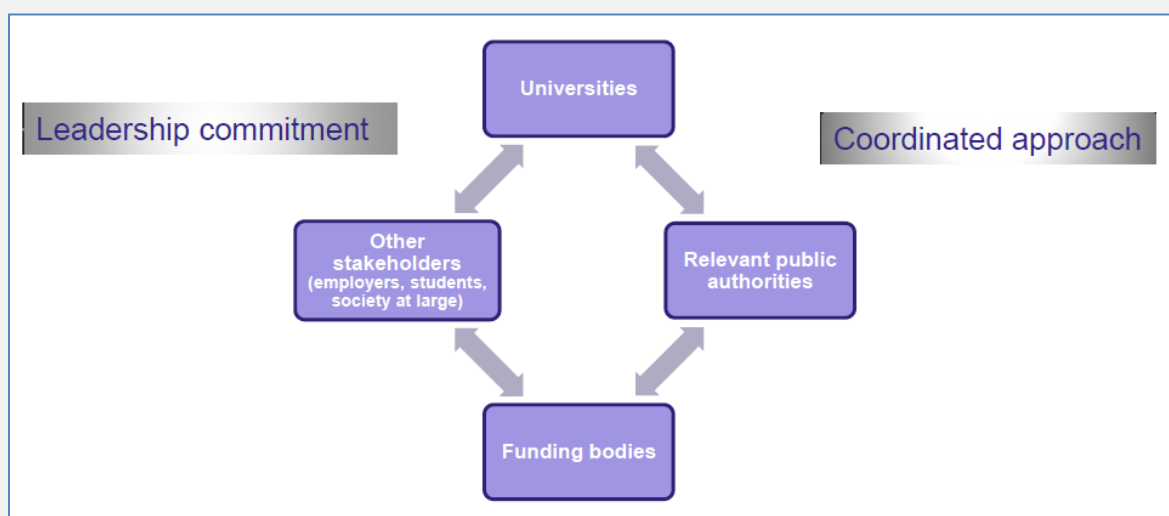
Based on the priorities identified in the previous sections, this final section aims to provide concrete steps to be taken by the project partners in order to stimulate reform in the Ukrainian higher education system.

- The first part of this section presents actions that should be seen as pre-requisites for the reform process. These are actions that revolve around building mutual trust and establishing an atmosphere of cooperation in order to ensure that all stakeholders are committed to the process.
- The second part identifies key steps EUA believes require particular attention both at system as well as at institutional levels in order to improve and develop university autonomy. EUA has a wealth of experience in advising public authorities and universities on higher education governance reform, so the advice given here draws on this. In addition, it responds to the specific needs of Ukrainian stakeholders as identified through the DEFINE project policy analysis.

I. Pre-requisites for the process

Through the policy analysis and development phases of the ATHENA project, it has become clear that certain steps are necessary to create the conditions necessary for supporting an effective and comprehensive reform agenda.

- Establishing a climate of mutual trust and regular dialogue and consultation to ensure that decisions meet the requirements of all stakeholders
- Ensuring that there is transparency in policy discussions
- Drawing up a plan with clear steps to be taken and a timeframe for this process



II. EUA recommendations: actions and objectives

a) **Actions and objectives on a system-wide level**

The following actions are proposed by EUA as primary objectives to support the reform programme:

- 1) Streamline and simplify rules and procedures for universities:
 - a) A single legal status and legal code to govern higher education institutions
 - b) Less bureaucratic and restrictive procurement processes
- 2) Update the modalities through which public funding is dispensed:
 - a) Remove line-item budgets
 - b) Introduce a modern cost weighting system using some output criteria (e.g. degree completion)
- 3) Raise the level of public investment in higher education, particularly in research activities
- 4) Give universities more freedom to set tuition fees for fee-paying students, in particular international students (combine with appropriate student support system)
- 5) Delegate control of HR structures and processes to universities
- 6) Ownership of buildings and renting without permission (let universities keep surplus).
- 7) Create incentives to stimulate diversification of income sources and create a higher education policy climate in which businesses are welcomed as investors and partners
- 8) Remove government oversight of student selection process
- 9) Give universities the freedom to decide on the language of tuition and dropping mandatory course content
- 10) Provide support to institutional human resource development through specific funding
- 11) Evaluate the agreed reform plans with the inclusion of independent international experts

b) **Actions and objectives at an institutional level**

Work is also required at institutional level to help ensure that universities themselves can benefit from future reforms. This is supported by the ATHENA project Training Seminars on financial management, governance reforms and human resources development. Best practices and practical recommendations for each of these topics are gathered into thematic ATHENA toolkits.

- 1) Develop and build institutional capacity and human resources:
 - a) Introduce a more strategic approach to university management
 - b) Build leadership and managerial skills, including middle management level
 - c) Develop the finance function to address also strategic aspects of financial planning
 - d) Create better defined career paths with a focus on fostering young talent
 - e) Develop a long term succession planning and create an environment to encourage young staff to get involved in management and governance
- 2) Adopt full costing as a principle for financial planning
- 3) Simpler procurement procedures
- 4) Improve internal allocation models
- 5) Balance centralisation with decentralisation
- 6) Develop a network at different levels with other institutions to exchange expertise and implement agreed actions from ATHENA

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Autonomy Scorecard (2009-2012): <http://www.university-autonomy.eu/>

EUDIS – European Universities Diversifying Income Streams (2008-2011): <http://www.eua.be/activities-services/projects/past-projects/governance-autonomy-and-funding/eudis.aspx>

ATHENA partners

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- Donetsk National University
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- Odessa National University
- The National Rectors' Council of Ukraine
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